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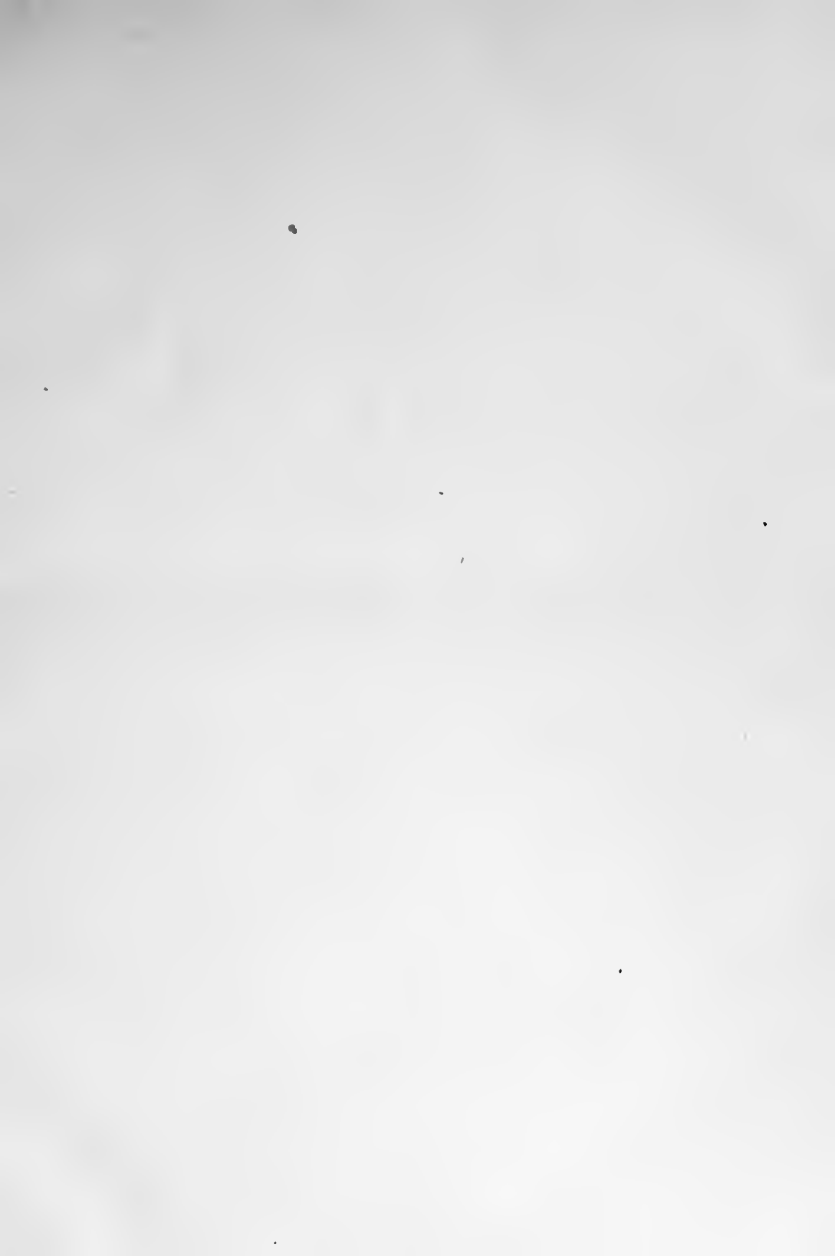
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A NEW
SYSTEM
OF
MODERN GEOGRAPHY:
OR
A Geographical, Historical, and Commercial Grammar;
AND
PRESENT STATE
OF THE
SEVERAL NATIONS OF THE WORLD.

CONTAINING,

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

I. A Geographical Index,

WITH THE NAMES AND PLACES ALPHABETICALLY ARRANGED.

II. A Table of the Coins of all Nations,

AND THEIR VALUE IN DOLLARS AND CENTS.

III. A Chronological Table of remarkable Events,

FROM THE CREATION TO THE PRESENT TIME.

IV. The late Discoveries of Herfchell, and other Astronomers.

By **WILLIAM GUTHRIE, Esq.**

THE ASTRONOMICAL PARTS CORRECTED BY DR. RITTENHOUSE.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOLUME II.

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

PHILADELPHIA:
PRINTED FOR MATHEW CAREY.

APRIL 27, M.DCC.XCV.



P R E F A C E.

THE editor can now congratulate his readers and himself, on having brought this work to a conclusion. He expected to have done so, at a much more early date. Unforeseen difficulties arose to prevent the accomplishment of his design*. The best apology for this delay, is to point out some of the principal improvements that it was found requisite to make to the original publication, and which have principally occasioned the tardiness of the editor in fulfilling his engagements.

In the article of *Poland*, besides numerous corrections in point of style, and the omission, or emendation of many exceptionable passages, the history of the establishment of the new constitution in 1791, and its subsequent overthrow, have been newly written for the present edition. The essay on Greek literature, in the succeeding article, has also been added, and another, on a similar subject, under the head of *Turkey in Asia*. With respect to the internal administration of the Ottoman empire, and the domestic manners of its people, some interesting details have been borrowed from Baron de Tott, and M. de Peyssonnet. The article of *Tartary in Asia* will also be found considerably improved. To that of China large additions have been subjoined, and in particular, besides other heads, under those of *population* and *literature*. *India within the Ganges* has, among other additions, an article extending to twelve pages, on the administration of the British East-India Company. The history, under the same head, being eight pages, is, a few paragraphs excepted, entirely new. To *the states of Barbary* there has been added a new article on their history. The United States of America occupy from p. 243, to p. 580, inclusive in the present volume. It was noticed, in the preface to vol. I. that the account given by Gutirie was altogether trifling. It has been entirely laid aside. Under this head, though the editor has exerted himself to the utmost for obtaining authentic materials, he is sensible that his account is at a very great distance from perfect accuracy. The rev. Jedidiah Morse, author of the Universal Geography, has furnished the principal part of it. To render it as complete as possible, application has been made to gentlemen residing in different states; and to their assistance the work is indebted for many interesting particulars that have not hitherto been published.

From the multiplicity of subjects that are to be examined, and the multiplicity of opinions that arise upon every subject, it becomes a task of the greatest delicacy to

* One reason for the delay has been, that the work has extended to fifty-six numbers, instead of forty-eight, which were originally proposed. The eight extra numbers have been delivered gratis to the subscribers, agreeably to engagement.

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produce a tolerable description of the actual state of any country. But the difficulty of such an attempt is much greater with respect to the United States of America than perhaps any other country in the world. The scene is constantly shifting. Alterations in the appearance and condition of many parts of the union succeed each other so rapidly, that what was true, at the time of writing an article, may be erroneous before it can be printed.

The account of *France* is given at the close of this work. Under that head, the reasons are assigned for placing it there. About four-fifths of the whole have been composed for the present edition. The reader will find the history of the republic continued down to the surrender of Amsterdam.

Under these circumstances, the editor of this work can only say, that he has done whatever lay in his power to make the catalogue of his errors as scanty as possible; that, when compared with performances of the same kind, he has reason to believe it will not be found remarkably defective*; and, if he does not every where satisfy the wishes of the reader, he may be suffered to plead, in the language of a celebrated ancient, that at least he failed in an arduous undertaking.

Philadelphia, April 27, 1795.

* Whatever may be its defects, they have not arisen from want of exertion, or a desire to avoid expense. The disbursements for editorship alone have exceeded one thousand dollars—and for maps five thousand.

POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees.
 Length 700 { between { 16 and 34 east longitude.
 Greatest Breadth 680 { 46 and 57 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BEFORE the partition of this country, in 1771, Poland with the great dutchy of Lithuania annexed, was bounded on the north by Livonia, Muscovy; and the Baltic sea; on the east, by Muscovy; on the south, by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary; on the west, by Germany: and, had the form of its government been as perfect as its situation was compact, it might have been one of the most powerful kingdoms in Europe. Its grand divisions were,

POLAND.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Protestants.	Courland, sub- ject to Russia,	4,414	174	80	Mittaw
	Lithuania,	64,800	333	310	Wilna { Great part of this district is now possessed by Russia.
	Podolia,	29,000	360	120	Kaminieck
	Volhinia,	25,000	305	150	Lucko
	Great Poland,	19,200	208	180	Gnesna
	Red Russia,	25,200	232	185	Lemburg { Now chiefly subject to Austria.
	Little Poland.	18,000	230	130	Cracow
Roman Catho- lics.	Polesia,	14,000	186	97	Bressici
	Masovia,	8,400	152	90	WARSAW { E. lon. 21. 5. N. lat. 52-15.
	Samogitia,	8,000	155	98	Rasiem
	Prussia Royal, or				Elbing { Now subject to Prussia.
	Polish Prussia,	6,400	118	104	
	Polachia,	4,000	133	42	Bielh
Total,—		226,414			

Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, in Prussia Royal, were styled free cities, and were under the protection of Poland; the two last had been seized by the late king of Prussia, and the first has, about twelve months ago, been formally seized by his successor.

NAME.] Poland is said to take its name from Polu, or Pole, a Slavonian word, which signifies a country fit for hunting, for which none was formerly more proper than Poland, on account of its plains, woods, and game of every kind.

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland, in the northern parts, is cold, but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which separate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlasting snow. This has been known to fall in the midst of summer. The climate is temperate, but the air is rather infalubrious, on account of the numerous woods and morasses.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND WATERS.] The country is level, and the soil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vast quantities that are sent down the Vistula, to Dantzic. The pastures of Poland, especially in Podolia, are extremely rich. Here are mines of silver, copper, iron, salt, and coals. Lithuania abounds in iron ochre, black agate, several species of copper and iron pyrites, red and grey granite, and marine petrific-

tions. The interior parts of Poland contain forests which furnish timber in great quantities; so that it is employed for house building, instead of bricks, stone, and tiles. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and some grapes, are produced in Poland, but their wine seldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clay, fit for pipes and earthen ware. The water of many springs is boiled into salt. A spring, in the Palatinate of Cracow, increases and decreases with the moon, and its virtues, for the preservation of life, are said to be wonderful. This spring is inflammable, and by applying a torch to it, blazes like spirit of wine. The flame, however, dances on the surface without heating the water.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of Poland are, the Vistula or Weyzel, the Neister, Neiper, or Boristhenes, the Bog, and Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the lakes contained in Poland, are Gopto, in the palatinate of Byzety; and Birals, or the White Lake.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL } Some are peculiar to Poland; and particularly a kind
PRODUCTIONS. } of manna, if that can be called a vegetable, which, in
May and June, the inhabitants sweep into sieves with the dew. It serves for food, dressed various ways. Yellow amber is frequently dug up in Lithuania, in pieces as large as a man's fist, and is supposed to be the production of a resinous pine.

The forests of Warsovia, or Masovia, contain plenty of buffaloes. Horses, wolves, boars, the glutton, lynx, elks and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Polish forests; and there is a species of wild horses and asses, and wild oxen. A kind of wolf resembling a hart, with spots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the best furs in the country. The flesh of the Polish elk forms the most delicious part of their greatest feasts. His body in shape resembles that of a deer, but it is much thicker and longer; the legs are high, the feet broad and cloven, the horns large, rough and broad, like those of a wild goat. Upon dissecting an elk, there were found in its head some large flies, which had almost eaten away its brains. In the large woods of the North of Europe, this animal is sometimes attacked by a large sort of flies, that lodge in its ears, and as in the instance above mentioned, force their way into its head. This persecution affects the elk with the falling-sickness, by which means it has been easily taken.

Poland produces a creature, called the bohac, which resembles a guinea-pig, but seems to be of the beaver kind. It is noted for digging holes in the ground, which it enters in October, and does not come out, except occasionally for food, till April. They have each separate apartments for their provisions, their lodgings, and their dead; they live together by ten or twelve in a herd. We are told, that in Poland, the quails have green legs, and that their flesh is reckoned unwholesome. Lithuania has a great variety of birds, among those of prey, are the eagle and vulture. The *remiz*, or little species of titmouse, is frequently found in this country, and is remarkable for the wonderful structure of its pendent nest, formed in the shape of a long purse.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } Some authors have supposed Poland
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } and Lithuania to contain fourteen millions of inhabitants. The Jews are extremely numerous, though we cannot believe, what has been said, that they ever amounted to two millions. Since the first partition and dismemberment of the kingdom, the number of people in the remaining territory is only nine millions, of whom six hundred thousand are Jews. The provinces taken by Russia are the largest, those by the Austrians the most populous, and those by Prussia, the most commercial. The Russian contained one million five hundred thousand; the Austrian two million five hundred thousand; and the Prussian about eight hundred and sixty thousand, amounting in the whole to about five millions of souls separated from their ancient kingdom. This account refers to the partition of 1771.

As to that, which is at present going on, it is quite impossible to conjecture where the invaders will stop.

The Poles, in their persons, make a good appearance; their complexion is fair, and their bodies are well proportioned. They are brave, and hospitable. Their diversions are warlike and manly; such as vaulting, dancing, riding, hunting, skating, bull and bear baiting. They usually travel on horseback; a Polish gentleman will not go an hundred yards without his horse; and they are so hardy, that they will sleep upon the ground; without any bed or covering, in frost and snow. The Poles never lie above stairs, and their apartments are not united; the kitchen is on one side, the stable on another, the dwelling-house behind, and the gate in the front. They content themselves with a few small beds; and if any stranger lodges at their houses, he must carry his bedding with him. Such is the common account, but it must unquestionably admit of numerous exceptions. When the nobility sit down to dinner or supper, they have trumpets and other music playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table; for such nobles, as are poor, frequently find themselves under the necessity of serving the rich; but their patron usually treats them with civility, and permits the eldest to eat with him at his table, and every one of them has a boy to wait on him, who is maintained by the master of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks nor spoons, but every guest brings them with him. It is usual for a nobleman to give his servant part of his meat, which he eats as he stands behind him, and to let him drink out of the same cup with himself. Bumpers are much in fashion; nor will they easily excuse any person from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to describe the grandeur and equipages of the Polish nobility; and the reader may figure to himself an idea of all that is fastidious, ceremonious, expensive and showy in life. to have any conception of their way of living. It is not unusual to see the lady of a Polish grandee, besides a coach and six, with a great number of servants, attended by an old gentleman-usher, an old gentlewoman for her governante, and a dwarf of each sex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her coach is surrounded by a great number of flambeaux.

The Poles are divided into nobles, clergy, citizens, and peasants. The peasants are divided into two sorts, those of the crown, and those belonging to individuals. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference which arises from the public posts that they enjoy. Hence, all who are of noble birth, call one another *brothers*. They do not value titles of honour; but think a *gentleman of Poland* is the highest appellation that they can enjoy. The boasted Polish liberty is such to them alone. They have a power of life and death over their tenants and vassals, pay no taxes, may choose whom they will for their king, and lay him under what restraint they please by the *pańa conventa*; and none but they, and the burghers of some particular towns, can purchase lands. In short, they are almost entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well regulated state; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility. These privileges make the Polish gentry powerful; and many have large territories; and, as we have said, with a despotic power over their tenants, whom they call their subjects, and assign over with the land, cattle, and furniture. Until the reign of Casimir the Great, the lord could put his peasant to death with impunity, and when the latter had no children, considered himself as the heir, and seized all his effects. In 1347, Casimir prescribed a fine for the murder of a peasant, and enacted, that in case of his decease without children, his next heir should inherit. But these and other regulations, have proved ineffectual against the power and tyranny of the nobles, and have been either abrogated or eluded. Some nobles have estates from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are also hereditary sovereigns of cities, with which the

king has no concern. One of their nobles can raise eight or ten thousand men. The house of a nobleman is a secure asylum for persons who have committed any crime, for none must presume to take them from thence by force. They have their horse and foot guards, which are upon duty day and night before their palaces, and in their anti-chambers and march before them when they go abroad. They make an extraordinary figure when they come to the diet. Some have five thousand guards and attendants; and their debates in the senate are often determined by the sword. When great men have suits at law, the diet, or other tribunals decide them; yet the execution of the sentence must be left to the longest sword, for the justice of the kingdom is commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they raise five or six thousand men of a side, plunder the estates of each other, and besiege castles and forts; for they think it below them to submit to the sentence of judges, without a field battle. As to the peasants, they are born slaves, and have no notion of liberty. If one lord kills the peasant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peasant equal in value. A nobleman who is desirous of cultivating a piece of land, builds a little wooden house, in which he settles a peasant and his family, giving him a cow, two horses, a certain number of geese, hens, &c and as much corn as is sufficient to maintain him during the first year, and to improve for his own future subsistence, and the advantage of his lord.

The peasants having no property, all their acquisitions serve only to enrich their master. They are indispensably obliged to cultivate the earth. They are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might obtain them freedom, without the permission of their lords; and they are exposed to the dismal, and frequently fatal effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical masters, who oppress them with impunity; and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuse it in the most gross and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being exposed to the most brutal treatment. One blessing, however, attends the wretched situation of the Polish peasants, which is their insensibility. Born slaves, and accustomed from their infancy to hardships and severe labour, the generality of them scarcely entertain an idea of better circumstances and more liberty. They regard their masters as a superior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at their severe lot. Cheerful and contented with their condition, they are ready on every occasion to sacrifice themselves and their families for their masters. The manners and present state of the Poles, bear a great resemblance to those of Europe, in general, during the feudal ages.

Lately, indeed, a few nobles of enlightened understanding, have ventured to give liberty to their vassals. The first who granted this freedom, was Zamoiski, formerly great chancellor, who, in 1760, enfranchised six villages in the palatinate of Masovia, and others afterwards on all his estates. Upon signing the deed of enfranchisement of the six villages, their benevolent master intimated some apprehensions to the inhabitants, lest, encouraged by their freedom, they should fall into every species of licentiousness, and commit more disorders than when they were slaves. The simplicity and good sense of their answer is remarkable. "When we had no other property," returned they, "than the stick which we held in our hands, we were destitute of all encouragement to a right conduct; and, having nothing to lose, acted on all occasions in an inconsiderate manner; but as soon as our houses, our lands, and our cattle, are our own, the fear of forfeiting them will be a constant restraint upon our actions."

The sincerity of this answer was manifested by the event, which hath shown the project to be no less judicious than humane, friendly to the noble's own interests as well as the happiness of the peasants; for it appears, that in the districts where the new arrangements have been introduced, the population of the villages is considera-

bly increased, and the revenues of their estates augmented in a treble proportion*. Prince Stanislaus, nephew to the king of Poland, hath very lately enfranchised four villages near Warsaw, and hath not only emancipated his peasants from slavery, but condescends to direct their affairs.

The inns in this country are long stables built with boards and covered with straw, without furniture or windows; there is a chamber at one end, but no person can lodge there, because of flies and other vermin, so that strangers generally choose rather to lodge among the horses. Travellers are obliged to carry provisions with them; and when foreigners want a supply, they apply to the lord of the village, who immediately provides them with necessaries.

In this country are several persons with matted or clotted hair, which constitutes a disorder called *Plica Polonica*. It is not peculiar to Poland; but is to be met with in Hungary, Tartary, and several adjacent nations. According to the observation of Dr. Vicat, a Swiss physician, long resident in Poland, and who has published a treatise upon this subject, the *Plica Polonica* is supposed to proceed from an acrid humour penetrating into the hair, which is tubular. It then exudes either from its sides or extremities, and clots the whole together, either in separate folds, or in one undistinguished mass. Its symptoms, more or less violent, according to the constitution of the patient, or malignity of the disease, are itchings, swellings, eruptions, ulcers, intermitting fevers, pains in the head, languor, lowness of spirits, rheumatism, gout, and sometimes even convulsions, palsy and madness. These symptoms gradually decrease as the hair becomes affected. If the patient is shaved in the head, he relapses into all the dreadful complaints which preceded the eruption of the *Plica*; and he continues to labour under them, until a fresh growth of hair absorbs the acrid humour. This disorder is thought hereditary, and when in a virulent state, is proved to be contagious. Many physical causes have been supposed to concur in rendering the *Plica* more frequent in these regions than in any other parts. The *first* cause is the nature of the Polish air, which is rendered insalubrious by the numerous woods and morasses; and occasionally derives an uncommon keenness even in the midst of summer, from the position of the Carpathian mountains; for the southern and south-easterly winds, which usually convey warmth in other regions, are, in this chilled in the passage over their snowy summits. The *second* is unwholesome water; for although Poland is not deficient in good springs, yet the common people usually drink that which is nearest at hand. The *third* cause is, the gross inattention of the natives to cleanliness; for experience shows, that those who are not negligent in their persons and habitations, are less liable to be afflicted with the *Plica*, than others who are deficient in those particulars. All these causes, and particularly the last, assist its propagation, inflame its symptoms, and protract its cure.

The *Plica Polonica* seems to be a contagious distemper, which, like the leprosy, still prevails among a people ignorant in medicine, and inattentive to check its progress; but it is rarely known in those countries, where proper precautions are taken to prevent its spreading.

DRESS.] The Poles cut the hair of their heads short, or shave it, with only a circle of hair on the crown. They shave their beards, leaving only large whiskers. They

* The result of this humane experiment, offers a strong plea, for the abolition of personal slavery, in every part of the world. It is the great blot of the annals of all ages, that mankind have constantly been disposed to seize, by violence, what they might far more cheaply and certainly have obtained by justice. Had the rest of the nobles of Poland adopted the example of Zamoiski, that republic would, at this day, have been the terror, not the prey, of

her present oppressors. Slavery is a kind of political leprosy. If the Polish aristocracy had laid it aside, the consequences to themselves would have been of infinite advantage; and their generosity, by its happy effects, would have demonstrated that honesty is the best policy, and that virtue herself is nothing greater than the improvement and perfection of wisdom.

wear a vest which reaches down the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it, lined with fur and girded with a sash, but the sleeves fit as close to their arm as a waist-coat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their stockings. They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their shirts are without collar or wristbands, and they have neither stock nor neckcloth. Instead of shoes, they wear Turkey-leather boots, with thin soles, and deep iron heels bent like an half moon. The nobles carry a sabre by their sides. When they appear on horseback, they cast over all a short cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the higher class wear fables. Some of them have fifty suits of clothes, all as rich as possible, and which descend from father to son. Charles II. of England thought of introducing the Polish dress into his court; and after his restoration, wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of English broad cloth; but discontinued it through his connexions with the French.

The habit of the women consists of a long robe edged with fur; but some people of fashion, of both sexes, affect the French or English modes. As to the peasants, in winter they wear a sheep's skin with the wool inwards, and in summer a thick coarse cloth; but they wear no linen. Their boots are the rinds of trees, wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the soles of their feet.

RELIGION.] The number of Lutherans and Calvinists, in the republic of Poland, is very considerable; and these, joined to the Greek church, are called DISSIDENTS. The Polish nobility and the bulk of the nation, are strongly attached to the Roman catholic religion. The treaty of Oliva, concluded in 1660, tolerated the dissidents, and was guaranteed by the principal powers in Europe; but has since been so far disregarded by the Poles, that about the year 1724, they made a public massacre under the sanction of law, of the protestants at Thorn, for which no satisfaction ever was obtained. The monasteries in Poland are, by some writers, said to be five hundred and seventy six, and the nunneries one hundred and seventy-seven, besides two hundred and forty six seminaries or colleges, and thirty-one abbeys. The clergy possess a large proportion of the lands and revenues of the kingdom.

It was lately resolved between the republic and the partitioning powers, that all dissidents should henceforth enjoy the free exercise of their religion, but continue excluded from the diet, the senate and the permanent council. They are to have churches, but without bells; also schools and seminaries of their own, and are capable of sitting in the inferior courts of justice.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Poland contains two archbishoprics, Gnesna and Lemberg. The archbishop of Gnesna, besides being primate, and; during an interregnum, prince-regent of the kingdom, is always a cardinal. The other bishops, particularly of Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

LANGUAGE.] The Polish language is a dialect of the Slavonic, and is both harsh and unharmonious, on account of the vast number of consonants it employs, some of its words having no vowels at all. The Lithuanians and Livonians have a language full of corrupted Latin words; but the Russian and German tongues are understood in the provinces bordering on those countries. A translation of the bible into the Polish language was published in 1572; and two years after, the catechism, or confession of the unitarians, was published at Cracow.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Copernicus; the great restorer of the true astronomical system, Vorstius, and some other learned men, were natives of Poland; yet many circumstances in this country are far from being favourable to learning. Latin is spoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in some provinces. But the contempt which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever shown for learning, and the servitude of the lower people, have retarded the progress of letters in this kingdom. Of late, a taste for science hath spread it-

self among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accomplishment. The public library of Warsaw was founded in 1714. It contains two hundred thousand volumes.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Poland are those of Cracow and Wilna. The first consists of eleven colleges and has the superintendance of fourteen grammar-schools, dispersed through the city; the number of students, in 1778, amounted to six hundred. Wilna was under the superintendance of the jesuits, but since their suppression the present king hath established a committee of education, who appoint professors, and direct their salaries and studies.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The salt-mines of Poland consist of wonderful
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } caverns, several hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Out of these are dug four different kinds of salts; one extremely hard, like crystal; another softer, but clearer; a third, white, but brittle. These are all brackish, but the fourth is somewhat fresher. These four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow; on one side of them is a stream of salt-water; and, on the other, one of fresh. The revenue arising from these and other salt-mines, is very considerable, and formed part of the royal revenue before the mines were seized by Austria. The annual average profit of those of Wiclitzka, eight miles from Cracow, was about four hundred and twenty thousand dollars. Out of some mines at Itza, about seventy miles north east of Cracow, are dug several kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potter's use, and supply all Poland with earthen ware. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the deserts of Podolia, are several grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preserved, tho' buried a vast number of years since, being neither so hard nor so black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits that they used to wear. It is thought that this preserving quality is owing to the nature of the soil, which is dry and sandy. Poland can boast of few antiquities.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER. } Warsaw lies on the Vistula, and almost
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } in the centre of Poland. It is the royal residence and contains many magnificent palaces and other buildings, besides churches and convents. It is said to have near seventy thousand inhabitants, but a great number are foreigners. The streets are spacious, but ill paved, and the greatest part of the houses, particularly the suburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city like every part of this unhappy country, exhibits a strong contrast of wealth and poverty. It has little or no commerce. The same may be said of Cracow, the ancient capital; for, we are told, that though it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich salt mines and is said to contain fifty churches and convents, its commerce is inconsiderable. Cracow stands in an extensive plain watered by the Vistula, and, with the suburbs, occupies a vast space of ground, but all together scarcely contain sixteen thousand souls. The great square in the middle of the town is very spacious; and has several well built houses, once richly furnished and well inhabited, but most of them now untenanted, or in a state of melancholy decay. Many of the streets are broad and handsome; but almost every building bears the most striking marks of ruined grandeur. During the commotions that preceded the partition of 1771, the town was alternately in possession of the Russians and confederates. The marks of cannon, grape, and musket shot, are still visible on the walls and houses. It is surrounded with high brick walls, strengthened with round and square towers in the ancient style of fortification, and is garrisoned by Russians. Grodno, though not the capital, is the principal town in Lithuania, containing ruined palaces, falling houses, and wretched hovels, with about seven thousand inhabitants; one thousand of whom are Jews, and three thousand are employed in new manufactures, of cloths, camblets, linen, cotton, silk, stuffs, &c. established there by the king in 1776. He has also established, in this place, an academy of physic for Lithuania, in which ten students are in-

fructed in physic, and twenty in surgery; all taught and maintained at his own expense.

Dantzic is the capital of Polish Prussia and is famous in history on many accounts, particularly that of its being formerly at the head of the Hanseatic association, commonly called the Hanse-towns. It is situated on the Vistula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large beautiful, populous city; its houses generally are five stories high; and many of its streets are planted with chestnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is still an eminent commercial city. It is a republic, claiming a small adjacent territory about forty miles round it, and was under the protection of the king and the republic of Poland. Its magistracy and the majority of the inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Catholics and Calvinists are equally tolerated in it. It is rich and has twenty six parishes, with many convents and hospitals. Dr. Busching tells us, that in the year 1752, there died in Dantzic, but one thousand eight hundred and forty-six persons. This number corresponds with a population of fifty or sixty thousand people. Its own shipping is numerous; but the foreign ships, constantly resorting to it are more so. Of these one thousand and fourteen arrived there in the year 1752; in that year also one thousand two hundred and eighty-eight Polish vessels came down the Vistula, chiefly laden with corn, for its granaries; from whence grain is distributed to many foreign nations. Poland is deemed the greatest magazine of corn in Europe and Dantzic is the chief port for its exportation. Dantzic exports great quantities of naval stores, and a vast variety of other articles. Busching affirms, that so early as the year 997, Dantzic was a large commercial city. The citizens have sometimes been under the protection of the English and Dutch; but were chiefly attached to the republic of Poland. Though fortified and possessed of one hundred and fifty large brass cannon, Dantzic could not stand a regular siege, being surrounded with eminences.

Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, enjoy privileges, both civil and religious, superior to those of the rest of Poland, because when they rejected the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, and put themselves under the protection of Poland, they reserved to themselves ample privileges.

Dantzic and Thorn were exempted, by the late king of Prussia, from those claims which he made on the neighbouring countries; but soon after he seized on the territories belonging to Dantzic, as having formerly been part of Polish Prussia. He, then possessed himself of the port-duties, and erected a custom-house in the harbour where he laid arbitrary and insupportable duties upon goods exported and imported. To complete the system of oppression, custom houses were erected at the very gates of Dantzic, so that no persons could go in or out of the town, without being searched in the strictest manner. Such is the treatment which the city of Dantzic has received, though few cities have ever existed, which have been comprehended in so many general and particular treaties, and whose rights and liberties have been so frequently secured and guaranteed by so many great powers, and by such a long regular succession of public acts, as those of Dantzic have been. In the year 1784, the city was blockaded by the Prussians on various pretences. By the interposition of the empress of Russia, and of the king of Poland, they were withdrawn, and a negotiation carried on by deputies at Warsaw; which was concluded on the 7th of September, by which, as acceded to by the citizens, the trade of the city was to be restored to its former stability. The city of Thorn was treated by the late king of Prussia in the most unjust and oppressive manner, and was added to his dominions. Dantzic has also been seized by the present king, in the course of the year 1793, and by consent of the empress of Russia.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Some linen and woollen cloths and hardwares, are manufactured in the interior parts of Poland; but commerce is entirely confined to the city of Dantzic, and other towns in the Vistula and the Baltic.

Poland is intersected by several navigable rivers. They flow through its dominions in all directions, and convey its exports to the harbours of the Baltic. By the Vistula and the rivers falling into it, the productions of the palatinates of Cracow, Lublin and Masovia, are sent to Thorn and from thence to Dantzic and Königsburg. By the Niemen, the commodities of Lithuania are transported to Memmel; and by the Duna, those of eastern Lithuania and White Russia to Riga. The chief exports of Poland are, grain of various kinds, hemp, flax, cattle, masts, planks, timber for ship-building, pitch and tar, honey, wax, tallow, pot-ash and leather. Its imports are foreign wines, cloths, stuffs, manufactured silks and cotton, fine linen, hard-ware, tin, copper, silver and gold, glass-ware and furs. An hundred thousand oxen have been exported in a single year. In 1777, it is said that the value of articles exported was thirty millions of dollars. The imports for the same year greatly exceeded that sum.

By the vast extent, the fertility and various productions of Poland, its trade might have been carried to a considerable height; but three different causes, arising from the wretched anarchy of its government, suppressed the spirit of commerce. First, the nobles are degraded, if they engage in any kind of traffic. Second, the burghers of the towns want a proper capital for the establishment of manufactures. Through dread of extensive extortions from the principal nobility and perhaps from want of industry, the natural effect of a situation so desperate, they have left almost the whole of the retail trade in the hands of foreigners and Jews. Third, the peasants, being slaves, cannot retire from the place of their nativity without the consent of their proprietor. Thus has Poland been buried in poverty, insignificance, and every sort of barbarism, by the tyranny of its landholders. Mr. Coxe* says, that the specie exported exceeds that imported by more than twenty millions of Polish florins; which amount to above two millions of dollars. This account seems incredible. Because, as the Poles have no gold or silver mines, it follows of necessity, that in a very short time, there would not be a single florin left in the country.

The exportation of grain from Poland, is not correspondent with the general nature of the soil, and the extent of the provinces. If properly cultivated, they are capable of supplying one half of Europe with grain. Several palatinates, and, in particular, Podolia and Kiovia, are extremely well adapted to the production of corn; yet many parts of these provinces remain uncultivated. The portion in tillage yields a greater supply than is requisite for the consumption of the inhabitants. The only method of employing the overplus is, to extract from it a spiritous liquor. A project was formed by a patriotic cardinal, who had been struck with the fertility of Podolia, for commencing an intercourse by the river Dniester, between that province and the harbours of the Black Sea, which would have opened an extensive market for its grain. This plan, though lucrative and practicable, was neglected through the wretched indolence of the nobles. By the Notez, a river of Great Poland which falls into the Oder, the Poles might have conveyed grain into Silesia, and from thence down the Oder, into other parts of Germany. They never once attempted this navigation. But when the late king of Prussia had, by the partition of 1771, acquired the country, through which the Notez takes its course, that river was instantly covered with vessels.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been written upon this subject. It differs little from an aristocracy; yet it has been called a kingdom and a commonwealth. The king is the head of the republic, and is elected by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warsaw. They choose him on horseback; and in

case there should be a refractory minority, the majority has no controul over them, but to cut them in pieces with their sabres. If the minority are sufficiently strong, a civil war generally ensues. Immediately after his election, he signs the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engages to introduce no foreigners into the army or government; so that in fact he is no more than the president of the senate, which is composed of the primate, the archbishop of Lemburg, fifteen bishops, and one hundred and thirty laymen, consisting of the great officers of state, the palatines and castellans.

The diets of Poland are ordinary and extraordinary; the former meet once in two and sometimes three years. The latter are summoned by the king, upon critical emergencies; but one dissenting voice renders all their deliberations ineffectual.

The starosts properly are governors and judges, in particular starosties or districts, though some enjoy this title without any jurisdiction at all. The palatines and castellans, besides being senators, are lord lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants, in their respective palatinates.

Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which can sit but six weeks, there are dietines or provincial diets, held in different districts. The king sends them letters, containing the heads of the business that is to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate may sit in the dietine, and choose nuntios or deputies to carry their resolutions to the grand diet. The great diet consists of the king, senators, and deputies from provinces and towns, viz. one hundred and seventy-eight for Poland and Lithuania, and seventy for western Prussia; and it meets twice at Warsaw, and once at Grodno, by turns, for the convenience of the Lithuanians, who made this one of the articles of their union with Poland.

The king may nominate the great officers of state, but they are accountable only to the senate; neither can he displace them, when once appointed. When he is absent from Poland, his place is supplied by the archbishop of Gnesna, and if that see is vacant, by the bishop of Plosko.

The great officers of state in Poland, who must be senators, are, the two great marshals, one of Poland, the other of Lithuania; the chancellor of the kingdom, and the chancellor of the duchy; the vice-chancellor of the kingdom, and the vice-chancellor of the duchy; the great general, the great treasurer of the kingdom, and the sub-marshal, or marshal of the court of the duchy.

Such are the outlines of this motley constitution, which has been new modelled with almost every new king, according to the *pacta conventa* which he was obliged to sign; so that nothing can be said of it with certainty. There has lately been a total dissolution of all order in Poland, though the influence of some of the neighbouring powers, interested to foment anarchy and confusion in the Polish councils; and many of the first nobility do not blush to receive pensions from foreign courts. It must, however, be acknowledged, that the precautions taken to limit the king's power, and yet invest him with an ample prerogative, were worthy of a wise people. The institutions of the diet and dietines are favourable to public liberty, as are many other provisions in the republic; but it laboured even in its best state under incurable disorders.

The government of Poland is unfortunately distinguished from all others both ancient and modern, by a privilege which every nuntio enjoys in a *free* diet, of putting a negative upon any law, and even of dissolving the assembly. It is difficult to conceive a privilege more peggant with anarchy, and every sort of mischief. It originated in the diet of Warsaw, in the year 1652. A nuntio, during an important debate, exclaimed, "I stop the proceedings!" He quitted the assembly immediate-

ly, and entered a protest to the chancellor, that since many acts had been proposed and carried contrary to the constitution of the republic, *he*, if the diet continued to sit, should consider it as a violation of the laws. A faction in the assembly supported his protest; and they broke up in great confusion. This transaction entirely changed the constitution of Poland, and has ever since afforded an unlimited range to anarchy and faction. Various causes contributed to its establishment at the period when it took place. Many powerful individuals found an interest in supporting the *liberum veto*, as this privilege has been called. The chief officers of state, such as the great general, the great treasurer, and the great marshal, were solicitous to abridge the sittings of the diet; for which purpose, the *liberum veto* was an effectual instrument. These officers were vested with the administration of the army, the finances, and the police. They held their appointments for life, and were responsible only to the diets. But it was frequently very convenient for them to screen their conduct from a public examination; and to secure impunity, no more was necessary than to purchase the protest of a single nuntio. Thus the diet was at once dissolved, and all enquiry completely extinguished. Nobles, accused of certain capital crimes, could only be tried before the diet; and criminals of this description, and all those who expected to become so, were in favour of the *liberum veto*. Taxes could only be raised by the decree of the diet; and those who were averse to them seconded the *liberum veto*. Neighbouring nations found, in this privilege, a ready instrument for dissolving any diet, that might be disposed to adopt any measures disagreeable to them. The purchase of a single vote was sufficient. These various causes contributed to establish, and afterwards to support, this fatal source of public disorder. Accordingly, as Mr. Coxe tells us, forty eight diets have, in the space of an hundred and twelve years been abruptly dissolved by its operation. It would have been abolished by the Poles themselves during the partition of 1771*, but they were prevented by the three despots. Since that time, other attempts have been made, but without success. It will be an object of surprise to the reader, that any law, whatever, can be carried in the face of the *liberum veto*. An expedient has been adopted, of forming diets by *confederacy*. They are composed of the same members as *free* diets, and have the same exterior forms, but determine business by a *majority of votes*. But this remedy is very imperfect. Mr. Coxe is of opinion, that these diets, by confederacy, can only transact the common business, without making any new laws or repealing old statutes. Hence they can be of no great advantage. Instead of wondering, that a government so strangely framed, has been at last torn to pieces by other nations, it is rather an object of surprise, by what means it has been so long permitted to hang together.

The partitioning powers, beside dismembering the best provinces of Poland, proceeded to change and fix the constitution and government, under pretence of amending it. They confirmed all its defects, and endeavoured to perpetuate the principles of anarchy and confusion. They insisted upon four cardinal laws to be ratified, which were at last obtained. *First*, "that the crown of Poland shall be for ever elective, and all order of succession proscribed." Thus the exclusion of a king's son and grandson removes the prospect of an hereditary sovereignty, and entails upon the kingdom, all the evils inseparable from an elective monarchy, so wretchedly constructed as that of Poland. By the *second*, "foreign candidates to the throne shall be excluded; and for the future, no person can be chosen king of Poland, except a native Pole, of noble origin, and possessing land in the kingdom." By this stipulation, they set aside the house of Saxony, and all foreign princes, who might be likely to give weight to Poland by their hereditary dominions, and to restore its provinces and liberties. By the *third*, "the go-

* To prevent mistakes, it may be observed, that the partition begun in 1771, was gradually completed in 1772, and 1773. Hence it has been indiscriminately termed by writers, the partition of each of these successive years.

vernment of Poland shall be for ever free, independent, and of a republican form. The *liberum veto*, and all the exorbitant privileges of the equestrian order, are confirmed in their utmost latitude. By the *fourth*, "a permanent council shall be established, in which the executive power shall be vested;" and in this council, the equestrian order, hitherto excluded from the administration of affairs in the internal of diets, shall be admitted, so that the prerogatives of the crown are still farther diminished. But this change of the constitution was intended by the partitioning powers to serve their own purposes, and give a large scope to influence and faction over that part of the kingdom, which they had not seized.

Polish liberty may be considered as the source of Polish wretchedness. When Mr. Coxe once expressed his surprize at an abuse of this *liberty*, as it has been most improperly termed, a person well acquainted with the country, replied thus. "If you knew the confusion and anarchy of our constitution, you would be surprized at nothing. Many grievances exist, from necessity, even in the best regulated states; what, then, must be the case in ours, which, of all governments, is the most detestable?" Another, lamenting to the same gentleman, the dreadful situation of his country, said, "the name of Poland still remains, but the nation no longer exists. An universal corruption and venality pervades all ranks of people. Many of the first nobility do not blush to receive presents from foreign courts. One publicly professes himself an Austrian, a second a Prussian, a third a Frenchman, and a fourth a Russian." But the best evidence of the depravity of the administration of Poland, is, the desolate situation of many of its provinces. Mr. Coxe, in the year 1778, travelled from Cracow to Warsaw, which is a journey of about two hundred and fifty-eight English miles. In the whole road, he met with only two carriages, and about a dozen carts. The country was equally thin of human inhabitants. It was chiefly overspread with vast tracts of gloomy forest. A few straggling villages succeeded each other at long intervals. Their appearance corresponded with that of the country around them. The only places for the reception of travellers were hovels belonging to Jews, totally destitute of furniture, and every species of accommodation. All the beds were straw, and the traveller's thought themselves happy when they could obtain it clean. The natives were poorer, humbler and more miserable than any people whom he had yet observed in his travels. Wherever he halted, the natives thronged around him, and asked for charity, with the most abject gestures. In approaching to Warsaw, the traveller found the roads equally bad, and the country as uncultivated, as at a distance from it. The suburbs consisted of wooden hovels; nor had Mr. Coxe any suspicion of being near the capital of Poland, till he arrived at its gates. Execrable as the conduct of the partitioning tyrants has been, we cannot place to their account these scenes of hereditary desolation. By their invasion it is evident that the state of the great body of the Polish nation, could not be altered for the worse; and as to the nobles, it is to be suspected that many have suffered nothing more, than what domestic despotism has taught them to inflict.

REVENUES.] Though the king of Poland is confined in the political exercise of his prerogative, yet his revenue is sufficient to maintain him and his household, with great splendor, as he pays no troops, or officers of state, nor even his body-guards. The present king had a million and a half of florins settled upon him, by the commission of state; and the income of his predecessors, generally, amounted to nearly six hundred thousand dollars. The public revenues arose, chiefly, from the crownlands, the salt-mines in the palatinate of Cracow, now in Austrian Poland, which alone amounted to about four hundred thousand dollars; ancient tolls and customs, particularly those of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburgh, Dirschau, and Rogenhus, and of the government of Cracow, and district of Niepoliomicz.

Western Prussia was the greatest loss to Poland, as, by the dismemberment of that province, the navigation of the Vistula depends entirely upon the king of Prussia.

This was a fatal blow to the trade of Poland, for Prussia has laid such heavy duties on the merchandize passing to Dantzic, as greatly to diminish the trade of that town; and to transfer a considerable part of it to Memel and Konigsburgh.

By the dismemberment, Poland lost near half her annual income. To supply this deficiency, it became necessary to new-model and increase the taxes.

	<i>Dollars.</i>
In 1775, all the imposts amounted to	1,435,609
The neat revenue of the king, is	866,666
Out of which he only pays his household expences, and menial servants. It arises from his royal demesnes, starosties, and	
329,217 dollars out of the treasury.	
Whole revenue,	1,973,958
Deduct the king's revenue for privy purse,	866,666
	1,106,392
For army, state officers, and all other charges	1,106,392

This was the state of the public revenues, before the second partition, which is now (March 1794) carrying into execution.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The Polish nobility always appear in the field on horseback; and it is said that Poland formerly could raise one hundred thousand, and Lithuania seventy thousand cavalry; but it must be understood that servants are included. The ordinary army of the Poles, consisted, in 1778, of twelve thousand three hundred and ten men in Poland, and seven thousand four hundred and sixty six in Lithuania. The empress of Russia maintains in the country ten thousand soldiers, and every garrison is composed of Russians and natives. One thousand of the former are stationed at Warfaw. These hold the nobles in subjection, and the king himself is little more than a viceroy, while the Russian ambassador regulates the affairs of the kingdom, under the direction of his court. The *pospolite* consists of all the nobility of the kingdom and their followers, except the chancellor, and the starosts or governors of frontier places; and they may be called by the king into the field upon extraordinary occasions; but he cannot keep them above six weeks in arms, neither are they obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom.

The Polish hussars are one of the finest and most showy bodies of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the pancerns; and both these bodies wear defensive armour of coats of mail and iron caps. The rest of their cavalry are armed with muskets and heavy scimitars. After all that has been said, the Polish cavalry are extremely inefficient in the field; for though the men are brave, and their horses excellent, they are strangers to discipline; and, when drawn out, notwithstanding all the authority that their crown-general, their other officers, and even the king himself, have over them, they are oppressive and destructive to the country. It is certain, notwithstanding, that the Poles may be rendered excellent troops by discipline, and that on various occasions, particularly under John Sobieski, they made as great a figure in arms as any people in Europe, and proved the bulwark of Christendom against the Ottomans. It did not suit the Saxon princes, who succeeded Sobieski, to encourage a martial spirit in the Poles, whom they perpetually overawed with their electoral troops; nor indeed to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military; the effect of which conduct have been severely felt in that country.

HISTORY.] Poland was anciently possessed by the Vandals, who were afterwards partly expelled by the Russians and Tartars. It was divided into many small states or principalities, almost independent of each other, though they generally had some prince who was paramount over the rest. In the year 700, the people, through the oppression of their petty chiefs, gave the supreme command, under the title of duke,

to Cracus, the founder of the city of Cracow. His posterity failing, in the year 830, a peasant, one Piaftus, was elected to the ducal dignity. He lived one hundred and twenty years, and his reign was so long and auspicious, that every native Pole, who has been since elected king, is called a Piaft. From this period, for some centuries, we have no very certain records of the history of Poland. The title of duke was retained till the year 999, when Boleslaus assumed the title of king, and conquered Moravia, Prussia, and Bohemia, making them tributary to Poland. Boleslaus II. added Red Russia to Poland, by marrying the heiress of that duchy, anno 1059. Jagellon, who, in 1384, mounted the throne, was grand-duke of Lithuania, and a Pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he became a Christian, and exerted himself to bring over his subjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to those of Poland, which gave such influence to his posterity over the hearts of the Poles, that the crown was preserved in his family until the male line was extinct in Sigismund Augustus, in 1572. At this time, two powerful competitors appeared for the crown of Poland. These were Henry, duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian of Austria. The French interest prevailed; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when his brother died, and he returned, or rather escaped privately to France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had espoused Maximilian's interest, endeavoured once more to revive his pretensions; but the majority of the Poles, being desirous of a prince who might reside among them, made choice of Stephen Batori, prince of Transylvania; who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with some opposition from the Austrian faction, took the wisest method to establish himself on the throne, by marrying Anne, the sister of Sigismund Augustus, and of the royal house of the Jagellons. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by establishing a new militia, composed of the Cossacs, a rough and barbarous race of men, on whom he bestowed the Ukraine. Upon his death, in 1586, the Poles elected Sigismund, son of John, king of Sweden,

Sigismund after his father's death, was crowned king of Sweden; but being defeated by the Swedes*, a long war ensued between them and the Poles, which terminated in favour of the latter. Sigismund, being secured in the throne of Poland, aspired to that of Russia; but after long wars, he was defeated. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unsuccessful wars with the Turks and the Swedes. A truce was finally concluded under the mediation of France and England; but the Poles were forced to agree, that the Swedes should keep Elbing, Memel, Branisberg and Pillau, together with all that they had taken in Livonia. In the year 1623, Sigismund died, and Uladislaus, his son, succeeded. This prince was successful both against the Turks and the Russians, and obliged the Swedes to restore all the Polish dominions which they had conquered in Prussia. His reign, however, was rendered unfortunate, by his encroaching upon the privileges of the Cossacs in the Ukraine. As the war which followed, was carried on against the Cossacs, upon ambitious and perfidious principles, that nation, naturally brave, became desperate; and upon the succession of John II. brother to Uladislaus, their general Schmielinski defeated the Poles in two great battles, and at last forced them to a dishonourable peace. It appears, that, during the course of this war, the Polish nobility behaved like the worst of russians, and their conduct being highly condemned by John, they as highly condemned the peace that he had concluded. While their mutual jealousy continued, the Russians came to a rupture with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Cossacs, they, in the year 1654, took Smolensko. This was followed by the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year, Charles X. of Sweden, after overrunning Great and Little Poland, entered into Polish Prussia; all the towns of which received him, except Dantzic.

The resistance made by that city, gave the Poles time to re-assemble, and their king, John Casimir, who had fled into Silesia, was joined by the Tartars as well as Poles; so that the Swedes, who were dispersed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the same time, disowned the allegiance which they had been forced to swear to Charles, who returned to Sweden with no more than a handful of his army. During this expedition, the Dutch and English protected Dantzic, and the elector of Brandenburg acquired the sovereignty of Ducal Prussia, which had submitted to Charles. Thus the latter lost Poland, of which he had made an almost complete conquest. The treaty of Oliva was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Prussia was restored to the Poles. They were, however, forced to quit all pretensions to Livonia, and to cede Smolensko, Kiow and the dutchy of Siveria, to the Russians.

During these transactions, the Polish nobility grew very uneasy with their king. Some of them were dissatisfied with the concessions he had made to the Cossacs, many of whom had thrown off the Polish yoke; others taxed him with want of capacity; and some with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Casimir, who very possibly had no such intentions, and was fond of retirement and study, finding that cabals and factions increased every day, and that he himself might fall a sacrifice to the public discontent, abdicated his throne, and died abbot of St. Germans in France.

The most remote descendants of the ancient kings ending in John Casimir, many foreign candidates presented themselves for the crown of Poland; but the Poles chose, for their king, a private gentleman of little interest, and less capacity, one Michael Wiefnowiski, because he was descended from a Piast. His reign was disgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of the Cossacs had put themselves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces of Podolia; and took Kamienieck, till then thought impregnable. The greatest part of Poland was then ravaged, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the sultan. Notwithstanding those disgraceful events, the credit of the Polish arms was, in some measure, maintained by John Sobieski, the crown-general, a brave and active commander, who repeatedly defeated the Turks: Michael dying in 1673, Sobieski was chosen king, and, in 1676, he was so successful against the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had imposed upon Poland; but they kept possession of Kamienieck. In 1683, Sobieski, though he had not been well treated by the house of Austria, was so public-spirited, as to enter into the league formed for the defence of Christendom against the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raise the siege of Vienna. He made a terrible slaughter of the enemy. For this service, and for driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopold.

Sobieski returning to Poland, continued the war against the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the senate, who suspected he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after an active reign, in 1696.

Poland fell into great distractions upon Sobieski's death. Many confederacies were formed, but all parties seemed inclined to exclude the Sobieski family. In the mean while, Poland was insulted by the Tartars, and her crown was, in a manner, put up to sale by the venal electors. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, was the most liberal bidder; but, while he thought the election almost certain, he was disappointed by the intrigues of the queen dowager, in favour of her younger son prince Alexander Sobieski, for which she was driven from Warsaw to Dantzic. Unexpectedly, Augustus, elector of Saxony, offered himself as a candidate, and after a sham election, being proclaimed by the bishop of Cujavia, he took possession of Cracow, with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city in 1697. The prince of Conti made several unsuccessful efforts to re-establish his interest, and pre-

tended that he had been actually chosen; but he was afterwards obliged to return to France; and the other powers of Europe seemed to acquiesce in the election of Augustus. The manner in which he was driven from the throne by Charles XII. of Sweden, succeeded by Stanislaus, and afterwards restored by the czar Peter, has been already related in the history of Sweden. It was not till the year 1712, that Augustus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and disagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Stanislaus, and were perpetually forming conspiracies and plots against Augustus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. In 1725, his natural son, prince Maurice, afterwards count Saxe, was chosen duke of Courland; but Augustus was not able to maintain him, in that dignity, against the power of Russia and the jealousy of the Poles. Augustus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, having used every endeavour to insure the succession of Poland to his son Augustus II. (or, as he is called by some, III.) This occasioned a war, in which the French king maintained the interest of his father-in-law Stanislaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne by a considerable party, of which the prince primate was the head. But Augustus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Russians, compelled his rival to retreat into Dantzic, from whence he escaped, with great difficulty, into France. We have in the history of Germany, mentioned the war between Augustus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Russia and Austria, and the late king of Prussia. Augustus never could gain the hearts of the Poles; and all he obtained from them when Frederic drove him from his capital and electorate, was merely shelter. Augustus died at Dresden, in 1763; upon which, count Stanislaus Poniatowski was chosen king, by the name of Stanislaus Augustus; though it is said that the election was conducted irregularly, and that he obtained the crown chiefly through the influence of the empress of Russia. He is a man of excellent disposition; but from various concurring causes, he has had the unhappiness to see Poland, during his reign, a scene of desolation and calamity. In 1766, two Polish gentlemen presented a petition to the king in the name of all the protestant nobility, and in behalf, also, of the members of the Greek church, wherein they demanded to be re-instated in their ancient rights and privileges, and to be placed upon the same footing, in every respect, with the Roman catholic subjects of the kingdom. "The difference of sentiments upon some points of religion among christians," said they, in their petition, "ought not to interfere with employments of the state. The different sects of christians, although they differ in opinion, among themselves, with respect to some points of doctrine, agree all in one point, that of being faithful to their sovereign, and obedient to his orders. All the christian courts are convinced of this truth; and, therefore without having any regard to the religion they profess, christian princes ought only to seek after those whose merit and talents make them capable of serving their country properly." The king gave no answer, at this time, to the petition of the dissidents; but the matter was referred to the diet, which was held in the following year, when the ministers of the courts of Russia, of London, of Berlin, and of Copenhagen, supported their pretensions. The diet appeared to treat the complaints of the dissidents with great moderation, which gave some flattering expectations that the affair would be happily terminated. The whole nation run into confederacies formed in distinct provinces; the Roman catholic clergy were active in opposing the cause of the dissidents; and this unfortunate country became the theatre of the most cruel and complicated of all wars; partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The confusion and devastation continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, whereby the whole face of the country was almost destroyed; many of the principal Polish families retired into foreign states with their effects; and, had it not been for a body of Russian troops, which acted as guards to the king, at Warsaw, that

city would exhibit a scene of plunder and massacre. To these complicated evils, was added, in the year 1770, that most dreadful scourge, the pestilence, which spread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhinia, and the Ukraine; and in these provinces it is said to have swept off two hundred and fifty thousand of the people. Meanwhile, some of the Polish confederates interceded with the Turks, to assist them against their powerful oppressors, the Russians; and a war ensued between the Russians and the Turks, on account of Poland. But it has been observed, that the conduct of the grand signior and of the Ottoman Porte, towards the distressed Poles, was strictly just and honourable, and the very reverse to that of Catharine and Maria Theresa*.

The confederates had always considered the king as unjustly elected. On the third of November 1771, in the evening, a party of forty of them, attacked his coach in the streets of Warsaw. He was deserted by his attendants, in number about fifteen, one heyduc excepted, who, in defending his master, was shot through the body. The king was wounded and taken prisoner; but one of the leaders of the conspirators relented, and suffered him to escape. He returned to his palace next morning, about five o'clock, in a coach that he had sent for to Warsaw. His escape was next to miraculous. Pulaski, one of the conspirators, has since distinguished himself in the American service, and was killed in attacking the British lines at Savannah, in 1779.

In the following year, 1772, it appeared, that the king of Prussia, the emperor and empress-queen, and the empress of Russia, had entered into an alliance to dismember the kingdom of Poland; though Prussia was formerly in a state of vassalage to Poland, and the title of king of Prussia was never acknowledged by the Poles till 1746. Russia, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, saw its capital and throne possessed by the Poles; while Austria, in 1683, was indebted to the king of Poland for the preservation of its metropolis, and almost for its very existence. The three allied powers, acting in concert, set up their formal pretensions to the respective districts which they had allotted for, and guaranteed to, each other: Polish or Western Prussia, and some districts bordering upon Brandenburg, for the king of Prussia; almost all the south-east parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich salt-works of the crown, for the empress-queen of Hungary and Bohemia†; and a large district of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the

* In 1764, the empress of Russia transmitted to the court of Warsaw an act of renunciation, signed with her own hand, and sealed with the seal of the empire, wherein she declares, "That she did, by no means, arrogate either to herself, her heirs and successors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the districts or territories, which were actually in possession, or subject to the authority, of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her said majesty would guarantee to the said kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania, all the immunities, lands, territories, and districts, which the said kingdom and duchy ought by right to possess, or did now actually possess; & would, at all times, and forever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, against the attempts of all and every one who should, at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to dispossess them of the same." In the same year did the king of Prussia sign with his own hand, an act wherein he declared, that he had no claims; and formed no pretensions on Poland, or any part thereof; but he renounced all claims of that kingdom, either as king

of Prussia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania. In the same instrument, he guarantees, in the most solemn manner, the territories and rights of Poland against every power whatever. The empress-queen of Hungary, so late as the month of January 1771, wrote a letter with her own hand to the king of Poland, in which she gave him the strongest assurances, "That her friendship for him and the republic was firm and unalterable: that the motion of her troops ought not to alarm him: that she had never entertained a thought of seizing any part of his dominions, nor would even suffer any other power to do it." From which, according to the political creed of princes we may infer, that to guarantee the rights, liberties, and revenues of a state, means to annihilate those liberties, seize upon those rights, and appropriate those revenues to their own use. Such is the faith of princes, the instability of human politics, and of human affairs!

† The district claimed by Austria, was "all that tract of land on the right side of the Vistula, from Silesia above Sandowair to the mouth of the Saa, and from thence by

Dnieper, for the empress of Russia †. But, though each of these powers pretended to have a legal title to the territories which were allotted to them respectively, and published manifestoes in justification of the measures which they had taken, yet, as they were conscious that the fallacies by which they supported their pretensions, were too gross to impose upon mankind, they forced the Poles to call a new diet, and threatened them, that if they did not consent unanimously to sign a treaty for the ceding of those provinces to them respectively, the whole kingdom would be laid under a military execution, and treated as a conquered state. In this extremity of distress, several of the Polish nobility protested against this violent act of tyranny, and retired into foreign states, choosing rather to live in exile, and to have all their landed property confiscated, than to be the instrument of bringing their country to utter ruin; but the king of Poland was prevailed upon to sign this act, and his example was followed by many of his subjects.

The conduct of the late king of Prussia towards Poland, was to an unexampled degree tyrannical and oppressive. In the year 1771, his troops entered into Great Poland and carried off from that province, and its neighbourhood, at a moderate computation, twelve thousand families. On the 29th of October, in the same year, an edict was published by Frederic, commanding every person, under the severest penalties, and even corporal punishment, to take in payment for forage, provisions, corn, horses, &c. the money offered by his troops and commissaries! This money was either silver, bearing the impression of Poland, and exactly worth one-third of its nominal value, or ducats struck in imitation of Dutch ducats, seventeen per cent. inferior to the real ducats of Holland! With this base money, he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to supply his army for two whole years, but to stock magazines in the country itself, where the inhabitants were forced to come, and repurchase, for their daily subsistence, at an advanced price, and with good money, his commissaries refusing to take the same coin, which they had paid. At the lowest calculation, he gained by this *honest* manœuvre, seven millions of dollars! Having stripped the country of money and provisions, his next attempt was, to thin it still more of its inhabitants. To people his own dominions, at the expense of Poland, had been his great aim. For this purpose, he devised a new contribution; every town and village was obliged to furnish a certain number of marriageable girls; the parents to give as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound hand and foot, and carried off as criminals! His exactions from the abbeys, convents, cathedrals, and nobles, were so heavy, and exceeded at last their abilities so much, that the priests abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. These exactions continued, with unabated rigour, from the year 1771, to the time that the treaty of partition was declared, and possession taken of the provinces usurped.

The violent dismemberment and partition of Poland has justly been considered, as a great breach, in the modern political system of Europe. The surprize of a town, the invasion of an insignificant province, or the election of a prince, who had neither abilities to be feared, nor virtues to be loved, would some years ago have armed one

Franepole, Zamoise, and Rubiessow, to the Bog: from the Bog along the frontiers of Red Russia to Zabras, on the borders of Volhinia and Podolia and from Zabras in a strait line to the Nieper, where it receives the Sbrыз, taking in a part of Podolia, and then along the boundaries separating Podolia from Moldavia." This country is now incorporated with Austria, under the appellation of the kingdoms of Galicia and Lodomeria.

† The Russian claims comprised Polish Livonia, that part of the palatinate of Polotsk to the east of the Duna, the palatinates of Vitepsk, Mielislaw, and two portions of the palatinate of Minsk. This tract of land (Polish Livonia excepted) is situated in White Russia, and includes full one third of Lithuania. It is now divided into the two governments of Polotsk and Mohilef.

half of Europe, and called forth all the attention of the other. But the division of a great kingdom, with the consequent disarrangement of power, dominion, and commerce, has been viewed by neutral nations with the most astonishing and disgraceful indifference and unconcern. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remonstrated against the usurpations, but that was all. Poland was forced to submit, and the partition was ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of the three powers. In the senate, there was a majority of six, but in the lower house, the assembly of nuncios, there was no more than a majority of one vote in favour of the measure, fifty-four against fifty-three.

From the dismemberment of Poland, which was completed in the year 1773, the republic found herself reduced to a humiliating state of dependence upon Russia. Several circumstances concurred, in 1791, to make the Polish patriots imagine, that it was practicable to restore their country to some degree of her primitive independence. The French revolution held out a memorable lesson, and as the empress of Russia was at that time engaged in a war with the Turks, the patriots flattered themselves, that the task might be completed without interruption from that quarter. Prussia, supported by Britain, was on the point of entering into hostilities with the empress. Leopold of Austria had found ample exercise for his armies, shattered by three Ottoman campaigns, in suppressing the revolt of the Netherlands. A plan was accordingly entered into for an effectual improvement of the constitution of Poland. On the 18th of April, 1791, a decree was passed by the diet, which secured to freemen those rights which had formerly been confined to the order of nobles. The door of nobility was opened to the inferior orders; and even this was a considerable step in a country that had so long been devoted to the slavish principles of the feudal system. In the mean time, a new constitution was digested and prepared, with secrecy and caution. On the 3d of May, 1791, at three o'clock in the morning, a body of patriots assembled in the royal chamber, and, in presence of the monarch, solemnly pledged themselves never to separate, till the intended revolution should be happily accomplished. The galleries of the hall, in which the diet was held, were crowded at an early hour. The session was opened by the king in person, instead of the marshal. In place of resorting to the order of the day, Stanislaus addressed the assembly on the general state of the nation. He observed that alarming rumours had been spread, and rested upon too sure a foundation, that a second dismemberment was to be executed on the territories of the republic; that one way remained, and but one, to secure the remaining dominions of Poland and preserve the state from ruin. This was, to give it such a constitution as might impart unity to the government, and attach the people to its support. He said, that, with this view, a constitution had been framed principally founded on the English and American constitutions, and adapted, as much as possible, to the circumstances of Poland. This constitution, he expressed his confidence, they would adopt. Some opposition was made, but over-ruled by the majority. The king, attended by all the nuncios, except between thirty and forty, went to church. *Te deum* was sung. The members present, took an oath to support the new constitution. Their acceptance was announced to the people, by the discharge of two hundred pieces of cannon. The utmost tranquillity prevailed. Warsaw resounded with acclamations of joy.

By this short-lived constitution, a free toleration was permitted to all sects and religions. The peasants, formerly plunged in the most abject slavery, were to be received under the protection of national law, and government. The supreme power was declared to reside in the will of the people. Three distinct powers were established, the legislative, the executive, and judicial. The diet or legislature was to be elected biennially from the order of the nobles. The crown of Poland was declared to be hereditary as to individuals, and elective as to families. In plainer terms, when any per-

son of a family had been elected, the crown was to descend to his next heirs. The house of Saxony was chosen for the next vacancy. All citizens were permitted to purchase landed estates. Thirty citizens were to be ennobled at every diet. Numerous other privileges were to be granted to this order. In a word, the constitution seemed as equitably adapted as it could be to the actual situation of the country.

The opponents to this revolution soon began to recede from their sentiments; and what seemed equally in its favour, on the 17th of May, baron Goltz, envoy from Berlin, communicated the approbation of Frederic William as to the arrangement.

Having related the establishment of a free and well-poised constitution in Poland, we have next to assume the ungrateful task of recording its destruction. When Catharine had finished her Turkish war, this insatiable conspiratrix against the peace of mankind, immediately entered into measures, for an attack on the infant republic, To avert a danger, which might from the first have easily been foreseen, suitable precautions had not been adopted. The ardour of Stanislaus Augustus, in embracing a project, so well calculated to promote the felicity of his people, evinced the liberality of his principles, and the goodness of his heart. But here his panegyrist must pause and be silent. The king of Poland can derive no praise from political sagacity, from activity, or perhaps from fortitude. He wasfoothed into security by the perfidious professions of Frederic William, a person distinguished even among despots by an utter want of veracity. He seems to have neglected every means of defense. No alliances were formed, and no preparations were made, for supporting with energy, the new constitution. If Prussia or Britain had refused a cordial friendship, Sweden or Denmark, or, in particular, France might have assisted him in repelling with success the hordes of the Russian Messalina. Ten thousand French troops, with a moderate supply of military stores and a body of experienced officers, would have turned or suspended the scale of fortune. The republic of Poland, dismembered and desolate, as it comparatively is, yet still contained a population of nine millions, a number sufficient under proper management, to have at least for a considerable time, protracted the contest; and, as the greatest general and statesman of the present age, has observed, he who gains time, gains every thing*.

The neglect of securing sufficient succours from abroad, great as it was, did not exceed the indifference of the monarch as to the resources of internal defense. While some discontented nobles demonstrated the most implacable hostility to the new constitution, and while they were received with kindness by the court of Peterburgh, the regular forces of Poland were not properly organized; the militia were not embodied; not a magazine was erected, nor an entrenchment cast up. It was all a dead calm, and the Russians appeared upon the frontiers, before the diet had recovered from its surprise, at the first hostile declaration of the widow of Peter the third.

On the 21st of April 1792, the king informed the diet, that this enemy to the human race had determined to invade the territory of the republic, with an army of sixty thousand Russians; that this body was to be supported by a second corps of twenty thousand, and by the Russian forces then acting in Moldavia, and which amounted to seventy thousand more. Then, and not sooner, the diet decreed the organization of the army, and its augmentation to an hundred thousand men. Magazines, when it was too late, were ordered to be constructed, and quarters were at the same time directed to be provided, for the forces of Poland. The diet and the nation united, as one man, to assert their independence. All private animosities were obliterated. All private interests were sacrificed. The greatest encouragement was held out to volunteers to enrol themselves under the standard of liberty and of Poland; and

* *Memoirs of the war of seven years.*

it was unanimously decreed, that all the losses of individuals should be indemnified out of the public treasury.

On the 18 of May, the Russian ambassador delivered a declaration worthy of such a cause. It was a contexture of untruth and hypocrisy. It affirmed, that this wanton invasion, undertaken against the sense of almost every single Polisher, was intended entirely for the *advantage* of the republic. It censured the precipitancy with which the new constitution had been adopted, and ascribed the ready consent of the diet to the influence of the mob of Warsaw. It represented this form of government as a violation of the principles on which the Polish republic was founded. Another accusation, equally curious, was advanced. The reign of Catharine has been a disgrace to her sex, and to human nature. The depravity of her domestic life has rivalled the enormity of her official guilt. Yet, the ambassador of this woman, with peculiar *modesty*, complained, that in some speeches of the members of the Polish diet, "the sacred name of the empress had been treated with licentiousness." As the deepest abyss of degradation to which humanity can plunge, an hundred and fifty thousand veterans were ready to fight and to die, in vindication of the *virtues* of their immaculate sovereign.

At the moment when this declaration was delivered to the diet, the Russian troops, accompanied by a few Polish apostates, appeared upon the frontiers. Before the end of the month, they had entered the territories of the republic in several columns. The spirit, displayed by the nobility, was worthy of a better fate. Some delivered their plate to the mint. Prince Radzivil engaged to supply ten thousand stand of arms; another nobleman promised a train of artillery. The courage of the newly-raised soldiers corresponded with the patriotism of their leaders. Prince Poniatowski, nephew to the king, was appointed commander in chief; and though his forces were greatly inferior to those of the enemy, he made a vigorous resistance. On the 24th of May 1792, the first blood was drawn; a party of Cossacs were routed by the patrols of the republican army. On the 26th, a second engagement was obstinately supported on both sides; and ended without advantage to either.

During these proceedings in the field, the cabinet of Prussia displayed an instance of meanness, duplicity, and fraud, that seldom has been equalled, and never can be surpassed. By a treaty of defensive alliance, between the republic of Poland, and the King of Prussia, ratified on the 23d of April 1790, it was stipulated, "that in case of menace or invasion from any foreign power, they should, if necessary, assist each other with *their whole force*." In the sixth article, it was again repeated, "that if any foreign power, whatever, should presume to interfere in the internal affairs of Poland, his Prussian majesty should consider this as a case falling within the meaning of the alliance, and should, according to the tenor of the fourth article, assist the republic with his whole force." On an application at this juncture, to perform his engagement, Frederic William replied, "that the treaty was dated previous to the new constitution, and as that constitution established a new order of things, his Prussian majesty *beld himself absolved from his engagements!*" Of such value are treaties in the eyes of a despotic prince! If any circumstance could enhance the baseness of this treachery, it is what follows. Most of the obnoxious act, of which Catharine, in her declaration against the Poles, complained, are understood to have been hazarded, by the influence and advice of Prussia. When the new constitution was proposed, Frederic William never gave the smallest intimation, that "the new order of things" would dissolve the alliance. On the contrary, Goltz, the Prussian envoy at Warsaw, declared, formally, as we have already intimated, upon the 19th of May, 1791, the approbation of his sovereign, with respect to the new arrangement.

The dutchy of Lithuania was, in the beginning of the war, the great scene of action. On the tenth of June, 1792, the Poles defeated the Russians in a skirmish.

The vanquished left five hundred men dead on the field. On the twelfth, there was a second engagement, in which the Poles, after an obstinate contest were driven from the field. On the fourteenth, a third action took place. The Poles lost two hundred and fifty men. On the seventeenth, a general battle was fought. The Russians were seventeen thousand strong, and had twenty-four pieces of cannon. After a struggle, that lasted from seven in the morning, till five in the afternoon, the Russians retired, on all sides, with the loss of four thousand men. The Poles lost only eleven hundred. These exertions fully prove what they were capable of performing, had they met their enemies on any terms of equality. But they did not possess that degree of experience in the art of war, and that steady fortitude, which can only be acquired in a series of actual service. They were, besides, inferior in point of numbers; and they must have been extremely deficient in those innumerable articles of supply, which, in particular since the invention of fire arms, are essential to the existence of a regular army. The Russians, by degrees, gained ground upon all sides. Their progress was marked by that devastation and cruelty, which invariably distinguish their military operations. The peasants every where fled before them. Scarcely a human being was to be seen. On the seventeenth of July, the rear of the army of prince Poniatowski was attacked by a very superior force. His defence was respectable, yet he suffered a considerable loss. On the 18th, a general engagement happened. It is said that the Russians lost four thousand men, and the Poles only some hundreds. The latter were, however, forced to retire further into the country, to prevent themselves from being overwhelmed by the superior number of the enemy. This action ended the campaign, and the contest for Polish independence. The king, whose age and infirmities rendered him, perhaps, unequal to the difficulties and dangers of a protracted war, instead of putting himself, as he first had resolved, at the head of his army, determined abruptly to surrender at discretion. On the 23d of July 1792, he summoned a council of all the deputies then in Warsaw. He laid before them the last dispatches from the empress, which insisted upon total and unreserved submission. He pointed out the danger of a second dismemberment of the republic. He referred to the fatal union of Austria and Prussia, and he might have added of Britain, with the court of Petersburg. He recommended that the nation, on this helpless and desperate condition, should cast itself on the clemency and *protection* of the empress.

A strong opposition was made, but in vain, to this proposal. The Russian faction soon gained the ascendancy, and were immediately joined by that contemptible band, so numerous in all countries, who are only anxious to be on the strongest side. Upon the 2d of August, a confederacy was formed at Warsaw, and Potocki, an agent of the empress, was chosen marshal. The acts of this body were evidently the dictates of Russia, and were adopted merely to restore the ancient abuses, and to place their country under the aggravated oppression of a foreign yoke. At the very time of making this surrender, a subscription had been opened at London, to support the Polish republic with military stores. The news of the surrender, put an end to it. The wishes of the British nation, and the system of the court of St. James, were, as it frequently happens, in the most hostile opposition. Had England possessed a popular government, there can be no question, that early and effectual measures would have been taken, by that country, to support the new constitution of Poland.

A second dismemberment of Poland has succeeded the submission of that people to the "clemency and protection" of Catharine. Prussia has received a large addition of territory, including the city of Dantzic. The portion of the empress is reported to be vastly greater. Had the Austrians been victorious against France, the court of Vienna would, no doubt, have come forward to claim a share in the division of the spoil. The very distressed and critical situation of Francis the second

will, most likely, divest him of this addition to the number of his slaves. The particulars of the new partition of 1793, we have not been able to learn with accuracy. Indeed, were it possible to mark the *present* limits of the dismemberment, still they will very possibly, be altered in a short time; and the whole country be broken down into provinces of Russia, Prussia, and Austria. We shall only just relate, that in summer last, the two first of these powers forced the polish diet, by the most violent measures, to consent to this new partition. The Poles are said to have transmitted remonstrances, on this subject, to all the powers of Europe; but without effect. A new constitution has been, or is about to be formed for Poland; and a treaty of alliance, between Russia and the republic, has been proposed, by the Russian ambassador, and is most likely completed before this time. On the 11th of July 1793, the king and the diet gave in a remonstrance, at Grodno, to this ambassador, wherein, among other miserable circumstances, it is stated, "that the provinces destined for the use of the king, had been intercepted by the orders" of this diplomatic instrument of despotism. The diet directed that a copy of this note should be delivered to all the foreign ministers residing near the person of the king. The ambassador of Russia forbade this publication, or even the insertion of the remonstrance in the minutes of the diet. On the 23 of July, Catharine published orders for a day of general thanksgiving for the success of her arms, to be observed on the 2d of September ensuing, throughout her immense dominions. In her manifesto, on this subject, she speaks with much self-complacency of her proceedings in Poland, and *piously* adds, "that she has been overloaded by divine favours.

It is evident that the Poles wanted only a very small degree of assistance to have repelled the forces of Russia. Had they weathered the storm of a single campaign; there can be little doubt, that they would finally have been able to bid defiance to all their enemies. Poland, before the first dismemberment, was five times as large as Pennsylvania, and about one third larger than the whole republic of France. It formed a compact and square body of territory, and might naturally speaking, have been raised into the most formidable power in Europe.

T U R K E Y.

	Sq. M.
1. TURKEY IN EUROPE.	} 960,060
2. TURKEY IN ASIA.	
3. TURKEY IN AFRICA.	

T U R K E Y I N E U R O P E.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. M.
Length 1000	between { 17 and 40 east longitude. 36 and 49 north latitude. }	158,100.
Greatest Breadth 900		
BOUNDARIES.] B OUNDDED by Russia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the north; by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellespont, and the Archipelago, on the east; by the Mediterranean, on the south, by the same sea, and the Venetian and Austrian territories, on the west.		

DIVISIONS.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Crim and Little Tartary, or the ancient

Taurica Chersonesus*

Budziac Tartary, Bessarabia.

Moldavia, olim Dacia

Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia

Bulgaria, the east part of the ancient Myſia

Servia, the west part of Myſia

Bosnia, part of the ancient Illyricum

Romania, olim Thrace

Macedonia

Theſſaly, now Janna

Achaia and Boeotia, now Livadia

Epirus

Albania

Dalmatia

Ragusan republic†

Corinthia

Argos

Sparta

Olympia, where the games were held

Arcadia

Elis

Precop, Bachiſeraï, Kaffa.

Oczakow, Bender, Belgorod.

Jazy, Choczim, Falkzin.

Teregvife.

Widin, Nicopoli Siliftria, Scopia.

Belgrade, Semendria, Niſſa.

Seraio.

Conſtantinople, N. L. 41. E. L. 29. Adrianople.

Strymon, Conteffa.

Salonichi, Lariffa,

Athens, Thebes, Lepanto.

Chimaera, Bartinto, Scodra.

Durazzo, Dulcigno.

Zara, Narenza.

Ragufa

Corinth

Argos, Napoli di Romania.

Lacedaemon, now Miſira, on the river Eurotas

Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus

Modon, Coron.

Partas, Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Peneus.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] In this reſpect, nature has lavished upon the inhabitants of Turkey, all her bleſſings. The ſoil, though unimproved, is extremely luxuriant. The air is ſalubrious. The ſeaſons are here regular, and the climate has been celebrated from the remotest antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholeſomeſs of the water, all over their dominions.

MOUNTAINS.] Mount Athos lies on a peninſula, running into the Egean Sea; the mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, ſeparate Theſſaly from Epirus. Parnaffus, in Achaia, ſo famous for being conſecrated to the Muſes, is well known. Mount Haemus is likewiſe often mentioned by the poets; but moſt of the other mountains have changed their names; witneſs the mountains Shua, Witoſka, Staras, Piamina, and many others. Even the moſt celebrated mountains above mentioned, have modern names impoſed upon them by the Turks.

* The Ruſſians in 1793, ſeized on the Crimea, the principal part of this diviſion, and by a treaty, ſigned January 9th, 1784, the Turks ceded it to them, with the iſle of Taman, and that part of Cuban which is bounded by the river of that name. The Turks have now only the Tartar nations beyond the river Cuban, and from the Black Sea.

† The republic of Ragusa, though reckoned by geographers part of Turkey in Europe, is not under the Turkiſh government. It is an aristocratical ſtate, formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republic, who is ſtyled rector, is changed every month, and elected by ſcrutiny or lot. During his ſhort adminiſtration, he lives in the palace, and wears a ducal habit. As the Ragusans are unable to protect themſelves, they make uſe of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom, for many years, was the grand ſignior. They endeavoured alſo to keep upon good terms with the Venetians, and other neighbouring ſtates. But in the year

1783, a diſpute aroſe between them and the king of Naples, reſpecting a claim of right to his appointing a commander of the Ragusan troops. It was terminated by the republic's putting itſelf under that king's protection. The city of Ragusa is not above two miles in circumference, but it is well built, and contains ſome handſome edifices. The ancient Epidaurus was ſituated not far from this city. The Ragusans profeſs the Catholic religion; but Greeks, Armenians, and Turks, are tolerated. Almoſt all the citizens are traders, and they keep ſo watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of the city of Ragusa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. The language chiefly in uſe among the Ragusans is the Sclavonian, but the greateſt part of them ſpeak the Italian. They have many trading veſſels, and are carriers in the Mediterranean, like the Dutch, being conſtantly at peace with the piratical ſtates of Barbary. The cities of Gravosa, and Stagno, thirty miles N. E. of Ragusa, are within the territories of this republic, and five ſmall iſlands alſo belong to it, the principal of which is Melidz.

SEAS.] These are the Euxine or Black Sea; the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Afoph; the Sea of Marmora which separates Europe from Asia; the Archipelago; the Ionian Sea, and the Levant.

STRAITS.] Those of the Hellespont and Bosphorus are joined to the sea of Marmora, and are remarkable in modern, as well as ancient history. The former, viz. the Hellespont, or Dardanelles, is only two miles and a half in breadth, and is famous for the passage of Xerxes over it, when about to invade Greece, and of Alexander in his expedition against Asia. Xerxes, for the more easy transportation of his numerous forces, laid a bridge of boats over it. The Bosphorus is about the same breadth as the Hellespont.

RIVERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neister, the Neiper, and the Don, are the best known rivers in this country; though many others have been celebrated by poets and historians.

LAKES.] The Lago di Scutari lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, so famous for its harpies and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and Peneus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx issues, reported by poets to be the passage into hell.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all sorts of mines, and its marbles are esteemed the finest in the world.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] These are excellent all over the European Turkey, especially when assisted by the smallest degree of industry. Besides pot and garden herbs of almost every kind, this country produces in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon sweetness, excellent figs, almonds, olives, and cotton. Besides these, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

ANIMALS.] The Thessalian or Turkish horses, are excellent both for their beauty and service. The black cattle are large, especially in Greece. The goats are, to the inhabitants, a most valuable part of the animal creation, for their milk and flesh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Badadagi, furnish the best feathers for arrows to the Turkish archers, and are sold at an uncommon price. Partridges are plentiful in Greece.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Almost every spot of ground, every river,
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } and every fountain of Greece, presents the
traveller with celebrated antiquities. On the isthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Isthmian games were celebrated, are still visible. Athens, which contains at present above ten thousand inhabitants, abounds with magnificent ruins. Among the antiquities of this once superb city, are the remains of the temple of Minerva, built of white marble, and encompassed with forty-six fluted columns of the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and seven feet and a half in circumference. The architrave is adorned with basso-relievos, admirably executed, representing the wars of the Athenians. To the south-east of the Acropolis, a citadel which defends the town, are seventeen beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, thought to be the remains of the emperor Adrian's palace. They are of fine white marble, about fifty feet high, including the capitals and bases. Just without the city stands the temple of Theseus, surrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order. The portico, at the west end, is adorned with the battle of the Centaurus, in basso-relievo; that at the east end appears to be a continuation of the same history; and on the outside of the porticos, are represented the exploits of Theseus. On the south-west side of Athens, is a beautiful structure, commonly called the Lantern of Demosthenes. This is a small round edifice of white marble. The roof is supported by six fluted columns of the Corinthian order, nine feet and an half high, in the space between the columns are pannels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cu-

pola, carved with the resemblance of scales; and on the frieze are beautifully represented in relievo, the labours of Hercules. Here are also to be seen the temple of the Winds; the remains of the theatre of Bacchus; of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian; and of the temples of Jupiter Olympius and Augustus. The remains of the oracle of Apollo are still visible at Castri; on the south side of mount Parnassus; and the marble steps are still discernible, that descend to a pleasant running water, supposed to be the renowned Castalian spring, with the niches for statues in the rock. The famous cave of Trophonius is still a natural curiosity in Livadia, the old Bœotia.

Mount Athos stands on a peninsula which extends into the Ægean sea, and is a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninsula, seven Turkish miles in length and three in breadth; but it is only a single mountain that is properly called Athos. This is so lofty, that on the top, as the ancients pretended, the sun-rising was beheld four hours sooner than by the inhabitants of the coast; and, at the solstice, its shade reached into the market-place of Myrina, a town in Lemnos, which island was distant eighty-seven miles eastward. There are twenty-two convents on Mount Athos, besides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of numerous monks and hermits. The monks, who call themselves "the inhabitants of the holy mountain," besides their daily offices of religion, cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, masons, stone cutters, cloth-workers, taylors, &c. They live a very austere life; their usual food, instead of flesh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit; onions, cheese, and on certain days, lent excepted, fish. Their fasts are many and severe. The healthfulness of the air, assisted by their habitual temperance, renders longevity so common here, that many of the fathers live above an hundred years. It appears from Ælian, that anciently the mountain in general, and particularly the summit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life; whence the inhabitants were called *Macrobii*, or long-lived. We are farther informed by Philostratus, in the life of Apollonius, that numbers of philosophers used to retire to this mountain, for the better contemplation of the heavens, and of nature.

CITIES.] Constantinople, the capital of this empire, is situated on the European side of the Bosphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Constantine the great, as a more inviting situation than Rome for the seat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire, and, having escaped the destructive rage of the barbarous nations, was the greatest as well as the most beautiful city in Europe, and the only one, during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While in possession of the Greek emperors, it was almost the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the East Indies. The European writers, in the ages of the crusades, speak of it with astonishment. "O, what a vast city is Constantinople! (exclaims one, when he first beheld it) and how beautiful! How many monasteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wonderful art! How many manufactures are there in the city, amazing to behold! It would be astonishing to relate how it abounds with all good things, with gold, silver, and stuffs of various kinds; for every hour, ships arrive in the port with all things necessary for the use of man." Constantinople is, at this day, one of the finest cities in the world by its situation and its port. The prospect from it is noble. The most regular part is the *Beseftin*, enclosed with walls and gates, where the merchants have their shops ranged. In another part of the city, is the Hippodrome, an oblong square of four hundred paces by two hundred, where the troops exercise on horseback. The parade is a large spacious square, the general resort of all ranks. On the opposite side of the port are four towns, which are considered as a part of the suburbs. They are named *Pera*, *Galata*, *Pacha*, and *Tophana*. In

Pera, the foreign ambassadors and Franks or strangers reside, not being permitted to live in the city; *Galata* also is mostly inhabited by Franks and Jews, and is a place of great trade. Constantinople abounds with antiquities: the tomb of Constantine is still preserved. The mosque of St. Sophia, once a christian church, is thought, in some respects, to exceed, in grandeur of architecture, St. Peter's at Rome. It is situated in the finest part of Constantinople, upon an eminence, with a gradual descent to the sea. It is of a long square form, about one hundred paces in length, and eighty in breadth, but in the inside it is round. A portico, or piazza, about thirty-six feet in breadth, supported by marble pillars, extends the whole length of the front. This communicates with the body of the church by nine folding-doors of brass, the middlemost of which has some remains of Mosaic work and paintings; which have been almost entirely defaced by the Turks. This portico is joined to another which has five brazen doors. The body of the church is almost covered by a cupola of admirable structure at the foot of which runs a colonnade supporting a gallery of nine yards broad, formerly set apart for the women. Over this run two balustrades, just broad enough for one person to pass; which, in the time of their Ramadan, or lent, are adorned with lamps, and make a fine appearance. The dome is thirty-four yards from side to side, and rests upon four vast pillars, at least fifteen yards in circumference. It is a perfect hemisphere, illuminated by twenty-four windows placed at equal distances from one another. In the inside are upwards of one hundred pillars, of various kinds of marble, some of which are porphyry, and others Egyptian granite. The whole dome, and indeed all the walls, are curiously lined with marble, and the incrustations of the gallery are Mosaic, generally done with small glass cubes, which are continually loosened from their cement, but the colours are unchangeable. The Turks have added four minarets, or tall slender steeples, somewhat resembling the monument in London, and terminating in spires, with gilded crescents on the top.

The city is built in a triangular form, with the seraglio standing on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a prospect of the delightful coast of Lesser Asia. When we speak of the seraglio, we do not mean the apartments in which the grand signior's women are confined, as is commonly imagined, but the whole enclosure of the Ottoman palace, which might well suffice for a moderate town. The wall, which surrounds the seraglio, is thirty feet high, having battlements, embrasures, and towers, in the style of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of these, the Ottoman court takes the name of the *Porte*, in all public transactions and records. The town is surrounded by a high and thick wall, with battlements, after the oriental manner, and towers, defended by a lined and shallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land-side. The best authors think that it does not contain above eight hundred thousand inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are said to be Greeks and Armenians, the rest are Jews and Turks. Others suppose the inhabitants not to exceed six hundred thousand. The city hath been frequently ravaged by fires, either owing to the narrowness of the streets and the structure of the houses, or the arts of the Janizaries. In August, 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter situated towards the harbour, and spread into other quarters, and about ten thousand houses (most of which had been rebuilt since the fire in 1782) were consumed.

Opposite to the seraglio, on the Asiatic side, and about a mile and a half distant across the water, is *Scutari*, adorned with a royal mosque, and a pleasure-house of the grand signior. On the brow of an adjacent hill, is a grand prospect. In one view are Constantinople, *Galata*, and *Pera*, the small seas of the Bosphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each shore.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military strength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks, these several heads, depend-

ing on the same principles all over the empire shall be mentioned under **TURKEY** in **ASIA**.

CRIM-TARTARY, or the **CRIMEA**, the ancient *Taurica Chersonesus*, is a peninsula, lying on the *Euxine* or *Black Sea*, by which it is bounded on the west and south, and on the east and north east, by that of *Asoph*. It is between forty-four and forty-six degrees of north latitude, and thirty-four and thirty-seven degrees of east longitude.

This peninsula was esteemed a part of *Turkey* in *Europe*, until it was ceded to *Russia*, in consequence of the peace in 1784. Many cities were built on it by the *Greeks*, particularly those of *Cherson*, *Theodosia*, *Panticapeum*, and some others, which carried on a great trade with the *Scythians*, as well as with the *Greek* cities on the continent. It is probable, however, that the modern towns of this country are not situated exactly in the same places with those built by the *Greeks*. *Eupatoria*, now *Kofseo*, is but at a small distance from the seat of the ancient *Eupatorium*, if not exactly in the same spot; and *Sebastopolis* stands but a very little way from the *Cherson* of the *Greeks*; the ruins of which last are still extant. *Strabo* mentions a place, named *Portus Symbolon*, which is probably the same with that named *Symbol* by the *Genoese*, and in modern times *Babylava*; *Janikale* is the *Panticapeum* of the ancient; and *Theodosia*, lately called *Kassa*, has now received its ancient appellation of *Theodosia* again.

The most considerable rivers in the *Crimea* are those of *Karasu* and *Salagir*, which take an easterly course, and uniting their streams, at the distance of more than twenty wersts from the sea, run into the gulf of the sea of *Asoph*, which is interposed between the main land of *Crimea*, and a long narrow peninsula.

Of the towns in this part of the world, we have but very slight descriptions; and, indeed, where the country has been so often the seat of war, and the inhabitants are still so uncivilized, very little can be expected from their buildings. A *Tartar's* house is a very slight building of only one story, without any chair, table, or piece of wooden furniture. Large cushions are ranged round the rooms for seats; but what is extremely convenient, there is more than double the space of the room behind the wainscot, which draws back in most places: so that in a place where the room appears exceedingly small and confined, there is yet every conveniency to be met with. A *Tartar* house has always another building; at a small distance from it, for the convenience of strangers or travellers. The palace of the *khan* at *Bachiserai*, is an irregular building; the greatest part of it is of one floor, raised upon pillars of wood, arched and gilt in a fanciful and lively manner; the arch, or last doorway, is finely proportioned, and is adorned with an inscription in letters of gold.

Among the curiosities in this country, we may reckon the source of the river *Karasu*, which is situated among rocks, in a very romantic manner, and rises in a considerable stream. No less wonderful are those lakes which receive the rivulets, without any visible outlet. On the summit of certain rocks, near *Sebastopolis*, are places where immense cables have certainly passed and been tied. The *Tartars* insist that the sea was once close to the foot of them, and that ships were fastened there. Near *Bachiserai* there is a mine of earth, exactly like soap, which is reckoned very good for the skin, and vast quantities of it are consumed by the women at *Constantinople*. The sheep, in this peninsula, are numerous, and afford the most beautiful and costly spotted fleeces. Throughout the whole of this peninsula; there are many ruins of ancient towns.

The peninsula of the *Crimea* has a considerable trade in what is called *Morocco-leather*, of various colours, which is to be had very cheap. At *Bachiserai*, there is a great trade of sword-blades, knives and hangers.

LITERATURE.] It might seem improper to conclude the account of European Turkey without paying some notice to this subject. Ancient Greece has been celebrated, beyond every other country in the world, for its fertility in excellent writers of all classes. The orators, historians, and philosophers of the Roman empire, considered it as their profession to imitate, and their highest ambition to rival, their Grecian predecessors and masters. In poetry, the superior talents of that extraordinary people were alike incontestible. Plautus, Lucretius, Virgil, Ovid, Horace, and, indeed, almost the whole of the Roman poets, are known to have been very largely indebted to the inexhaustible treasures of the genius of Greece. The natives of this narrow peninsula, one half less in extent than Pennsylvania, had, from circumstances which cannot now be explained, invented a language for themselves*. This tongue was entirely distinct from that of any other nation, and was, at the same time, beyond question, the most beautiful ever spoken. Yet the flexions of its nouns and verbs were infinitely more complex than even those of the Latin tongue. Such was its situation so early as the age of Homer. It is doubtful whether he was at all acquainted with an alphabet, as he no where makes any allusion to the art of writing. If he employed letters, still he must have written his poems, in a very rude period of society. The construction of so strangely artificial a system of grammar, would, in any state of human life, appear surprising. But when we reflect that the declensions, moods, and tenses of the Greek, had been formed by a barbarous and illiterate people, its refinement in the text of Homer, seems very unaccountable. The pyramids of Egypt are an object of conjectures and astonishment to the learned. Yet, the origin of the language of Greece, at which no critic seems to wonder, is, in itself, a monument of art, ten thousand times more striking. But when contemplated, as the production of a rude and unlettered nation, its complexity, and its beauties, are equally amazing. Cicero tells us, that some Latin verses of the age of Numa Pompilius, had descended to his time. They were become obsolete and even unintelligible. If an interval of six centuries was thus requisite for perfecting the language of Cicero, an equal space of time ought to be allowed for the formation of that of Homer. He most likely composed his poems within a century after Troy was taken. The progress of the Latin tongue, as above stated, leads us, by analogy, to infer, that the Greek had begun to assume its classical form, at a very remote period of antiquity.

Of the authors of ancient Greece, Homer claims the first place. Besides his Iliad and Odyssey, he composed many other poems. Of these, a great part are lost. Of the remainder still extant, some, at least, have considerable merit. Yet, by the tasteless caprice of the literary world, the lesser works of Homer have sunk almost into perfect oblivion. This circumstance appears very inexplicable, when we reflect upon the superlative renown of the poet. He left behind him a number of hymns inscribed to different Grecian divinities. They were cited as authentic by Thucydides, Pausanias, and Lucian. One of those, which have descended entire, is inscribed to Venus. The subject of it is; the amour of Anchises with the goddess of love. The exordium has been imitated by Lucretius; and Virgil, with his usual assiduity, has copied several lines of this hymn, for his interview between Eneas and Venus †. A complete collection of the remaining works of Homer is hardly to be met with. The attention of the world has been exclusively and injuriously engrossed by his Iliad and Odyssey, to the utter neglect of his less voluminous compositions. A Greek hymn

* All the words in the Greek language are derived from about three hundred primitives, a plain evidence that the Greeks formed their language almost entirely among themselves." Essay on the formation of languages, by Dr. Adami Smith, London edition of 1792.

† There is a beautiful translation of this poem in the works of Mr. Congreve. Of the battle of the frogs and mice, ascribed also to Homer, Dr. Parnell published an elegant version.

to Ceres, was discovered about fifteen years ago, among some ancient manuscripts; and has been supposed to be the work of Homer. His *Margites* was a narrative in the humorous and satirical strain; but no part of it hath survived the wreck of time. The poet wishes to represent the Grecian heroes of his *Iliad*, as acting from patriotic and honourable motives; and some critics have pretended, upon principles of justice, to feel themselves cordially interested upon that side of the question. The partiality of Homer to his countrymen, is one of the great blemishes of his performance, and his frequent attempts to represent the Trojan nation, as under the displeasure of divine justice, for defending the crime of Paris, was a sophism unworthy of his good sense and disgusting to every candid reader. The brutal manners of the Grecian leaders present a decisive antidote to every sort of sympathy with their conjugal misfortunes. For one example, out of a multitude, the work opens with relating an act of violence perpetrated by that indignant avenger of adultery, Agamemnon, upon the daughter of the priest of Apollo. This was, in itself, at least equally criminal with the ambiguous rape or seduction of Helen. Yet Homer, and Pope, his translator, absurdly deafen us with the wrongs of Greece and the guilt of Troy. Ten years were spent in preparing for this war. Ten years were spent in the course of it. A powerful kingdom was subverted. An extensive continent was covered with blood and ashes. That remnant of the conquerors who returned to Greece, met, for the most part, with a hostile reception. Agamemnon and Neoptolemus perished by domestic assassination. Idomeneus, Diomedes, and Teucer, were driven as exiles from their country. Ulysses escaped back to Ithaca, without one surviving companion of all his troops; and he was forced to cut his way to his throne, through the slaughter of his subjects. With all these tragical fruits of victory, Helen, the alleged object of the quarrel, was not recovered by the destruction of Troy. Paris, in his flight from Sparta, had been driven, as Herodotus assures us, on the coast of Egypt. He was deprived of his mistress by the monarch of that country. Menelaus, her husband, in his voyage back from Troy, received her in Egypt: where, before the war began, *he had been informed by the Trojans, that she was to be found.* To execute vengeance, therefore, on Priam and his people, for the wrongs of Menelaus, was the most extravagant and atrocious project that can well be conceived. Homer, as the panegyrist of an abominable war, is an author, upon the whole, unfriendly to the welfare of mankind. He has invested the horrors of military renown with so much false lustre, that the intoxication must be dangerous to most of his readers. For this fault, we cannot so justly censure the venerable and inimitable bard himself, as the savage manners of his age, and the detestable story that he chose to adorn, and for the selection of which, his judgment has been so preposterously praised. Many passages in his text are yet irresistibly pathetic. The parting of Andromache with Hector, the meeting of Ulysses with Telemachus, with Laertes, and with Penelope, as well as a few other scenes of the same nature, must be perused with extacy by every person, who has felt the pleasure to love and to be loved. Homer has not, at least in his *Iliad* or *Odyssey*, referred to the existence of a certain vice, that is very frequently spoken of with indifference or approbation by the poets of antiquity. This uncommon purity of sentiment, which reflects so much honour on his memory, seems to have escaped the notice of his numerous panegyrists.

Pindar is considered as the father of lyric poetry. Four books of his odes have escaped from the wreck of ages. He is said to have also published hymns, elegies, epigrams, and other poetical compositions, extending to seventeen distinct works; but they are lost, as also has been an account of his life, written by Plutarch. Lord Bacon said, that it was the peculiar talent of Pindar, to strike the minds of men, as it were, with a divine sceptre. The magnificence of his enthusiasm, the most happy copiousness of his thoughts and language, his peculiar torrent of eloquence, induc-

ed Quintilian to rank him, as the prince of lyric poets. In elegy, the same critic says, that Pindar was much inferior to Simonides, of whom a few pages remain, and who was reputed by many of the Greeks and Romans, as the most pathetic writer of all antiquity. It is impossible to do Pindar justice by any translation; but his superiority in extent and grandeur of ideas, even to Horace, glimmers though the version of Mr. West. Of the other lyric poets of ancient Greece, only a few detached pieces or fragments have reached the present time. Among these are four short addresses to Greek warriors, ascribed to Tyrtæus. They justify the state of Horace in classing him with the author of the Iliad.

Theocritus has always been placed at the head of the pastoral poets. He is distinguished by the simplicity of his sentiments, the sweetness and harmony of his numbers, the richness of his scenery and descriptions. His shepherds, in their amorous complaints, never wander beyond the ideas and images of rural life. The highest beauties of the Virgilian eclogues are principally translated from this writer. Several of his poems are not, however, of a pastoral nature; but they serve to show, that he was capable of excellence, as a panegyrist, a satirist, and an epic poet. Dryden has translated four of his Idylls. He has added many thoughts of his own; and sometimes, not improperly, has softened the accidental indelicacy of the Greek. His versions display a sweetness, a majesty, a comprehensive rapidity and a picturesque simplicity of expression, that never has been excelled even by Dryden himself.

The dramatic writings of Greece, have commanded the incessant attention of the learned. Mr. Cumberland* informs us, that in the age of Terence, Rome possessed two thousand Greek comedies. Of these, there remains only the scanty volume of Aristophanes. It contains but eleven plays out of fifty-four, which he is reported to have written. Aristophanes exerted, and sometimes abused, very great abilities. He was one of the favourite writers of Plato, who recommended his plays to the tyrant Dionysius, as the most perfect specimen of the genius of Athens, and the most accurate picture of the manners and character of its citizens. *Eighteen years* before the death of Socrates, he was exposed to ridicule by Aristophanes, in his comedy of *The clouds*; and soon after, Melitus, who was, at a future period, one of the principal agents in the execution of the philosopher, was burlesqued by the same poet. From the former of these two circumstances, an absurd clamour has been raised against the memory of this writer as if he had been an agent hired by Melitus, to assist in a conspiracy against the life of Socrates. Menander was the most famous of the comic poets of Greece. Quintilian affirms, "that he eclipsed every writer of his class, and, by his superior splendor, cast them all into the shade." Time has spared only a few detached fragments of Menander, and of many other of the ancient comic poets. Mr. Cumberland, in his *Observer*, has lately published translations of a great part of these fragments; and to that work, the curious reader is referred for a rich fund of classical information, that can be no where else met with in the English language. Of Greek tragedies, thirty-three are extant, seven of Æschylus, seven of Sophocles, and nineteen of Euripides. These are but a slender portion of their entire works. It is to be regretted, that of the fragments of the minor Greeks, though some collections have been made, yet a complete body has not been published.

The historians of Greece are, in general, regarded as the standard of literary excellence. Herodotus has been much blamed, as fond of fables; but, in telling one of his wonderful stories, he frankly says, "The reader may perhaps believe this, but for my part, *I cannot*." So ingenuous an acknowledgement ought to soften the severity of criticism. It is said, that several of his accounts of remote countries which had been disbelieved by the ancients, are attested, as true, by modern travellers. It would

* *Observer*, No. XIX.

exceed our limits to insert the characters of the other Greek historians, now left us, of whom Thucydides, Xenophon, Polybius, Diodorus Siculus, Dionysius Halicarnasensis, Dion Cassius, and Plutarch, are among the principal. Polybius has been mentioned by Dr. Robertson, "as the most intelligent and well-informed historian of antiquity." Plutarch still remains without a rival in the department of biographers. With a variety of imperfections, he is yet more universally interesting, than, perhaps, any other historian, either ancient or modern. Without attempting, as Xenophon, Sallust, and other writers have successfully done, to draw an accurate description of his principal characters, he places them, by an inimitable happiness of arrangement, in every point of view, that can enable the reader to form a judgment for himself. Josephus has advanced a curious and explicit charge against the historians of Greece, for want of veracity. He cites a great number of instances, where their mutual contradictions are inexplicable. We shall close this subject, by adverting to a position advanced and ascertained by the learned and accurate Mr. Gibbon. It had been usual to blame the fanaticism of Omar for the destruction of the Alexandrian library. This able and impartial historian has fairly proved, that the ravages perpetrated upon ancient manuscripts, must, in a great measure, be ascribed to the jealousy of the fathers of the Greek church. Centuries before the birth of Mahomet, one of the most valuable libraries in Egypt had been burned by a rabble, who called themselves christians; and if the Alexandrian collection had survived so late as the days of Omar, Mr. Gibbon is persuaded that it must have been much reduced from its original splendor.

ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in EUROPE, being part of ancient GREECE.

NEGROPONT, the ancient Eubœa, stretches from the south-east to the north-west, and lies on the eastern coast of Achaia or Livadia. It is ninety miles long, and twenty-five broad, and contains about one thousand three hundred square miles. Here the Turkish galleys lie. The tides on its coasts are irregular. The island itself is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle in such abundance, that all kinds of provisions are extremely cheap. The chief towns in the island are, Negropont, called by the Greeks, Egripos, situated on the south-west coast of the island, on the narrowest part of the strait; and Cassel Rosso, the ancient Caraius.

LEMNOS, or **STALIMINE**, lies in the northern part of the Ægean sea or Archipelago, and is almost a square of twenty-five miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches arise from its mineral earth, much used in medicine, sometimes called *terra lemna*, or *sgillata*, because it is sealed up by the Turks, who receive from it a considerable revenue.

TENEDOS is remarkable only for its lying opposite to old Troy, and its being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal security. It hath a town of the same name.

SCYROS is about sixty miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains; about three hundred Greek families inhabit it.

LESBOS, or **MYTELENE**, is about sixty miles long, and is famous for the number of philosophers and poets whom it produced.

SCIO, or **CHIOS**, lies about eighty miles west of Smyrna, and is about one hundred miles in circumference. This island though rocky and mountainous, produces ex-

cellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by one hundred thousand Greeks, ten thousand Turks, and above three thousand Latins. It hath three hundred churches, besides chapels and monasteries; and a Turkish garrison, of one thousand four hundred men. The inhabitants have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold and silver stuffs. The island likewise produces oil and silk, and the lentisk-tree, or mastic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almost all the other Greek islands, have been celebrated for their beauty, and their persons have been the most perfect models of symmetry to painters and statuaries. Dr. Richard Chandler says, "That the beautiful Greek girls are the most striking ornaments of Scio. Many of these were sitting at the doors and windows, twisting cotton or silk, or employed in spinning, and needle work, and accosted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome, as we passed. The streets, on Sundays and holidays, are filled with them in groups. They wear short petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white silk or cotton hose. Their head dress, which is peculiar to the island, is a kind of turban, the linen so white and thin, it seemed snow. Their slippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them fastened with a thong. Their garments were of silk, of various colours; and their whole appearance so fantastic and lively, as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a separate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and historians, said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and show a little square house, which they call Homer's school.

SAMOS lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of the Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is thirty miles long, and fifteen broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek christians, who are well treated by the Turks, their masters. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request; and the island produces wool, which they sell to the French; also oil, pomegranates, and silk. This island is pretended to have been the native country of Juno; and some travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city of Samos, are the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the south of Samos lies PATMOS, about twenty miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock, rather than an island. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks, who are upon the island, show a cave where St. John is pretended to have written the Apocalypse.

The CYCLADES islands lie like a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which is south of the islands Myconé and Tirse, and almost midway between the continents of Asia and Europe. Though Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. This island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

PAROS lies between the islands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek islands, it contains most striking and magnificent ruins, of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteness of its marble.

CERIGO, or CYTHERA, lies south-east of the Morea, and is about fifty miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable in the fables of antiquity for being the favourite residence of Venus.

SANTORIN is one of the most southern islands in the Archipelago, and was former-

ly called Calista, and afterwards Thera. Though seemingly covered with pumice-stones, yet, thro' the industry of the inhabitants, who are about ten thousand, it produces barley and wine, with some wheat. One third of the people are of the Latin church and subject to a catholic bishop. Near this island another of the same name, arose in 1707, from the bottom of the sea. At the time of its rising, there was an earthquake, attended with most dreadful lightnings and thunder, and boilings of the sea for several days, so that when it rose out of the sea, it was a mere volcano; but the burning soon ceased. It is about two hundred feet above the sea; and when it first emerged, was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference, but it has since increased. Several other islands of the Archipelago, appear to have had the like origin, although the sea in their neighbourhood is so deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous island of RHODES, is situated in the twenty-eighth degree of east longitude, and thirty-six degrees twenty minutes north latitude, about twenty miles south-west of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about sixty miles long; and twenty-five broad. This island is healthful and pleasant, abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town of the same name, stands on the side of a hill fronting the sea and is three miles in circumference, interspersed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour is the grand signior's principal arsenal for shipping, and the place is esteemed among the strongest fortresses belonging to the Turks. The colossus of brass, which anciently stood at the mouth of the harbour, was fifty fathoms wide, and deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world. One foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships passed between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The face of the colossus represented the sun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about one hundred and thirty-five feet. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks, in 1308, but lost it to them in 1522, after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, lies between thirty-five and thirty-six degrees of north latitude, being two hundred miles long, and fifty broad, almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa, and contains three thousand two hundred and twenty square miles*. The famous Mount Ida stands in the middle of the island, and is no better than a barren rock. Lethe, the river of oblivion is a torpid stream. Some of the vallies of this island, produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kinds. The siege of Candia, the capital of the island, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645, and its Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself against fifty-six storms, till the latter end of September 1669, made, at last, an honourable capitulation. The siege is said to have cost the Turks, one hundred and eighty thousand men, and the Venetians eighty thousand.

* The reader will perceive, that, if its given dimensions of length and breadth, were exact, Candia must contain twelve thousand square miles, in place of the number assigned in the text. The science of Geography is in nothing more defective, than in ascertaining the extent of the various regions of the earth. Even the number of square

miles in England, is very inaccurately known to the Geographers of that country. There are some curious particulars, on this topic, in Mr. Arthur Young's late tour in France, Vol. II. It only remains for the editor of a work of this nature to state the common estimates, and leave the public to draw their own conclusions.

Mr. Savary says, that Crete contains, at present, three hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants; of these two hundred thousand are Turks, one hundred and fifty thousand Greeks, and two hundred Jews. The Greeks are oppressed by every species of bad government, if a regular system of robbery can deserve the name of government.

CYPRUS lies in the Levant sea, about thirty miles distant from the coast of Syria and Palestine. It is one hundred and fifty miles long, and seventy broad, and almost at an equal distance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess; and, during the time of the Crusades, was a rich, flourishing kingdom, inhabited by christians. Its wine, especially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the most palatable and the richest of any that grows in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, in the midst of the country, and the see of a Greek archbishop; indeed, the most part of the inhabitants of the islands are Greeks. Famagusta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour and the natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to such a degree, that the revenue which they get from it, does not exceed one thousand two hundred and fifty pounds a year. The island produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made, and also cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, silk, and turpentine. Paphos is one of the divisions of the island. Richard I. king of England, subdued Cyprus; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Lusignan, king of Jerusalem, from whence it passed to the Venetians, who still hold that empty honour.

The Ionian sea contains SAPIENZA, STIVALI, ZANTE, CEPHALONIA, SANTAMAURA, CORFU, FANNU, and other islands of smaller note. One of these is ISOLA DEL COM-PARE, the ancient Ithaca, the birth place and kingdom of Ulysses. These islands, in general, are fruitful; they belong to the Venetians.

Zante has a populous capital of the same name, and is a place of considerable trade, especially in currants*, grapes and wine. The citadel is erected on the top of a large hill, strong by nature, but now little better than a heap of ruins. Here is a garrison of five hundred men, but their chief dependence is on their fleet and the island of Corfu. The inhabitants of Zante are about thirty thousand, mostly Greeks, and friendly to strangers. Corfu, which is the capital of that island, and the residence of the governor-general over all the other islands, is a place of great strength, and in circumference about four miles. The Venetians are said to concern themselves very little about the welfare or government of these islands, so that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very different character. The number at Corfu is estimated at fifty thousand, and their manners more severe than at Zante.

A S I A.

ASIA is reported by geographers to contain ten millions two hundred and fifty-seven thousand, four hundred and eighty-seven square miles†. It is thus the largest of the four quarters of the globe; and, independent of the light derived from

* So called from a corruption of Corinth, from whence the vine was originally imported.

† See Vol. I. p. 36.

divine revelation, there is some reason to conjecture, that it was the first region of the world inhabited by man. The provinces of the vast empires of China, and Indostan, appear to have been populous and powerful communities, at a very early period, and when the inhabitants of a great part of Europe were naked savages, distinguished from the quadrupeds of the forest by no mark of human nature, but its external form. Ancient historians concur in attesting, that, to Asia the Europeans were indebted for many of the arts of civilized life. The whole of this great continent lies to the north of the equator, and a considerable part of it approaches to the north pole. On the northeast, it advances to meet the northwest coast of North-America. The two continents are separated by an arm of the sea, of about the same breadth as that, which, at the straits of Gibraltar, divides Europe from Africa. A great part of the southern division of Asia is remarkable for its fertility. The inhabitants, also, have long been distinguished by an effeminacy of manners. But the Tartars, who live in the more northern latitudes, are brave, hardy, and ferocious. The Chinese, Mogul Indians, and most of the inhabitants of the more southern regions, are noted for ingenuity in various kinds of workmanship, which our most skilful mechanics cannot always imitate.

This vast extent of territory was successively governed by the Assyrians, the Medes, the Persians, and the Greeks; but the immense regions of India and China, were scarcely known to Alexander, or the conquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of those empires, great part of Asia submitted to the Roman; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the successors of Mahomet, or, as they are usually called, the Saracens, founded in Asia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus, of Alexander, or even of Rome. The Saracen greatness ended on the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every side, took possession of the middle regions of Asia, which they still ravage rather than enjoy. Besides the countries possessed by the Turks and Russians, Asia contains at present three large empires, the Chinese, the Mogul, and the Persian. The prevailing form of government in this division of the globe, is absolute monarchy. If any of them can be said to enjoy a share of liberty, it is the wandering tribes of Tartars and Arabs. Turkey, Arabia, Persia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profess Mahometanism. The Persian and Indian Mahometans are of the sect of Hali, and the Turks, of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their law-giver, and the koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Asiatic islands, the natives are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Asia.

The principal languages spoken in this continent are, the modern Greek, the Turkish, the Russian, the Tartarian, the Persian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chinese, and the Japanese. The European languages are also spoken upon the coasts of India and China.

The continent of Asia is situated between twenty-five and one hundred and eighty degrees of east longitude. From the peninsula of Malacca, which lies nearest to the equator, it stretches between ten and eighty degrees of north latitude. It is about four thousand seven hundred and forty miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the west, to the eastern shore of Tartary; and about four thousand three hundred and eighty miles in breadth, from the most southern part of Malacca, to the most northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the west it is separated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the sea of Marmora, the Bosphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the East, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South-Sea, which separates it from America; and

on the South by the Indian Ocean ; so that it is almost surrounded by the sea. The principal regions which divide this country, are as follow :

	Nations.	Length	Breadth.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bear, from London.	Dist. of time from London.	Religions.
Tartary.	Russian	The bounds of these parts are unlimited, each power pushing on its conquests as far as it can*.		3,050,000	Tobolsk	216o N. E.	4 1o bef.	Christ. & Pag. Pagans Pagans
	Chinese			644,000	Chynian	448o N. E.	8 4 bef.	
	Mogulean			185,350	Tibet	378o E.	5 4o bef.	
	Independent			600,060	Samarcand, & Lassa	28oo E.	4 36 bef.	
Turkey in Asia.	China	1440	1000	1,105,000	Peking	432o S. E.	7 24 bef.	Pagans Mah. & Pag. Mah. & Pag. Mahometans Christ. & Mah. Mahometans. Mahometans, with some few Christians. Mahometans
	Moguls	2000	1500	1,116,000	Delhi	372o S. E.	5 16 bef.	
	Ind. beyond the Ganges }	2000	1000	741,500	Siam, Pegu	5o4o S. E.	6 4½ bef.	
	Persia	1300	1100	800,000	Ispahan	246o S. E.	3 2o bef.	
	Part of Arabia	1300	1200	7oo,0oo	Mecca	264o S. E.	2 52 bef.	
	Syria	370	160	29,0oo	Aleppo	186o S. E.	2 3o bef.	
	Holy Land	210	90	7,6oo	Jerusalem	192o S. E.	2 24 bef.	
	Natolia	730	390	195,0oo	Smyrna	144o S. E.	1 48 bef.	
	Diarbeck or Mesopotamia	240	210	27,6oo	Diarbeck	266o S. E.	2 56 bef.	
	Irac or Chaldea	420	240	5o,4oo	Bagdad	224o	2 13 bef.	
	Turcomania, or Armenia	360	300	55,0oo	Erzerum	186o S. E.	2 44 bef.	
	Georgia †	240	180	25,6oo	Teflis	192o E.	3 1o bef.	
Curdistan, or Assyria	210	205	23,9oo	Scherazer	222o E.	3 oo bef.		

All the islands of Asia, except Cyprus, already described in the Levant, as belonging to the Turks, lie in the Pacific or Eastern Ocean, and the Indian Seas, of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have settlements, are

Islands.	Towns.	Sq. M.	Trade with, or belong to	
The Japanese isles	Jeddo, Meaco	138,000	Dutch	
The Ladronez	Guan		Spain	
Formosa	Tai-ouan-fou	17,000	China	
Anian	Kiontheow	11,900		
The Phillippines	Manilla	133,700	Spain	
The Molucca, or Clove isles	Victoria fort, Ternate		Dutch	
The Banda, or Nutmeg isles	Lantor		Dutch	
Amboyna	Amboyna	400	Dutch	
Celebes	the Molucca	68,400	Dutch	
Gilolo, &c.	& Banda isles	1o,400	Dutch	
The Sunda isles	Borneo	228,000	All nations	
	Sumatra	Borneo, Caytongee	129,000	English and Dutch
	Java, &c.	Achen, Bencoolen	38,25o	Dutch
The Andaman and Nicobar isles	Batavia, Bantam		All nations	
Ceylon	Andaman, Nicobar	27,73o	Dutch	
The Maldives	Candy		All nations	
Bombay	Caridon		English	
The Kurile isles, and those in the sea of Kamscatka, lately discovered by the Russians,	Bombay		Russian.	

* This passage is inserted exactly from the last London edition. It is there said that the territories of each of the powers possessing Tartary, are *unlimited*; and immediately after, the dimensions of their respective territories are minutely stated. The reader will see the utility of such calculations, which are suffered to remain, only because we know not where to find any better.

† Georgia hath lately claimed independence, and put itself under the protection of Russia.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees:	Sq. Miles:
Length	1000	between { 27 and 46 east longitude. 28 and 45 north latitude. }	520,820
Greatest Breadth	800		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the Black Sea and Circassia, on the north; by Persia, on the east; by Arabia and the Levant Sea, on the south; and by the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, which separate it from Europe, on the west.

DIVISIONS.

1. Eyraca Arabic or Chaldea
2. Diarbec or Mesopotamia
3. Curdistan or Assyria
4. Turcomania or Armenia
5. Georgia, including Mingrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circassia
6. Natolia Proper
7. Amasia
8. Aladulia.
9. Caramania
10. Syria, with Palestine

CHIEF TOWNS.

Bassora and Bagdad.
 Diarbec, Orta, and Moulul.
 Nineveh and Bertis.
 Erzerum and Van.
 Teflis, Amarchia, and Gonie.
 Bursa, Nici, Smyrna and Ephesus.
 Amasia, Trapefond, and Sinope.
 Ajazzo and Marat.
 Satalia and Teraffo.
 Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon
 Tripoli, Scanderoon, and Jerusalem.

MOUNTAINS.] The most remarkable are, Olympus; Taurus and Anti-taurus; Caucasus and Ararat; Lebanon; and Herman.

RIVERS] Some of the principal are the Euphrates; Tigris; Orontes; Meander; Sarabat; Kara; and Jordan.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] These are delightful. Yet Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, is often visited by the plague; a scourge of mankind, that is here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in that kind of predestination which prevents them from using the proper precautions to defend themselves against this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This country contains the most fertile provinces of Asia, and notwithstanding the indolence of its owners, produces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abundance. Raw silk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every species, coffee, myrrh, frankincense, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almost without culture. Agriculture is practised chiefly by Greek and Armenian christians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in these provinces, are highly delicious, and in the utmost plenty. Their asparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed those of most other countries in size. In short, nature has brought all her productions here to the highest perfection.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] The Turkish and Arabian horses, the latter especially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have considerably improved those of the English. We know of no quadrupeds that are merely peculiar to these countries; but they contain all that are necessary for the use of mankind. Camels are here in much request, from their strength, their agility and above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. The manufacture, known by the name of camlets, was originally made by a mixture of camels' hair and silk, though it is now often made with wool

and silk. Their kids and sheep are exquisite eating, and are said to surpass, in flavour and taste, those of Europe; but their butchers' meat in general, and beef in particular, is not so good.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in perfection: their ostriches are well known, by their tallness, swiftness in running, and stupidity. The Roman epicures prized no fish, except lampreys, mullets, and oysters, but those that were found in Asia.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richest kingdoms and provinces in Europe; and its medicinal springs and baths exceed those of any in the known world.

OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] **T**HE population of this great country, is by no means, equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the best geographers been able to ascertain it, because of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not so great as it was before the christian era, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to various causes, and, above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy to population, as may be evinced from many reasons, and particularly because the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practised, are more prolific than the Turks, notwithstanding the rigid subjection in which they are held by the latter. The plague is another cause of depopulation. Yet, after all, the subjects of the Turkish empire, are computed at forty nine millions.

The inhabitants are well made and robust. When young, their complexions are fair, their faces handsome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are sometimes handsome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanor, the Turks are rather grave, sedate, and passive; in matters of religion, tenacious, superstitious, and morose. Though the generality seem hardly capable of much benevolence, or even humanity, with regard to Jews, Christians, or any who differ from them in religious matters, yet they are far from being devoid of social affections for those of their own religion. The morals of the Asiatic Turks are preferable to those of the European. They are hospitable to strangers; and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among their great men. They are likewise said to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and public spirit are most conspicuous in their building caravaneras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are destitute of accommodations, for the refreshment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the same laudable view, they search out the best springs and dig wells, which, in those countries, are a luxury to wearied travellers. The Turks sit cross-legged upon mats, not only at their meals but in company. Their ideas are simple and confined, seldom reaching without the walls of their own houses; within which they sit conversing with their women, drinking coffee, smoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curiosity to be informed of the state of their own or any other country. They have few or no printed books, and seldom read any other than the Koran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negotiated in Turkey without presents; and here justice may commonly be bought and sold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon. They sup at five in the winter, and six in the summer, and supper is their principal meal. Among the great people, their dishes are served up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted, by their religion, to use gold or silver spoons. Their victuals are always high-seasoned. Rice is the common food of the lower sort, and

sometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief dish is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the soup is highly seasoned and poured upon it. They drink water, sherbet and coffee; and the chief debauch they know is in opium, which gives them sensations resembling those of intoxication. Guests of high rank sometimes have their beards perfumed by a female slave of the family. They are in general temperate and sober, from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the use of wine; though, in private, many of them indulge themselves in the use of strong liquors. Their common salutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breast. They sleep in linen waistcoats and drawers, upon mattresses, and cover themselves with a quilt. Few of them walk or ride either for health or diversion. Those who are religious, find however, sufficient exercise when they conform to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites prescribed to them by Mahomet.

Their active diversions consist in shooting at a mark, or tilting at it with darts, in which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purposes, that they may know the strength of their dependents. Within doors, the chess or draught-board are the usual amusements, and if they play at chance games, they seldom or never bet money, that being prohibited by the koran.

DRESS.] The men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, which they never put off but when they sleep. Their shirts are without collar or wristband; over them they throw a long vest, tied with a sash, and over the vest they wear a loose gown somewhat shorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of the same piece with their stockings; and instead of shoes, they wear slippers, which they lay aside when they enter a temple or house. They suffer no christians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dress of the women differ little from that of the men, only they wear stiffened caps upon their heads with horns something like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are so muffled up, as hardly to be known even by their nearest relations. They often tinge their hands and feet with *henna*, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make use of the same expedient to colour their beards.

MARRIAGES.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negotiated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a sum of money, a licence is taken out from the *cađi*, or proper magistrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity; and the money is generally employed in furnishing the house of the young couple. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives; but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain. Accordingly, besides their wives, the wealthy Turks keep a number of women, in their seraglios.

FUNERALS.] The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpse is attended by the relations, chanting passages from the koran; and after being deposited in a mosque, they are buried in a field by the iman or priest, who pronounces a funeral sermon, at the time of interment. The male relations express their sorrow by alms and prayers, the women by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and in mourning for a husband, they wear a particular head-dress, and renounce all finery for twelve months.

RELIGION.] The established religion is the Mahometan, so called from Mahomet, the author of it; some account of whom the reader will find in the following history of Arabia, his native country. The Turks profess to be of the sect of Omar; but these are divided into nearly as many sectaries as their neighbours the christians. There is no ordination among the clergy. Any person may be a priest that pleases

to take the habit, and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleases. The chief priest, or mufti, enjoys great power in the state.

ECCLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS) The Turkish government drawing part of its
OF CHRISTIANS.) finances from these establishments, they are tolera-
ted; but the hardships imposed upon the Greek church are such, as must always dis-
pose that people to favour any revolution of government. Constantinople, Jerusalem,
Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, when they
pay for their privileges, with a civil as well as an ecclesiastical authority over their vota-
ries. The same may be said of the Nestorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every
great city that can pay for the privilege, has its archbishops or bishop. All male chris-
tians pay also a capitation tax, from seventeen years old to sixty, according to their
stations.

LANGUAGE.] The radical languages of this empire are the Sclavonian, which seems
to have been the mother-tongue of the ancient Turks; the greek modernized, but
still bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic and the Syriac, a dialect
of which is still spoken. A specimen of the modern Greek follows, in their paternoster.

*Pater bemas, opios iso ees tos ouranos: kagiasbrito to onoma sou: na erti ke basilia sou:
to tbelema sou na genetex itzon en te ge, os is ton ouranon: to psomi bemas doze bemas
semoren: kae si chorase bemas ta crimata bemon itzone, kae bemas sicborasomen ekinous
opou: mas adikounkae men ternes bema is to pirafino, alla sjsen bemas apo to kaxo. Amen.*

A Turk, like an ancient Roman, or a modern German, uses, in conversation, a con-
siderable degree of transposition. Since the taking of Constantinople, as Dr. Adam
Smith informs us, the words of the Greek language are, in a great measure, the same
as formerly. But the grammar is entirely lost. Prepositions have come in place of the
old declensions.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Turks profess a contempt for our learning.
Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and sciences, produces at pre-
sent, besides Turks, numerous bands of christian bishops, priests, and monks, who,
in general, are as ignorant as the Turks themselves, and are divided into various
sects. The education of the Turks seldom extends farther than to reading the Turkish
language and the koran, and writing a common letter. Some of them understand
astronomy so far as to calculate the time of an eclipse; but these are few, and regard-
ed as extraordinary persons.

Of the literature of modern Turkey, a curious specimen was, in the year 1769,
printed at Vienna. The book is a French translation, and is entitled "A treatise
upon tactics, or an artificial method for the discipline of troops; a work printed
and published at Constantinople by Ibrahim Effendi, officer Mutteferrika of
the Ottoman Porte." The original edition appeared in 1730, and was intended as
an experiment for the establishment of a Turkish press. The Turks are said, upon a
superficial comparison, to have preferred the use of manuscripts; and the design was
laid aside from want of suitable encouragement. In christendom, the art of printing
at first met with violent opposition; so that this rejection of a press at Constantino-
ple, cannot be candidly advanced as an evidence of the peculiar stupidity of the Ot-
tomans. The preface of Ibrahim begins thus. "In the name of the most clement
and merciful God, praises, thanks, and benedictions be to the sovereign master of
the empires and kingdoms of the heavens and earth, to the master of glory and
of omnipotence, God most high and most holy, who is the principal and the source
of all order and symmetry in the universe, whose supreme will rules the affairs of the
sons of Adam, and whose decrees direct all the actions of men."

This book was published, as we are informed in the title page, by the printer and
librarian to the court of Vienna. Hence it may be regarded as authentic, for the
strictness of Maria Theresa is sufficiently known. The writer censures his country.

men, in the strongest terms, for their negligence as to the acquisition of modern discipline. As this performance has not appeared in any English version, a short extract will perhaps be regarded as a curiosity; and with that, we shall close this article, which has extended to an unexpected length.

“In former ages, when the christians made less use of cannon, muskets, and grandoes, and when the principal arms of war were sabres, the mussulmen, superior to all nations in the management of those weapons, made a progress so rapid, that the christians, scattered upon the face of the earth, astonished at their victories, and daring no more to oppose themselves to their irresistible force, remained during some time in the greatest consternation. In the end, invoking heaven and earth to find some remedy to their distresses, and exploring every resource without knowing on what side to turn themselves, they made a last effort to invent an expedient proper to repair their losses. At first, they were unanimously desirous to perfect the use of cannon, of muskets, and of other arms. Afterwards, seeing that the assistance of these was still too weak to support the impetuous attacks of the mussulmen, and in particular those of the Ottoman armies, they made new attempts, and laboured, all in concert, to oppose themselves to this fatal destiny, and to find some means of resistance. At last, after many consultations and conferences, the unanimous result of their deliberations was, that after having given a better form to their artillery and their arsenals, it would be necessary to find some means of subjecting their unfortunate troops, by certain rules, to a constant and firm discipline, so that the soldiers restrained in a perfect order, finding no opportunity of flying and of deserting their ranks, nor time enough to think of danger and to terrify themselves with the thoughts of instant death, might persist, in spite of their inclination, in their ranks, seeing themselves indispensably forced to it. Afterwards, they thought that it was necessary to give more consistency to their lines, ranged in order of battle, and to invent a new discipline, to render them more firm, immovable, and capable of supporting the thundering shocks of the mussulmen, and of resisting their vigorous attacks, which for some time being the only object of their attention, they have, at last, by their indefatigable application, arrived so far as to reduce the rules and principles of tactics to a particular art, and to treat them methodically in books composed upon the military science.”

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } These have furnished matter for many
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } voluminous publications. Here is contained an endless variety of rich and magnificent curiosities in architecture and sculpture. They are more or less perfect, according to the air, soil, or climate, in which they stand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the finest temples are converted into Turkish mosques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than those in ruins. Amidst such a collection, all that can be done here is to select some of the most striking.

Balbec is situated on a rising plain, between Tripoli, in Syria, and Damascus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, and is the Heliopolis of Cælo Syria. Its remains of antiquity display, according to the best judges, the boldest plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis, is inexpressibly superb, though disfigured by two Turkish towers. The hexagonal court behind, is known only by the magnificence of its ruins. The walls were adorned with Corinthian pilasters and statues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the same taste and grandeur. The great temple, to which this leads, is now so ruined, that it is only known by an entablature, supported but by nine lofty columns, each consisting of three pieces joined together, by iron pins without cement. Some of those pins are a foot long; and a foot in diameter; and the Turks destroy the columns, for the sake of the iron. A small temple is still standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in

flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto relief, expressing the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors. To the west of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but disfigured with Turkish mosques and houses. The other parts of the ancient city are proportionably beautiful and stupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of these immense buildings. The inhabitants of Asia ascribe them to Solomon, but some make them so modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different eras; and though that prince and his successors may have rebuilt some part of them, yet the boldness of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the stupendous execution of the whole, seem to fix their foundation to a period before the christian era. Balbec is, at present, a small city, encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about five thousand in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the ancient ruins. A free-stone quarry, in the neighbourhood, furnished the stones for the body of the temple; and one of the stones not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is seventeen feet long, fourteen broad, and fourteen feet five inches deep, and, reduced to our measure, is eleven hundred and thirty five tons. A coarse white marble quarry, at a greater distance, furnished the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the Desert, is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, in about thirty-three degrees N. lat. and two hundred miles to the southeast of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined, as it were, with the remains of antiquity; and, opening all at once, the eye is presented with the most striking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the sun lies in ruins; but the access to it is through a vast number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by plates of it, published by Mr. Wood, who, with his friends, visited it some years ago, purposely to preserve some remembrance of such a curiosity. As those drawings, or copies of them, are now common, we must refer the reader to them, especially as he can form no adequate ideas of the ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonade extending four thousand feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticos, peristyles, inter-columnations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest style, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but so dispersed and disjointed, that it is impossible, from them, to form an idea of the whole when perfect. These striking ruins are contrasted by the miserable huts of the wild Arabs, who reside in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that so superb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of a sandy desert. It is, however, certain, that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eastern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the western nations, for the merchandises and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered situation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which have turned the once fertile tracts into barren deserts. In history, it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Anthony; and its most superb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus. Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly caressed by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow Zenobia reigned, in great glory, for some time, and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Not being able to submit to the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and, among others, Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of Zenobia's treasures in repairing the temple of the sun, the

majestic ruins of which have been mentioned. This, it must be acknowledged, is but a very imperfect account of that celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene inscriptions reach above the christian era, though the city is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore its ancient splendor, but without effect, for it dwindled, by degrees, to its present wretched state. It has been observed, very justly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to those of Balbec.

Nothing can be more futile than the boasted antiquities shown by the Greek and Armenian priests in and near Jerusalem, which is well known to have been so often razed to the ground, and rebuilt anew, that no scene of our Saviour's life and sufferings can be ascertained; and yet those ecclesiastics subsist by their forgeries, and by pretending to guide travellers to every spot mentioned in the Old and New Testament. They are under severe contributions to the Turks, but the trade still goes on, though much diminished in its profits. The church of the Holy sepulchre is still standing, and of tolerable architecture. Palestine has altered in its appearance. But a fertile country, abandoned to tyranny, will, in time, become a desert.

Mecca and Medina are curiosities only through the superstition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houses or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in points of architecture, makes but a sorry appearance, though erected on the spot where Mahomet is said to have been born. The same may be said of the mosque at Medina, where he was buried.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna, now called Ismir, contains many valuable antiquities. The same may be said of Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in antiquity, and now known only by geographical observations. The site of Old Troy, which existed so late as at least the reign of Tiberius Cæsar, cannot now be distinguished by the smallest vestige, but is known to have stood opposite to the isle of Tenedos, and its situation has been also traced by the name of a brook, which the poets magnified into a considerable river. A temple of marble, built in honour of Augustus Cæsar, at Milasso, in Caria, and a few structures of the same kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are still entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Loticha, have suffered very little from time or barbarism.

CITIES.] These are numerous, but they have little or no trade. Aleppo, however, holds a respectable rank among the cities of the Asiatic Turkey. It is still the capital of Syria, and is superior, in its buildings and conveniencies, to most of the Turkish cities. Its houses, as usual in the East, consist of a large court, with a dead wall to the street, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain of the same, in the middle. Aleppo and its suburbs, are seven miles in compass, standing on eight small hills; on the highest top of which, there is a citadel of no great strength. An old wall and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, surround the city, which contains two hundred and thirty-five thousand inhabitants, of whom thirty thousand are christians, and five thousand jews. It is furnished with most of the conveniencies of life within the walls, except good water, which runs from an aqueduct, distant about four miles. The streets are narrow, but well paved with large square stones, and are kept clean. The gardens are pleasant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and pistachio trees; but the country round it is rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and transact their business in caravanseras, or large square buildings, containing their ware-houses, lodging-rooms, and counting-houses. The city has several mosques, some of which are magnificent, as also public bagnios, and bazars, or market-places, that are formed into long, narrow, arched or covered streets, with little shops, as in other parts of the East. Their coffee is excellent, and considered by the Turks as a high luxury; and

their sweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater splendor and safety than in any other city of the Turkish empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not used here, but persons of quality ride on horseback with a number of servants before them, according to their rank. The English, French, and Dutch, have consuls, who are respected.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to sleep in the open air, here, over all Arabia, and in many other parts of the East; for which reason, their houses are flat on the top. As the Turks are pretty uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of other Turkish cities.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far from the supposed site of ancient Babylon, was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens, in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular square, and rudely fortified; but the conveniency of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and it has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and western caravans. The houses of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over, to admit the more free circulation of the air. Many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glass, and the ceilings ornamented with chequered work. Most of the houses have also a courtyard before them, in the middle of which is a small plantation of orange trees. The number of houses is computed at eight thousand, each of which pays an annual tribute to the bashaw, which is estimated to produce thirteen hundred thousand dollars. Their bazars, in which the tradesmen have their shops, are tolerably handsome, large, and extensive; and the shops are filled with all kinds of merchandise. These were erected by the Persians, when they were in possession of the place, as were also the baths, and almost every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. In this city are five mosques, two of which are well built, and have handsome domes, covered with varnished tiles, of different colours. Chapels are permitted for the Roman catholic and Greek persuasions. On the northwest corner of the city stands the castle, which is of white stone, and commands the river. It consists of curtains and bastions; on which some large cannon are mounted, with two mortars on each bastion; but, in the year 1779, they had become, through neglect altogether unserviceable. Below the castle, by the water-side, is the palace of the Turkish governor; and there are several summer-houses on the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians, who inhabited this city under the caliphs, were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Ancient Assyria is now called the Turkish Kurdistan, though part of it is subject to the Persians. The capital is Kurdistan; the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins. Kurdistan is said to be, for the most part, cut out of a mountain, and is the residence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg. Orfa, formerly Edessa, is the capital of the fine province of Mesopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly supported by a manufacture of Turkey leather. Mousul, in the same province, is a large place, situated on the western shore of the Tigris, opposite to where Nineveh formerly stood.

Georgia, or Gurgistan, now no longer subject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by christians, a brave, warlike race of men. Their capital, Teflis, is a handsome city, and makes a fine appearance: its inhabitants are about thirty thousand. It is situated at the foot of a mountain, by the side of the river Kur, and is surrounded by strong walls, except on the side of the river. It has a large fortress on the declivity of the mountain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garrison consists of native Persians. There are fourteen churches in Teflis, six of which belong to the Georgians, and the rest to the Armenians. The Mahometans

who are here, have no mosques. In the neighbourhood of the city are many pleasant houses, and fine gardens. The Georgians have lately formed an alliance with Russia, and claimed its protection.

The ancient city of Damascus still retains part of its former trade. It contains a fine mosque, which was formerly a christian church. It is still famous for its steel works, such as sword-blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is said to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manufacture also those beautiful silks, called, from their city, damasks, and carry on a considerable traffic in raw and worked silk, rose-water extracted from the famous damask roses, fruits, and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is highly beautiful.

Sidon, now Said, which likewise lies within the ancient Phœnicia, has still some trade, and a tolerable harbour. The town is surrounded with a stone wall, a citadel on the land side, and another towards the sea. The houses are built chiefly of stone, and are two stories high. The inhabitants are about sixteen thousand, chiefly christians, of the Greek church, and the place is the seat of a bishop of that persuasion. There are in the town two public baths, and two mosques. It stands on a neck of land over against Tyre, and both form a bay about sixteen miles in breadth.

Tyre, now called Sur, so famous formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by a few fishermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur. There are strong walls on the land side, of stone, eighteen feet high, and seven broad. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are visible. The pavements of the old city, Mr. Bruce tells us that he saw, and observes that they were seven and a half feet lower than the ground upon which the present city stands.

Natolia, or Asia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amasia, all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman history, are now, through the Turkish indolence and tyranny, either forsaken, or a theatre of ruins. The sites of ancient cities are still discernible; and so luxuriant is nature in those countries, that in many places she triumphs over her forlorn condition. The Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themselves; and their gardens and summer-houses fill up the circuit of their most flourishing cities. The most judicious travellers, upon an attentive survey of those countries, fully vindicate all that has been said by ancient writers, of their fertility, and population*.

Under the government of Sheik Daher, the ally of the famous Ali Bey, some part of Palestine revived. He enlarged the buildings and walls of St. John de Acre, formerly Ptolemais, and showed great indulgence to the christians. Its inhabitants were lately computed at forty thousand. Caifa, which stands on the declivity of mount Carmel, distant about twenty miles from Acre, was also enlarged by Daher. The ancient Joppa, now Jassa, fifty miles west from Jerusalem, stands on a rocky hill, has a harbour for small vessels, and is, in circumference, about two miles. The number of inhabitants is seven thousand; the western part of the town is inhabited by christians. The present state of Ramah is deplorable, its walls in decay, and most of the houses empty, though the number of inhabitants is still between three and four thousand. Not a house is standing of the once magnificent city of Cesarea, but the remains of the walls testify its former grandeur. Azotus is about two miles in circumference, the inhabitants are near three thousand, and mostly Mahometans. Gaza extends from east to west three miles, and is a mile in breadth, divided into the old and new town. The inhabitants are reckoned to be twenty-six thousand. Gaza is

* The inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Palestine, says Mr. Wood, we have often seen the husbandman sowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the seed." And, after all, he who sows, is uncertain whether he shall ever reap the harvest.

about five miles from the sea, and without the walls is a market for the country people to dispose of their commodities to the inhabitants, for they are not permitted to enter the town. The country around is very fertile, in corn, oil, wine, honey, bees-wax, flax, and cotton.

Baron Tott, who went to reside at Constantinople, in the year 1755, gives an account of a fire which broke out in that metropolis, not long after his arrival. His description of this dreadful calamity may cast some light on the nature of the police in the cities of the Turkish empire. The fire broke out in the morning at a house near the seraglio. The wind which blew from the north, drove the flames along its walls, and about seven o'clock, they reached the palace of the visir. The grand signior had gone thither, but no endeavours could save the building; and the flames continued to extend. It was hoped that when they reached the mosque of St. Sophia, this massy fabric would stop them. The lead of its cupola, melted by the blazing atmosphere, burst down in torrents upon the guards and assistants. In short, the flames burnt onwards, till they came near the sea, on an opposite side of the city. At this moment the wind suddenly shifted to the east, and, blowing strong, took crosswise this line of fire, which was more than twelve hundred fathoms in length. The conflagration, dividing into thirteen branches, burst through the centre of the city. The roots of the branches successively united, and Constantinople blazed into one dreadful sheet of flame. An entire regiment of janizaries, employed to pull down the houses at the end of one of the branches of the conflagration, was enclosed on each side by the rapid advance of the flames, and perished. The cries of these unfortunate persons, and of the women and children, who shared their fate, the noise of the buildings tumbled into the flames, and the tumult of the inhabitants, whom the conflagration approached, and who were anxious to save some part of their property, formed, all together, a scene of horror that no language can describe. The houses, after this disaster, had hardly been rebuilt, when they were destroyed by a second conflagration. Sultan Osman, then on the throne, wanted to widen some streets, and to make others, that assistance might, in future cases, be given with greater facility. An opposition was made by the proprietors of the ground, and the proposal came to nothing.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] M. de Peyssonnel, who has published a reply to part of the memoirs of baron Tott, gives some curious anecdotes of the commercial administration of the Ottoman empire, he says that the merchandize of the Franks is estimated, by the custom-house officers, much inferior to its real value; so that by this indulgence, the tax is reduced to perhaps two per cent. When this duty has once been paid, every European merchant, who provides himself with a quitance from the proper officer, may convey his goods to any part of the empire, without paying any thing more. No extortions are practised in the exacting of the customs, and disputes with the custom-house officers are extremely rare.

With respect to the natives, they pay a duty of five per cent. The merchant may pay the duty in kind, if he thinks it for his interest; but not otherwise. When contraband importations are seized, and lodged in the custom-house, the proprietor may claim, and receive them again, on the payment of double duty. (In the christian part of Europe, the penalty amounts, for the most part, to the beggary, and sometimes to the death of the offender.) Notwithstanding these favourable circumstances, commerce is in a wretched state. The Turks overlook the advantages of Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all those countries which carried on the commerce of the ancient world. They command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the southern ocean, and presents them with all the riches of the Indies. The situation of the capital, upon a narrow strait that separates Europe from Asia, is admirable, as it communicates, on the south, with the Mediterranean sea, and thereby opens

a passage to all the European nations, as well as to the coast of Africa. The same strait, communicating northwards with the Black Sea, opens a passage, by means of the Danube and other great rivers, into the interior parts of Germany, Poland, and Russia.

In this extensive empire, where all the commodities necessary for the largest plan of industry and commerce are produced, the Turks content themselves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and soap. The most valuable of their commodities, such as silk, a variety of drugs, and dying-stuffs, they generally export, without giving them much additional value from their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is extremely small, and managed entirely by Jews and Armenians. In their traffic with Europe, the Turks are generally passive. The English, French, Dutch, and other Europeans, resort thither with their commodities, and bring back those of Turkey in the same bottoms. The Turks seldom attempt any distant voyage, and are possessed of only a few coasting vessels in the Asiatic Turkey; their chief navy lying on the side of Europe. Montesquieu says that the French, English and Dutch may thank Divine Providence for having created Spaniards and Turks; because they neglect to improve the advantages which they possess, in some of the finest countries in the world, and leave them to those other nations.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Turkish government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is shocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. Yet the rights of individuals may be rendered fixed and secure, by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconsiderable expense. Even Jews and Christians may, in this manner, secure the enjoyment of their lands to posterity.

Among the most unhappy subjects of the Turkish government, are those who attain the highest dignities of state, and whose fortunes are constantly exposed to sudden alterations, and depend on the breath of their master. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the grand vizir, or prime minister, the *chiaya*, second in power to the vizir, the *reis effendi*, or secretary of state, and the *aga* of the janizaries, are the most considerable. These, as well as the *mufti*, or high priest, the *bashaws*, or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raised, by their application and assiduity, from the meanest stations in life, and are often the children of Tartars, or Christian slaves taken in war. Tutored in the school of adversity, and arising to pre-eminence through a thousand difficulties and dangers, these men are generally distinguished for abilities, and deficient in virtue. They possess dissimulation, intrigue, and corruption; and they have a farther reason for plundering the people, because they are uncertain how long they may enjoy the dignities to which they have attained. The administration of justice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the country, which are founded upon equitable principles.

REVENUES.] Baron Tott says that the revenues, estimated on the records, amount to one hundred and twenty-two millions, eight hundred and eighty-eight thousand, eight hundred and eighty-eight dollars, and eight ninths, but produce only fourteen millions, two hundred and twenty-two thousand, two hundred and twenty-two dollars, and two ninths, to the public treasury. The revenues arise from the customs, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Christians, and other subjects, not of the Mahometan religion; the rich pay a capitation tax of about six dollars and a half per year; tradesmen about two dollars and a half, and labourers one dollar and a half. Another branch of the revenue arises from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. All these, however, are trifling, when compared with the vast sums extorted by the governors of provinces, and officers of state, under the name of *resents*. These Russians, to indemnify themselves, exercise every species of oppression that their avarice can suggest, till becoming wealthy from the vitals of the people whom

they are sent to govern, their riches frequently give rise to a pretended suspicion of disloyalty or misconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is seldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accusers. Without giving him the least opportunity of making a defence, an officer is dispatched, with an imperial decree, to take off his head. The bashaw receives it with the highest respect, and after he has read it, says, *The will of God and the emperor be done*, or some such expression, testifying his entire resignation. Then he takes the silken cord, which the officer has in his bosom, and having tied it about his neck, and said a short prayer, the officer's servants throw him on the floor, and drawing the cord taut, soon dispatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

FORCES.] The militia of the Turkish empire is of two sorts; the first has certain lands appointed for its maintenance, and the other is paid out of the treasury. Those that have certain lands amount to about two hundred and sixty eight thousand effective men. Besides these, there are certain auxiliary forces raised by the tributary countries of this empire; as the Tartars, Walachians, and Moldavians, who are commanded by their respective princes. The Kan of the Crim Tartars, before this country was subject to Russia, was obliged to furnish one hundred thousand men, and serve in person, when the grand signior took the field. In every war, besides the above forces, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of succeeding the officers. These adventurers not only promise themselves an estate if they survive, but are taught, that if they die in the war against the christians, they shall go immediately to paradise. The forces which receive their pay from the treasury, are called the Spahis, or horse-guards, and are in number about twelve thousand: and the janizaries, or foot-guards, who are esteemed the best soldiers in the Turkish armies. They amount to about forty thousand men, who are quartered in or near Constantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have sometimes proceeded so far as to depose the sultan. They are educated in the seraglio, and trained up to the exercise of arms from their infancy; and there are no less than one hundred thousand foot-soldiers, scattered over every province of the empire, who procure themselves to be registered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of janizaries, which are very great, being subject to no jurisdiction but that of their aga, or chief commander.

TITLES.] The emperor's titles are swelled with all the pomp of eastern magnificence. He is styled by his subjects, *the shadow of God, a God on earth, brother to the sun and moon, disposer of all earthly crowns, &c.*

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths who are designed for the state, the army, or the navy, but they are seldom preferred till about forty years of age, and they rise by their merit. They are generally the children of christian parents, either taken in war, purchased, or presented by their viceroys and governors of distant provinces, the most beautiful, well made, and sprightly children that can be met with; and are always reviewed and approved by the grand-signior, before they are sent to the colleges or seminaries, where they are educated for employments according to their genius and abilities.

The ladies of the seraglio, are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly sent as presents from the provinces and the Greek islands, most of them the children of christian parents. The Georgian prince Heraclius hath, for some years past, abolished the infamous tribute of children of both sexes, which Georgia formerly paid every year to the Porte. The number of women in the harem depends on the taste of the reigning monarch or sultan. Selim had two thousand. Achmet had but three hundred, and the present sultan hath nearly sixteen hundred. On their admission they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to sew and embroider, music, dancing and

other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. They all sleep in separate beds, and every five have a preceptress. Their chief governess is called *Katon Kiaga*, or governess of the noble young ladies. There is not one servant among them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation; the last that is entered, serves her who preceded. These ladies are scarcely ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand signior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are enclosed with lattices and linen curtains; and when they go by land, they are put in close chariots, and signals are made at certain distances, to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. The boats of the harem, which carry the grand signior's wives, are manned with twenty-four rowers, and have white covered tilts, shut alternately by Venetian blinds. Among the emperor's attendants, are a number of mutes, who converse by signs with great quickness, and some dwarfs who are exhibited for his majesty's diversion.

When he permits his women to walk in the garden of the seraglio, all people are ordered to retire, and on every side there is a guard of black eunuchs, with sabres in their hands, while others go their rounds in order to hinder any person from seeing them. If unfortunately any one is found in the garden, even through ignorance or inadvertence, he is undoubtedly killed, and his head brought to the feet of the grand signior, who gives a great reward to the guard for their vigilance. Sometimes the grand signior passes into the gardens to amuse himself, when the women are there; and it is then that they make use of their utmost efforts, by dancing, singing, seducing gestures, and amorous blandishments, to ensnare the affections of the monarch. It is not permitted that the monarch should take a virgin to his bed, except during the solemn festivals, and on occasion of some extraordinary rejoicings, or the arrival of some good news. Upon such occasions, if the sultan desires a new companion to his bed, he enters into the apartment of the women, who are ranged in files by the governess, to whom he speaks, and intimates the person he likes best. The ceremony of the handkerchief, which the grand signior is said to throw to the girl that he elects, is an idle tale. As soon as the grand signior has chosen one among them, all the others follow her to the bath, washing and perfuming her, and dressing her superbly, conducting her singing, dancing, and rejoicing, to the bed chamber of the grand signior, who is generally, on such an occasion, already in bed. No sooner has the new-elected favourite entered the chamber, introduced by the grand eunuch who is upon guard, than she kneels down, and when the sultan calls her, she creeps into bed to him at the foot of the bed, if the sultan does not order her, by especial grace, to approach by the side. After a certain time, upon a signal given by the sultan, the governess of the girls, with all her suite, enter the apartment and, with the same ceremony, conduct her back to the women's apartments. If she becomes pregnant, and is delivered of a boy, she is called sultane's-mother; for the first son, she has the honour to be crowned, and she has the liberty of forming her particular court, as before mentioned. Eunuchs are also assigned for her guard and particular service. No other ladies, though delivered of boys, are either crowned or maintained with such costly distinction as the first; but they have their service apart, and handsome appointments. After the death of the sultan, the mothers of the male children are shut up in the old seraglio, from whence they never can come out any more, unless any of their sons ascend the throne. Baron Tott informs us, that the female slave who becomes the mother of a sultan, and lives long enough to see her son mount the throne, is the only woman, who, at that period, enjoys the distinction of *sultana mother*. She is, till then, in the interior of her prison, with her son. The title of *bache kadun*, principal woman, is the first dignity of the grand signior's harem, and she

hath a larger allowance than those who have the title of the second, third, and fourth woman, which are the four free women whom the koran allows.

[ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.] The more southern and fertile parts of Asia, have, at different periods, been conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vast country, known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns that of Tartary. One tribe of these people, called Turks or Turcomans, which name signifies *wanderers*, extended its conquests under various leaders, and during several centuries, from the shore of the Caspian to the straits of the Dardanelles. Being long resident in the capacity of body guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted, for some time, as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief residence was in the neighbourhood of Mount Caucasus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and, after being employed as mercenaries by the sultans of Persia, they seized that kingdom about the year 1037, and spread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometanism, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were sometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declension of the caliphate or empire of the Saracens, they made themselves masters of Palestine. To visit the city of Jerusalem was then a frequent exertion of piety among the christians of Europe. They had been tolerated by the Saracens, but the Turks laid pilgrims of this kind under such heavy contributions, and exercised such horrible cruelties upon the christian inhabitants of the country, as gave rise to the Crusades, which we have mentioned more fully in the introduction.

A christian kingdom was erected at Jerusalem under Godfrey of Boulogne; but neither he nor his successors possessed power for maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1099, had extended their dominions on every side and Othman seized some of the finest provinces in Asia. From Othman they took the name of Othmans; the appellation of Turks being considered by them as a term of reproach. Othman was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes mentioned in history. About the year, 1357, they passed the Hellespont. Amurath settled the seat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in the year 1360. Under him the order of Janizaries was established. Bajazet I. after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigmund, laid siege to Constantinople, in hopes of subjecting all the Greek empire. His greatness and insolence provoked Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was just then returned from his eastern conquests, to declare war against him. A decisive battle was fought between those rival conquerors, in Natolia, on the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates. The army of Bajazet was cut to peices, himself taken prisoner, and he is reported to have been shut up in an iron cage, where he ended his life.

The successors of Tamerlane, by declaring war against one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long siege, Mahomet II. in 1453, took Constantinople. Thus, after an existence of ten centuries, from its first commencement under Constantine, ended the Greek empire; an event which had been long foreseen, and which was owing to many causes. The chief were, the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themselves, their courts, and families; and the dislike that their subjects had to the popes, and the western church, one of their patriarchs declaring publicly to a Roman legate, "that he would rather see a turban, than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of Constantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conquest, did not exterminate, but reduce the nations to subjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks still exist. The conquest of Constantinople was followed by the submission of Greece.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was succeeded by Bajazet II. who carried on war against the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as Persians and Egyptians. Bajazet falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harassed by family dissensions, and at last, by order of his second son, Selim, was poisoned. Selim afterwards ordered his eldest brother Achmet, with many other princes of the Ottoman race, to be strangled. He defeated the Persians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Persia, he turned his arms against Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, in the year 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was succeeded, in 1520, by his son, Soliman the Magnificent; who, taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the christian powers, took Rhodes. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the christian powers, and generally successful, both by sea and land. In 1526, he took Buda, at that time the metropolis of Hungary and Belgrade, and carried off near two hundred captives. Two years afterwards, he advanced into Austria and besieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V. He miscarried also in an attempt to take the isle of Malta.

He was succeeded, in 1566, by his son, Selim II. In his reign, the Turkish marine received a fatal blow from the christians, in the battle of Lepanto. Selim, however, took Cyprus, from the Venetians, and Tunis in Africa, from the Moors. He was succeeded in 1575, by his son Amurath III. who forced the Persians to cede Taurus, Teflis, and many other cities to the Turks. He likewise took the important fortress of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593, was succeeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is disgraced by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be strangled, and ten of his father's concubines, supposed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the sea. He was often unsuccessful in his wars with the christians; and in 1604, died of the plague. Though his successor Achmet was beaten by the Persians, yet in 1606, he forced the Austrians to a treaty and to consent that he should keep what he was possessed of in Hungary. Osman, a prince no more than sixteen years of age, being unsuccessful against the Poles, was put to death by the janizaries, whose power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV. succeeded in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Persians. His brother Ibrahim, who succeeded him in 1640, was a worthless inactive prince, and in 1648 was strangled by the janizaries. His successor Mahomet IV. took Candia from the Venetians, after it had been besieged for thirty years. A bloody war succeeded between the Imperialists and the Turks in which the latter were so successful, that they laid siege to Vienna, but were forced to raise it with great loss. Mahomet was, in 1697, shut up in prison by his subjects, and succeeded by his brother Soliman II.

The Turks continued unsuccessful in their wars during his reign, and that of his brother and successor, Achmet II. but Mustapha II. who mounted the throne in 1694, headed his armies in person. After some brisk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene; and the peace of Carlowitz, between the imperialists and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after, Mustapha was deposed, his musti was beheaded, and his brother Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was a prince who gave shelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Russians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. When the Russian army was surrounded without hopes of escape, the Czarina inclined the grand-vizir to peace by a present of all the money, plate, and jewels that were in the army; the Russians also delivered up to the Turks, Asoph, Kamienieck and Tajganrog, and agreed to evacuate Poland. Achmet afterwards made war on the Venetians, which alarmed all the christian powers. The scene of action was transferred to Hungary, where the imperial general, prince Eugene, gave so many defeats to the Ottomans, that they were forced to conclude a disgraceful peace, at Passarowitz in 1718. An unfortunate war with the Persians under

Kouli Khan, following, the populace, demanded the heads of the vizir, the chief admiral, and secretary, which were accordingly struck off; but the sultan also was deposed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He was unsuccessful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at last obliged to recognise that usurper as king of Persia. He was, next, engaged in a war with the imperialists and Russians; against the former he was victorious; but the successes of the latter, which threatened Constantinople itself, forced him to agree to a treaty with the emperor, and after that another with the Russians which was greatly to their advantage. Mahomet died in 1754.

He was succeeded by his brother Osman II. who died in 1757; and was succeeded by his brother Mustapha III. who died on the 21 of January, 1774, whilst engaged in an unsuccessful war with the Russians, of which some account has been already given in the history of that country. In the course of this war, a considerable Russian fleet was fitted out, which set sail from the Baltic, with a view of attacking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet having arrived at Minorca, departed from thence in the beginning of February, 1770, for the Morea. Count Orlov having disembarked such land forces as he had with him at Maina, which lies a little to the westward of cape Metapan, and about fifty miles to the south-west of Mistra, the ancient Sparta; the Mainotes, and the descendants of the Lacedæmonians, and who still possess the country, of their ancestors; under subjection to the grand-signior, ran to arms in every quarter, and joined the Russians by thousands. The other Greeks followed their example, and the whole Morea was instantly in motion. The open country was quickly over-run, and Mistra, Arcadia, and several other places, as speedily taken; while the Russian ships, that had been separated, or put into Italy, arrived successively, and landed their men in different quarters, where every small detachment soon swelled to a little army, and the Turks were every where attacked or intercepted. In the mean time, the Greeks gave the utmost loose to their revenge, and every where slaughtered the Turks without mercy; the rage and fury with which the inhabitants on the continent were seized, extended itself to the islands, where also the Turks were massacred in great numbers. They were, indeed, unable to make head against the Russians and Greeks in the field; their only protection was found within their fortresses. The malcontents had so much increased since the first embarkation of the Russians, that they invested Napoli di Romania, Corinth, and the castle of Patras, with several other places of less note. But whilst they were employed in these enterprises, an army of thirty thousand men, composed chiefly of Albanians and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by Seraskier, basha of Bosnia. This Turkish general recovered all the northern part of the peninsula, as soon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks who were found in arms, or out of their villages, were instantly put to death. The Russians were now driven back to their ships; but about the same time another Russian squadron, commanded by admiral Elphinston, arrived from England, to reinforce count Orlov's armament. The Turkish fleet also appeared, and an obstinate engagement was fought in the channel of Scio, which divides that island from Natolia, or the Lesser Asia. The Turkish fleet was considerably superior in force, consisting of fifteen ships of the line, from sixty to ninety guns, besides a number of chebeques and galleys, amounting in the whole to near thirty sail; the Russians had only ten ships of the line, and five frigates. Spirito, a Russian admiral, encountered the captain pacha, in the Sultane of ninety guns, yard-arm and yard-arm; they both fought with the greatest fury, and at length run so close, that they locked themselves together with grapling irons and other tackling. In this situation, the Russians, by throwing hand-granades from the tops, set the Turkish ship on fire, and as they could not now be disentangled, both vessels were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumstanced, without possibility of succour, they at length blew up with a most terrible explosion. The command-

ers and some of the principal officers on both sides were saved; but the crews were almost totally lost. The action continued till night with not much advantage on either side. When it became dark, the Turkish fleet cut their cables and ran into a bay on the coast of Natolia. The Russians surrounded them, thus closely pent up, and in the night some fire-ships were conveyed among the Turkish fleet. The fire took place so effectually, that in five hours, the whole fleet was destroyed; except one man of war and a few galleys that were towed off by the Russians. The victors entered the harbour, and cannonaded the town, and a castle that protected it, with such success that a shot having blown up the powder magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbish. Thus was there scarcely a vestige left, at nine o'clock at night, of a town, a castle, and a fine fleet, which had been all in existence at one of the same morning.

Some of the principal military transactions by land, in the war between Russia and Turkey, have been already noticed in our account of the former empire. The king of Prussia compares the superiority of the Russians over the Turks, to that of the one-eyed beating the blind. A minute narrative of this contest could present but little entertainment, and still less satisfaction to any reader. Every campaign was polluted by acts of the most savage ferocity. We shall here only add, that, after a very unfortunate war on the side of the Turks, peace was concluded between them and the Russians, on the 21st of July, 1774, a few months after the accession of Achmet IV. The preceding emperor Mustapha III. left a son, then only in his thirteenth year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government, Mustapha appointed his brother Achmet, to succeed himself in the throne. To this prince, under the strongest terms of recommendation, he confided the care of his infant son.

Abdul Hamed, or Achmet IV. grand signior, born 1710, succeeded to the throne of Turkey, 21st of January, 1774, on the death of his brother Mustapha.

The war of 1787 between Turkey and Russia has already been mentioned. Achmet, a sovereign of a very amiable, and intelligent character, died the 7th of April 1789, and was succeeded by Selim III. This young tyrant began his career by the execution of the grand visir, who had supported a campaign against the Austrians with unexpected success. To this assassination the subsequent bad success of the Ottomans was, in some measure, ascribed. This visir, whose name was Yssouf, will be known to posterity as the patron of the Turkish Encyclopedia; a remarkable production in the literary world.

TARTARY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	4000	} between { 50 and 150 east longitude. 30 and 72 north latitude.
Greatest Breadth	2400	

BOUNDARIES.] **T**HE reader cannot depend upon the accounts given by geographers, of the extent, limits, and situation of these vast regions. Even the empress of Russia and her ministry are ignorant of her precise limits with the Chinese, the Persians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fullest extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; by the Pacific Ocean, on the east; by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian Sea, on the south; and by Muscovy, on the west.

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.	Sq. M.
Kamtschatka Tartars,	Kamtschatka,	
Jakutskoi Tartars,	Jakutskoi.	
Bratski,	Bratski,	
Thibet and Mogul Tartars,	Thibet, Polon, Kudak, }	985,380
Samoieda,	Mangafia,	
Ostiak,	Kortskoi,	
Circassian and Astrachan Tartary,	Terki, Astrachan,	
Siberia,	Tobolsk,	
Kalmuck Tartary,	Bokharia,	850,000
Usbeck Tartary,	Samarcand.	339,840

Kamtschatka is a great peninsula, which extends, from north to south, about seven degrees, thirty minutes. It is divided into four districts, Bolcherefk, Tigilaskaia Krepost, Verchnei or Upper Kamtschatkoi Ostrog, and Nishnei or Lower Kamtschatkoi Ostrog.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains are Caucasus, in Circassia, and the mountains of Taurus and Ararat, so contiguous to it, that they appear like a continuation of the same mountain, which crosses all Asia; from Mingrelia to the Indies, and the mountains of Stolp, in the north.

SEAS.] These are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caspian Sea.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course of two thousand miles; the Oby, which divides Asia from Europe; the Tabol, Irtyz, Gensera or Jenksa; the Burrumpooter, the Lena, and the Argun, which last divides the Russian and Chinese empires.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, } AND PRODUCE. } The air of this country is very various, by reason of its vast extent from north to south; the northern parts stretch beyond the arctic polar circle and the southern lie in the same latitudes with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova Zembla, and Russian Lapland, are most uncomfortable regions. The earth, which is covered with snow for nine months in the year, is extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholesome marshes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable woods. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air pure and wholesome; and Mr. Tooke observes, that its inhabitants, in all probability, would live to an extreme old age, if they were not so much addicted to the abuse of spiritous liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almost to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radishes, turnips, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well; but scarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit trees to bear, have hitherto proved vain. Yet there is reason to believe that industry and patience may, at length, overcome the rudeness of the climate. Currants and strawberries, of several sorts, are said to grow here in as great perfection as in English gardens. There are no bees in Siberia. Astrachan, and the southern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than industry. The parts that are cultivated, produce excellent fruits of almost all kinds known in Europe, especially grapes, which are reckoned the largest and finest in the world. Their summers are very dry; and from the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is filled, and the vegetation sometimes wasted, by incredible quantities of locusts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Russian ambassador to China, represents some parts of Tartary as inviting and fertile countries, the grass growing spontaneously to an amazing height. Thibet is the highest province in Asia, and forms a portion of that elevated region, which gives rise to the rivers of India and China, and to those of Siberia and other parts of Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] It is said that Siberia contains mines of gold, silver,

copper, iron, jasper, lapis lazuli, and loadstones; a sort of large teeth, found here, create some dispute among the naturalists, whether they belong to elephants, or are a marine production.

ANIMALS.] These are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals common in the northern parts of Europe. The horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy. As they run wild till they are five or six years old, they are generally headstrong. Near Astrachan, there is a bird called by the Russians *baba*, of a grey colour, and somewhat larger than a swan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and, on seeing a shoal or fry of small fishes, spreads his wings and drives them to a shallow, where he swallows as many of them as he can put into his bag, and then going ashore, eats them or carries them to his young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

The forests of Siberia are well stocked with a variety of animals, some of which are not to be found in other countries. These supply the inhabitants with food and clothing; and, at the same time, furnish them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be considered as the native country of black foxes, fables, and ermines, the skins of which are superior to those of any other part of the world, Horses and cattle are in great plenty, and sold at low prices.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS,) The populousness of Tartary is far
CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS.) from being proportionable to its extent. The inhabitants are, in general, strong made, stout men; their faces broad, their noses flattish, their eyes small and black, but very quick; their beards are scarcely visible, as they continually pull up the hairs by the roots.

Circassian women are a staple commodity; for parents make no scruple of selling their daughters to recruit the seraglios of the great men of Turkey and Persia. They are purchased, when young, by merchants, and taught such accomplishments as suit their capacities, to render them more valuable against the day of sale. Mr. Peyssonnel says, that the girls of this nation enjoy the exclusive privilege of being admitted to the bed of the grand signior.

According to Mr. Bruce, the Circassian women are extremely well shaped, with exceedingly fine features, smooth, clear complexions, beautiful black eyes, which, with their black hair hanging in two tresses, one on each side of the face, give them a most lovely appearance. They wear a black coif on their heads, covered with a fine white cloth tied under the chin. During the summer they all wear only a smock of various colours, open so low before, that their chastity seems at least very doubtful. The apparel of the men of Circassia is much the same with that of the Nagayan Tartars, but their caps are larger, and their cloaks, which are of coarse cloth or sheepskins, are fastened only at the neck with a string, and as they are too small to cover the whole body, they turn them round according to the wind and weather.

The Tartars are, in general, great wanderers; they set out in the spring; their number in one body being frequently ten thousand, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting spot, they live upon it till all its grass and verdure have been eaten up. They have no money, except what they get from their neighbours the Russians, Persians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; with this they purchase cloth, silks, stuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except those who make arms. They avoid all labour as the greatest slavery: their employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horses. If they are angry with a person, they wish that he may be condemned to live in one fixed place, to work like a Russian, and to be nourished *with the top of a weed*. Among themselves they are social, and to strangers and travellers, who confidently put themselves under their protection, they are said to be hospitable. Their temper is easy

cheerful, disposed to laughter, and seldom depressed by care or melancholy. There is a strong resemblance between the northern and independent Tartars, and some nations of Canada in North America; particularly, when any of their people are infirm through great age, or seized with distempers, reckoned incurable, they make a small hut for the patient, in which they leave him with some provisions; and seldom or never return to visit him. On such occasions, they say that they do their parents a good office, in sending them to a better world.

The Tartars, from their infancy, are inured to horsemanship. They seldom appear on foot. They are so dexterous in shooting at a mark, that a Tartar at full gallop, and even at a considerable distance, will make an arrow split a pole. The dress of the men generally consists of a short jacket, with narrow sleeves made of deer skin, having the fur outward; trousers and hose of the same kind of skin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half sunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the smoke, and benches round the fire to sit or lie upon. This seems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eastward, to the Japanese ocean. In the remotest northern provinces, every family, during the winter, burrows itself under ground; and we are told, that they make subterraneous communications with each other, so that they may be said to live in invisible villages. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horse-flesh, especially if it be young, and a little tainted. Their cabins are extremely nauseous. Though horse-flesh be preferred raw by some northern tribes, the general way of eating it, is, after it has been smoked and dried. The Tartars purchase their wives with cattle. In their marriages no great difference is made between the child of a concubine or slave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes, the wife's son is always preferred to the succession. After a wife has turned of forty, she is employed in menial duties as a servant, and as such, attends the young wife who succeeds to the place. A father has sometimes married his own daughter.

The descendants of the old inhabitants of Siberia are most of them idolaters. They consist of many nations, different from each other in their modes of life, in religion, language, and aspect. A few of them breed cattle, others follow hunting, and a very small number pay some attention to agriculture. The population of Siberia has been much increased, since it became a Russian province; for the Russians have founded a number of towns, fortresses, and villages; yet it presents but a void and desert view; since, by its extent, it is capable of supporting several millions of people more than it at present contains.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars is variously modified by that of their neighbours; for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gëntoo, the Greek, and even the Roman catholic religions. Some worship small images dressed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom he makes very free when matters do not go according to his mind.

Though we are informed that the Circassians use circumcision, yet they have neither priest, altar, nor mosque, like the Mahometans. Every person here offers his own sacrifice at pleasure, for which, certain days are established, rather by custom than any positive command. Their most solemn sacrifice is offered at the death of their nearest relations, upon which occasion both men and women meet in the field; to be present at the offering, which is a he-goat; and having killed, they flay it, and stretch the skin, with the head and horns on, upon a cross at the top of a long pole, placed commonly in a quickset hedge, to keep the cattle from it. Near this place the sacrifice is offered by boiling and roasting the flesh, which they afterwards eat. When the feast has ended, the men rise, pay their adoration to the skin, and mutter certain prayers. The women then withdraw, and the men conclude the ceremony with drinking spiritous liquors, and often with a quarrel.

But the religion and government of the kingdom of Thibet, and Lassa, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, are most worthy of attention. The Thibetians are governed by the grand or delai lama, who is not only worshipped by them, but is also the great object of adoration for the various tribes of Tartars, who rove through the vast tract of continent which stretches from the banks of the Wolga, to Korea, on the sea of Japan. He is not only the sovereign pontiff, but the more remote Tartars absolutely regard him as the Deity himself. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year multitudes, from different regions, throng to worship and to make rich offerings at his shrine; even the emperor of China, who is a Manchou Tartar, acknowledges him in his religious capacity. The lama is tributary to the emperor, who entertains, in the palace of Peking; an inferior lama, deputed as his nuncio from Thibet. The opinion of those who are reputed the most orthodox among the Thibetians, is, that when the Grand Lama seems to die, either of old age or infirmity, his soul in fact only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another younger or better, and he is discovered again in the body of some child, by certain tokens, known only to the lamas or priests, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the grand lama was an infant, which had been discovered some time before by the Tayoshoo lama, who, in authority and sanctity of character, is next to the grand lama, and, during his minority, acts as chief. The lamas, who form the most powerful body in the state, have the priest-hood entirely in their hands; and besides, fill up many monastic orders, which are held in great veneration among them. The residence of the Grand lama is at Patoli, a vast palace on a mountain near the banks of the Burampooter, about seven miles from Lassa. The English East India company made a treaty with the Lama in 1774*. The religion of Thibet, in many respects, differs from that of the Indian brahmins, yet in others, has a great affinity to it. The Thibetians have a great veneration for the cow, and for the waters of the Ganges. Indian pilgrims often visit Thibet as an holy place, and the lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred in his pay. Besides his religious influence and authority, the grand lama is possessed of unlimited power throughout his dominions, which are very extensive, and stretch to Bengal.

Another religion, very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamanism. The professors of this religious sect believe in one supreme God, the creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or do any thing that can be meritorious in his sight. They also maintain, that the supreme Being has divided the government of the world and the destiny of men, among a great number of subaltern divinities, whose protection must be courted. They likewise suppose that, for the most part, these inferior deities abominate and punish premeditated villainy, fraud, and cruelty. They are persuaded of a future existence; and they have many superstitious notions and practices. They consider women as inferior to men, created only for their sensual pleasures; to people the world, and to look after household affairs. The sex are treated by the Tartars with severity and contempt.

LEARNING.] Under Zingis Khan, Tamerlane and their early descendants, Astrachan and the neighbouring countries were seats of some learning as well as of empire and magnificence. Remains of their architecture are still extant; but in spots desolate and almost inaccessible. Some years ago, there was published an English version of the institutes of Timur, written by himself. The volume is of undoubted au-

* The fort of Dellaincotta, which commanded the principal pass through the ridge of the Bootan mountains, was taken by storm, by captain Jones, in 1773, and the fame of this exploit made the Thibetians sue for peace.

thenticity; and, every circumstance considered, the writer can lose nothing by a comparison with Xenophon, with Cæsar, or with Frederic. There is another work of Timur extant in the Mogul empire, comprehending a history of his campaigns; and hopes are indulged that a translation of this performance also may be obtained. Among the Tartars, it is said, that the encouragement of learning was the first care of the prince, and it was generally cultivated by his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Persian and Arabic tongues; and their histories, many of which are still extant in manuscript, carry with them the strongest marks of authenticity.

CURIOSITIES.] These are comprehended in the remains of the buildings left by the abovementioned barbarous conquerors and their successors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently met with, which formerly either surrounded small towns, now quite demolished, or defended camps, forts, or castles, the vestiges of which are often to be discovered. The Tartarian suburb of Kasimof, on the Oha, seems to have been the residence of some khan. In the midst of the ruins of that city, is a round and elevated tower, called in their language *Misquir*, a sort of temple. Here are also fragments of the walls of a palace; and in one of the burial places, is a very considerable mausoleum, all which edifices are built of hewn stone and bricks. From an Arabic inscription, we learn, that the khan Schagali was buried there in the nine hundred and sixty second year of the hegira, or the one thousand five hundred and twentieth of the christian era. Near Mount Caucasus are still very considerable remains of Madfchar, a celebrated city of former times. Near Derbent, are numerous tombs covered by cylindrical stones, with Arabic inscriptions. In the environs of Astrachan, the ruins of the ancient city are very visible; and the rubbish and ramparts of another town still exist near Tzaritzin, on the left shore of the Wolga. A little below the mouth of the Kema, which empties itself into the Wolga, are many superb monuments of the ancient city of Bulgaria, consisting of towers, mosques, houses and sepulchres, all built of stone or brick. The oldest epitaphs have been inscribed for more than eleven centuries, and the most modern at least four hundred years. Not far from hence, on a small river that runs into the Wolga, are found ruins somewhat more injured by the depredations of time. They are those of Boulymer, an ancient and very considerable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its ruins the small town of Bilyaïsk.

In the fortrefs of Kasan, is a monument of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are so broad, that they serve, at present, for ramparts; the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn stone. Ascending the river Kasanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the strong ramparts of the old Kasan. Near the Oufa are cemetaries full of innumerable inscriptions, and several sepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are still seen, about Tobolsk, upon the Irtsch. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulph in the river Om; and near the mouth of the Oural are the ditches of the city Saratschi'k; not to mention the numberless other cities and ruins of Siberia; and especially those in the desert of Kirguis, which abounds with relics of opulent cities. Some gold and silver coins have likewise been found, with several manuscripts neatly written, which have been carried to Petersburg. M. Voltaire, in his history of Peter the first, says, that in 1720, there were found in Kalmuc Tartary, a subterraneous house of stone, some urns, lamps, ear-rings, an equestrian statue, an Oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women seated on thrones, and a roll of manuscripts. The last were sent by Peter to the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, and discovered to be in the language of Thibet. About eighty miles from Lassa is the lake Palte, or Janfo; of such extent, according to the natives, that it requires eighteen days to walk round it. In the middle of it are islands; one of which

is the seat of the *Lamissa Turcopama*, or the *great regenerate*, in whom the Thibetians think that a divine spirit inhabits, as in the great lama.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of these we know little but the names, and that they are, in general no better than fixed hordes. They may be said to be places of abode, rather than towns and cities; for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence against an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding divisions of this country, merit notice. Tobolsk and Astrachan are considerable cities; the first containing fifteen thousand, and the latter seventy thousand inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns have also been lately erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Russian government.

Teki, the capital of Circassian Tartary, is seated in a spacious plain, on an island formed by the rivers Terki and Bustrow, and is garrisoned by two thousand regulars, and one thousand Cossacs. It is fortified in the modern style, with ramparts and bastions, well supplied with cannon, and has always a considerable garrison in it, under the command of a governor. The Circassian prince who resides here, is allowed five hundred Russians for his guard; but none of his own subjects are permitted to reside within any part of the fortifications. Ever since the reduction of those countries to the obedience of Russia, there are stationed, in all places of strength, not only Russian garrisons and governors, but magistrates, and priests, for the exercise of the christian religion. The Circassian Tartars are, however, governed by their own princes, lords, and judges; but these administer justice in the name of the empress, and in matters of importance, not without the presence of the Russian governors, being all obliged to take the oath of allegiance to the court of Peterburgh.

Tarku is the capital of Dagestan, and contains three thousand houses, two stories high, platformed at the top for walking. The Tartars of this province are Mahometans. They are numerous, and are governed by a sheikal, whose office is elective. The city of Derbent is situated on the Caspian shore, and called the frontier of Persia. It is said to have been first built by Alexander of Macedon. It is now enclosed with a broad, strong wall, built with large square stones, hard as marble, from the quarries in Caucasus. Lassa is a small city; but the houses are of stone, and are spacious and lofty.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief traffic consists in cattle, skins, beavers, rhubarb, musk, and fish. The Astrachans, notwithstanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars carry on a considerable commerce with Persia, to which they export leather, woollen and fine cloth, and some European manufactures.

HISTORY.] Tartary, formerly called Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furnished those armies, which, under various names, destroyed the Roman empire; yet now it is but very thinly inhabited. This must have been owing to the dreadful massacres made among the nations by Zingis, Timur, and their descendants, for nothing is more common in their histories than the butchery of three or four hundred thousand people in a few days.

Ubec Tartary was formerly the seat of a great empire. It was the native country of Zingis and Timur, who enriched it with the spoils of India and the eastern world. The former, about the year 1200, conquered those regions, which form, at this day the Asiatic part of the Russian empire. His son, Batou Sagin, conquered Southern Russia, and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now blended with the Russians. Ivan III. who ascended the Russian throne in 1492, delivered his country from the tyranny of these barbarians.

The present inhabitants of Asiatic Tartary, range at pleasure with their flocks and herds. Their tribes are commanded by separate leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great khan, invested with a paramount power over strangers, as well as

natives, and whose forces often amount to one hundred thousand horsemen. The standard of colours of the respective tribes form a distinctive mark. By this a Tartar knows the tribe to which he belongs. Among the Pagan Tartars, these marks of distinction consist of a piece of Chinese linen, or other coloured stuff, suspended on a lance, twelve feet in length. The Mahometan Tartars write upon their standards the name of *God*, in the Arabic language. The Kalmucs and the Mogul Tartars distinguish theirs by the name of some animal; the subdivisions of a tribe, preserve the figure drawn upon the standard of that tribe, adding only the particular name of each branch; and hence those standards answer the purpose of a genealogical table, by which every individual knows his descent.

The Tartars are bounded, on all sides, by the Russian, the Chinese, the Mogul, the Persian, and the Turkish empires. The khans pay a tribute to one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendship of these barbarians is of consequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes affect independency. When united, they form a powerful body, and of late have been formidable to the Chinese. The method of carrying on war, by wasting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practised by all of them, from the Danube eastward. This circumstance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who are thus deprived of subsistence; while the Tartars, having always many spare horses to kill and eat, are at no loss for provisions.

THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	1450	between { 20 and 42 north latitude. 98 and 123 east longitude.	1,105,100
Greatest breadth	1260		
	To which should be added Chinese Tartary.		644,000

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Chinese Tartary, and a vast wall, five hundred leagues in length, on the north; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North America, on the east; by the Chinese Sea, on the south; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Russia, on the west.

DIVISIONS.] The great division of this empire, is into fifteen provinces, besides Lyau-tong, situated without the Great Wall. Each of these might, for its extent, fertility, population and opulence, form a powerful, independent state.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	CHINESE TARTARY.								
Pe-tcheli	Pekin	<p>This is bounded, on the north, by Siberia; on the east, by the gulph of Kamtschatka and the eastern sea; on the south, by China; and on the west, by the country of the Kalmouks, who are established between the Caspian sea, and Casghar.</p> <p>EASTERN CHINESE TARTARY,</p> <p>Extends north and south from the 41st to the 55th degree of north latitude, and east and west from about the 137th degree of longitude, to the eastern sea. It is bounded on the north, by Siberia; on the south, by the gulf of Leo-tang and Corea; on the east, by the eastern sea; on the west by the country of the Moguls. The country is divided into three grand departments.</p>								
Kiang-nan	Kiang-ning-fou									
Kiang-fi	Nan-tchang-fou									
Fo-kien	Fou tcheou-fou									
Tehe-kiang	Hang-tcheou-fou									
Hou-quang	Vou-tchang-fou									
Ho-nan	Cai-fong-fou									
Chang-tong	Tsi-nan-fou									
Chan-fi	Tai-yuen-fou									
Chenfi	Si ngan-fou									
Se-tchuen	Tching-tou-fou									
Quang-tong	Canton									
Quang-fi	Quei-ling-fou									
Yun-nan	Yionan-fou									
Koei-Teheou	Koei-Yang									
States tributary to China.										
Corea										
Ton king										
Cochin China										
Thibet										
The country of Ha-mie										
The isles of Lieou kieou										
		<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Provinces.</th> <th>Chief Towns.</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Chen yang</td> <td>Mougdon</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Kirin</td> <td>Kirin</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Triticar</td> <td>Triticar</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Chen yang	Mougdon	Kirin	Kirin	Triticar	Triticar
Provinces.	Chief Towns.									
Chen yang	Mougdon									
Kirin	Kirin									
Triticar	Triticar									

The information contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, has been drawn from the papers of Jesuits, and other monks sent hither by the pope. Some of those fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of information. They were expelled from China more than sixty years ago. Succeeding travellers scarcely can enter the empire farther than what is requisite for the purposes of trade. Our knowledge of China is therefore somewhat imperfect.

NAME.] It is perhaps derived from a Chinese word, that signifies *Middle*, as the natives fancy that their country lies in the middle of the world.

MOUNTAINS.] China, except to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

RIVERS.] The chief are the Yamour and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Russian and Chinese Tartary; the Yellow River; the Kiam, or Blue River; and the Tay. Common water in China is very indifferent, and is, in some places, boiled before it can be fit for use.

CANALS.] These entitle the ancient Chinese to the character of the most industrious people in the world. The commodiousness and length of some of them are incredible. Several are lined with hewn stone on the sides, and so deep that they carry large vessels, and sometimes extend above one thousand miles in length. A celebrated canal extends from Canton to Peking, and forms a navigable communication between the southern and northern provinces. This work is six hundred leagues in length; and its course is no where interrupted but by the mountain *Mai-*

ling, where passengers are obliged to travel ten or twelve leagues over land. In this principal canal, many others end, which stretch out into the country, and form a communication between the neighbouring cities, towns, and villages. The greater part of those private canals have been executed by the industry of the inhabitants of those cities and towns, who have spared neither labour nor expence to preserve an easy conveyance of their goods into all the provinces of the empire. The vessels which navigate these canals, are fitted up for all the conveniencies of life. The navigation is slow, and the vessels are sometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perseverance, for the safety of the passengers, in case a canal is crossed by a rapid river, or exposed to torrents from the mountains. These canals, and the variety that is seen upon their borders, render China delightful to the eye, as well as fertile, in places by nature barren and disagreeable.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this empire towards the north, is sharp, in the middle mild, and in the south hot. All travellers agree in their accounts of the fertility of China, and of the extent and beauty of its plains. Neither inclosures, hedges, nor ditches, are seen in them; scarcely even is there found a single tree; so careful is the Chinese husbandman not to lose the smallest portion of his land. The plains of the northern provinces produce wheat; those of the south, rice, because the country is low, and covered with water. In several provinces there are two crops yearly; and even in the interval between the harvests, the people sow several kinds of pulse, and other small grain. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is extremely ingenious. The rare trees, and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China; and some are peculiar to itself.

The *cotton tree* is cultivated with success in the southern provinces. Its produce forms one of the most considerable branches of the commerce of China. Even on the very day that the labourers have reaped their grain, they sow cotton in the same field after turning up the earth with a rake. When the rain or dew has moistened the ground, a shrub insensibly springs up, which rises to the height of two feet. The flowers appear about the beginning, or towards the middle of August. They are generally yellow; but sometimes red. To the flower succeeds a bud, which increases in the form of a pod, till it acquires the size of a walnut. About the fortieth day after the flower has appeared, this pod bursts, divides itself into three parts, and discovers three or four small cotton balls, of a bright white colour, the figure of which is almost like that of those produced by silk worms. These small downy balls, when freed from the seeds by an ingenious process of the Chinese, are carded and spun; and afterwards made into cloth.

The *tallow-tree* has a short trunk, a smooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves shaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit that it produces has some of the qualities of tallow, and, when manufactured with oil, serves the natives as candles; but it smells strong, nor is the light clear. Of the other trees, peculiar to China, some yield a kind of flower; others partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of some is poisonous, but affords the finest black japan in the world. The Chinese are so wedded to their ancient customs, that these trees are very little, if at all, improved by cultivation. This likewise may be said of their richest fruits, which, in general, are less delicious than those of Europe, or America. The Chinese never practise grafting, or inoculation of trees, and know little of experimental gardening.

RAW-SILK abounds in China. The *tea plant*, or shrub, is planted in rows, and screened to prevent its luxuriancy. It is reported that the green and bohea grow on the same shrub, but that the latter receives some kind of preparation, which takes away

its raking qualities, and gives it a deeper colour. The qualities of the other kinds, which are termed imperial, congo, singlo, and the like, arise probably from the nature of the soils, and from the provinces from which they grow. The culture of this plant seems to be very simple; some kinds are of a much higher and more delicious flavour than others. The finest, which is called the flower of the tea, is imported over land to Russia.

The use of tea was introduced into Britain, before the restoration; for it is mentioned in 1660, in the first act of parliament, that settled the excise on Charles II, during his life. Ginseng is a native of Chinese Tartary, and of North America. In Tartary, it is only found between the 39th and 47th degrees of northern latitude, and between the 10th and 20th of eastern longitude, reckoning from the meridian of Peking. All that extent of country is encumbered by a long chain of mountains which are covered with almost impenetrable forests. On the declivities of these mountains, in the forests, in the midst of herbs of every species, ginseng is found. It never grows in level or marshy ground, or in places that are quite open. If the forest happens to take fire, and be consumed, this plant does not appear again for three or four years. It delights in the shade, and seems every where desirous to shelter itself from the rays of the sun. The same description applies to the ginseng of Canada. It is not found, however, in woods of every kind. It would be in vain to search for it in forests encumbered with underwood. It is discovered among tall, straight trees, whose trunks are bare, and free from bushes. It grows at the bottoms of these trees, among rocks and stones, from which it is torn with difficulty.

It was first discovered in Canada, by father Lafitau, a French Jesuit, who came to that country in 1715. Father Jartoux, a Chinese missionary, had published a description of it, and hinted, that it might probably be found in Canada. Lafitau, after a search of three months, met with it, for the first time, three leagues from Montreal. It is remarkable, that both in the Chinese and Iroquois languages; it is distinguished by a name, that signifies a *man's thigh*. In China, no private person is allowed to gather it; for, as it is considered by the physicians of that empire, to be an universal remedy, the price is high, and the sale very great; and it is, therefore, monopolized by the emperor himself, who sends annually ten thousand soldiers into Tartary, to collect it. These military herbalists encounter many hardships during their expedition, which continues for six months. They proceed in regular order, under the direction of mandarins. They are formed into troops of an hundred men each. They divide the ground where ginseng grows, between the several parties. They then advance gradually in an uniform direction, searching, with great attention, for the plant. In this way, they traverse, during the fixed number of days, the space assigned to them. The men have neither tents nor beds, but are exposed to the inclemencies of the air, and pass the night, as chance directs, either in the forests, or at the bottom of some rock.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountain of China contains minerals of every species. Gold and silver would be much more common than they are, if the maxims of the government permitted the mines to be completely worked; but this employment has always been discouraged, lest it should interfere with the more useful labours of agriculture. A great part of the gold, which is to be met with in China, has been collected in the sand of rivers and torrents, that fall from some particular mountains. The province of Yunan is exceedingly rich in silver mines. Chinese gold is not coined, but passed, in commerce, by weight. It is used, otherwise, only for gilding, and for slight ornaments. The emperor is the only person who possesses any quantity of gold plate. Iron, lead, and tin are plentiful, and cheap. Iron appears to have been common in China from the remotest period of its annals. The copper mines of the mountains of Yunan and Koci-tcheou, supply the small coin that is

struck in the empire. China produces a kind of white copper, unknown to any other part of the world. It is so pure and fine, that it approaches to the resemblance of silver. This copper, when broken into grains, is found to be still whiter in the interior part, than on the surface; and it is proved, by many experiments made at Peking, that this white is not occasioned by any mixture of another metal. Those who are desirous to preserve its splendor and beautiful colour, add to it a fifth part of silver. This copper is found only in the province of Yunan. The Japanese bring to China, another kind of copper, which is yellow, and has a great resemblance to gold. Quarries and coal mines are abundant in every province. Coals are of the same universal service in China, as in those parts of Europe and America, where they are common. Fire-wood is very scarce and dear. Quarries of excellent marble are numerous. There are, in China, musical instruments composed of *sonorous* stones; but, though the fact appears to be certain, we have not met with any account of them, that would be entertaining or intelligible to the reader. The most beautiful are said to be a kind of agate. This subject has exercised the ingenuity of the French chemists. Pliny, in his natural history, mentions a sort of stone, that, when struck, returned a sound like brass.

[POPULATION.] In the late account of China, by abbe Grosier, there is printed a list of the number of inhabitants in this empire. It was received in France in the year 1779. This statement was made up for the year 1761, by the Chinese tribunal of lands. The people are there estimated at one hundred and ninety-eight millions, two hundred and fourteen thousand, five hundred and fifty-three. By the same authority, we are informed, that in 1760, the empire had only one hundred and ninety-six millions, eight hundred and thirty-seven thousand, nine hundred and seventy-seven inhabitants. Thus there was, in the course of one year only, an increase of *one million, three hundred and seventy-six thousand, five hundred and seventy six*. This augmentation is not extravagant or incredible, if we reflect on the immense mass of people from which it arose. The united states of America contain but about four millions and an half of people. Their annual increase is not less than an hundred and fifty, or two hundred thousand souls; which is greater, in proportion, than that ascribed, in the present instance, to China.

It has been proved by a series of accurate observations, that the number of people in China, has, for a long time past, been increasing. There was in the library of the late king of France in Paris, one of the copies of a work composed on this subject, by order of Kien-Long, the present emperor of China. It contained more than an hundred volumes, and was published in the eighth year of his reign. By a calculation made from the documents inserted in that book, it appeared, that in the year 1743, the time about which it was published, the Chinese population was then only one hundred and fifty seven millions, three hundred and one thousand, seven hundred and fifty-five. From the year 1743, to 1761, the period of the last estimate, there was an interval of *eighteen years*, and an augmentation of about *forty-one millions*. Since the year 1761, to the present year 1794, *thirty-three years* more have elapsed, and therefore, the population ought, at this rate, to have now augmented to at least two hundred and seventy-five millions*. The statements of 1743, and 1761, comprehend a tract of territory without the great wall, and containing, in the last of these two years, about seven millions and an half of inhabitants.

According to a table given, in a former part of this work†, Switzerland has an

* If eighteen produce forty-one, thirty-three produce seventy-five, and one-sixth. We must take into this account, that the population in the last of the two periods of time, was, to multiply from a stock of one hundred and ninety-eight millions, and in the former from only one of an hundred and fifty seven millions. This makes a considerable addition to the rapidity of increase in the second period.

† Vol. I. p. 563.

area of twelve thousand nine hundred and eighty four square miles, and its population is computed at two millions, that is to say, in round numbers, about one hundred and fifty persons for every square mile. China is said to have an area of more than eleven hundred thousand miles. The soil and climate are more favourable to population than those of Switzerland. The former is much more fertile, and the latter much more mild, so that provisions are raised in China in much greater quantities, and clothing and lodging are much less expensive*. The people are likewise remarkably temperate; and all writers agree, that the population is excessive, and the poverty of the lowest class very great, from the absolute impossibility of finding food to eat. It is likely that the family of a Swiss peasant consumes, upon an average, four times the quantity of victuals that most commonly subsist an equal number of the poorest ranks of the Chinese. From these premises it may be inferred, that if Switzerland can support a population of an hundred and fifty persons for every square mile, China may sustain three hundred; and this empire, in an area of more than a million of square miles, may thus, without difficulty, contain three hundred millions of inhabitants. We have been the more minute upon this point, both because it is, in itself, extremely curious and interesting, and because it seems to have been somewhat misunderstood by several writers. A short application of the rules of arithmetic solves the difficulty of supposing that China contains an hundred and fifty, or two hundred millions of inhabitants, and proves, that it has, most likely, two hundred and fifty, or three hundred millions.

MANNERS.] Notwithstanding the industry of the people, the amazing population frequently occasions a dearth. Parents, who cannot support their female children, are allowed to cast them into the rivers, or canals; but they fasten a gourd to the children, that they may float on the water; and compassionate people are often moved by their cries to save them from death. The Chinese, in their persons, are middle sized. Their faces are broad, their eyes black and small; their noses rather short. The Chinese have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few straggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion, towards the north, is fair; towards the south, swarthy; and the fatter a man is, he is thought the more handsome. Men of quality and learning, who are not much exposed to the sun, are of delicate complexions; and those who are bred to letters, let the nails of their fingers grow to a great length, to show that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump rosy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate, though florid complexion. The smallness of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no swathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accomplishment, so that when they grow up, they may be said to totter, rather than to walk. We have been assured by a gentleman, who, from motives of curiosity, examined the feet of some female children, in the river at Canton, that this stupid custom produces very painful and distressing effects. Its origin has been ascribed to the jealousy of the Chinese.

The legislators of China look upon submission and subordination as the basis of all society, and have, therefore, devised a multitude of outward marks of respect, as the test of duty and submission from inferiors to superiors: Their capital maxim is, that the man deficient in civility, wants good sense.

The Chinese, in general, have been represented as the most dishonest race in the world, and as employing their natural quickness only, to improve the arts of cheating the nations with whom they deal. Europeans observe, that none but a Chinese

* Vide Remarks, by Dr. Moore, on the climate of Italy, already quoted, in vol. I. p. 543.

can cheat a Chinese. They are fond of law-disputes beyond any people in the world. The men of property among them practise the most avowed bribery, and the lowest meanesses to obtain preferment. Some of the late accounts of China, however, have been drawn up by those who were little acquainted with any parts of that empire but the sea-port towns, in which they probably met with many knavish and designing people. But it seems not just to attempt to characterise a great nation by a few instances of this kind, though well attested; and we appear not to be sufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China to form an accurate judgment of the manners and characters of the inhabitants.

To those who undervalue the character of the Chinese, we submit the following account of the behaviour of some of them. "I was one day," says father Fontenay, "in a very narrow and deep road, where, in a short time, there happened a great stop of carts. I expected that the drivers would have fallen into a passion, have given one another abusive language, and perhaps have come to blows, as is common in Europe. I was much surpris'd to see them salute each other, speak obligingly as if they had been familiar acquaintances, and lend their mutual assistance to make way."

DRESS. This varies according to the distinction of ranks, and is entirely under the regulation of the law, which has even fixed the colours, that distinguish the different conditions. The emperor, and princes of the blood, have alone a right to wear yellow; certain mandarins are entitled to wear satin of a red ground, but only upon days of ceremony; in general, they are clothed in black, blue, or violet. The colour to which the common people are confined, is blue or black; and their dress is always composed of plain cotton cloth. The men wear caps on their heads, of the fashion of a bell; those of quality are ornamented with jewels. The rest of their dress is easy and loose, consisting of a vest and a sash, a coat or a gown thrown over them, silk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies, towards the south, wear nothing on their head. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and sometimes it is dishevelled. Their dress differs but little from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very large open sleeves. The Chinese muffle themselves up closely in the morning; as the heat increases, they gradually throw off their covering, and again wrap themselves up at the approach of evening.

MARRIAGES.] In China, the parties never see each other, till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is often while the parties are children, and sometimes, as soon as they are born. Divorces are extremely rare, and occur only among the lowest ranks of people. The Chinese think it so essential to have posterity, that a father is said to live in some sort of dishonour, till he has obtained the marriage of all his children. Criminals, under sentence of death, have sometimes been respited, because they were childless, and their families in danger of extinction. Their wives were for a certain time, permitted to cohabit with them, that they might not die without leaving descendants. Next to being barren, one of the greatest scandals for a mother, is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of a poor family happens to have three or four girls successively, she will sometimes expose them on the high roads, or cast them into a river.

FUNERALS.] People of note cause their tombs to be built in their life-time. No corpse is ever buried within the walls of a city. A Chinese commonly keeps in his house a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great-grandfather, before which he frequently burns incense, and prostrates himself; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great-grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceased is added.

LANGUAGE.] The Chinese language is said to contain only three hundred and thirty

words, all of one syllable; but then each word is pronounced with such various modulations, and each with so different a meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be easily imagined, and enables them to express themselves very well on the common occasions of life. The missionaries, who adapt the European characters, as well as they can, to the expression of Chinese words, have devised eleven different, and some of them very compounded, marks and aspirations, to signify the various modulations, elevations and depressions of the voice, which distinguished the several meanings of the same monosyllable. The Chinese oral language being thus barren and contracted, their literature is comprised in arbitrary characters, which are complicated and numerous. According to some writers, they amount to twenty-five thousand; according to others, to thirty or forty thousand; and the latest accounts say that they amount to eighty thousand; and he reckoned a very learned man, who is master of fifteen or twenty thousand. This language being wholly addressed to the eye, and having no affinity with the oral, the latter hath still continued in its original uncultivated state, while the former has received all possible improvements.

The Chinese characters, which are, by length of time, become symbolic, were originally imitative. They still partake so much of their original hieroglyphic nature, that they do not combine into words like letters or marks for sounds; but we find one mark for a man, another for a horse, a third for a dog, and in short, a separate and distinct mark for each thing which has a corporal form. The Chinese also use a great number of marks, entirely of a symbolic nature to impress on the eye the conceptions of the mind, which have no corporeal forms, though they do not combine these last marks into words, like marks for sounds, or letters; but a separate mark is made to represent or stand for each idea, and they use them in the same manner as they do their abridged picture characters, which were originally imitative or hieroglyphic.

The Chinese books begin from the right hand; their letters are placed in perpendicular columns, of which there are generally ten in a page. They are read downwards, beginning from the right-hand side of the paper. Sometimes a title is placed horizontally, and this, likewise, reads from the right hand.

This account of the Chinese language, and art of writing, corresponds with that of the many respectable travellers, or missionaries, who have visited this empire. As such, we have inserted it entire from the last London edition of this work. It contains, however, in itself, many inconsistencies, some of which we shall here point out, without pretending to reconcile or explain them.

It is said, that the Chinese language contains only three hundred and thirty words; but this scanty number of vocables is plainly insufficient for expressing even the rude feelings of a Hottentot. To remove this objection, we are, therefore, told, in the next place, that each word has a variety of modulations, and that each of these conveys a different meaning. But this solution is, in itself, inexplicable. For it is added, that the Chinese language is expressed by thirty, forty, or, as some say, by eighty thousand figures, or marks, every one of which conveys a meaning peculiar to itself. Let us suppose that the Chinese language contains sixty-six thousand of these marks, for separate ideas; in what way can sixty-six thousand ideas be expressed by three hundred and thirty words? Those who pretend to give us information upon this subject, can only reply, that each of these three hundred and thirty words must, upon an average of the whole number, be pronounced in two hundred different tones, so as that each of these tones may be distinguishable, in conversation, from the other one hundred and ninety-nine. To add to this difficulty, each of these primary words consists but of one syllable; and how is it possible, that one syllable can be pronounced in two hundred, or even in twenty different accents? After a very small

number of discernible variations, it must lose all resemblance to the primary sound, or rather, in such a medley of modulations, it is impossible that a primary sound, or, indeed, any standard to regulate the diversities of accent, can exist. But farther, though we should admit this system of orthography to be true, there is yet another objection. In Europe, it is impossible to travel fifty miles in any direction without finding a visible alteration in the pronunciation of the vowels. In China, it is to be supposed, that the same variety takes place; and this would multiply the difficulties of pronouncing a tongue depending on such a nicety of accents, and would, indeed, make the dialect of one province unintelligible to the inhabitants of another. It is farther said, by the authors on this subject, that very few of the learned men of China can understand more than half the marks; but how is a writer to express himself in any tongue, if he is divested of the power of employing more than half the words which it contains? Or how is the knowledge of the signification of the characters to be preserved, if there is not any one learned man, who understood more than the half of them? If no individual in Pennsylvania could ever be able to write more than thirteen of the twenty-six letters in the alphabet, the knowledge of it must very soon expire. If no American could spell more than one half of the words in the English language, we should only be in the same situation, in which China is reported to be.

To these objections the proper answer seems to be, that either the missionaries, and others, did not understand this matter themselves, or have wanted abilities or inclination to make it intelligible to their readers. China abounds with books of all kinds, and its writers deliver their ideas and sentiments, of every nature, with perfect fluency. This evidently shows, that the art of writing is, in common practice, reduced to very simple principles. This is one of the departments of knowledge, of which the European literati must, as yet, confess their ignorance.

The language of China seems to be well fixed, for plays are still acted that were written a thousand years ago. There is not, perhaps, a single nation in Europe, where the tongue has continued the same for ten centuries. The language of China, like that of Greece, appears to be original, and unborrowed from that of any other people. We have seen the work of a French Jesuit, which contradicts the common opinion as to the difficulty of acquiring this tongue. He says, that he made a very considerable progress, in a very short time, and was highly delighted with his facility in learning it.

[GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The Chinese, in their gardening, and planning their ground, are capable of the true sublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickness, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no proper apparatus for astronomical observations; and the metaphysical learning, which existed among them, was only known to their philosophers. It has been generally said, that they understood printing before the Europeans; but that can be only applied to block-printing; for fusile and moveable types were undoubtedly a Dutch or German invention. The Chinese, however, had almanacks, which were stamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was discovered in Europe.

The difficulty of mastering and retaining such a number of arbitrary marks and characters, as are in the Chinese written language, greatly retards the progress of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe, where learning is attended with such honours and rewards, and where more powerful inducements are held out, to cultivate and pursue it. The literati are revered as men of another species, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever so mean and low, they become mandarins of the various ranks, in proportion to the extent of their learning.

On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they sink into poverty and obscurity, if they neglect those studies which raised their fathers. It has been observed, that there is no nation in the world in which the first honours of the state lie so open to the lowest of the people, and where there is less of hereditary greatness. The Chinese range all their works of literature into four classes. The first is the class of *king*, or the sacred books, which contain the principles of the Chinese religion, morality and government, and several curious and obscure records, relative to these important subjects. Though history forms a class apart; yet, in this first class, are placed some historical monuments, on account of their relation to religion and government, and among others the *Tekun tscou*, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Low, the native country of that illustrious sage. The second class is that of the *Su*, or *Che*, that is, of history and the historians. The third class, called *Tsu*, *Tse*, comprehends philosophy and the philosophers, and contains all the works of the Chinese literati, the productions also of foreign sects and religions, which the Chinese consider only in the light of philosophical opinions, and all books relative to mathematics, astronomy, physic, military science, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and sciences in general. The fourth class is called *Tcie*, or *Miscellanies*, and contains all the poetical books of the Chinese, their pieces of eloquence, their songs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chinese literati, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themselves less to the study of nature, and to the researches of natural philosophy, then to moral inquiries, the practical science of life, and internal polity and manners. It is said, that in the dynasty of the Song, in the tenth and eleventh centuries after Christ, the Chinese philosophers first formed hypotheses concerning the natural system of the universe, and entered into discussions of a scholastic kind, in consequence, perhaps, of the intercourse which they had long kept up with the Arabians, who studied with ardour the works of Aristotle. Since the Chinese have begun to pay some attention to natural philosophy, their progress in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

In 1761, Dr. Thomas Percy published at London, the translation of a Chinese novel, entitled *Hau Kiou Chooan*, or *the pleasing history*. This work consists of four small volumes, and is illustrated by a variety of notes, which discover in the editor, a very extensive degree of information. Dr. Percy has likewise subjoined several other curious specimens of Chinese literature. There never was a more interesting picture of the manners of any nation than what has been displayed in *The pleasing history*. Almost every species of character in the Chinese empire, from the sovereign, and his favourite eunuch and ministers, down to the lowest classes, are successively brought forward. We feel an irresistible conviction that they are transcribed from the original page of humanity. Yet the whole system of ideas and manners differs so essentially from what we have been accustomed to hear, or to read of, that we are tempted to imagine ourselves introduced to an acquaintance with a new order of beings. The story is that of *Shuey Ping-Sin*, a young lady, whose father is one of the ministers of the emperor, and who, in consequence of his office, is obliged to reside at court. His daughter, in his absence, is harassed by the addresses of a lover; and extricates herself, with wonderful dexterity, from a series of stratagems, devised for driving her into a marriage. At last, when she has been reduced to extremity, she is relieved from her distress by *Tieb-chung-u*, the hero of the work. Another series of adventures follows, and after removing obstacles, that are highly alarming to the sensibility of the reader, the two lovers are at last married by a particular order from the emperor, who, in a public memorial, recommends them to his subjects, as an example of unparalleled virtue and heroism. This work is, in a high degree, friendly to morality. The venal corruption of the courts of justice is strongly painted, and severely punished. Vice, of every sort, is uniformly marked with detestation and disgrace; while courage in

the one sex, chastity in the other, and filial piety in both, are held up to unlimited applause and admiration. *The pleasing history* has, strictly speaking, no passage either sublime or pathetic. There is not to be found in it, the richness of colouring, the strength, and variety of characters, that distinguish the novels of Fielding, of Richardson, and of Smollet. But this inferiority must be ascribed rather to the manners of the Chinese nation, than to a deficiency in the talents of the author himself. There is a propriety in the style, and an art in the conduct of the fable, that mark this performance as the production of taste and genius. Dr. Blair, the well known author of lectures on rhetoric, observed once in conversation, that it contained a more authentic and interesting account of the internal state of China, than all the other publications on that subject, that he had ever seen.

The English version of this work was made by Mr. James Wilkinson, a British merchant, who resided, for some time, at Canton, where he studied the Chinese language. His manuscript is dated in 1719. The original is said, by the Chinese, to have been known four or five hundred years. We have been the more particular in an account of this work, because it has not met with that attention which it so highly deserves; nor have we, at any time, seen it quoted, or referred to by any writer whatever. In 1774, Dr. Percy published an additional advertisement, to the first impression, which had, it seems, remained unfold for thirteen years.

The invention of gunpowder is justly claimed by the Chinese, who made use of it against Zingis Khan and Tamerlane. They seem to have been strangers to small fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the fire pan.

[ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Some rivers and lakes, of particular qualities, and some volcanoes, are found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Linsung is said to make sometimes a furious discharge of fire and ashes. The artificial curiosities of China are stupendous. The great wall, separating China from Tartary, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars, is supposed to extend one thousand five hundred miles. It is carried over mountains and valleys, and reaches from the province of Shensi to the Yellow Sea. It is, in most places, built of brick and mortar, which are so well tempered, as not to admit the least entrance for any instrument of iron. Though it has stood for two thousand years, it has but little decayed, and, in such a dry climate, may remain in the same condition for many ages. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, in the province of Petcheli, to the east of Pekin, and almost in the same latitude. It is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraced and cased with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high. It is flanked with towers, two bow-shots distant from each other, which add to its strength, and render it much easier to be defended. One-third of the able-bodied men in China, were employed in constructing this wall, which, it is said, was begun and completely finished in the short space of five years; and it is farther reported, that the workmen stood so close for many miles, that they could hand the materials from one to another. Some gentlemen, who took a map of these provinces, often stretched a line on the top, to measure the basis of triangles, and to take distant points with an instrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or six horsemen to travel abreast with ease. The pyramids of Egypt are a diminutive work, when compared to this enormous barrier. Mention has been already made of the prodigious canals and roads that are cut through this empire.

The artificial mountains present on their tops, temples, monasteries, and other edifices. The Chinese bridges cannot be sufficiently admired. They are built sometimes upon barges strongly chained together, yet so as to be parted, and to let the vessels pass, that sail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and consist

only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany, though but a single arch, is four hundred cubits long, and five hundred high. It joins two mountains. Others, in the interior parts of the empire, are said to be still more stupendous. The triumphal arches, raised in honour of their great men, from the next species of artificial curiosities. They are not built in the Greek or Roman style of architecture, but are superb and beautiful. There are said to be eleven hundred, of which, two hundred are particularly magnificent. The sepulchral monuments of China are likewise splendid. Those towers called pagodas, the models of which have become so common in Europe, are vast embellishments to the face of the country. They seem to be constructed by a regular order, and most of them are finished with exquisite carvings, gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nanking has been the most admired; it is two hundred feet high, and forty in diameter. It is called the Porcelane tower, because it is lined with Chinese tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the fanciful taste in which they are built, for their capriciousness, their whimsical ornaments, and the ugliness of the idols that they contain. The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which give name to one of their principal festivals. A bell of Peking weighs one hundred and twenty thousand pounds, but its sound is said to be disagreeable. Their fire-works exceed those of all other nations. Every province of China is a scene of curiosities. Their buildings, except their pagodas, being confined to no order, and susceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleasing elegance, not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and present a diversity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

CHIEF CITIES.] The empire is said to contain four thousand four hundred walled cities; the chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton. Peking, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary residence of the emperors, is situated in a very fertile plain, twenty leagues distant from the great wall. It is an oblong square, and is divided into two cities. That which contains the emperor's palace, is called the Tartar city, because the houses were given to the Tartars, when the present family came to the throne; and they refusing to let the Chinese inhabit it, forced them to live without the walls, where they, in a short time, built a new city; which, by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, six leagues in compass. The walls and gates of Peking are fifty cubits in height, so that they hide the whole city: and are so broad, that sentinels are placed upon them on horseback; for there are slopes within the city, of considerable length, by which horsemen may ascend the walls; and in several places, there are houses built for the guard. The gates, nine in number, are neither embellished with statues, nor carvings, all their beauty consisting in their prodigious height, which, at a distance, gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built of marble, and the rest of large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar. Most of the streets are built in a direct line; the largest are about one hundred and twenty feet broad, and a league in length. The shops where they sell silks and China-ware, generally take up the whole street, and afford a very agreeable prospect. Each shop-keeper places before his shop, on a small kind of pedestal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varnished, and often gilt, on which are written, in large characters, the names of the several commodities he sells. These being placed on each side of the street, at nearly an equal distance from each other, have a very pretty appearance; but the houses are plainly built in front, and very low, having only a ground floor*. Of the buildings in this great city, the most

* In the notes on the *Pleasant History*, we are informed, that a mandarin once began to raise a house to more than the usual height of one story. The novelty gave so much offence, that he found it prudent to pull the building down. One of the emperors remarked to a missionary, that the ground must certainly be very scarce in Europe, since the inhabitants were forced to build one house on the top of another.

remarkable for the imperial palace, the grandeur of which does not consist so much in the nobleness and elegance of the architecture as in the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly disposed; for within the walls are not only the emperor's house, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor. F. Attiret, a French jesuit, who was indulged with the sight of the palace and gardens, says, that the palace is more than three miles in circumference and that the front of the building shines with gilding, paint, and varnish, while the inside is adorned and furnished with every thing that is most beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground, in which are raised, at proper distances, artificial mountains, from twenty to sixty feet high. These are diversified by a number of small vallies, plentifully watered by canals, which united, form lakes and meres. Elegant barges sail on these pieces of water, and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, no two of which are said to have any resemblance to each other. This variety produces a very pleasing effect. Every valley has its house of pleasure, large enough to lodge one of the first nobility in Europe, with all his retinue. Many of them are built with cedar, transported, at a vast expense, from the distance of five hundred leagues. Of these palaces, there are more than two hundred in this vast enclosure. In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky island, on which stands a palace, containing more than an hundred apartments. It has four fronts and is a very elegant and magnificent structure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly such as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with rustic pieces of rock, disposed with such art, as exactly to resemble the wildness of nature.

The city of Peking is computed to contain two millions of inhabitants. Nanking is said to exceed it both in extent and populousness. Canton is the greatest port in China, and the only one much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is about five miles in circumference, with very pleasant walks around it. From the top of some adjacent hills, on which forts are built, there is a fine prospect of the country. It is beautifully interspersed with mountains, little hills and vallies, all green; and these again pleasantly diversified with small towns, villages, high towers, temples, the seats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and small branches from the river Ta; on which numberless boats and junks sail in different ways, through the most fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by seven iron gates, and withinside of each there is a guard-house. The streets of Canton are very straight, but generally narrow, and paved with flagstones. There are many handsome buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well stocked with images. The streets of Canton are so crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet women of any fashion are seldom to be seen, unless by chance, when coming out of their chairs. There are great numbers of market places for fish, flesh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of provisions, which are sold very cheap. There are many private walks about the skirts of the town, where those of the higher ranks have their houses, which are very little frequented by Europeans, whose business lies chiefly in the trading parts of the city, where there are only shops and warehouses. Few of the opulent Chinese traders keep their families in the houses where they do business; but either in the city, in the suburbs, or in the country. They have all such regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the streets, but in shops and places of public business; nor do any of their windows look towards those of their neighbours. There are often five thousand trading vessels lying in the harbour of this city.

In the last voyage of captain Cook, which was performed for making discoveries in the northwest coast of America, his two vessels came into the port of Canton.

This was in the end of the year 1779. The narrative of that voyage contains some curious particulars respecting the present state of China. Amidst a multitude of similar omissions, in every European edition of this system of Geography, it is somewhat strange that no notice whatever has been taken of the information given in the account of captain Cook's voyage. We shall here select some of the most interesting circumstances in that part of the narrative, which regards Canton.

The city, including the old and new town, and the suburbs, is about ten miles in circuit. As to the number of its inhabitants, a Chinese family consists, upon an average, of more persons, than a family in Europe. A mandarin, according to his rank and property, has from five to twenty wives; a merchant, from three to five. One merchant at Canton had twenty-five wives, and thirty-six children, but this was an uncommon instance. An opulent tradesman has usually two wives; and the inferior class of people, very seldom more than one. The servants in China are, at least, double in number to those employed by persons of the same condition in Europe. A Chinese house occupies a greater space of ground than is usual in Europe; a space perhaps, thrice as great. But, at the same time, the family is one third more numerous. Balancing these opposite circumstances, the historian of the voyage conjectures, that a Chinese town contains only half the number of people in an European town of the same extent. His conclusion is, that Canton has probably an hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants.

As to the boats, or floating habitations, upon the river Tigris, at Canton, they are estimated, by the lowest accounts, at forty thousand. They are moored in rows close to each other, with a narrow passage at intervals for the boats to pass up and down the river. The Tygris at Canton, is not near as wide as the Delaware, at Philadelphia, and the whole river is covered, in this manner, for the extent of at least a mile. Hence the computation of forty thousand of these boats, does not appear exaggerated. Each of them contains a family, so that the total number of their inhabitants must be very great. The military force of the province of Quang-tong, of which Canton is the capital, amounts to fifty thousand men. Of these, twenty thousand are stationed in or near Canton. One of the English officers was assured, that on occasion of some disturbance, thirty thousand soldiers had been drawn together in the space of a few hours. The streets are long, but most of them narrow and irregular. They are well paved with large stones, and most of them are kept very clean. Their houses are built of brick, and one story high, which accounts fully for the greater space of ground that a Chinese town covers, in proportion to the number of its houses. Those of Canton have generally two or three courts backward, in which are the ware houses for merchandise; and in the houses within the walls of the old town, these courts also contain the apartments of the women. A very few of the meanest buildings are of wood.

One of the English officers, who was on board of a Chinese boat, thought these boats more neat and convenient for passengers, than any others that he had ever seen. They are of various sizes, almost flat at the bottom, very broad upon the beam, and narrow at the head and stern, both which are raised and ornamented. The apartment, where this gentleman sat, was furnished with handsome mats, chairs, and tables.

The wages of labour in China, were stated to be as follow, viz. a porter, eightpence sterling per day; a tailor, five-pence, with rice; a handicraftsman, eight-pence; a common labourer, from three-pence to five-pence. The labour of women is considerably cheaper.

The writer of this voyage, complains of the difficulties cast in his way by the public officers, and draws an inference of the depraved disposition of the Chinese, from their having never entered into terms of friendship with any of the supercargoes or

other English, concerned in the foreign commerce at Canton. This writer should, have remembered, that the *honourable* East-India company has, upon all occasions acted as an incorporation of fraud, robbery, and murder; nor can it be supposed that the Chinese are to feel any sentiments of confidence, or even of respect, for the agents of such a body. The historian of Anson's piratical voyage, has collected a list of the petty rogueries committed by the Chinese on the people of the Centurion; and thence he draws some very degrading inferences as to the nation in general. He forgot, perhaps, that the Chinese never wander four thousand leagues from their own country, to plunder ships, and or set villages on fire. In the scale of impartial justice, the burning of Paita, so triumphantly described in Anson's narrative, was itself an action infinitely more disgraceful than all the tricks alledged against the Chinese put together.

[TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is so happily situated, and produces such a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be termed the native land of industry. The Chinese make paper of the bark of bamboo, and other trees, and of cotton; but none of it is comparable, for records or printing, to that of Europe. Their ink, for the use of drawing, is said to be made of oil and lamp-black. Their printing is performed by cutting the characters on blocks of wood. The manufacture of China-ware was long a secret unknown in Europe, and carried immense sums from thence. Though the Chinese affect to keep the manufacture still a secret, yet it is well known that the principal material is prepared pulverized earth, and that several European countries exceed the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity. The Chinese silks are generally plain and flowered gauzes, which are said to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing silk-worms was first discovered. They likewise manufacture silks of a more durable kind, and their cotton, and other cloths, are famous for furnishing a light warm dress.

Their trade is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money*. Since the discovery of the porcelane manufactures, and the vast improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chinese commerce has been on the decline.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The original plan of the Chinese government was patriarchal. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the most rigorous manner; but at the same time, the emperor was considered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of state, were looked upon as his substitutes; and the degrees of submission which were due from the inferior ranks to the superior, were settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision. This simple claim of obedience required great address and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual. The mandarins had modes of speaking and writing different from those of other subjects, and the people were taught to believe, that their princes partook of divinity, so that they were rarely seen, and more rarely approached.

Though this system preserved the public tranquillity for a great number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect that often convulsed, and at last proved fatal to, the state, because the same attention was not paid to the military as to the civil duties. The Chinese had passions like other men, and sometimes a weak or corrupted administration drove them into arms, and a revolution easily succeeded, which they justified by saying, that their sovereign had ceased to be their father. During those commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours, the Tartars, to

* In the London edition, there is added this sage remark: "For such is the *pride* and *avarice* of the Chinese, that they think no manufactures equal to their own." A preference to their own manufactures deserves praise, instead of such contemptible reprobation.

their assistance, who availed themselves of the favourable opportunity; and, having invaded and conquered the empire, they gradually conformed to the Chinese institutions.

By the laws of China, the mandarins might remonstrate to the emperor upon the errors of his government; and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with salutary effects. China is well provided with magistrates for the discharge of justice; but they often want public virtue. The emperor is styled, "*Holy son of heaven, sole governor of the earth, great father of his people,*" titles hardly more absurd than those of many sovereigns of Europe.

RELIGION.] The religion of China is idolatry. It has been asserted that Confucius and its other ancient philosophers and law-givers had just ideas of the Divinity, although they established paganism. Above a century ago, the christian religion was introduced among the people, and many converts made, by the Jesuits. But being charged, whether justly or not, we cannot decide, with interfering in the affairs of government, they were expelled, their churches destroyed, and the exercise of christianity prohibited.

PUBLIC ROADS.] The security of travellers, and an easy conveyance for passengers and merchandize of every kind, are objects of particular attention to the Chinese administration.

The roads are in general very broad; they are paved in all the southern provinces, and in some of the northern. Valleys have been filled up, and passages cut through rocks and mountains, to make commodious and level highways. They are commonly bordered with lofty trees, and sometimes with walls eight or ten feet in height, to prevent travellers from entering into the fields. Openings are left in them at certain intervals which give a passage into cross roads, that conduct to different villages. On the great roads, covered seats are erected at proper distances, where the traveller may shelter himself from the inclemency of winter or the excessive heats of summer.

There is no want of inns on the principal highways, and even on the cross roads. They are spacious, but badly supplied with provisions. People are obliged to carry beds with them*, or to sleep on a plain mat.

There are many turrets called post-houses, erected at certain distances one from another, with a flag-staff, on which is hoisted the imperial pendant. These are guarded by soldiers, who run from one post to another with great speed, carrying letters, which concern the emperor. The turrets are in sight of one another, and by signals, intelligence is conveyed of any remarkable event. By these means the court is informed in the speediest manner, of whatever disturbance may happen in the most remote part of the empire.

REVENUES.] These are said, by the abbe Grosier, to amount to forty-one millions sterling, a year; but this cannot be meant in money which does not abound in China. The taxes collected for the use of government, in rice, and other commodities, are certainly very great.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] China is, at this time, a more powerful empire than it was before its conquest by the eastern Tartars, in 1644. Chun-tchi, the first Tartarian emperor of China, obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tartar dress and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chinese were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the seat of govern-

* The hero of the Pleasing history is attended by a servant, who carries a bed behind him on his ass. This is one of the numerous circumstances in that work, which corroborate the modern accounts of China.

ment, and the Tartars quietly submitted to a change of their country and condition, which was so much in their favour.

The troops of this empire amount to more than seven hundred thousand. Father Amiot was told by one of the Chinese literati, that their militia were, at least, two millions. Many thousands are employed in the collection of the revenue, the preservation of the canals, the great roads, and the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about thirty thousand. As to the marine force, it is composed chiefly of small ships, that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or are intended to prevent sudden descents.

A treatise on the military art, translated from the Chinese into the French language, was published at Paris in 1772, from which it appears that the Chinese are well versed in the theory of the art of war; but caution is recommended to their generals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themselves.

HISTORY.] The Chinese annals have been carried beyond the period to which the scripture chronology assigns the creation of the world. Poan-Kou is said by them to have been the first man; and the interval of time between him and the death of the celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Christ 479, hath been reckoned from two hundred and seventy-six thousand to ninety-six million nine hundred and sixty-one thousand, seven hundred and forty years. But it appears, that all the Chinese historical relations of events, prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived two thousand and fifty-seven years before Christ*, are fabulous. The origin of the Chinese empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. But even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity. It is certain that the materials for Chinese history are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire of China are comprehended in six hundred and sixty-eight volumes. They consist of the pieces that have been composed by the tribunal, or department of history, established in China, for transmitting to posterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters, and transactions of its sovereigns. It is said, that all the facts which concern the monarchy since its foundation, have been deposited in this department, and from age to age have been arranged in the order of time, under the inspection of government, and with all the precautions against partiality that could be suggested. These precautions have been carried so far, that the history of the reign of each imperial family has only been published after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound secret during the dynasty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is asserted, that many of the Chinese historians exposed themselves to exile, and death, rather than disguise the defects and vices of the sovereign. The emperor Chi-hoangti, at whose command the great wall was built, in the year two hundred and thirteen before the christian era, ordered all the historical books and records, which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government, with the medals, inscriptions, and monuments of antiquity, to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppose his authority, and resist the changes that he proposed to introduce into the monarchy; and that there might remain no earlier date or authority, relative to religion, science, or politics, than those of his own reign. Four hundred literati were burnt with their books; yet this edict had not its full effect; several books were concealed, and escaped the general ruin. After this period, strict search was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but, owing to the destruction caused by Chi-hoangti, the authentic historical sources of

* This account brings Yao within two hundred and ninety-one years of the deluge; and if it be true, as the text admits, that the Chinese empire was founded a long time before his reign, the reckoning is very narrow.

the Chinese, for the times anterior to the year two hundred before Christ, are very few. The Chinese history is still immensely voluminous. Of the six hundred and sixty-eight volumes of annals before mentioned, a copy is preserved in the library of the late French king. An abridgement of this work, in one hundred volumes, was published by the Chinese government, in the year 1703.

The struggles of the Chinese with the Tartars, which lasted for several centuries, and the violence of domestic factions, produced bloody wars, and many revolutions; so that though the Chinese empire is hereditary, the imperial succession has been often interrupted. Upwards of twenty families of succession, are enumerated in their annals.

Zingis Khan, and Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chinese, could not subdue their empire; and neither of them could keep the conquests that they had made there. After their invasions were over, the Chinese engaged in a war with the Manchew Tartars, while Tsontching was upon the throne. In the mean time, a bold rebel, named Li cong-tse, in the province of Se tchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himself. Ou-fan-qey, the Chinese general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refused to recognise the usurper. He made a peace with Chun-tchi, the Manchew prince, who drove the usurper from the throne, and took possession of it himself, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himself in his authority, and, in effect, Tartary became an acquisition to China. About the year 1661, the Chinese, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the island of Formosa, which the latter had taken from the Portuguese.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars which composed the nation of the Tourgouths, left the settlements which they possessed under the Russian government on the banks of the Wolga and the Jaick, at a small distance from the Caspian sea, and in a vast body of fifty thousand families, they passed through the country of the Haffacks. After a march of eight months, in which they surmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontier of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily, and offered themselves as subjects to Kien-long, emperor of China. He received them graciously, furnished them with provisions, clothes, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and pasturage. Next year there was a second migration of about thirty thousand other Tartar families, who also quitted their settlements under the Russian government, and submitted to the Chinese sceptre. The emperor caused the history of these migrations to be engraven upon stone, in four different languages. It is a vulgar mistake to say that this empire enjoys a profound peace. Its wars with the independent Tartars, have, during this century, been obstinate and bloody. The prodigious desarts that disjoin it from Russia, have hitherto prevented a rupture between these two empires.

INDIA IN GENERAL.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES. } THIS vast country is situated between the 66th and 109th degrees of east longitude, and between one and forty of north latitude. It is bounded on the north, by the countries of Usbec Tartary and Thibet; on the south, by the Indian Ocean; on the east, by China and the Chinese Sea; and on the west, by Persia and the Indian Sea.

DIVISIONS.] India is divided, by geographers, into three parts; the peninsula of India beyond the Ganges, the Mogul empire, and the peninsula on this side of the Ganges; all these are populous and extensive empires.

POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.] Mr. Orme comprehends the two latter divisions under the title of Indoftan. The Mahometans, who are called Moors of Indoftan, are computed at ten millions, and the Indians at one hundred millions. Above half the empire is subject to the rajahs, or kings, who derive their descent from the old princes of India, and exercise every right of sovereignty, only paying tribute to the great Mogul. The ancient government of Indoftan was full of checks upon the greatness of any subject; but the indolence of the moguls and the factious spirit of their viceroys, have rendered them fruitless.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos, or Hindoos. They have, from time immemorial, been divided into four great tribes. The first, and most noble tribe, are the Bramins. They alone officiate in the priesthood. They are not excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though, by their laws, they are strictly prohibited from all menial offices. The second in order is the Sittri tribe, who, by their original institution, ought all to be military men; but they frequently follow other professions. The third is the tribe of Beise, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and shopkeepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial servants; and cannot raise themselves to any superior rank. If a Hindoo be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his posterity are forever shut out from the society of every body in the nation, except that of the Harri cast, who are held in utter detestation by all other tribes, and are employed only in the meanest and vilest offices. This circumstance renders excommunication so dreadful, that any Hindoo will suffer torture and death, sooner than deviate from one article of his faith.

Besides this division into tribes, the Gentoos are also subdivided into *casts*, or smaller classes and tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of these casts, though some have supposed that there is a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the casts, in a peculiar city or province, is, for the most part, indisputably decided. An Indian of an inferior, would think himself honoured by adopting the customs of a superior cast; but this last would give battle sooner than not vindicate its prerogatives. The inferior receives the victuals prepared by a superior cast with respect; but the superior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by a person of an inferior cast. Their marriages are circumscribed by the same barriers as the rest of their intercourses. There are some casts remarkable for beauty, and others for ugliness. The most striking features in the character of the Hindoos, are their superstition, and veneration for the institutions and tenets of their forefathers.

The members of each cast, adhere, invariably, to the profession of their forefathers. From generation to generation, the same families have followed, and will always continue to follow, one uniform line of life. To this may be ascribed that high degree of perfection, conspicuous in many of the Indian manufactures; and though veneration for the practices of their ancestors, may check the spirit of invention, yet, by adhering to these, they acquire such an expertness and delicacy of hand, that Europeans, with all the advantages of superior science, and aid of more complete instruments, have not always been able to equal the exquisite execution of their workmanship. While this high improvement of their more curious manufactures excited the admiration, and attracted the commerce, of other nations, the separation of professions in India, and the early distribution of the people into classes, attached to peculiar kinds of labour, secured such abundance of more common and useful commodities, as not only supplied their own wants, but ministered to those of the countries around them.

To this early division of the people into casts, we must likewise ascribe a striking peculiarity in the state of India, the permanence of its institutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India, always was there, and

is still likely to continue. Neither the ferocious fanaticism of its Mahometan conquerors, nor the power of its European masters, have effected any considerable alteration. The same distinctions of condition take place, the same arrangements in civil and domestic society remain, the same maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the same sciences and arts are cultivated. Hence, in all ages, the trade with India has been the same; gold and silver have uniformly been carried thither, in order to purchase the same commodities with which it now supplies all nations; and from the age of Pliny to the present times, it has always been considered as the gulf which swallows up the precious metals of every other country, that flow incessantly towards it, and from which they never return.

RELIGION.] The bramins, or priests of India, pretend that Brumma, their legislator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he existed many thousand years before our account of the creation. The bramins pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vedam, containing his doctrines and institutions; and though the original is lost, they still possess a sacred commentary upon it, written in the Shanfrite, which is a language known only to the bramins who study it.

The foundations of Brumma's doctrine consisted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who created a regular gradation of beings, some superior, and some inferior to man; in the immortality of the soul, and in a future state of rewards and punishments, which was to consist of transmigration into different bodies, according to the lives that they had led in their pre-existent state. From this it seems that the Pythagorean metempsychosis took its rise in India. To inculcate this doctrine into the lower ranks, the bramins have recourse to sensible representations of the deity; so that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated into the worship of different animals, and of various images with the most hideous figures, delineated or carved. Wooden images are placed in all their temples, and, on certain festivals, are exhibited in the high roads and in the streets of towns. The human figures, with elephants' heads, which are the objects of their devotion, have many hands, and are enormously corpulent.

The institutions of religion, in the extensive countries stretching from the banks of the Indus to Cape Comorin, present to view an aspect nearly similar. They form a regular and complete system of faith, strengthened by every circumstance which can excite the reverence and secure the attachment of the people. The temples, consecrated to their deities, are magnificent, and adorned, not only with rich offerings, but with the best works in painting and sculpture, which their artists were capable of executing. The rites of their worship are splendid, and the performance of them not only mingles in all transactions of common life, but constitutes an essential part of them. The bramins are elevated above every other order of men, by an origin deemed not only more noble, but acknowledged to be sacred. They have established among themselves, a regular gradation of ranks, which, by securing subordination in their own order, adds weight to their authority, and gives them a more absolute dominion in the minds of the people. This dominion they support by the command of the immense revenues, with which the superstition of princes, and the zeal of pilgrims and devotees, have enriched their pagodas.

In India, the dominion of religion extends to a thousand particulars, which in other countries are governed either by the civil laws, or by taste, custom, or fashion. Dress, food, the common intercourses of life, marriages, professions, are all under the jurisdiction of religion. The original government of the Hindoos, was an hierarchy; for the highest authority was possessed by the priesthood. All the casts acknowledge the Bramins for their priests, and believe in transmigration. The greater number of casts eat, although very sparingly, both of fish and flesh; but not of all kinds indifferently. The food of the Hindoos is simple, consisting chiefly of rice, ghee,

which is a kind of imperfect butter, milk, vegetables, and oriental spices of different kinds. The warrior cast may eat the flesh of goats, mutton, and poultry. Other superior casts may eat poultry and fish; but the inferior casts are prohibited from eating flesh or fish of any kind. Their greatest luxury consists in the use of the richest spices and perfumes, of which the great people are very lavish, and which grow almost spontaneously in their gardens. They esteem milk the purest of foods; and the cow itself they regard almost like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happiness consists in the solacements of domestic life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is an indispensable duty in every man, who does not entirely separate himself from the world through a principle of devotion. Their religion permits them to have several wives; but they seldom have more than one; and it has been observed, that their wives are distinguished by a decency of demeanor, an attention in their families and a fidelity to their vows, which reflect the highest honour on human nature. The amusements of the Hindoos, consist in assisting at religious shows, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies prescribed to them by the brahmins. Their religion seems to forbid them to quit their own shores*, nor do they want anything from abroad. They might, therefore, have lived in much tranquillity and happiness, if others had regarded them with the same indifference, which they have for the rest of the world.

The soldiers are commonly called rajah-poots; or persons descended from rajahs; they reside chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the south. These rajah-poots are a robust, brave, faithful people, and enter into the service of those who will pay them; but when the leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finished, and they run off the field without any stain upon their reputation.

CUSTOMS AND DRESS.] The custom of women burning themselves, upon the death of their husbands, still continues to be practised among some of high cast and condition, though much less frequently than formerly, and it is said, that the brahmins now do not encourage it.

The Gentoos are careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniencies. There scarcely occurs an instance of robbery in Indostan, though the diamond merchants travel without defensive weapons. According to a late writer, the Hindoos, as well as the Persians, Tartars, and adjoining nations, who have inhabited Indostan since it was invaded by Tamerlane, though of different countries, religions, laws, and customs, possess, nevertheless, in equal degrees, hospitality, politeness, and address. In refinement and ease they are superior to any people to the westward of them.

The complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair is long, their persons are straight and elegant; their limbs finely proportioned, their fingers long and tapering, their countenances open and pleasant, and their features exhibit the most delicate lines of beauty in the females, and in the males a kind of manly softness.

Their walk and gait, as well as their deportment, are graceful. The dress of the

† The Gentoos are persuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kistna, and Indus, have the sacred virtue of purifying those who bathe in them, from all pollutions and sins. This religious idea seems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to restrain the natives from migrating into distant countries; for it is remarkable, that the sacred rivers are so situated, that there is not any part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity

of washing away their sins. The Ganges, which rises in the mountains of Thibet, with its different branches, runs through the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohilcund, Agra, Delhi, and Lahore. The Kistna divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs through the Visiapore into the interior parts of the Decan; and the Indus, bounding the Guzarat provinces, separates Indostan from the dominions of Persia.

men is, a kind of a close-bodied gown, like our women's gowns, and wide trowsers, resembling petticoats, reaching down to their slippers. Such of the women as appear in public, have shawls over their heads and shoulders, short close jackets, and tight drawers which come down to their ancles. The dress of the men gives them an appearance of effeminaey.

Their houses have spacious galleries and accommodations of various kinds. The apartments are small, and the furniture not very elegant, except the rich Persian carpets. The harems are at a distance from the front of the house, and lighted only from a square space in the centre of the whole building. The apparel of the women is very rich; they have jewels on their fingers and about their necks, and also in their ears and nostrils, with bracelets on their wrists and arms, and around their ancles.

PAGODAS.] The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos, are stone buildings erected in every capital, and under the direction of the brahmins.

The entry to the pagoda of Chillambrum, near Porto Novo, on the Coromandel coast, held in high veneration on account of its antiquity, is, by a stately gate, under a pyramid, an hundred and twenty-two feet in height, built with large stones about forty feet long, and more than five feet square, and covered with plates of copper, adorned with an immense variety of figures neatly executed. The whole structure extends one thousand three hundred and thirty-two feet in one direction, and nine hundred and thirty-six in another. Some of the ornamental parts are finished with an elegance entitled to the admiration of the most ingenious artists.

The pagoda of Seringham is situated about a mile from the western extremity of the island of Seringham, formed, by the division of the great river Caveri, into two channels, "It is composed of seven square enclosures, one within the other, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. These enclosures are three hundred and fifty feet distant from one another, and each has four large gates with a square tower; which are placed, one in the middle of each side of the enclosure, and opposite to the four cardinal points. The outward wall is near four miles in circumference, and its gateway to the south, is ornamented with pillars, several of which are single stones, thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter; and those which form the roof are still larger. In the inmost enclosures are the chapels. Here, as in all the other great pagodas of India, the brahmins live in a subordination which knows no resistance, and slumber in a voluptuousness which knows no wants*." The brahmins know how to calculate eclipses; and judicial astrology is so prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head astrologer being always consulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewise encourage those superstitions, and regard all the fruits of the Gentoos industry as belonging to themselves. Though the Gentoos are entirely passive under all their oppressions, and, by their state of existence, the practice of their religion, and the scantiness of their food, have nothing of that resentment in their nature that animates the rest of mankind; yet, they are susceptible of avarice, and sometimes bury their money, and, rather than discover it, put themselves to death by poison or otherwise. This practice, which it seems is not uncommon, accounts for the scarcity of silver that till of late prevailed in Indostan.

INFLUENCE OF FOOD AND EARLY MARRIAGES.] The reasons above mentioned account likewise for their being less under the influence of their passions than the inhabitants of other countries. Rice, their chief food, affords but little nourishment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and the women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their persons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women begins to decay at eighteen. At twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are not, therefore, to wonder at their

* Orme's Hist. Milit. Transact. of Indostan, vol. i. p. 178.

being soon strangers to all personal exertion and vigour of mind. Death is regarded with less horror in India than in any other country in the world. The origin and the end of all things, say the philosophers of India of the present times, is a *vacuum*. A state of repose is the state of greatest perfection; and this is the state after which a wise man aspires. It is better, say the Hindoos, to sit than to walk, and to sleep than to wake; but death is the best of all. According to the Gentoo laws, criminals, sentenced to death, are not to be strangled, suffocated, or poisoned, but to be cut off by the sword; because, without an effusion of blood, malefactors are supposed to die with all their sins about them; but the shedding of their blood, it is thought, expiates their crimes.

The Mahometans, who, in Indostan, are called Moors, are of Persian, Turkish, Arabic, and other extractions. They began, in the reigns of the caliphs of Bagdad, to invade Indostan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They settled colonies in several places, whose descendants are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government. Those princes being Mahometans, received under their protection, all who professed the same religion. They are said to have introduced the division of provinces, over which they appointed soubahs; and those provinces, each of which might be styled an empire, were subdivided into nabobships; each nabob being immediately accountable to his soubah, who, in process of time, became independent of the great Mogul.

The Marattas inhabit the mountains between Indostan and Persia. They commonly serve on horseback. Though Gentoos, they are of bold, active spirits, and pay no great respect to the principles of their religion.

The Gentoos, in drinking, avoid touching the vessels that contains the liquor, with their lips, and pour it into their mouths, holding the bottle, or other vessel, at a distance. Their idea is, that they would be polluted by stagnating water. They will drink from a pump, or of any running stream, but not out of a pool.

POLITICAL CONSTITUTION AND FORM } The Indians trace back the history of their
OF GOVERNMENT. } own country thro' an immense succession
of ages, and assert that all Asia, from the mouth of the Indus, on the west, to the confines of China, on the east, and from the mountains of Thibet, on the north, to Cape Comorin, on the south, formed a vast empire, subject to one mighty sovereign, under whom ruled several hereditary princes and rajahs. But their chronology, which measures the life of man in ancient times by thousands of years, and computes the length of the several periods, during which it supposes the world to have existed, by millions, is extravagant. The first accounts of that country, which can be deemed authentic, are from the Greeks, who served under Alexander of Macedon. They found kingdoms of considerable magnitude established in that country. The territories of Porus, and of Taxiles, comprehended a great part of the Panjab*, one of the most fertile, and best cultivated countries in India. The kingdom of the Prasi, or Gandaridæ, stretched to a great extent on both sides of the Ganges. All these three, as appears from the ancient Greek writers, were powerful and populous.

Though monarchical government was established in all the countries of India, to which the knowledge of the ancients extended, the sovereigns were far from possessing uncontrolled or despotic power. The monarchs of India, who are all taken from the second of the four classes formerly described, which is entrusted with the functions of government and exercise of war, behold, among their subjects, an order of men superior to themselves in dignity, and so conscious of their own pre-eminence both in rank and sanctity, that they would deem it degradation and pollution, if they were to eat of the same food with their sovereign.

* This term means the country watered by the five eastern branches of the Indus.

While the sacred rites of the brahmins opposed a barrier against the encroachments of regal power, on one hand, it was circumscribed, on the other, by the ideas which those, who occupied the highest stations in society, entertained of their own dignity and privileges. Nor were the benefits of these restraints upon the power of the sovereign, confined wholly to the two superior orders in the state; they extended, in some degree, to the third class employed in agriculture.

[LAWS AND JUDICIAL PROCEEDINGS.] Towards the middle of the sixteenth century, Akber, the sixth in descent from Tamerlane, mounted the throne of Indostan. As in every province of his extensive empire, the Hindoos formed the great body of his subjects, he laboured to acquire a perfect knowledge of their religion, their sciences, their laws and institutions, that he might conduct every part of his government, in a manner as much accommodated as possible to their own ideas. In this undertaking he was seconded with zeal by his vizier Abul Fazel. By their researches, such information was obtained, as enabled Abul Fazel to publish a brief compendium of Hindoo jurisprudence in the Ayeen Akberry, which may be considered as the first genuine communication of its principles to persons of a different religion. About two centuries afterwards, the example of Akber was imitated by Warren Hastings. Under his inspection, the brahmins most learned in the laws of the provinces, over which he presided, were assembled at Calcutta; and, in the course of two years, compiled, from their most ancient and approved authors, sentence by sentence, without addition or diminution, a full code of Hindoo laws; which is, undoubtedly, the most valuable and authentic elucidation of Indian policy and manners that has been hitherto communicated to Europe.

According to the brahmins, some of the writers, upon whose authority they found the decrees which they have inserted in the code, lived several millions of years before their time. Without entering into any examination of what is so extravagant, we may conclude, that the Hindoos have, in their possession, treatises concerning the laws and jurisprudence of their country, of more remote antiquity than are to be found in any other nation. That the Hindoos were a people civilized, at the time when their laws were composed, is established by internal evidence, contained in the code itself. The articles, of which the Hindoo code is composed, are arranged in natural and luminous order. The decisions concerning every point, with a few exceptions, occasioned by local prejudices and peculiar customs, are founded upon the principles of justice.

The Mahometan institutes prevail only in the great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire was hereditary, but is now only a name. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that state even down to the subtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each district. The imperial demesne lands are those of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his successors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are bestowed by the crown on the great lords or *omrabs*, and upon their death revert to the emperor; but the rights, even of the subtenants of those lands, are indefeasible.

According to the Gentoo constitution, land, gardens excepted, is not private property, but belongs to the community, in the several villages; each of which is supplied with its respective public officers, as the headman, to execute justice; the conicopoly, to keep the accounts of the village, the corn-meter, smith, barber, doctor, astrologer, &c. The grounds are cultivated by the country, and the produce shared out in certain proportions to all. One is allotted to the pagodas and brahmins, one to the government, another to the public officers, one to the repair of tanks, or reservoirs of water, and the rest distributed among the community; but we understand

that the Mahometan government, and the intrusion of Europeans, have introduced some innovations in this ancient constitution, particularly by farming the government shares.

[LITERATURE.] It has been always known that the learning of the brahmins was contained in books written in a language understood only by the most learned of them. The Europeans, settled in India, have complained that the brahmins refused to instruct any person in this language. Their scruples have at last been overcome. The veil is removed. Several British gentlemen are now master of the Shanskreet language and in the course of five years, public curiosity has been gratified by two singular publications. The one is a version by Mr. Wilkins, of an episode from the *Mahabarad*, an epic poem; it was, by the account of the Hindoos, composed above three thousand years before the christian era; or more than seven hundred and fifty years before the deluge. The other is *Sacontala*, a dramatic poem, written about a century before the birth of Christ, and translated by Sir William Jones.

The *Mahabarad* contains upwards of four hundred thousand lines. Mr. Wilkins has translated more than a third of it; but only a short episode is yet published. The subject of the poem is a civil war in the royal house of Bhaurat. When the forces, on each side, were ready to engage, Arjoon, the favourite of the god Kreeeshna, who accompanied him in this hour of danger, requested Kreeeshna, to make his chariot advance between the two hostile armies. He looked at both, and beheld, on each side, grandfathers, uncles, cousins, tutors, sons and brothers, near relations or bosom friends; he was seized with remorse, and cried out, "having beheld, O *Kreeeshna*! my kindred thus waiting anxious for the fight, my members fail me, my countenance withers, the hair stands an end upon my body, and all my frame trembles with horror! even *Gandeev*, my bow drops from my hand, and my skin is parched and dried up. When I have destroyed my kindred, shall I longer look for happiness? I wish not for victory, *Kreeeshna*; I want not dominion; I want not pleasure; for what is dominion, and the enjoyments of life, or even life itself, when those for whom dominion, pleasure and enjoyments were to be coveted, have abandoned life and fortune, and stand here in the field ready for battle. Tutors, sons and fathers, grandfathers and grandsons, uncles, nephews, cousins, kindred, and friends! although they would kill me, I wish not to fight them; no, not even for the dominion of the three regions of the universe, much less for this little earth*."

Sacontala is likewise a great curiosity. To Mr. Wilkins we are indebted for *Amicable Instruction*, in a series of connected fables, interspersed with moral maxims. In the first number of the *New Asiatic Miscellany*, he has translated the *Five Gems*. It consists of stanzas by five poets, who attend the court of Abissura, king of Bengal. Some of these stanzas are simple and elegant. In the same work he has inserted an ode, on some original grants of land, of very ancient dates. The *Pundits* dispatch the legal part of the deed with brevity, but, in a long preamble and conclusion, display their eloquence, both in prose and verse. The preamble, to one of these deeds, is an encomium on the monarch who grants the land. "When his innumerable army marched, the heavens were so filled with the dust of their feet, that the birds of the air could rest upon it. His elephants moved like walking mountains, and the earth, oppressed by their weight, mouldered into dust." Part of the Shafter was translated and published by Colonel Dow, in the year 1768. This translation was not made by him from the Shanskreet, but taken from a brahmin, who explained the Shafter in Persian, or in the vulgar language of Bengal.

[COMMERCE.] A commerce of luxury has, in every age, been carried on between Europe and India. The three great articles of general importation from India, were

* *Baghvut Geeta*, p. 30, 31.

spices and aromatics, precious stones and pearls, and silk. First, Spices and aromatics: From the mode of religious worship in the heathen world, from the incredible number of their deities, and of the temples consecrated to them, the consumption of frankincense and other aromatics, which were used in every sacred function, must have been very great; but the vanity of men occasioned a greater consumption of these fragrant substances than their piety. It was the custom of the Romans, to burn the bodies of their dead; and they deemed it a display of magnificence, to cover, not only the body, but the funeral pile on which it was laid, with the most costly spices. Second, Precious stones, together with which pearls may be classed, seemed to be the article next in value imported from the east. Third, Another production of India, in great demand at Rome, was silk.

In two particulars, our importations from India differ from those of the ancients. The dress, both of the Greeks and Romans, was almost entirely woollen. Their consumption of linen and cotton cloths was much inferior to that of modern times, when these are worn by persons in every rank of life. Hence, a great branch of modern importation, from that part of India, with which the ancients were acquainted, is in *piece goods*; comprehending the immense variety of fabrics, which Indian ingenuity has formed of cotton. Besides these, are imported, to a considerable extent, various commodities, merely as the materials of domestic manufactures. Such are the cotton-wool of Indostan, the silk of China, and salt-petre of Bengal.

The government of this great empire was shaken after the overthrow of Mahomet Shah, by Kouli Khan. This disaster was attended by a great diminution of the imperial authority. The soubahs and nabobs became absolute in their respective governments. They could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet to pay their armies and support their power, they invented new taxes which beggared the people, so that many persons, after being unmercifully plundered by the tax-masters, perished through want. To sum up the misery of the inhabitants, those soubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the Gentoos themselves, and even some of the brahmins, as the ministers of their rapacity. Upon the whole, ever since the invasion of Kouli Khan, Indostan, from being a well-regulated government, is become a scene of anarchy. Every despot protects himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. Murders are often committed with impunity, and the people, who know that they can be in no worse state, concern themselves very little in the revolutions of government. The reader, from this representation, may perceive that all which the English have acquired in point of territory, has been gained from usurpers and robbers. Whether these merchants have behaved better than the tyrants whom they expelled, and whether the situation of the natives has become less wretched by their change of masters, we may judge from what follows. On the 5th of June 1792, Mr. Francis said, in the house of commons. "That the Bengal newspapers were perpetually full of advertisements for the sale of lands seized *for want of due payment of revenue*. He held in his hands two of these advertisements; the one announced the sale of *seventeen* villages, and the other a sale of *forty-two*.—He quoted some minutes of Lord Cornwallis to the same effect. One of these, dated 18th of September, 1789, was in these words: *I can safely affirm that one third of the company's territory in Hindostan is now a JUNGLE INHABITED BY WILD BEASTS**."

* New Annual Register for 1792, p. 82.

THE PENINSULA OF INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES, CALLED, THE FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 } Breadth 1000 }	between { 1 and 30 north latitude. } { 92 and 109 east longitude. }	741,500

BOUNDARIES] THIS peninsula is bounded by Thibet and China, on the north ; by China and the Chinese sea, on the east ; by the same sea and the straits of Malacca, on the south ; and by the bay of Bengal and the Hither India, on the west. The space between Bengal and China is now called the province of Mecklus, and other districts, subject to the king of Avah or Burmah.

DIVISIONS,

CHIEF TOWNS.

Sq. M.

Acham,	Camdara,	
Ava,	Ava,	} 180,000
Arracan,	Arracan	
Pegu,	Pegu, E. lon. 97. N. lat. 17-30.	50,000
Martaban,	Martaban,	
Siam,	Siam, E. lon. 100 55. N. lat. 14-18.	170,000
Malacca,	Malacca, E. lon. 101. N. lat 2-12.	48,000
Tonquin,	Cachao, or Keccio, E. lon. 105. } N. lat. 21 30.	} 112,000
Laos,	Lanchang,	
Cochin China,	Thoanoa,	59,400
Cambodia,	Cambodia,	61,900
Chiampa,	Padram,	} 60,200

NAME.] It has been derived from the Indus. This peninsula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly so to the moderns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] It is generally agreed, that the air of the southern provinces is hot and dry, but in some places moist and unhealthy. The climate is subject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, so that the people build their houses upon high pillars, to defend them from floods. They have no other ideas of seasons, but wet and dry. Easterly and westerly *monsoons* prevail in this country.

MOUNTAINS.] These run from north to south almost the whole length of the country ; but the lands near the sea are low, annually overflowed in the rainy season.

RIVERS.] The chief are Sanpoo, or Burrampooter, Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava, or the great river Nou Kian. Of these the Burrampooter, called Sanpoo, in the upper part of its course, is by far the most considerable. It rises from the same mountains that give birth to the Ganges ; but taking a contrary, that is, an easterly direction through Thibet, winds to the south west through Assam, and entering Indostan, flows to the south, assumes the name of Megna, and joins the western branch of the Ganges with an immense body of water, equal, if not superior to the Ganges itself. These two rivers, when they approach the sea, divide into such a multitude of channels, and receive such a number of navigable streams, that a tract of country, more extensive than Pennsylvania, enjoys the finest inland navigation that can be conceived, and which gives constant employment to thirty thousand boatmen. These channels

are so numerous that very few places in this tract are, even in the dry season, twenty-five miles from a navigable stream. In the rainy season they overflow their banks to the depth of thirty feet, and form an inundation that fertilizes the soil to the extent of more than an hundred miles.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] These are the bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin China; and the straits of Malacca and Sincapora.

SOIL AND PRODUCT OF THE } The soil of this peninsula is fertile. It produces
DIFFERENT COUNTRIES. } all the delicious fruits that are found in other countries contiguous to the Ganges, as well as roots and vegetables. Ava has a quantity of salt-petre, and the best Indian oak, which, for ship-building in warm climates, is much more durable than that of Europe. Ships of this oak, forty years old, are common in the Indian seas. The peninsula abounds in elephants, and the other quadrupeds, both domestic and wild, that are common in the southern kingdoms of Asia. The natives carry on a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethysts, and other precious stones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine. In some places, the inhabitants have swellings in their throats, said to be owing to the badness of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, } The Tonquinese are excellent mechanics. They are
AND DIVERSIONS. } greatly oppressed by their king and great lords. The tyrant himself engrosses the trade, and his factors sell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquinese in the south are a savage race, and are almost naked, with large silver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or shell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin China, the two sexes are scarcely distinguishable by their dress, which resembles that of the Persians. The people of quality are fond of English broad-cloth, red or green; and others wear a dark-coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, the inhabitants prefer dog's flesh to all other animal food. The people of that country pay no taxes, because the king is sole proprietor of all the gold and silver, and metals, found in it. They live easy and comfortably.

Those Indians, as well as the Chinese, had the use of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; the invention is ascribed to the Azemese, the inhabitants of the southern division of this peninsula are termed Malayans, from the adjacent country of Malacca.

The superstitions that prevail in this peninsula are gross. The people believe in a future state; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and such vessels of gold and silver as it is fancied can be of use to them in their future life. In their food they are loathsome; for besides dogs, they eat rats, mice, serpents, and stinking fish. The natives of Arracan hire Dutch and other foreigners to consummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women most when in a state of pregnancy. When a patient is judged to be incurable, he is often exposed on the bank of some river, where he is either drowned, or devoured by birds or beasts of prey. It is asserted, that on the confines of Arracan and Pegu, there is a people who seem to be in the very first stage of society. They go quite naked, without the smallest covering on any part of their bodies. They live on fruit, which grows spontaneously, in the uncultivated desert which they inhabit, and on the flesh of animals, which they tear alive and devour raw. They sit on their hams, with their legs and arms disposed like those of monkeys. At the approach of men, they fly into their woods. They take care of their offspring, and live in families, but seem to have no conception of rank or civil government.

The diversions, common in India, are fishing and hunting, the celebrating of festivals, and acting comedies, by torch-light, from evening to morning.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Persian; but in this peninsula it is chiefly Malayan, interspersed with other dialects.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The brahmins, as priests, are followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the source of all knowledge which exists in Indostan. The extent of their mathematical knowledge, seems to be the calculation of eclipses. Their ideas of music, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and in medicine, they derive no assistance from the knowledge of anatomy, since dissections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Asiatics is full of conceits, and the diction of their historians verbose; but there are many particulars in the writings of Asiatic authors worthy the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow observes, that in the Shanferit language, many hundred prose volumes treat of the ancient Indians and their history; that the Shanferit records contain accounts of the affairs of Western Asia, very different from those given by the Arabians; and that most likely upon examination, the former will appear to be more ancient and authentic than the latter. The Arabian writers have been prejudiced against the Hindoos, so that their accounts of them cannot be trusted.

Mr. Dow observes, that the small progress in the correctness of oriental sentiment and diction, did not proceed from want of encouragement to literature. No princes patronized men of letters with more generosity and respect than the Mahometan emperors of Indostan. A literary genius acquired wealth which must astonish Europeans, and had an open road to the first offices of the state. The character of the learned was sacred, and tyrants, who sported with the blood of their other subjects, respected the person and the pen of an eminent writer.

[MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] In weaving, sewing, embroidering, and some other manufactures, it is said that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are unskilful in drawing, is vivid in its colours. Their linen, in point of fineness, and the fillagree work in gold and silver, are beyond any articles of those kinds in other parts of the world. The commerce of India is courted by all trading nations, and probably has been so from the earliest ages. The Greeks and Romans drew from thence their highest materials of luxury. The greatest share of it is now centered in England, though that of the Dutch is still very considerable; that of the French has, for some time, declined, nor is that of the Swedes and Danes of much importance.

[CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT AND CITIES.] This article requires a slight review of the kingdoms that form this peninsula. In Azem, the king is proprietor of all the gold and silver. We know little of the kingdom of Tipra but that the natives send to the Chinese gold and silk, for which they receive silver in return. Arracan lies to the south of Tipra, and is governed by twelve princes subject to a chief king. His palace is very large, and contains, as we are told, seven idols cast in gold, of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered over with diamonds and other precious stones. Pegu is about three hundred and fifty English miles in length, and almost the same in breadth. The riches of the kingdom, when an independent state, were almost incredible; some idols, as large as life, being of massy gold and silver. The king's revenues arose from the rents of lands, of which he was sole proprietor, and from the duties on merchandise; so that some thought him the richest monarch in the world, except the Chinese emperor. He was said to be able to bring a million, and, on occasion, a million and an half, of soldiers to the field, well clothed and armed; and to be master of eight hundred trained elephants, each with a castle on his back, holding four soldiers. The constitution of this empire is of the feudal kind; for the prince assigns lands and towns to his nobles upon military tenures. In the year 1754, Pegu was reduced to the state of a dependent province by the king of Ava. Macao is the great mart of trade in that province.

We know little of the kingdom of Ava. The people trade chiefly in musk and

jewels, rubies and sapphires. In other particulars, they resemble those of Pegu. In those kingdoms, and indeed in the greatest part of this peninsula, the doctrines of the grand Lama of Thibet prevail, as well as those of the brahmins.

Of the kingdom of Laos or Lahos, we know few particulars that can be depended upon. It is said to be immensely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities of the east, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms. These are subject to one sovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is despotic, and lives in pomp and magnificence; he is of the Lama religion.

The kingdom of Siam is rich and flourishing. It approaches, in its government, policy and the acuteness of its inhabitants, very near to the Chinese. Siam is surrounded by high mountains, which, on the east side, separate it from Camboja and Laos; on the west, from Pegu; and on the north, from Ava, or, more properly, from Jangoma; on the south, it is washed by the river Siam, and joins the peninsula of Malacca, the northwest part of which is under its dominion. The extent of the country is uncertain, and it is but indifferently peopled. Great care is taken of the education of the children. Their marriages are simple, and performed by their priests, who sprinkle holy water on the couple, and repeat some prayers. The country has mines of gold. The ornaments of the Siamese, are either very thin plates of that metal, or a bright lacker that covers wooden or other metals. The government is despotic; even servants must appear before their masters, in a kneeling posture; and the mandarins are prostrated before the king. Siam, the capital, is represented as a large city, but scarcely a sixth part of it is inhabited. The palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bankok, which stands about eighteen leagues to the south of Siam, and twelve miles from the sea, is the only place towards the coast, that is fortified with walls, batteries, and brass cannon. The Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which stands on the east side of the peninsula of Malacca, but belongs to Siam.

The peninsula of Malacca is a large country, and contains several provinces. The Dutch are said to be the real sovereigns of the whole country. They possess the capital, Malacca. The Malayan language is esteemed the purest of any spoken in the Indies. The chief produce of Malacca is tin, pepper, elephants' teeth, canes, and gums. When it was first discovered by the Portuguese, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richest city in the east, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The Malays were formerly an industrious and ingenious people; but have been reduced by the Dutch to slavery.

The English carry on a smuggling trade from the coast of Coromandel and the bay of Bengal, to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans. By the best information, its greatest length, from north to south, is about five hundred and twenty English miles; and its greatest breadth, from east to west, about three hundred and ninety eight. This kingdom has a spacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the country. The rest of it has a salutary air; and pestiferous gnats, serpents and other animals abound in the woods. Its soil, commodities, trade, animals, and productions by sea and land, are much the same with those of the other kingdoms of this vast peninsula. The betel, a plant of a particular flavour, is, from the king to the peasant, the highest luxury of the Cambodians; but is very unpalatable and disagreeable to Europeans. The same barbarous magnificence, the same despotism of the king, and ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the rest of the peninsula. Between Cambodia and Cochin China, lies the little kingdom of Chiampa. Its inhabitants trade with the Chinese, and seem better civilized than their neighbours.

Cochin China, or the western China, is situated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to some authors, about five hundred miles in length; but it is much less extensive in its breadth from east to west. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as some smaller kingdoms, are said to be tributary to Cochin China. The manners and religion of the people seem to be originally Chinese; and they are much given to trade. Their king is said to be immensely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the East-Indies; but this mighty prince, as well as the king of Tonquin, are subject to the Chinese emperor.

The government of Tonquin is singular. The Tonquinese had revolted from the Chinese, which occasioned a civil war. A compromise at last took place between the chief of the revolt, and the representative of the ancient kings, by which it was agreed that the former should have all the executive powers of the government; but that the real king should retain the royal titles, and be allowed some considerable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can remove without permission.

The possession of rubies, and other precious stones of an extraordinary size, and even of white and party-coloured elephants, conveys, among those people, a pre-eminence of rank and royalty, and has sometimes occasioned bloody wars.

INDIA WITHIN THE GANGES, OR THE EMPIRE OF THE GREAT MOGUL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT; INCLUDING THE PENINSULA WEST OF THE GANGES.

	Miles.	Degrees	Sq. M.
Length	2000	between [7 and 40 north latitude. 66 and 92 east longitude.]	870,910
Breadth	1500		

BOUNDARIES.] THIS empire is bounded by Ubec Tartary and Thibet, on the north; by Thibet and the bay of Bengal, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, on the south; by the same and Persia, on the west. The main land being the Mogul empire, or Indostan, properly so called.

DIVISIONS.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Bengal Proper,	-	-	-	{ Calcutta, Fort William, Hoogly, Dacca, Malda, English and Dutch. Chatigan, Cassumbazar,
Naugracut,	-	-	-	Naugracut,
Jesuat,	-	-	-	Rajapour,
Patna,	-	-	-	Patna,
Necbal,	-	-	-	Necbal,
Gore,	-	-	-	Gore,
Rotas,	-	-	-	Rotas,
Soret,	-	-	-	Jaganal,

DIVISIONS.

Jeffelmere, - - - - -
 Tata, or Sinda, - - - - -
 Bucknor, - - - - -
 Moultan, - - - - -
 Haican, - - - - -
 Cabul, - - - - -
 Candish, - - - - -
 Berar, - - - - -
 Chitor, - - - - -
 Ratipor, - - - - -
 Navar, - - - - -
 Gualeor, - - - - -
 Agra*, - - - - -
 Delhi, - - - - -
 Lahor, or Pencah, - - - - -
 Hendowns, - - - - -
 Caffimere, - - - - -
 Jengapour, - - - - -
 Afmer, or Bando, - - - - -

CHIEF TOWNS.

Jeffelmere,
 Tata,
 Bucknor,
 Moultan,
 Haican,
 Cabul,
 Medipour,
 Berar,
 Chitor,
 Ratipor,
 Navar,
 Gualeor,
 Agra,
 Delhi, E. lon. 77-40. N. lat. 28-40.
 Lahor,
 Hendowns,
 Caffimere,
 Jengapour,
 Afmer.

The British nation, with their allies and tributaries, possess the whole navigable course of the Ganges, from its entry on the plains, to the sea, which by its winding course, is more than one thousand three hundred and fifty miles.

Mr. Burke, in 1783, stated the territories of the British East-India company as follows. "With very few and those inconsiderable intervals, the British dominion, either in the company's name, or in the names of princes absolutely dependent upon the company, extends from the mountains that separate India from Tartary, to Cape Comorin, that is, one and twenty degrees of latitude. In the northern parts, it is a solid mass of land, about eight hundred miles in length, and four or five hundred broad. As you go southward, it becomes narrower for a space. It afterwards dilates; but narrower or broader, they possess the whole eastern and north-east coast of that vast country, quite from the borders of Pegu. Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, with Benares, measure one hundred and sixty-one thousand nine hundred and seventy-eight English miles. Oude, with its dependent provinces, is fifty-three thousand two hundred and eighty-six miles.—The whole of the company's dominions, comprehending Bombay and Salsette, amount to two hundred and eighty-one thousand four hundred and twelve square miles." Mr. Burke adds, "Through all that vast extent of country, there is not a man who eats a mouthful of rice, but *by permission of the East-India company*." He computes the number of people in these immense regions, to have been, some years before the time when he was speaking, about *thirty millions*. "This multitude of men," says he, "consists of a people for ages civilized and cultivated by all the arts of polished life, *while we were yet in the woods*. There have been, and still the skeletons remain, princes once of great dignity, authority, and opulence. There are to be found the chiefs of tribes and nations. There is to be found an ancient and venerable priesthood, the depositary of their laws, learning, and history, the guides of the people whilst living, and their consolation in death; a nobility of great antiquity and renown; a multitude of cities not exceeded in population and trade, by those of the first class in Europe; merchants and bankers, individual houses of

* The eastern part of Agra, between the Ganges and Jumna, is called the Doab, or country between the two rivers.

whom, have once vied, in capital, with the bank of England; whose credit had often supported a tottering state, and preserved their governments in the midst of wars and desolation; millions of ingenious manufacturers and mechanics; millions of the most diligent, and not the least intelligent, tillers of the earth*.”

In the last London edition of this work, the present population of the territories of the East India company, is stated at *ten millions*. Mr. Burke, as we have seen, estimates them, before “*the utter desolation of the Carnatic*,” by Hyder Ali, in 1780, at about *thirty millions*. If these two calculations are accurate, it follows, that from 1780, to 1792, a period of *only twelve years*, there have been destroyed *TWENTY MILLIONS* of these devoted people.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes. In some dry seasons, the hurricanes tear up the sands, and let them fall in dry showers, which are extremely disagreeable. The Europeans, who arrive at Indostan, are commonly seized with some illness, such as a flux or fever; but when properly treated, and especially if the patients are abstemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

MOUNTAINS.] The most remarkable mountains are those of Caucasus and Naugracut, which divide India from Persia, Usbec Tartary, and Thibet. They are inhabited by Mahrattas, Afghans, or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos.

The mountains named the Gauts, or INDIAN APENNINE, extend from Cape Comorin to the Tapy, or Surat river, and are also called the *higher or upper Gauts*†. This term is applied in contradistinction to the *lower-Gauts*.

This ridge of mountains, marks with precision, the line of summer and winter, or rather of dry and wet. It extends thirteen degrees of latitude; that is, from Cape Comorin to Surat, at unequal distances from the coast; seldom more than seventy miles, and commonly about forty; and in one short space it approaches within six miles. The height of these mountains prevents the great body of clouds from passing over them; and the alternate N. E. and S. W. winds, called the monsoons, occasion a rainy season on one side of the mountains only; that is, on the windward side. It would appear, that a sufficient number of clouds pass over, to produce a wet season, at a considerable distance to leeward, where those clouds descend; as we may suppose them to do, though when they passed over the Gauts, they must have been too high, and of course too light, to condense and fall in rain here. This, we are led to conjecture, by lieut. Ewart's account of the weather at Nagpour, in the very centre of India; where the seasons differ but little from their usual course in Bengal and on the western side of India; that is, the S. W. monsoon occasions a rainy season; but the rains are not so violent, nor of such long continuance, as in those places. At the mouth of the Godavery river and its neighbourhood, the S. W. monsoon occasions a rainy season also; and the Godavery then overflows; and this part is about as far to leeward of the Gauts as Nagpour is. Hence we may conclude, that the ridge of the Gauts sheltered a particular tract only; beyond which the light and elevated clouds that pass over it descended in rain. Madras is within the limits of the sheltered tract, though at least three hundred miles to leeward of the Gauts; Rajamundry, near the mouth of the Godavery, may be about five hundred. It would be curious to know the exact limit of wet and dry.

Different seasons exist at the same moment, only in a part of the peninsula; for

* Speech on Mr. Fox's East India bill.

† Gaut, or Ghaut, signifies either a pass through mountains, or landing-place on the bank of a river. In the former sense, the term has been applied to the Carnatic, which is divided by ridges of mountains abounding with passes and defiles.

the cause ceases in the parallel of Surat; where the S. W. wind, no longer opposed by a wall of mountains, carries its supplies of moisture uninterruptedly, both far and near, over the whole face of the country*.

RIVERS.] The Indus and the Ganges, both of them known to the ancients, are held in the highest veneration, by the modern inhabitants. The Indus is by the natives called *Sinde†* or *Sindeh*, and is formed of about ten principal streams, which descend from the Persian and Tartarian mountains, on the north-east and north-west. From the city of Attock down to Moulán, it is commonly called the River Attock; below Moulán, it is often named the Soor, until it divides itself into many channels near Tatta, where the principal branch takes the name of Mehran. These channels form and intersect a large triangular island, which they fertilize by their periodical inundations. The principal rivers which it receives, are the Behat, or Hydaspes, and the Hyphasis, which formed the eastern boundary of the conquests of Alexander.

The Ganges‡, one of the finest rivers in the world; issues from Kentaiffe, one of the vast mountains of Thibet, and, after a course of about seven hundred and fifty miles, through lofty regions but little known, enters Indoostán at the defile of Kupele, supposed by the natives to be its source. From hence, this river, which is revered by the Hindoos as a deity that is to wash away all their stains, flows through delightful plains, with a smooth navigable stream, from one to three miles wide, during the remainder of its course, which is about thirteen hundred and fifty miles, to the bay of Bengal, into which it falls by two larger and a multitude of lesser channels, that form and intersect an extensive triangular island, the base of which at the sea is near two hundred miles in extent. The entire course of the Ganges is two thousand one hundred miles, and is in length, to that of the Thames, as nine and a half is to one. The navigation of the eastern branch is dangerous, and little frequented. The western branch is navigable by large ships. The Ganges receives eleven rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, and none inferior to the Thames.

Besides these rivers, many others water this country. A list of their names in this place could afford no interesting information.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] These are the Indian Ocean; the bay of Bengal; the gulf of Cambaya; the straits of Ramanakool; and the Capes Comorin and Diu.

INHABITANTS.] To what was said of their religion and sects, in the general review of this great empire, we may add, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahometan mendicants or beggars, who travel about, practising the greatest austerities; but many of them are impostors. Their number is said to be very great. The banians, who are so called from their innocence of life, serve as brokers, and profess the Gentoo religion.

The Persees, or Parsees, of Indoostán, are of the same sect with the Gauris of Persia. They pay adoration to fire, as an emblem of the Divinity, and as his chief agent in the system of the universe. They never extinguish fire. They will stand for hours by their lamps, putting up their prayers to God, with folded hands, and their eyes turned towards heaven. They utter prayers all day long, and constantly mix business, and even common conversation, with devotion. They have a superstitious veneration for cocks and for dogs. They breed great numbers of dogs, and feed them regularly with rice and ghee: To all dogs, whether their own or not, they are very hospitable. Wherever they see one, they presently call him, and offer him food. If you walk abroad with one in any of the Persee villages, every body strives to be the first to

* Major Rennell's memoir, p. 213, 214.

† The name of *Sinde* was not unknown to the Romans: *Indus incolis Sindus appellatus*. Pliny, book vi.

‡ The proper name of this river, in the language of

Hindoostán, or Indostán, is *Pudda*, or *Padda*. It is also named *Burra Gonga*, or the Great River; and *Gonga*, the river, by way of eminence; from this, the European names of the river are derived. Rennel's memoir, p. 255.

entertain him. Many of the dogs at Bombay, were, a few years ago, mad. Upon this an order was given by the governor, for killing all these animals without exception. The Perfes determined to protect the lives of their dogs at the risque of their own. It was found prudent, not to insist on the execution of this decree.

The people of rank hunt with the bow as well as the gun, and often train leopards to the sports of the field. Like other people in hot countries, they prefer shady walks and cool fountains. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous music both on wind and string instruments, and in their private parties, they play at cards. The houses of the commonalty are commonly thatched, which makes them subject to fire. The manufacturèrs work in the open air. The inside of the houses, belonging to the principal persons, are commodious and often magnificent.

COMMERCE.] The Mahometan merchants carry on, in a kind of vessels called junks, a trade from the western parts of this empire, up the Red Sea to Mecca. The largest of these junks, besides the cargoes, will carry seventeen hundred pilgrims to visit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca, they meet with Abyssinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they dispose of their cargoes for gold and silver; so that a junk, returning from this voyage, is often worth nearly nine hundred thousand dollars.

PROVINCES AND CITIES.] The province of Agra is the most extensive in Indostan, containing forty large towns, and three hundred and forty villages. Agra is the greatest city, and its castle the largest fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the English have none.

The city of Delhi, which is the capital of that province, is likewise the capital of Indostan. It is described as a splendid city, and contains the imperial palace, which is adorned with the usual magnificence of the east. Its stables formerly contained twelve thousand horses, brought from Arabia, Persia, and Tartary; and five hundred elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the season, these horses are fed in the morning with bread, butter, and sugar, and in the evening with rice-milk.

Tatta, the capital of Sindy, is a large city. It is famous for the manufacture of palanquins, a kind of canopied couches, on which wealthy people, Europeans as well as natives, repose when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who march morning and evening, forty miles a day; ten being usually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. The porters may be hired for about two dollars a month each, out of which they maintain themselves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and is famous for its fine carp.

Though the province of Moulton is not very fruitful, yet it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their situation, are enabled to deal with the Persians and Tartars, yearly for above sixty thousand horses. The capital is Moulton, about eight hundred miles, by the course of the river, from the sea.

The province of Cassimere, being surrounded with mountains, is difficult of access, but when entered, it appears to be the paradise of the Indies. It is said to contain one hundred thousand villages to be stored with cattle and game, without any beasts of prey. The capital, Cassimere, stands by a large lake; both sexes are almost as fair as the Europeans.

The province of Lahor is one of the largest in the Indies, and produces the best sugars of Indostan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. The provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, and Hallabas, are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who seem never to have been conquered; and live in an independent state. In some of those provinces, many European fruits, plants, and flowers thrive, as in their native soil.

Bengal is almost secure from the attack of foreign enemies. On the north and east it has no warlike neighbours, and has a formidable barrier of mountains, rivers, or extensive wastes towards those quarters. On the south is a sea-coast guarded by shallows and impenetrable woods, and in an extent of three hundred miles only one port, which is of difficult access. On the west, were only an enemy can be apprehended, the natural barrier is strong, and with its population and resources, and the usual proportion of British troops, Bengal might bid defiance to any part of Indostan which was inclined to become its enemy. It is the store-house of the East Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its soil consists of rice, sugar-canes, corn, sesamum, small mulberry and other trees. Its calicoes, silk, salt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world. Provisions here are in vast plenty, and incredibly cheap, especially pullets, ducks, and geese. The country is intersected by canals, cut out of the Ganges, for the benefit of commerce. Bengal extends near an hundred leagues on both sides of that river, and was formerly full of cities, towns, villages, and castles. In this province, the worship of the Gentoos is practised in its greatest strictness; and the Ganges is lined with magnificent pagodas.

The description of one Indian city is nearly a description of all; they are built on one plan, with narrow, and crooked streets; having an incredible number of reservoirs and ponds, and a great many gardens interspersed. A few of the streets are paved with brick. The houses are variously built; some of brick, others with mud, and vast numbers with bamboos and mats. These various buildings stand intermixed, and form a motley appearance; those of the latter kinds are but of one story, and covered with thatch. Those of brick seldom exceed two floors, and have flat, terraced roofs. Fires, which often happen, do not sometimes meet with the obstruction of a brick house through a whole street.

In Calcutta, the quarter inhabited by the English is composed entirely of brick buildings, many of which have more the appearance of palaces than of private houses; but the remainder of the city, and by much the greater part, is built as we have described the cities in general to be. Within these twenty or twenty-five years, Calcutta has been improved, both in appearance and in the salubrity of its air; for the streets have been properly drained, and the ponds filled up; which has removed a vast surface of stagnant water, and its pestiferous exhalations. Calcutta is the emporium of Bengal, and the seat of the governor general of India. It is a very extensive and populous city, being supposed at present to contain, at least, five hundred thousand inhabitants. Its local situation is not fortunate; for it has some extensive muddy lakes, and a vast forest, close to it. This is a modern city, having risen on the site of the village of Govindpour, about ninety years ago*.

The principal English factory, called Fort William, is at Calcutta, situated on the river Hoogley, the most westerly branch of the Ganges. It is about one hundred miles from the sea; and the river is navigable up to the town, for the largest ships that visit India. The fort itself is irregular, and untenable against disciplined troops; the servants of the company have provided themselves with convenient accommodation. As the town itself has been long in possession of the company, an English civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority of the company. In 1773, an act of parliament was passed to regulate the affairs of the East India company, as well in India as in Europe. By this act, the governor-general and four counsellors were appointed and chosen by the parliament, in whom was vested the whole civil and military government of Fort William; and of the territorial acquisitions and revenues in the king-

doms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orisa. They were likewise empowered to establish a court of judicature at Fort William; to consist of a chief justice, and three other judges who were to be named from time to time by the king of England; these were to exercise all criminal, admiralty, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction. But the establishment of this supreme court does not appear to have promoted either the interests of the East India company, or the happiness of the Hindoos. No proper attention was paid to the manners and customs of the people; acts of great oppression and injustice have been committed; and the supreme court has been a source of endless dissatisfaction, disorder, and confusion. For the subsequent regulations respecting the East India territories and company, we refer to our account of them in the history of England.

In 1756, the nabob quarrelled with the company, and invested Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor, and some of the principal inhabitants, took shelter on board the ships in the river; those who remained, for some hours, defended the place; but their ammunition being expended, they surrendered upon terms. The nabob, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governor's chief servant, and an hundred and forty five other British subjects, into a prison called the black-hole, a place about eighteen feet square, and shut up from almost all communication of free air. In the morning, twenty-three only were found alive, the rest having died of suffocation. The nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place. Admiral Watson, and colonel Clive, put the English once more in possession of Calcutta. The war was ended with the battle of Plassey, gained by Clive, and by the death of nabob Suraja Dowla. Mir Jaffier, one of his generals had previously signed a secret treaty with Clive, to desert his master; and, as a reward for this act of treachery, he was advanced to the foubahship.

Dacca is situated in the eastern quarter of Bengal, and beyond the principal stream of the Ganges, although a large branch of that river runs by it, and communicates with all the other inland navigations. Dacca is the third city of Bengal for extent and population; and has, within the present century, been its capital.

Chandernagore belongs to the French, and lies higher up the river than Calcutta. It was taken in the war of 1755, by the English, and again, by the same enemy, in the war of 1778, but has, by the treaty of peace, which succeeded its successive captures, been restored to the French. Hoogly lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, and is a place of some trade for the richest Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well fortified factory. The search for diamonds is carried on by about ten thousand people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hoogly, for about fifty miles farther. The other chief towns are Cassumbazar, Chincura, Barnagua, and Maldo; there are various other places of less note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

The province of Malva lies to the west of Bengal. It is fertile; its chief city is Ratipor. Cattack is the capital of Orisa. It is situated in the road between Bengal and the northern circars. Of the five northern circars, Cicacole, Rajamundry, Ellore, and Condapilly, are in possession of the English, and Gunton is in the hands of the Nizam.

The above are the provinces belonging to the mogul's empire to the north of what is properly called the peninsula within the Ganges. Those that lie to the southward fall under the description of the peninsula itself.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY. } This subject is not well understood in the united states. It is, in the highest degree, curious, interesting, and instructive. The limits of this work confine us to a few short sketches of particular transactions, from which an American reader may form some conception of the rest. For a complete discussion, the largest volume would not be sufficient.

Amidst an immense multiplicity of writers on this article, Mr. Edmund Burke stands eminently distinguished. Few men have comprehended the affairs of India more completely. None has bestowed more intense labour in examining, or more splendid eloquence in illustrating the political and domestic administration of that country. In the edition of his works, published in 1792, he has re-printed two speeches that he made in the British house of commons, the one in defence of the memorable India bill introduced by Mr. Fox and the other with respect to the creditors of the nabob of Arcot. From these two distinguished productions, the particulars of this article are, for the most part, extracted. We shall begin with a concise statement of the facts advanced in the first of them.

Mr. Burke affirms that the East India company has abused its charter to the full extent of all the powers which it could abuse; and has exercised the plenitude of despotism, tyranny, and corruption. With respect to the external administration of the company, he undertakes to prove, that there is not a *single* prince, state, or potentate, great or small, in India, with whom they have come into contact, *whom they have not sold*; that they never made a single treaty, which they have not broken; and that every single prince or state, who ever put any trust in the company, has, by this confidence been utterly ruined. He adds, that these assertions are, in the full sense of the word, *universal*. The first potentate, sold by the company for money, was the great Mogul. The only legal title that they had, or could possibly have, to their own territories, was derived from his charter; but this could not save him from the *general sale*. He had made immense grants to the company; for which they came under solemn obligations to pay him an annual tribute of two hundred and sixty thousand pounds sterling. Of this money they did not pay him a single shilling. The mogul had reserved, out of his grants of territory, two districts for himself. The company sold them to his chief minister, Sujah ul Dowlah; and, so ravenous was their appetite for ready money, that they sold these lands *for scarcely two years purchase*! In the mean time, the monarch himself stood almost in need of the common necessaries of life, nor did the company even give him, as a bounty, the smallest portion of what they owed him in justice.

The next sale was that of the whole nation of the Rohillas, which the grand saleman*, without a pretence of quarrel, and in contradiction to his own declared sense of duty and rectitude, sold to the same Sujah ul Dowlah. "He sold the people," says Mr. Burke, "to utter *extirpation*, for the sum of *four hundred thousand pounds*!" Hafiz Rhamet, the most eminent of their chiefs, was attacked by an army of an hundred thousand men, supported by an *English brigade*. This man, commanding inferior forces, died in defence of his country. His head was cut off, and sold for money to a barbarian. His wife and children were seen begging an handful of rice through the English camp. The whole nation, with inconsiderable exceptions, were slaughtered or banished. The country was laid waste with fire and sword; and one of the most beautiful provinces of Indostan, is now almost universally, a dreary desert, covered with *rushes, and briars, and jungles full of wild beasts*. The British officer who commanded in the delivery of the people thus sold, felt some compunction at his employment. He represented these enormous excesses to the president of Bengal and received a severe reprimand for his presumption.

In Bengal, Suraja Dowla was sold to Mir Jaffier†; Mir Jaffier was sold to Mir Cossim; and Mir Cossim was sold to Mir Jaffier again. The succession to Mir Jaffier was sold to his eldest son; and another son of Mir Jaffier, Mobarech ul Dowla, was sold to his step-mother. The Maratta empire was sold to Ragoba; and Ragoba was sold *and delivered* to the Peishaw of the Marattas. Both Ragoba, and the Peishaw of the

* Mr. Warren Hastings.

† Vid. Supra. Vol. II. p. 97.

Marattas were offered to sale to the rajah of Berar. Scindia, the chief of Malva, was offered to sale to the same rajah; and the subah of the decan was sold to the great trader, Mahomet Ali, nabob of Arcot. To the same nabob of Arcot, they sold Hyder Ali, and the kingdom of Mysore. To Mahomet Ali, likewise, they twice sold the kingdom of Tanjore. To the same purchaser, they sold at least twelve sovereign princes, called the Polygars. But to keep matters even, the territory of Tinnivelly belonging to their own nabob *they would have sold to the Dutch!* To close this catalogue of sales, their great customer, the nabob of Arcot himself, and his lawful succession, have been sold to his second son, Amir ul Omrah*. All these bargains were regularly attended with the waste and havoc of the country, always by the buyer, and sometimes by the object of the sale. These facts demonstrated the first of the assertion of Mr. Burke, that the company sold, that is, *betrayed every prince and state, great or small, with whom they came into contact.*

The second assertion of Mr. Burke is, that *the company never made a treaty which they have not broken.* This position arises by a natural consequence from the list of sales above stated. Mr. Burke declares that he had never heard it so much as alledged, that in any one instance, the company had observed any public agreement. Mr. Dundas had, some time before, fairly proved to parliament, that their universal systematic breach of treaties had made *British faith proverbial in the east.* To crown the farce, Hastings himself, in a letter to which Mr. Burke refers, transmitted to the court of directors, a regular estimate of the sums which the company would have lost, or never acquired, *if public faith had been observed!*

Mr. Burke then proceeds to state particular acts of perfidy committed by the British East India company. It has been already mentioned that they stipulated to pay the mogul two hundred and sixty thousand pounds sterling per annum; and that, of this money, they kept every shilling. They broke a second treaty with him, by which they had agreed to pay four hundred thousand pounds a year to the soubah of Bengal. By a third engagement, they promised to pay a pension to Nudjif Cawn; they broke this article with the rest. They broke their treaties with the Nizam, and with Hyder Ali. As to the Marattas, the company had so many cross-treaties with the States general of that nation, and with each of the chiefs, that not one of these agreements could be kept without grossly violating the rest. If the terms of these several treaties had been observed, two British armies would at one and the same time, have met in the field to cut each other's throats.

In the midst of profound peace, the forces of the company invaded the Maratta territories, and surprized the island and fortrefs of Salfette. The Marattas, nevertheless, consented to a peace, which was highly advantageous for the company. But this, like every other agreement, they broke. They once more attacked the Maratta dominions; their whole army was obliged, in effect, to surrender to this injured, betrayed, and insulted people. The conquerors prescribed moderate terms of peace, and behaved to their captive assailants with the most distinguished humanity†. The company broke this treaty likewise; nor would they ever have adhered to any terms, if Hyder Ali had not broke into the Carnatic, and swept all before him. An abhorrence of the perfidy of the East India company had united these two discordant powers in a kind of alliance

* This strange detail will enable the reader to comprehend "the violent desire of creating nabobs;" an expression already quoted from colonel Dow, in vol. 1. p. 237.

† In the annual register of 1782, there is an account of this capitulation. The deputy who was sent from the English camp, to solicit pardon, of the Maratta chiefs, represented, that "they (the company) were only merchants &

"—that henceforth they should adhere to the treaties established between both nations; and requested, that what had happened might be forgiven." *Ann. Reg.* p. 22.

These invaders in the midst of a professed peace were in the midst of the Maratta country. They were asked, *what business they had there?*

against them. In making peace with the Marattas, Hastings adhered to his former system of fraud. They insisted, that Hyder should be comprehended in the treaty of peace; and this governor-general of India directed his secretary, Mr. David Anderson, to admit "a vague article" in favour of Hyder. Thus, evasion and imposture, formed the very basis of this treaty. The *vague* article was succeeded by a more vague performance. The treaty had scarcely been subscribed, when Hastings entered into a correspondence with the Maratta chief, Scindia, for a *partition* of Hyder's country. About this time, Hyder died; and soon after, general Mathews, with a British army, broke into his successor's dominions. On the 5th of January, 1783, this commander stormed the fortrefs of Onore. No quarter was given by the conquerors. In the New Annual register for 1784, there is inserted a passage of a letter from an English officer, respecting this affair. "The Carnage," says he, "was great. We trampled thick on the dead bodies that were strewed in the way. It was rather shocking to humanity, but such are only *secondary considerations*, and to a soldier, whose bosom glows with heroic glory, they are thought *accidents of course*. His zeal makes him aspire after farther victory*." Hydernagar also fell, and in the same work, the public treasure, taken in that city, is stated to have been from five millions and a half to eight millions and a half of dollars. A vast quantity of private property was likewise plundered. Annapour was stormed by major Campbell. Every man in this fort was butchered, except a single fugitive, who made his escape after being wounded in three different places. *Four hundred women were put to the bayonet* †. The army quarrelled with Mathews, their commander, about the division of the booty, which produced much confusion. In the mean time, Tipoo Saib, the son of Hyder, rallied his forces, and overpowered the conquerors. Mathews, who was taken prisoner in Hydernagar, promised to restore to Tipoo Saib the public property, that had been seized in that fortrefs. He concealed it; and for this breach of treaty was forced by Tipoo to swallow poison, or as some say, melted lead. Twenty other officers shared a similar fate; the whole body of troops were almost exterminated, nor had those, who, as prisoners, escaped the general massacre, any reason to rejoice in their destiny. "In the story of the conquest and recovery of Canara, the Spaniards may be said to be brought a second time upon the scene, but not to sit down in sullen and insolent prosperity, after all their crimes. *The Spaniards of Britain* were overtaken in the midst of their career; and he, who is more of a man than an Englishman, will rejoice in the irregular and unmeasured, but at the same time the just and merited vengeance that was inflicted upon them by the prince whose dominions they were ravaging ‡." We return to the narrative.

Mr. Burke observes, that the English were, by far, the most ruinous tyrants, that have, at any time, desolated the plains of Indostan. The several irruptions of Arabs, Tartars, and Persians, into India, were, for the greater part, ferocious and destructive; but their barbarity very soon abated; because they made the conquered country their own. If hoards were formed by violence and tyranny, they were still domestic hoards; and domestic profusion, or the rapine of a more powerful and prodigal hand, restored them to the people. With many disorders, and with few political checks upon power, nature had still fair play. The sources of acquisition were not dried up: The trade, the manufactures, and the commerce of the country, flourished. Even avarice and usury itself, operated both for the preservation and the employment of national wealth. The husbandman and manufacturer paid heavy interest; but they augmented the fund from whence they were again to borrow. The resources were dearly bought, but they were sure; and the general stock of the community grew by the general effort. But under the English government, this order has been reversed.

* New Annual Register for 1784, p. 96. † Ibid. p. 98. Also Dodaley's Annual Register for 1783, p. 91.

‡ New Annual Register for 1784, p. 96.

The Tartar invasion was mischevous; but it is the *protection* of England which destroys India. Her conquest there, after twenty years, is as crude as it was at the first day. The natives scarcely know what it is to see the grey head of an Englishman. Young men, boys almost, govern there; who have neither society nor sympathy with the natives. They contract no more social habits with the Hindoos, than if they still resided in England. They have no species of intercourse, but that which is necessary for raising a sudden fortune, with a view to their return into England. Animated by all the avarice of age, and all the impetuosity of youth, they roll in one after another, wave after wave. There is nothing before the eyes of the natives, but an everlasting attack from new flights of birds of prey and passage, with appetites continually renewing for a food that is continually wasting. Every shilling of profit made by an Englishman, is lost, forever, to India. No charitable foundation compensates, through ages, to the poor, for the rapine and injustice of a day. Pride erects no stately monuments, to repair the mischiefs which pride had produced; and which adorn a country out of its own spoils. England has erected no churches, no hospitals, no palaces, no schools. England has built no bridges, made no high roads, cut no navigations, dug out no reservoirs. Every other conqueror, of every other description, has left behind him some monument, either of beneficence or grandeur. But when the British shall be driven out of India, no trace of their progress will remain, to tell that it has been inhabited by any thing better than the orang-outang, or the tiger.

Mr. Burke next illustrates his third assertion, that no prince ever trusted in the East India company but to his utter ruin. The nabob of Oude, in 1779, represented to Mr. Hastings, that his dominions had, by an extensive drought, been reduced to the utmost misery; and, on this account, he requested that a part of the company's troops quartered upon him, should be withdrawn. This requisition was refused, in a very harsh stile, and that desolation which the drought had begun, was completed by the wantonness of military rapine. In the course of four or five years, the revenues of Oude, as nearly as could be ascertained, were sunk from three millions, to thirteen hundred thousand pounds sterling. Even this last sum was extorted by exorbitant oppression. The remnant of this revenue was mortgaged to some usurers in a different part of India, at an annual interest of near thirty per cent. The landholders, merchants, bankers, of Oude, and even the farmers of the revenue themselves, were, *universally*, reduced to ruin.

Fizulla Khan, one of the Rohilla chiefs, had saved himself from the general extirpation of his countrymen. He was secured, if that had been any security, by a treaty. His whole country then was what the whole country of the Rohillas had been. In a word, it was cultivated like a garden, without one neglected spot in it. In the progress of a few years, he doubled the population, and the revenue of his territories. In the correspondence of the English government, he is charged with making his country an asylum for the peasants who fled from Oude. Upon this and some other frivolous pretences, he was accused as a rebel, and bought a temporary peace for about seven hundred and eleven thousand dollars.

The first woman in Bengal, the ranni of Rajeha, had paid above two hundred thousand pounds sterling a year of quit-rent to the state. She was, in the strict sense of the word, reduced to beggary. Mr. Burke names two other women of the same rank, in Bengal, who were likewise brought to utter ruin. Mahommed Reza Khan, the second muskulman in Bengal, without the pretence of any enquiry into his conduct, was stripped of all his employments, and reduced to the lowest condition. The rajah Nund-comar was hanged. This transaction has made more than common noise, and as it

* Mr. Burke, in a note, subjoins, that "the foundation at Calcutta is scarcely worth naming as an exception."

was not fully stated by Mr. Burke, the particular circumstances which attended it, are here extracted from the New Annual Register, for 1781.

Nundcomar was a bramin of the first rank. He had been chief minister to the nabob of Bengal; and he was tried for a forgery in the English supreme court of that province. By the laws of Hindostan, forgery was not a capital offence; but Nundcomar was indicted on a statute passed in the reign of George the second, of which *the natives had never heard*. The forgery had been committed *many years before*; and, by an express clause in the body of the act itself, which was made with a particular reference to the state of credit in England, it was declared, that it should not extend even to Scotland. Yet this act now extended to Bengal, a country which had not fallen in possession of England, till almost forty years after the law had been passed. Nundcomar was found guilty, and executed. The judges even refused a respite, till the pleasure of George the third could be known. Nundcomar, when apprehended, was employed in exhibiting an accusation against Warren Hastings. This was considered as his real crime. "From that time," says Mr. Burke, not a "complaint has been heard from the natives against their governors. All the grievances of India have found a *complete remedy*!"

Cheit Sing was one of the princes tributary to the East India company. He was driven into rebellion by the insolence and rapacity of Hastings. The treatment that he received, must, indeed, have been very dreadful, for Mr. Pitt himself, the friend of Hastings, declared, in the British house of commons, that he, *as an honest man*, could not venture to defend it! The revolt, which ended in the flight of Cheit Sing, was attended with the usual circumstances of slaughter and devastation, besides an *immense loss of revenue* to the company. The mother and grandmother of Cheit Sing, commonly stiled the begums of Oude, were plundered, by the soldiers, in the most shameful manner, and in defiance of the terms by which they had surrendered themselves, and a fortress which they held, to the forces of the company. There can be no question as to the reality of this outrage, for it is stated by major Popham, the commander at the siege, in an official letter. Heroes who could put four hundred women to the bayonet, and then strip their dead bodies, were not to be startled by trifles of this kind. Besides other plunder, there was found in the fortress, the sum of three hundred and twelve thousand pounds sterling, which was instantly divided among *the gallant troops*.

Cheit Sing, during the time of his revolt, published a manifesto addressed to the native princes of India. The style of this paper is divested of that tawdry eloquence so frequent and so tiresome in oriental compositions. In vindication of his public conduct the rajah says, "Look to my districts, look to theirs! Do not the opposite pictures which they present to you, mark their limits more distinctly, than even the boundaries which nature itself has drawn out? *My fields are cultivated, my villages are full of inhabitants, my country is a garden, and my subjects are happy!* My capital is the resort of the principal merchants of India, from the security that I have given to property. The treasures from the Marattas, the Jaits, the Saikes, and the most distant nations of India, are here deposited. Here the orphans and widows convey their property, here they reside without fear of rapacity or avarice. The traveller from one end of my country to the other, lays down his burden, and sleeps in security. Look to the provinces of the company! There famine and misery stalk hand in hand through uncultivated fields and deserted villages. There you meet with nothing but aged men, who are not able to transport themselves away, or robbers watching to surprize their helplessness. When any of the servants of the English have passed through my country, every kindness has been shown to them, and all their wants supplied; even their very coolies have had their burdens taken off, and carried for them, and passed on from village to village. When any of these

“ gentlemen travelled through my country; my officers have attended them, to know their wants, supplied them with necessary provisions and carriage at my expense, and performed all their orders, as if they were my own. Let any of them be asked, if they met with such treatment in the countries under the company’s management? Were they not almost continually robbed, and in danger of their lives*?”

This account corresponds exactly with another exhibited by Hastings himself in a minute of council, quoted by Mr. Burke, in the speech to which we may have so often referred. “ The country of Farruckabad,” says this accomplished tyrant, “ is become *almost an entire waste, without cultivation or inhabitants.* The capital, which, but a very short time ago, was distinguished as one of the most populous and opulent commercial cities in Indostan, at present exhibits nothing but *scenes of the most wretched poverty, desolation, and misery*; and the nabob himself, though in possession of a tract of country, which, with only common care, is notoriously capable of yielding an annual revenue of three or four hundred thousand pounds (sterling) with *no military establishment to maintain, scarcely commands the means of bare subsistence.*”

Mr. Burke subjoins, that this is a true and unexaggerated picture, not only of Farruckabad, but of three-fourths of the dominions of the East India company. After such an acknowledgement, by Hastings himself, it would be absurd to suspect his accuser, Mr. Burke, of exaggeration. Of the method in which the British revenues of India, are extracted from the vitals of beggary, we shall give another specimen. On the 1st of September, 1783, one of the officers of the nabob of Arcot, addressed a letter to that prince, from which the following passage has been translated. “ The outrages and violences now committed, are of that astonishing nature, as were never known or heard of during the administration of the Circar. Hyder Naik, the most cruel of tyrants, used every sort of oppression in the Circar countries; but even his measures were not like those now pursued. Such of the inhabitants as had escaped the sword and pillage of Hyder Naik, by taking refuge in the woods, and within the walls of Vellore, &c. on the arrival of lord Macartney’s amildar at Vellore and in consequence of his promise of protection and support, most cheerfully returned to the villages, set about the cultivation of the lands, and, with great diligence rebuilt their cottages. But now the amildar has imprisoned the wives and children of the inhabitants, seized the few jewels that were *on the bodies of the women*, and then before the faces of their husbands, *flogged them*, in order to make them produce, other jewels and effects, which he said, *they had buried under ground*, and to make the inhabitants bring him money, notwithstanding that there was yet *no cultivation in the country.*” What follows is still more horrible. “ Terrified with the lashes, some of them produced their jewels and wearing apparel of their women to the amount of ten or fifteen pagodas†, which they had hidden. When others declared that they had none, the amildar *flogged their women severely, tied cords around their breasts, TORE THE SUCKING CHILDREN FROM THEIR TEATS, AND EXPOSED THEM TO THE SCORCHING HEAT OF THE SUN.* These children *died*, as did the wife of Ramsaamy, an inhabitant of Bringpoor. Even this could not stir up compassion in the breast of the amildar. Some of the children that were somewhat *large*, HE EXPOSED TO SALE. In short, the violences of the amildar are so astonishing, that the people, on seeing their present situation, remember the loss of Hyder with regret. With whomsoever the amildar finds a single measure of rice, he takes it

* Annual Register for 1783, p. 28.

† In the table of coins, at the end of this work, a pagoda is rated at eight shillings and nine pence sterling, or nearly two dollars.

from him, and appropriates it to the expenses of the *fibindy* that he keeps up. revenues are collected from the countries; but from the effects of the poor, wretched inhabitants. The *ryotts* (yeomen) who intend to return to their habitations, hearing of those violences, have fled, with their wives and children, into the nabob's country. Every day is ushered in, and closed, with these violences and disturbances." This letter has been printed at full length, by Mr. Burke, in an appendix to his speech concerning the creditors of the nabob of Arcot. He adds, in a postscript, that practices of this kind have been common in almost every part of the miserable countries on the coast of Coromandel, for near twenty years past. He likewise observes, that whether the particulars stated in the above letter, were true or not, neither the court of directors, nor their ministry *have thought proper to enquire*†.

The second speech, printed by Mr. Burke, respecting the East India company, was delivered in the British house of commons, on the 28th of February, 1785. The occasion of it was, in substance, as follows.

The nabob of Arcot is the most considerable prince in the southern part of India. For his elevation to supreme authority he has been indebted to the arms and influence of the East India company. He became ambitious to disturb the peace of other Indian princes; and was solicitous to engage in this service the British forces. But though the government of the company in Indostan has been a scene of almost incessant hostility with the native princes, yet, these wars have seldom been approved by the company itself, to whose revenue, as sovereigns, and to whose commerce, as merchants, they are equally destructive. These quarrels are sometimes supported not by orders from the company, but by the ambition of its agents, and in spite of its orders. Hence, to advance the schemes of the nabob, that prince found it requisite to enter into clandestine and dishonorable connexions with these agents. It was commonly believed, that he had bestowed on this class of men very large sums of money; and that for the most exceptionable purposes. A detail of his petty campaigns is beyond the plan of this sketch†. It is sufficient to remark, that the troops of the company were frequently employed in his service, in defiance of the authority of the company itself. In the year 1784, the company were in the greatest distress for want of money. At the same time, they were indebted to their agents, to the extent of ten millions sterling. Against the nabob of Arcot, these agents also claimed a debt, to the extravagant amount of four millions four hundred and forty-four thousand pounds sterling. The annual interest of this debt, was six hundred and twenty-three thousand pounds; and of this sum, three hundred and eighty-three thousand pounds stood chargeable on the public revenues of the Carnatic. Thus, the servants of the company had quartered their own debts in equality with those of their masters, upon the revenues of the country of the nabob. This was the first state of the debt. It afterwards put on various shapes.

It is evident, that the confidence of the company had been grossly betrayed; since their agents were in the utmost opulence, while they were, themselves, on the point of insolvency. The debts of the nabob gave particular offence; for it was strongly suspected, that they were wholly fictitious; and that this prince had upon certain emergencies, obtained the service of his British agents, by sometimes granting, instead of money, a succession of bonds, at exorbitant interest.

An act of parliament, under the direction of Mr. Pitt, was passed, wherein the court of directors of the East India company were ordered to make enquiry into the origin

† The translation of this letter was sent, by the nabob himself, to the court of directors. He adds, "I have thousands more of the same kind."

‡ In an advertisement prefixed to his speech, Mr. Burke says, that the kingdom of Tanjore had, in the space of a few years, been four times plundered, twice by this nabob himself, and twice by other enemies, of whose invasion, he was the sole cause.

and justice of these demands upon the nabob. They computed the debt, with compound interest, at two millions nine hundred and forty-five thousand six hundred pounds sterling. The last head of the account was two millions four hundred and sixty-five thousand six hundred and eighty pounds. In their report, they state, that although they had repeatedly written to the nabob of Arcot, and to their servants, "respecting the debt, they had never been able to trace the origin thereof, or to obtain any satisfactory information on the subject."

In the mean time, Mr. Pitt had carried a bill through parliament for instituting a board of controul, who were to make a specific enquiry, on this subject. This board, at once without any investigation whatever, admitted and established the justice of the whole of the debts†, and directed their payment, some at an interest of six, others of ten, and others of twelve per cent. till the discharge of the total amount. This decision was in direct opposition to the apparent injunctions of the very act of parliament that had been just framed by the minister himself.

Nothing could be more contradictory to the sentiments of the East India company than such an order. They were in the utmost hazard of bankruptcy; and in this situation, the nabob of Arcot, on whose revenues they depended for a great part of their own, was harrassed by Mr. Pitt's board of controul, in a debt of three millions sterling.* Had the money been actually advanced by their agents, practices of this kind were constantly forbidden; so that the debt was, in its very constitution, illegal, and the bonds themselves were consequently void. But the whole sums were suspected to be nothing, or next to nothing else than an accumulation of exorbitant interest upon bonds granted for money that never had been advanced; upon bonds granted for the loan of the company's troops, in opposition to the company's orders. This seems to be an accurate statement of the principal circumstances of this question.

A motion for an enquiry into the whole business was made in the house of commons by Mr. Fox. In the debate of that day, Mr. Burke delivered the speech, from which the subsequent details have been abridged; and it was soon after published by himself, with a large appendix of documents, to demonstrate the accuracy of its assertions.

In January 1767, the territorial revenues, possessed by the British creditors of the nabob of Arcot, without the consent or knowledge of their masters, the East India company, extended to three hundred and sixty thousand pounds sterling per annum. Three members of the board of presidency, at Madras, obtained the assignment. So faithfully were the company served! This transaction was not mentioned in the correspondence of the board with the directors for about two years, until it was found out by the report of the country. On its discovery, the directors complained in the bitterest terms. They affirmed, that "the late governor and council of Madras had, in notorious violation of the trust reposed in them, manifestly preferred the interest of private individuals to that of the company, in permitting the assignment of the revenues of certain valuable districts, to a very large amount, from the nabob to individuals." In another passage of the same letter, they add, that "the servants of the company had most unfaithfully betrayed their trust, abandoned the company's interest, and

† This assertion does not rest on the single authority of Mr. Burke. The official order to this effect, is dated 15th of October, 1784, and forms No. 9. of the appendix to his speech. It is of considerable length, and a curious production.

* There has been some difficulty and even perplexity in wading through the materials consulted under this article of our work. Mr. Burke is extremely diffuse, and not always accurate in his arrangement or representation of facts. The

two Annual Registers have, therefore, been often and carefully examined to check or corroborate his affirmations; as truth, and not random accusation, forms the object of our enquiry.

The sum of three millions is stated as about the extent of these debts, by the nabob of Arcot, to the servants of the company, in a letter from the board of controul, dated 3d November, 1784, in answer to a remonstrance from the court of directors. Vide appendix, No 9.

“*prostituted its influence, to accomplish the purposes of individuals, whilst the interest of the company is almost wholly neglected, and payment to us rendered extremely precarious.*” The private creditors immediately qualified a vast number of votes, and became masters of the court of proprietors. This poor, baffled government, was obliged to lower its tone, and became glad to be admitted into partnership *with its own servants!* The court of directors very soon lost its authority in the Carnatic, and every where else; and the funds for payment of the debt were, *for that time, established.*

An account is given of the way in which part of these debts were contracted, in a letter from Madras; of which Mr. Burke read, in parliament, the following passage. “The nabob,” says the writer, “is generally in arrears to the company. Here the governor, being cash keeper, is generally *on good terms* with the banker, who manages matters thus. The governor presses the nabob for the balance due from him. The nabob flies to his banker for relief. The banker engages to pay the money, and grants his notes accordingly, which he puts into the cash book as *ready money.* The nabob pays him an interest for it, at two or three *per cent per MONTH,* till the tunkaws (assignments) he grants on the particular districts for it, *are paid.* Matters, in the mean time, are so managed, that there is no call for this money for the company’s service, till the tunkaws become due: By this means, not a cash is *advanced by the banker,* though he receives a heavy interest from the nabob, which *is divided as lawful spoil.*”

The creditors in this claim for three millions sterling, were themselves completely ashamed of it. At the time when Mr. Henry Dundas, and his partners in the board of controul, directed the payment to be made, no list of the names of these gentlemen had ever been laid before the court of directors; so that they were commanded to pay this sum to persons, of whose very names they had no regular information. The parties were perfectly known to be in a collusive shuffle with the nabob and with each other. When lists of their names were handed about for any particular purposes of their own, no two lists were exactly the same. In the year 1781, these very creditors had, of themselves, proposed to strike off twenty-five *per cent.* from a great part of the capital of this debt; and prayed to have a provision made for the payment of this reduced principal *without any interest at all!* This was an arrangement of their own; an arrangement made by those who best knew the true constitution of their own debt; who knew how little favour it merited, and how little hopes they had to find any persons in authority, who would venture to support it as it stood. Their fears were extremely well founded; for it is plain that Mr. Fox, in his East India bill, had designed to strike off, at once, the whole, both of this *reduced* principal, and of the other principal sums, with interest, as, in every point of view, a most scandalous and oppressive imposition.

To Mr. Pitt, and Mr. Dundas, the business appeared in an opposite light. They replaced the twenty-five *per cent.* of which the creditors had attempted to lighten themselves. Instead of cutting off the interest, as the same parties had likewise proposed, the new ministers added the whole growth of four years usury, at twelve *per cent.* to the first overgrown principal; and again grafted on this improved stock, a perpetual annuity of six *per cent.* to take place from the year 1781. Some others of the principal sums, contained in this debt, were, as we have already observed, to bear an interest of ten; and some an interest of twelve *per cent.* As the debt itself was liable to insurmountable objections, so the creditors could plead nothing in behalf of their own personal merit. In consequence of their connexions with the nabob, they, for some time, extinguished the company as a sovereign power in that part of India. They withdrew the company’s garrisons out of the forts and strong holds of the Carnatic. They declined, as representa-

tives of the company, to receive the ambassadors from foreign courts, and remitted them to the nabob. They attacked, and totally destroyed the oldest ally of the company, the raja of Tanjore; and plundered his country to the extent of more than four millions sterling. They employed English forces, in the name of the nabob, to reduce, under his subjection, the princes and independent nobility of a vast country. In proportion to these acts of violence and perfidy, which ruined immense multitudes of people, the fund of the nabob's debt grew and flourished. Some of the principal of these accusations are distinctly referred to in the correspondence of the directors of the East India company, as quoted by Mr. Burke; so that they cannot be said to rest on *bis* veracity: Among other hopeful projects, this cabal had resolved to extirpate the memorable Hyder Naik. But their victim was not of the passive kind. In July, 1780, he broke into the Carnatic, at the head of an immense army. During eighteen months, the whole country suffered the most dreadful ravages. Famine augmented the general mass of misery. For months together, the natives, patient, silent, resigned, without sedition or disturbance, and almost without complaint, perished by an hundred a day in the streets of Madras. Every day, seventy, at least, laid their bodies in the streets, or on the glacis of Tanjore, and expired of famine, in the granary of India. So completely was the Carnatic wasted, that when the British armies, not long after, traversed it in all directions, for hundreds of miles, they did not, as Mr. Burke affirms, see one man, woman, or child. A committee of assigned revenue, in a letter to lord Macartney, say, that in several of the provinces, *scarce a vestige remained, either of population or agriculture**.

The country, thus laid waste, has few running streams, and rain only at particular seasons. But its product of rice requires the use of water subject to perpetual command. Immense numbers of reservoirs have, therefore, anciently been made all over the country to preserve it. But they had, before the invasion of Hyder, fallen into a miserable state of decay. His revenge completed their destruction; and a long time would be necessary to repair the loss. Instead of any measures for this effect, the Carnatic was burdened with the discharge of this debt. Between the extent of principal and interest, it was computed that the payment would require an annual sum of *five hundred and ninety-eight thousand pounds sterling, for eleven years*†. After such a history, as has been given of the debt itself, of the individual merit of the creditors, and of the dreadful situation of the country, from which it was to be extorted, the reader may form an adequate notion of the justice and humanity of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Dundas, to whom this protection of usury must be ascribed.

The country of Tanjore was in a condition equally wretched with the Carnatic. It was indebted to the East India company, in a very large sum, formed by an endless variety of extortions; and this debt, as Mr. Burke relates, was generating an usury of *forty eight per cent. per annum, payable monthly, with compound interest*.

It may be an object of surprise, what motive could induce the British ministers to support such a claim as that on the nabob of Arcot. Mr. Burke has assigned a satisfactory reason. The chief of the creditors was Paul Benfield. In the parliament before that which Mr. Burke was addressing, this man *made, besides himself, seven members*. In the subsequent election for parliament, in spring 1784, Benfield employed his most vigorous exertions in behalf of the ministry; perhaps to the extent of ten or twelve members. His agent, Mr. Atkinson, had submitted to keep a sort of public office or counting house, in London, where he conducted, for the ministerial party, the general business of the election for 1784. It will be readily imagined, that such essential services to the ministry, on the part of Benfield, were not to pass without some

* Appendix to Mr. Burke's speech, No. 4.

† The annual sum is specified in English money, by Mr. Burke, and the length of years, by the board of controul, Appendix, No. 9.

reward of equal value. The particulars of this reward Mr. Burke has frankly specified to the house of commons. In the debts against the nabob, Benfield had a share, which the board of controul fixed at five hundred and ninety-two thousand pounds, with an annual interest of *thirty-five thousand five hundred and twenty pounds*. But this was not all. The advance yearly to these creditors of the nabob, was four hundred and eighty thousand pounds, for the regular payment of which sum, he was to find security. Mr. Burke affirms, as a fact notoriously known, that Benfield himself was to be that security for the nabob, at the common Indian premium of twenty-four per cent. ; which, upon four hundred and eighty thousand pounds, rises to *one hundred and fifteen thousand two hundred pounds per annum*. This sum, added to the former interest of his own debt, make, together, *one hundred and fifty thousand seven hundred and twenty pounds sterling per annum*, which Benfield was to secure to himself on account of his services to government. No farther explanation is requisite as to the motives either of Mr. Benfield, or the British ministers. In consequence of this coalition of interests, the motion of Mr. Fox, for an enquiry into these debts, was rejected by a majority of one hundred and sixty-four against sixty-nine. We shall close this part of the subject, by adverting to a single circumstance, that requires no comment. Mr. Burke, when describing to parliament the distresses of the mother and grandmother of Cheir Sing, was twice interrupted by the *laughter* of a part of his audience*.

We have bestowed more than common attention to extract this detail from the mass of all sorts of rubbish, in which Mr. Burke has buried it†. A scene of iniquity has thus been held up to view, which few Americans are capable of conceiving. There can be no wonder that the dominions of the British East India company are sinking into the lowest extremity of wretchedness. Mr. Burke is of opinion, that from the year 1760 to 1780, near *twenty millions sterling* had been transmitted from the Carnatic to Europe, by English adventurers. Six hundred thousand pounds annually, were, upon an average, drawn off by the way of China. These detached particulars cast some light on the nature of the administration of the British East India company.

In a former part of this work‡, it has been stated, on the authority of an admirable writer, that five millions of the subjects of the company were destroyed or expelled from Bengal in the course of six years. Of these, two millions died of hunger in consequence of a *monopoly of rice*. If to this account are subjoined the twenty millions extirpated or driven out of the country in a subsequent period of twelve years§, the total number of the victims of exile or extermination, rises, in the space of *only eighteen years*, to TWENTY-FIVE MILLIONS.

This estimate of destruction will be found extremely moderate, when we contemplate the prodigious extent of country, over which the ambition of the East India

* To prevent our being misunderstood, it seems proper to remark, that Mr. Burke, and after him the authors of the New Annual Register, had, in casting up the two sums of Mr. Benfield's annual revenue, committed an error of *twelve hundred pounds*, which is here corrected. There seems a second disagreement in another part of the figures, to the amount of *two thousand eight hundred pounds*. Mr. Burke says, that the burden upon the nabob, was five hundred and *ninety-eight thousand pounds per annum*. But the bare sum, and the premium proposed for Benfield, make together, only five hundred and *ninety five thousand two hundred pounds*. Trifling mistakes of this kind, cost much time to a compiler, who examines his authorities, before he ventures to transcribe them.

† This gentleman has, in some passages, assumed an

uncommon style. Here is one specimen of what kind of *eloquence* has been often displayed to a British parliament.

"Let no man hereafter talk of the decaying energies of nature: All the acts and monuments in the records of *pepulation*: the consolidated corruption of ages; the patterns of exemplary plunder in the heroic times of Roman iniquity, never equalled the gigantic corruption of *this single act!* Never did Nero, in all the insolent prodigality of despotism, deal out to his pretorian guards, a donation fit to be named with the largess showered down, by the bounty of our chancellor of the exchequer, on the faithful band of his Indian seapoys."

‡ Vol. I. p. 258.

§ Vol. II. p. 93.

company hath inflicted its ravages. In 1785, they governed two hundred and eighty thousand square miles of territory; a space equal to twice the area of the whole republic of France, which is known to comprehend *twenty-seven millions* of people. The writers on this subject frequently remark, that large provinces of Indostan, were *formerly* cultivated like a garden. The Hindoos themselves are, perhaps, the most abstemious of mankind. Their subsistence requires but a trifling quantity of food, compared with that of any race of people in Europe. From the pacific temper of the natives, they had, for the most part, but few wars. Agriculture and manufactures had arrived at a high degree of perfection. From these important and combined causes, the population of India must have been prodigious. But, if we suppose that it was only in proportion to that of France, and the supposition is perfectly reasonable, the dominions of the East India company must, before the commencement of their conquests, have contained *fifty four millions* of inhabitants; and, from various circumstances that have been stated, this computation is certainly not overcharged. For the sake of distinctness, we shall proceed by the help of cyphers.

Population previous to the year 1758;	-	-	-	54,000,000
Lord Cornwallis, in 1789, states, that one-third part of this country, was, at that time, a jungle inhabited by wild beasts. For this jungle, deduct one-third of the ancient population,	-	-	-	18,000,000
Suppose that the remaining two-third parts of these provinces have lost <i>only</i> one-half of the number of the inhabitants whom they contained, <i>before</i> their subjection to the British East India company; this one half gives,	-	-	-	18,000,000
Deduct this from the original population,	-	-	-	36,000,000
Present number of inhabitants,	-	-	-	18,000,000

Thus, in thirty-six years, that is, from 1758, to 1793, inclusive, there has been an uniform waste of people, under these mercantile sovereigns, at the rate of *one million* per annum; in whole, THIRTY-SIX MILLIONS. The premises, on which this calculation has been founded, are explicitly placed before the reader: As to their justice, he is competent to decide for himself.

A solicitude to avoid the appearance of exaggeration has prevented us from swelling, by various substantial articles, this account of blood. Of the British themselves, and of their rivals, the French, an hundred thousand may probably have perished in the course of so protracted a contest. Of the armies brought into the field by the Marattas, by Hyder Ali, and by Tipoo Saib, very great numbers have been destroyed*; and as the country both of the Marattas, and of Myfore, supported their indepen-

* Under this head, it must be observed, that the British forces in the East Indies, very frequently *gave no quarter*. At Onore, for example, by one account, all ages, sexes, and orders, were butchered. Ann. Reg. 1783, p. 88. The garrison of this fortress consisted of a rabble of Indian militia, who had never seen an enemy in their country, and whom, a soldier, capable of generous sentiments, would have blushed to number among his antagonists. In the Mysore war of 1790, the conduct of the company's troops, was

exactly the same. On the 21st of March 1791, they exhibited a scene of this kind at Bangalore; on which the writer of the New Annual Register has made some just observations. "Such is war, in its very nature and spirit, that it necessarily destroys the moral feelings—By what authority do men embark from a distant shore for the express purpose of embruing their hands in the blood of their offenceless fellow creatures?" N. A. Reg. 1792, p. 87.

dence, the slaughter of their forces does not come within the limits of the preceding computation. By the war of 1790, the kingdom of Mysore has, at last, been reduced to one-half of its extent, and hence, *in any future estimate of this kind*, that part of the country, which fell to the share of the East India company, must be added to the above two hundred and eighty thousand square miles.

The judgment of Dr. Adam Smith, when speaking on this subject, seems well founded, that "such exclusive companies are nuisances in every respect; always more or less inconvenient to the countries in which they are established, and destructive to those which have the misfortune to fall under their government."

HISTORY.] The first invader of India, whose history is accurately known, was Alexander of Macedon. At the place where the fortress of Rotas now stands, on the banks of the Behat, he is supposed to have executed his stratagem for crossing the river while the opposite shore was possessed by Porus. Zingis Khan also directed his forces there, in the year 1221, and compelled the emperor to forsake his capital. The seat of government was often changed, by necessity, or by choice, as from Gazna to Delhi, to Lahore, to Agra, and to Canage. This last place was, in the reign of Porus, and long after, the capital of Indostan. It is now a town of no great population, though the ruins are extensive.

Valid, the sixth of the caliphs, named Omniades, who ascended the throne in the year 708, made conquests in India. Mahmoud, prince of Gazna, the capital of a province separated by mountains from the northwest parts of India, carried the koran with the sword into Indostan, about the year 1000. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror; plundering immense treasures, demolishing temples, and murdering defenceless people. His successors, the dynasty of the Gaznavides, supported themselves in a great part of the country which Mahmoud had conquered, until about the year 1150, when their last prince was deposed by Kuffain Gauri. This adventurer founded the dynasty of the Gaurides. The fourth of the Gauride emperors conquered the kingdoms of Moultan and Delhi, and drew from thence prodigious treasures. The race of Gaurides ended in the year 1212, in the person of Mahmoud, who was murdered. Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, whose troops entered Indostan, from the centre of the Indian Caucasus, in the year 1398. This barbarian met with no resistance sufficient, even by the military maxims of the Tartars, to justify the cruelties with which he marked his way. After an immense slaughter, he became sovereign of an empire, which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the Ganges.

His successors reigned over Indostan, till the invasion of Nadir Shaw in 1739, a space of about three hundred and forty years. They were magnificent but despotic princes, and committed their provinces to rapacious governors, or to their own sons; a practice by which their empire was sometimes convulsed to its foundation. Bengal, Guzerat, and some other provinces, were, by turns, independent. In the year 1658, Aurengzebe, the youngest of the four sons of the reigning emperor, defeated his brothers, imprisoned his father, and ascended the throne of Indostan. He extended his dominion over the peninsula within the Ganges. He lived so late as to the year 1707, and it is said that some of his great officers of state were alive in 1750. Aurengzebe was a person of superior abilities. He surmounted prodigious difficulties; but he was unfortunately seized with an absurd passion for conquest. His dominions were already of an unwieldy and dangerous extent, and he endeavoured to enlarge them by attacking some of those warlike and independent nations, which inhabit the mountainous regions of India. The obvious consequences ensued. His wars were protracted to an immeasurable length. His empire was exhausted and enfeebled by their expense. His conquests were not actually worth one-tenth or even one hundredth part of the sums, which they cost him; and, at the time of his death, his em-

pire, by its bloated magnitude, engendered, within itself, the seeds of dissolution. The history of the first ten years of his reign, has been by colonel Dow; who has left us a narrative so elegant, interesting, and pathetic, that it can lose nothing by a comparison with the most admired historical compositions of any age or nation. Mr. Orme has also published historical fragments, which throw light on several of the latter transactions of the reign of this monarch. Some years ago, there was printed at London, a translation, by captain Scott, of Memoirs of Eradhut Khan; an oriental history, which records the last scenes of the life of Aurengzebe. Two letters, which he wrote just before his death, are inserted. One of them is addressed to his favourite son. Both present, to the masters of mankind, a humiliating lesson with regard to the insignificance of worldly grandeur. The style of the venerable emperor, who was, by this time, eighty nine years of age, is simple, nervous, and pathetic; and the peculiar situation, and extraordinary character of the writer, command from an intelligent reader, more attention, than whole volumes of common place morality. The memoirs of Eradhut Khan are continued through the reigns of several of the wretched successors of Aurengzebe. The work itself is almost every where distinguished by an interesting, and unaffected vein of composition, more pleasing to the lovers of state and of nature, than the artificial and elaborate beauties of Sallust, or of Tacitus.

In 1713, four of the grandsons of Aurengzebe disputed for the empire; which, after a bloody struggle, fell to the eldest, Mauzoldin, who assumed the name of Jehander Shah. This prince was a slave to his mistress. His nobility conspired against him, and raised to the throne one of his nephews, who struck off his uncle's head. Furrukhshir, the new emperor, was governed by two brothers, of the name of Seyd, who usurped his authority. Afraid to punish them publicly, he ordered both to be privately assassinated. They discovered his intention, dethroned, imprisoned, and strangled him. In his place, they raised a boy of only seventeen years of age, and who is said to have been the grandson of Aurengzebe by his own daughter. This story is repeated here as told in the former editions of this work. But it is very unlikely, for he must have been born about the year 1696, when the emperor himself was seventy-eight years of age. The two Seyds in a short time, poisoned their young sovereign, and raised to the throne his eldest brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Indostan took the field against the two favourites; but the latter were victorious. Shah Jehan obtained tranquil possession of the empire, and died in 1719. He was succeeded by Mahommed Shah, who entered into private measures with his great rajahs for destroying the Seyds. Accordingly, Nizam al Muluck, who had been one of the favourite generals of Aurengzebe, declared war against them. Nizam proclaimed himself soubah of the Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was assassinated by order of Mahommed Shah. The younger Seyd no sooner understood what had happened, than he proclaimed the sultan Ibrahim, another Mogul prince, emperor. A battle ensued in 1720, in which Mahommed was victorious. He used his conquest with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the prison from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewise a prisoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement; but the emperor took possession of his vast riches. Seyd did not long survive his imprisonment; and the emperor abandoned himself to the same course of pleasures that had been so fatal to his predecessors. As to Nizam, or the Nizam, as Dow entitles him, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed against the Marattas, whom he defeated, when they had almost made themselves masters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his soubahship, and was considered as the first subject in the empire. This traitor invited Nadir Shaw to invade Indostan. The success of Nadir is well known, and the immense treasures which, in 1739, he carried from Indostan. Beside those treasures, he obliged the Mogul to surrender to him all the

country to the west of the rivers Attock and Synd, comprehending the provinces of Peyshor, Cabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities which were almost equal in value to the kingdom of Persia itself.

When the king of Persia came into Delhi, he called the Nizam and his associate Sadit into his presence, and addressed them in these terms. "Are not you both most ungrateful villains to your sovereign and your country, who, after possessing such wealth and dignities, called me from my own dominions, to ruin them and yourselves? But I will scourge you with all my wrath, which is the instrument of the vengeance of God." He then spit upon their beards, the utmost affront that a muselman can suffer, and with every mark of indignity, he drove them from his presence. They both agreed, to poison themselves; but Sadit, suspicious of his friend, sent a spy to remark whether the Nizam actually swallowed his dose. This master of deceit solemnly said his prayers, drank off an innocent draught, and counterfeited the agonies of death. The spy was imposed upon; and Sadit, being assured of his exit, swallowed a dose of real poison. The Nizam was not ashamed to boast of having by this artifice freed himself from a political rival.

One anecdote, at this crisis, deserves to be recorded. Nadir, having shut the gates of Delhi, till he should complete a contribution on the people, famine began to rage, and the tyrant himself was, as usual, deaf to the miseries of mankind. Tucki, a famous actor, exhibited a play before Nadir Shaw, who was so highly pleased with his performance, that he commanded Tucki to ask what *he wished should be done for him?* Tucki fell upon his face, and said, "O king, command the gates to be opened, that the poor may not perish." His request was granted; half the city poured out into the country, and in a few days, the place was supplied with plenty of provisions. A request so daring, so generous, so noble, better deserves the remembrance of mankind than a thousand of the vulgar mafs of battles and of victories.

This invasion cost the Gentoos two hundred thousand lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shaw, Dow states it at eighty millions sterling. This invasion put a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire. Nadir, having raised all the money that he could in Delhi, restored Mahommed Shah to his throne, and returned into Persia. But a general revolt of the provinces soon after ensued; as none were willing to yield obedience to a prince who could not enforce it. The provinces to the northwest of the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shaw. He was, in 1747, assassinated, and Achmet Abdalla, his treasurer, during the general confusion occasioned by the tyrant's death, carried off three hundred camels loaded with treasure. He was thus enabled to put himself at the head of an army; and he marched against Delhi with fifty thousand horse. Ahmed Shah, the mogul's eldest son, with eighty thousand horse, opposed the invader. The war was carried on with various success, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination. Ahmed Shah became his successor; but the empire fell every day more into decay; Abdalla erected an independent kingdom, of which the Indus is one of the boundaries, and Candahar the capital.

The Marattas possess the south-western peninsula of India*. They had, before the invasion of Nadir Shaw, exacted a tribute from the empire, arising out of the reve-

* Malwa, Berar, Orissa, Candeish, and Visipour, the principal part of Amednagar or Dowlatabad, half of Guzerat, and a small part of Agimere, Agra, and Allahabad, are comprised within their immense empire, which extends, from sea to sea, across the widest part of the peninsula, and from the confines of Agra northward, to the Kistna southward, forming a tract of about one thousand miles long, and seven hundred wide. This extensive country

is divided among a number of chiefs, whose obedience to the Peishwa, or head, is but nominal. They are often at war among themselves, and also with their Peishwa. Compared with other Hindoos, they are said to be a warlike people. Yet it appears that an army of this nation are hardly a match for one-sixth part of their own number of English soldiers, or even of seapoys.

nues of the province of Bengal. This was withheld, in consequence of the enfeebled state of the empire, and the Marattas became clamorous. The empire trembled to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, demanding jaghires† and districts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and every species of domestic confusion. Ahmed Shah reigned only seven years, and after his death still farther disorder and confusion prevailed. At present, the imperial dignity of Indostan is vested in Shah Allum or Zadah, who is acknowledged as heir of the Timur race. His power is annihilated. The city of Delhi, and a small adjacent territory compose the diminutive remains of the mogul empire. Among other astonishing passages in the last London edition of this work, it is asserted, that the present imaginary successor of the Moguls “depends upon the *protection of the English*, whose interest it “is to support him, as his grant to the company is the best legal guarantee of their “possessions.” We have already‡ seen in what way the company treated the mogul, as *their legal guarantee*; but the most miserable part of the story still remains to be told. About three or four years ago, one of the officers of this monarch had a quarrel with him and retired from court. He collected a band of ruffians, and professed his intention of returning to Delhi, for the purpose of revenge, and plunder. The mogul applied to Cornwallis, governor-general of Bengal, for protection; but his lordship, who hath since been so forward to revenge the supposed wrongs of the petty rajah of Travancore, would not afford the smallest assistance. The rebel entered Delhi, made a prisoner of the defenceless old man, rifled his palace, abused his women, and, as the climax of barbarity, thrust or burned out his eyes. Yet in the face of this transaction, we are gravely assured, that the mogul is under the *protection of the company*. The author of this horrid scene did not long escape the due reward of his crimes.

Since 1765, the British East India company have been masters of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixá; but nominally, they are tributaries to the emperor. In 1767, they engaged in a very dangerous war with Hyder Ali, the sovereign of Mysore. This man had acquired the rudiments of the art of war in the French East India service. In 1763, having been advanced to the command of the royal army of Mysore, he usurped the supreme authority. By degrees he extended his dominions; until at last they equalled in extent the island of Britain. His revenues were estimated at above eighteen millions of dollars annually. The discords in various parts of Indostan, enabled him to aggrandise himself so far, that his power became formidable to his neighbours. In 1767, he found himself in danger of being attacked on one side by the Maráttas, and on the other by the British. The former were bought off with a sum of money, and the latter were obliged to retire. Having soon, however, assembled all their forces, several obstinate engagements took place; and the British, for the first time, found a steady opposition from an Indian prince. The war continued, with various success, during the years 1767, 1768, and part of 1769, when Hyder, with a strong detachment of his army, passing by that of the British, advanced within a small distance of Madras, where he forced the government into a peace upon his own terms. The advantages gained by this peace, Hyder lost by a war with the Marattas; from whom, in the year 1771, he received a dreadful defeat; almost his whole army being killed or taken. Hyder was now compelled to suffer his enemies to desolate the country, till they chose to retire. In a few years, by incredible diligence, he retrieved his affairs and became more formidable than ever. In 1772, the Marattas attempted to get possession of the province of Corah and some others, but were opposed by

† Jaghire means a grant of land from a sovereign to a subject, revokable at pleasure; but generally or almost always, for a life rent.

‡ Vol. II. p. 98, 99.

the British; who, next year, defeated and drove them across the river Ganges, whom they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occasion, the British had acted only as the allies of Sujah Dowlah, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promised to pay forty lacks of rupees for the protection afforded them; but when the money came to be paid, it was under various pretences refused. The consequence of this was, that the Rohilla country was next year (1774) invaded and conquered by the British, as well as several other large tracts of territory. By this means, the boundary of Oude was advanced to the westward, within twenty five miles of Agra; north-westward to the upper part of the navigable course of the Ganges; and south-westward to the Jumna river.

In 1778, a new war commenced with the Marattas, on which occasion a brigade, consisting of seven thousand Indian troops, commanded by British officers, traversed the whole empire of the Marattas, from the river Jumna to the western Ocean. About this time, the war with France broke out, and Hyder Ali, expecting assistance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of an hundred thousand men. For eighteen months, he carried all before him, and, having destroyed a detachment of the British army, under colonel Baillie, it was imagined that the power of Britain, in that part of the world, would soon have been annihilated. By the exertions of sir Eyre Coote, the progress of this adversary was stopped, and he became soon tired of a war, which was attended with incredible expense to himself, without any reasonable prospect of success. By the year 1782, therefore, Hyder entertained thoughts of peace, but died before it was effected. Sir Eyre Coote did not survive him above five months.

In 1790, the British engaged in a war with Tipoo Saib. The origin of this contest was apparently trifling. The Dutch had, for a long time, possessed Cranganore, a fort on the Malabar coast, which they formerly conquered from the Portuguese. About the year 1779, they were driven out of it by Hyder Ali. The Dutch, not long after, recovered possession of Cranganore, by a compromise, but on what terms is uncertain. In June, 1789, Tipoo marched a considerable force towards Cranganore to reduce it. The Dutch hastily sold it to the rajah of Travancore, though it is said that Tipoo had offered them a larger sum for immediate possession, than they obtained from the rajah. But as the latter was an ally of Britain, they were very well satisfied to place the fortress in the hands of the rajah, because by this means, they raised a powerful barrier against the encroachments of Tipoo upon their adjacent settlement at Cochin. The rajah of Travancore was strictly cautioned by sir Archibald Campbell, and his successor Mr. Holland, in the name of the government of Madras, *not to proceed in the negotiation*; a fact which proves that in their judgment the transaction could not be justified. It was closed without the knowledge of Britain. Tipoo complained as to the illegality of this sale, and on the 29th of December, 1789, he made an attack on the lines of Travancore. He received a remonstrance from the British government of Madras, and desisted from his attempt. To show his aversion to give offence, he likewise made an apology, affirming that the troops of the rajah had commenced the attack; and adding that he had sent back the people, whom his forces had made prisoners. Thus far the conduct of Tipoo seems to have been extremely pacific. On the 1st of March, 1790, the rajah of Travancore attacked Tipoo, who on the 28th of December preceding, had continued peaceably within his own lines. An engagement consequently took place; and war having thus wantonly begun on the side of the rajah, the British conceived themselves bound to take an *active part*. This is the state of facts as related in the New Annual Register for 1791, and in the volume for the succeeding year, the authors tell us that they found ample reason to be satisfied with its correctness and accuracy. It is therefore evident, that the British were the aggressors; and yet the same writers who had before so

violently reprobated the invasion of Canara by general Mathews*, tell us, that "no period appeared more favourable to *bumble* Tipoo." Thus, in all ages, has the most detestable sophistry been exerted to vindicate the commencement of unjust and destructive wars. The Spaniards, upon the earthquake at Lisbon, might, with equal reason have embraced that auspicious opportunity to *bumble* the kingdom of Portugal. The republic of France, in the midst of a profound peace, might as justly disembark an hundred thousand men at Plymouth or Dover to *bumble* England. This remark is not levelled at these writers in particular, but at the general style of historians of all nations, a style which has, in reality, made the perusal of the common mass of historical writings a very dangerous amusement for the moral feelings of the reader†.

The war with Tipoo was warmly reprobated in the British parliament. The subject was taken up; in that assembly, on the 22d of December, 1795, and on two subsequent occasions. In the course of the debates, Mr. Hippeley stated, that Tipoo had a force of an hundred and fifty thousand men, a large corps of Europeans, under able officers; and an admirable artillery; with a revenue of five millions sterling, and a treasury of eight or nine millions. Mr. Fox condemned the war as one which might have been avoided: *A war for conquest, he hoped, never would be undertaken by England, either in India or elsewhere.* Mr. Fox said, that lord Cornwallis had originally taken up the matter in a proper point of view. He had condemned the purchase of the fort *in the strongest terms*; but had afterwards unfortunately altered his opinion; thought for what reason; Mr. Fox could not possibly conceive. He reprobated the treaties which had been entered into with the Nizam and the Marattas, for the *extirpation* of Tipoo. He asserted that the rajah of Travancore was the aggressor, even to England, by purchasing the fort contrary to the advice of the British government. But supposing Tipoo to have been the aggressor, what right had England to ask more than *adequate* satisfaction? His claim upon Cranganore, even if unjust, gave the English no title to carry war into the centre of his dominions, extirpate him, and divide his territories. Mr. Francis, a very respectable member, and who has resided in the East-Indies, stated, that in the single article of bullocks, an expense was already incurred; of more than seven hundred thousand pounds, *per annum.* He mentioned the opinion of general Meadows; a British officer of high rank in India; who had declared, that by procrastination of the war, the English interest *must be undone.* In a subsequent debate, Mr. Fox stated, as the estimation of people at Madras, that the expense of this war was two hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling per month, or *three millions* a year. Mr. Fox requested parliament to recollect, that the India debt, at the time when he was speaking (24th May, 1791) amounted to *sixteen millions sterling*, to which *eight hundred thousand pounds* more were to be added by the estimate then before the house. Such a prodigious debt, as sixteen millions eight hundred thousand pounds sterling, shows, that the affairs of the company must have been in a strange situation. The majority of the minister overruled every argument for peace with Tipoo. We shall now give a short sketch of the progress and termination of this contest.

It has already been related, that, on the 1st of May, 1790, the rajah made an offensive attack on the lines of Tipoo. It is plain, from what followed, that this aggression made only part of a pre-concerted conspiracy between Cornwallis, the Nizam, and the Marattas, for dividing the dominions of that prince. Without seeking any farther provocation or pretence for fighting, the British forces were assembled, and broke into the territories of Tipoo, in two different bodies. One of these, called the grand Carnatic army, was commanded by general Meadows; the Bombay army was of inferior force, and commanded by general Abercrombie.

Meadows was, by six months, the most early in his operations. He entered the enemy's country, on the 15th of June, at the head of only fourteen thousand men. After

* Vide supra, vol. II. p. 100.

† Vide vol. I. p. 547.

taking several forts, enduring many hardships, his troops, for want of provisions, made a retreat. On the 8th of December, they arrived at Trichinopoly, in the company's territories. From that place, on the 26th of May preceding, they had first set out for the invasion of the Myfore empire. In this campaign of 1790, prodigious expense was incurred, vast mischief inflicted on the country, and multitudes of innocent people were, as usual, reduced to beggary. Many lives were lost. The valour and discipline of Europe maintained their wonted superiority. But there was no action of much importance.

On the 14th of December, 1790, Abercrombie, in a different quarter, marched to the attack at Cannanore. In a short time, he reduced the whole district along the coast, from Billipatam river, to Cape Comorin.

On the 5th of January, 1791, general Meadows, with his army, once more left Trichinopoly, on the territories of Myfore. It was the 22d of February, before they could get safe through the passes of the mountains which led from the Carnatic into that country. Next day there was a halt. The bullocks and elephants were mustered. Of the former, twenty-seven thousand were found fit for service. Of the latter, eighty accompanied the army. On the 21st of March, the troops, who had been joined by Cornwallis himself, stormed the fortrefs of Bangalore. A dreadful carnage was made of "the *unresisting* garrison. Not less than a thousand were massacred with the bayonet, and three hundred, mostly wounded, were taken*." The army was, on the 7th of April, joined by about fifteen thousand of the Nizam's troops, and, on the 19th, by a reinforcement of seven hundred Europeans, and four thousand five hundred seapoys. On the 13th of May, the whole forces arrived within sight of Seringapatam, the capital of Myfore. At the same time, Cornwallis received intelligence, that general Abercrombie had ascended the Ghauts on the Malabar side, and it was the first object to form a junction, if possible, with that commander. On the 14th of May, at eleven o'clock at night, Cornwallis attacked Tipoo in his camp. After an obstinate resistance, the enemy were driven from their entrenchments. But, in the mean time, the swelling of a river, and the weakness of the draft cattle, prevented Cornwallis from effecting a junction with general Abercrombie. So badly had matters been arranged, that the British army, for want of provisions, were compelled to break up their camp, and return to Bangalore, after dispatching orders to Abercrombie to return down the passes of the mountain, as quickly as possible. Both armies were obliged to leave behind them, or to destroy their respective trains of battering cannon. In their retreat, they suffered excessively by famine. A letter was printed in the Star at London, from one of these armies, which mentioned that a British officer, having seen ten of his attendants perish of want, declared, that *he had seen enough*, and shot himself. The alarm in England was very great; and yet the writers of the New Annual Register pass over this retreat with as much tranquillity as if it had only been the manœuvre of a military review. While the British army was encamped near Seringapatam, Tipoo sent to Cornwallis a present of fruit, with overtures for a separate peace. The fruit was returned, and Tipoo was informed that no peace could be accepted which did not include the allies. These were the Nizam and the Marattas. The troops of the former had joined his lordship so late as the 27th of April, and those of the Marattas did not come up till some days after the retreat from Seringapatam was begun. So little concern did these allies give themselves about the event of the war! The Marattas amounted to thirty thousand men; but both these, and the troops of the Nizam, were hardly worth their room in any camp. The British forces did not reach Bangalore till the 30th of July, more than two months after their departure from Seringapatam. They had, by the way, reduced several petty fortresses.

† New Annual Register, for 1792, p. 87.

The retreat of Cornwallis was equivalent to a defeat. Yet, so anxious was Tipoo for peace, that he sent an envoy to Bangalore, with full powers to negotiate with the governor general. It is said, that he was directed to insist on certain forms, with regard to his audience, with which Cornwallis did not choose to comply. As this commander had been fairly foiled, Tipoo, by sending offers of peace after him, demonstrated that his own wishes on that head were sincere; and if there was any dispute in point of form, we are justified in supposing that the breach of politeness lay on the side of Cornwallis. As such a degree of haughtiness discovered no pacific intentions, there is no wonder that Tipoo resigned all hopes of a treaty. In the ensuing months, the British besieged and took several strong places in the dominions of Tipoo. At Penagra, a small mud fort, out of a garrison of three hundred, one hundred and fifty were cut to pieces. It was not till the 5th of February, 1792, that the British, for a second time, came within sight of Seringapatam.

On the 6th of February, at seven o'clock in the evening, Cornwallis gave orders for a general attack on the camp of Tipoo, who was entrenched between his capital and the English army. Cornwallis did not think it worth his trouble to inform his allies of this movement; and their consternation was great when they saw the English tents struck. Tipoo, with some difficulty, was driven from his station. General Meadows, who commanded a column, was so little satisfied with his own conduct, that he, soon after, attempted to shoot himself. He was desperately wounded; but his life was preserved. This anecdote, though universally known, has been, for the honour of the British arms, suppressed, in the new Annual Register. On the 23d of February, 1792, Tipoo found his metropolis reduced to extremities. He consented to a treaty. One half of his dominions were to be ceded to the allied powers. He was to pay three millions, and three hundred thousand pounds sterling. All prisoners were to be restored; and two of his three eldest sons were delivered, as hostages, for the performance of the treaty. We have not learned, in what way the money of Tipoo was to be divided. It is certain that the coffers of the company in Bengal were not overloaded; for Mr. Dundas confessed in parliament, that during the year 1791, a million of specie had been transmitted from Britain to Bengal. He also said, that within one year, bullion, to the amount of one million, had been sent out, to the same province, by the court of directors*.

The invasion of Mysore, in 1790, seems to have originated in the basest and most atrocious motives. The writers of the New Annual Register, from whom this narrative has chiefly been abridged, close it with a sort of pompous prediction of the advantages that the eastern world has, at some future period, a chance of deriving from her acquaintance with the nations of Europe. For these advantages, if they shall ever exist, the Hindoos have paid in advance a very high price. In plain terms, the authors of that work found it requisite to soften the style of their detail; because, books are written that they may be sold; and the pride and prejudices of a great nation, will not suffer them to hear the deformity and infamy of their public transactions, exposed in the uncourtly language of truth. This remark implies no peculiar censure on the people of Britain. The same weakness is common to every country, and will continue to be so till the last generations of the human race. Had Livy, instead of celebrating the justice and magnanimity of his detestable countrymen, arraigned them at the tribunal of eternal justice, he might have written a much better production than he has done, but his decades would not have defended to the eighteenth century.

* Ann. Reg. 1792 p. 81. It is not told in what year this second remittance happened, but it seems to have been either in 1790, or 1791. As to the exportation of coin, the laws of England are tyrannical. In July 1792, a gentleman embarked at Dover for Calais. He was ignorant of the

laws as to this point. The officers of the customs searched his baggage, and, finding ninety-one guineas, they took *the whole except five*, the sum permitted, by the act, to be exported.

THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.

PROVINCES.	CHIEF TOWNS.	S. M.
Madura	Madura,	16,400
Tanjore	Tanjore	} 33,550
East side of Bijnagar, or Carnatic	Tranquebar, Danes	
	Negapatam, English	
	Bijnagar	
	Porta-nova, Dutch	
	Fort St. David, English	
	Pondicherry*, } French	
	Conymere, }	
	Coblon	
	Sadraspatan, Dutch	
	St. Thomas, Portuguese	
Golconda	Fort St. George, or Madras, E. lon. 80-25 N. lat. 13 5. English	} 62,100
	Pullicate, Dutch	
Orissa	Golconda	
	Gani, or Ceulor; diamond mines	
	Massulipatam, English and Dutch	
	Visagapatam, English	
	Bimplipatam, Dutch	
	Cattack	
	Balafore, English	
	Tegapatam, Dutch	
	Angengo, English	
	Cochin, Dutch	
Decan, or Visapour	Callicut, } English	} 83,040
	Tellichery, }	
	Cannonore, Dutch	
	Mangalore, } Dutch and	
	Barcelore, } Portuguese	
	Raolconda, diamond mine	
	Cawar, English	
	Goa, Portuguese	
	Rajapore, French	
	Dabul, English	
Cambaya, or Guzerat	Dundee, } Portuguese	} 83,040
	Shoule, }	
	Bombay, isle and town, English, 18-58. N. lat. 92-40 E. lon.	
	Basseen, Portuguese	
	Salfette, English	
	Damon, Portuguese	
	Surat, East. lon. 72-50, N. lat. 21-11	
	Swalley	
	Barak, English and Dutch	
	Amedabad	
Cambaya		
Dieu, Portuguese		

* It is now (April, 1794) said, that this town has been lately taken by the English. It has been thought best, for the present, to let the table remain in its former state.

RIVERS.] The principal of these are the Cattrack, Mahanada, the mouths of which have never been traced; the Soane, the Nerbudda, the Puddai, the Godavery, and the Kistna, of which a principal branch passes within thirty miles east of Poonah.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND PRODUCE.] The chain of mountains running from north to south, renders it winter on one side of this peninsula, while it is summer on the other. About the end of June, a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which lasts, with continual rains, four months, during which time all is serene upon the coast of Coromandel. Towards the end of October, the rainy season and the change of the monsoon, begin on the Coromandel coast, which is destitute of good harbours. This renders it very dangerous for ships to remain there, during that time; and to this are owing the periodical returns of the English shipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coast. The air is naturally hot in this peninsula, but is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight till noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the sea, which last proves a great refreshment to the inhabitants of the coast. The produce of the soil is the same with that of the other parts of the East Indies.

The Teek forests, from whence the marine yard at Bombay is furnished with that excellent species of ship timber, lie along the western side of the Ghaut mountains, and other contiguous ridges of hills, on the north-east of Bassien; the numerous rivulets that descend from them, affording water-carriage for the timber. Ships of forty years old, and upwards, are common in the Indian seas, while ships built in Europe are ruined there in five years. The Spaniards build capital ships in their foreign settlements. The East India company have at present (1792) on her fourth voyage, a Teek ship; which has wintered in England. Bilsah, which is almost in the centre of India, affords tobacco of the most delicate kind, throughout that whole region*.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants in this part of India are blacker than those of the other peninsula, though the latter lie nearer to the equator.

PROVINCES, AND CITIES.] Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the southernmost point of the peninsula. It is about the extent of the kingdom of Portugal, and is said to have been governed by a sovereign king, who had under him seventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax. At present, the prince of the country is scarcely able to protect himself and his people from the depredations of his neighbours, but, by a tribute, buys them off. The capital is Trichinopoly. The chief value of this kingdom seems to consist in a pearl fishery upon its coast. Tanjore is a little kingdom, lying to the east of Madura. The soil is fertile, and its prince was rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and some British subjects connected with him. Within it lies the Danish settlement of Tranquebar, and the fortress of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch in the last war, and confirmed to the English by the late treaty of peace. The capital city is Tanjore, governed by the rajah, under the English protection.

The Carnatic is bounded on the east by the bay of Bengal, on the north by the river Kistna, which divides it from Golconda; on the west by Visapur, or Visapour, and, on the south, by the kingdoms of Messaur and Tanjore; being in length from south to north about three hundred and forty five miles. If Tanjore, Marwar,

* There is a difference of opinion, whether tobacco came originally from Asia or America. It was possibly indigenous to both continents. It is universal over Indostan and China; and appears to have been in use so long in the for-

mer, that it is not regarded as a new plant. It is there termed *Tambra patra*; that is, the copper, or copper coloured leaf.

Trichinopoly, Madura, and Tinevelly be included, and they are all appendages of the Carnatic, the length of it from north to south is five hundred and seventy miles, but it is no where more than one hundred and ten wide, and for the most part no more than eighty. The capital of the Carnatic is Bishnagar. The dominions of the nabob of Arcot commence on the south of the Guntoo circar, and extend along the whole coast of Coromandel to Cape Comorin. The country in general is esteemed healthful, and fertile. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lies fort St. David's or Cuddalore, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong and of importance to the British commerce. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, the emporium of the French in the East Indies, which hath been repeatedly taken by the English, and as often restored by treaties of peace.

Fort St. George, or Madras, is the capital of the English East India company's dominions in that part of the East Indies, and is distant eastward from London about four thousand eight hundred miles. Great complaints had been made of the situation of this fort; but no efforts have been spared, by the company, to render it impregnable by any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexion of their several inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an English corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to remove the natural badness of its situation. The diamond mines are but a week's journey distant. These mines are under the direction of a mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasurement, enclosing the contents by pallisadoes; all diamonds, above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The district, belonging to Madras, does not extend much more than forty miles round, and is of little value for its product. Eighty thousand inhabitants, of various nations, are said to be dependent upon Madras; but its safety consists in the superiority of the English by sea. It carries on a considerable trade with China, Persia, and Mocha.

Golconda is subject to the Nizam, or the soubah of the Decan, who is rich, and can raise one hundred thousand men. The famous diamond mine, Raolconda, is in this province. The capital of the Nizam's dominions is called Bagnager, or Hyderabad; but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda, and comprises the eastern part of Dowletabad. East south-east of Golconda, lies Masulipatam, where the English and Dutch have factories. The English have also factories at Ganjam and Visagapatam, on this coast; and the Dutch at Narsipore. The province of Orissa lies to the north of Golconda, extending, in length, from east to west, about five hundred and fifty miles, and in breadth, about two hundred and forty. In this province stands the temple of Jagernaut, which, they say, is attended by five hundred priests. The idol is an irregular pyramidical black stone, of about four or five hundred pounds weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to represent eyes, and the nose and mouth painted with vermilion.

Major Rennell observes, that there is a desert between the known parts of Berar, Golconda, Orissa, and the northern circars, three hundred miles in length, and two hundred and fifty in breadth. The English possessions in the northern circars extend only seventy miles by land; and, in some places, not more than thirty, which forms a slip of three hundred and fifty miles in length, bounded, towards the continent, by a ridge of mountains. Within these, and towards Berar, is an extensive tract of woody and mountainous country, with which the adjacent provinces appear to have scarcely any communication. Though surrounded by people highly civilized, and who abound in useful manufactures, it is said, that the few specimens of the miserable inhabitants of this tract, who have appeared in the circars, use no covering but a wisp of straw. This wild country extends about one hundred and sixty miles, and the first civilized people beyond them are the Berar Marattas.

The country of the Decan* comprehends several large provinces, and some kingdoms; particularly those of Baglana, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Visiapour. The names, dependencies, and governments of those provinces, are extremely unsettled; and since their reduction by Aurengzebe, or his father, they have been subject to almost annual revolutions and alterations. Modern geographers are not agreed upon their exact situation and extent; but, by the assistance of major Rennell's late Memoirs of a map of Indostan, and his new drawings, there is here inserted a new map of the country, which we hope will be found clear and accurate. The principal towns are, Aurungabad, and Doltabad, or Dowlatabad; the latter is the strongest place in all Indostan. Near it stands the famous pagoda of Elora, in a plain of about two leagues square. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thousand figures that surround it, are said to be cut out of the natural rock, and to surpass all the other efforts of human art. Telenga lies on the east of Golconda, and its capital, Beder, contains a garrison of three thousand men. The inhabitants of this province speak a language peculiar to themselves.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the gulf of Cambaya, and one of the finest in India, but inhabited by a fierce, rapacious people. It is said to contain thirty-five cities. Amedabab is the capital of the province, where there is an English factory, and is said, in wealth, to vie with the richest towns in Europe. About forty-three French leagues distant lies Surat, where the English have a flourishing factory.

Visiapour is a large province; the western part is called Konkan, which is intermingled with the Portuguese possessions. The rajah of Visiapour is said to have had a yearly revenue of six millions sterling, and to have brought into the field one hundred and fifty thousand soldiers. The capital is of the same name, and the country very fruitful. The principal places on this coast are, Daman, Bassaim, Trapor, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahpur, Dabul-Rajahpur, Gheriah, and Vingorla. The Portuguese have lost several valuable possessions on this coast, and those which remain, are on the decline.

Among the islands, lying upon the same coast, is that of Bombay, belonging to the English East India company. Its harbour can conveniently contain one thousand ships at anchor. The island itself is about seven miles in length, and twenty in circumference; but its situation and harbour are its chief recommendations, for it is destitute of almost all the conveniencies of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to English constitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance, taught them preservatives against its unwholesomeness; the best water there, is preserved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy seasons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of stone. Many black merchants reside here. This island was part of the portion paid with the infant of Portugal to Charles II. who gave it to the East India company; and the island is still divided into three Roman catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and what are called Roman catholic Mestizos and Canarins; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese, and the other aborigines of the country. The English have fallen upon methods to render this island and town, under all their disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable residence. The troops on the island are commanded by English officers; and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and disciplined, are here, and all over the East Indies, called seapoys. The inhabitants of the island amount to near sixty thousand, of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion, unmolested. Here, besides Europeans of all countries, we meet with Turks, Persians,

* The name of decan signifies the south, and, in its most extensive signification, includes the whole peninsula south of Indostan Proper. In its ordinary acceptation, it means only the countries situated between Indostan Proper,

the Carnatic, and Orissa; that is, the provinces of Candéish, Amednagar, Visiapour, and Orissa. *Rennell's Introduction to his Memoir of his Map of Indostan*, p. cxii.

Arabians, Armenians, a mixed race, descended from the Portuguese, and the outcasts from the Gentoo religion, and also captives that are slaves to every other tribe. The Turks that resort to this place, on account of trade, are, like the rest of their countrymen, stately, grave, and reserved. The Persians are more gay, lively, and conversible. The Armenians are generally agreeable in their features, mild in their tempers, and, in their nature, kind and beneficent. They are a sect of christians.

Near Bombay are several other islands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the most inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural size, cut coarsely in stone, presents itself on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain. An easy slope then leads to a stupendous temple, hewn out of the solid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantic figures, which have been mutilated by the blind zeal of the Portuguese. Beside the temple, are various images, and groupes on each hand, cut in the stone; one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance to the judgment of Solomon; also a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of resemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The island and city of Goa, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in the East Indies, lie about thirty miles south of Vingorla. The island is about twenty-seven miles in compass. It has one of the finest and best fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a most superb settlement, surpassed in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is the residence of a captain-general sent from Portugal, who lives in great splendor. The city stands upon the banks of a river of the same name, about twelve miles distant from the entrance of the harbour; the view up this river is truly delightful, the banks on either side are adorned with churches and country seats of the Portuguese, interspersed with groves and vallies. The river has several pleasing openings as it winds along; its banks are low, but the hills behind rise to an amazing height, and add grandeur to the spectacle, greatly tending also to beautify the prospect. The city of Goa itself is adorned with many fine churches, magnificently decorated; and has several handsome convents; the church of St. Augustine is a noble structure, and is adorned in the inside by many fine pictures. It stands on the top of a hill, from whence there is an extensive view of the city and adjacent country. The body of this church is spacious, and the grand altar-piece finished in the most elegant style.

There was formerly an inquisition at this place, but it is now abolished. The rich peninsula of Salvett is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies south of the Portuguese territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the Mogul.

Canoree lies about forty miles to the south of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its soil is famous for producing rice, that supplies many parts of Europe, and of the East Indies. Hyder Ali took many of its chief places, obtained great advantages over the company's troops, and brought his forces to the gates of Madras, but died before the conclusion of the war.

The dominions of Tipoo Saib, son of Hyder Ali, comprehended, before the war of 1790, the provinces of Mysore, Bednore, Zaimbetore, Zanaree, and Dindigal, besides his acquisitions to the northward from the Marattas; they were at least four hundred miles in length, and in the breadth from two hundred and ninety to one hundred and thirty.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole south-west coast of the peninsula, yet it is confined at present to the country so called, lying on the west of Cape Comorin, and called the dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic; and the country itself is rich and fertile, but pestered with

green adders, whose poison is incurable. The most remarkable places in Malabar, are Cranganore, already mentioned, containing a Dutch factory and fort; and Tellicherry, where the English have a small settlement, keeping a constant garrison of one battallion of seapoys, a company of artillery, and sometimes a company of European infantry; they are also able to raise about three thousand native militia. The view of the country round Tellicherry is very pleasant, consisting of irregular hills and vallies. Tellicherry is esteemed, by all who reside there, to be one of the healthiest places in India. It is much resorted to by convalescents. The pepper-vine grows in a curious manner, and something similar to the grape. The pepper on it, when fit to gather, appears in small bunches; it is in size something larger than the head of a small pea; pepper, however, is brought from some distance in the country. Tellicherry produces the coffee-tree. At Calicut the French and Portuguese have small factories, beside various other distinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the southernmost part of this peninsula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting, in the same garden, the two seasons of the year; the trees being loaded with blossoms and fruit on the one side, while on the other side they are stripped of all their leaves. This phenomenon is owing to a ridge of mountains which traverse the whole of the peninsula from south to north. On the opposite sides of the Cape, the winds are constantly at variance, blowing from the west on the west side, and from the east on the eastern side.

In the district of Cochin, within Malabar, there were some thousands of Jews.

We shall now lay before our readers, as exactly as possible, the present division of Indostan.

The principal divisions of this country, as they stood in 1782, were as follow; viz. The British possessions; states in alliance with Britain; Tipoo Saib's territories; Maratta states and their tributaries; and the territories of the soubah of the Decan.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

The British possessions consist of three distinct governments, viz.

Government of Calcutta or Bengal,	{ Bengal Subah Bahar Subah Benares Subah	} on the Ganges.
	Northern Circars	on the coast of Orissa.
Government of Madras,	{ The Jaghire Territory of Cuddalore ——— of Devicotta ——— of Negapatam	} on the coast of Coromandel.
Government of Bombay,		on the gulf of Cambry.

The capital and seat of administration, in the second of these governments, is Madras, or fort St. George. It is ill-situated, without a harbour, and badly fortified, yet contains upwards of two hundred thousand inhabitants. Fort St. David, in the territory of Cuddalore, is rich, flourishing, and contains sixty thousand inhabitants. Madulipatam, in the northern Circars, at one of the mouths of the Kistna, was formerly the most flourishing and commercial city on this coast; and, though much declined is still considerable.

The four northern Circars are defended in-land by a strong barrier of mountains and extensive forests, beyond which the country is totally unknown for a considerable space.

The government of Bombay is watered by the Tapee and Nerbudda. Its capital and seat of government is Bombay, in a small island and an unhealthy situation; but it is well fortified and has a fine harbour. Surat on the Tapee, which forms an indifferent port, is one of the most rich and commercial cities in Indoftan. Tellicherry, on the Malabar coast, is dependent on Bombay.

ALLIES OF THE BRITISH.

Dominions of the Nabob of Oude.	{ Fyzabad, Lucknow, Arcot, on the Paliar, is the capital, though the nabob usually resides at Madras. Gingee, the strongest Indian fortrefs in the Carnatic. Trinchinoply, near the Caveri, well fortified in the Indian manner, was rich and populous, containing near four hundred thousand inhabitants; now almost ruined by the numerous sieges it has sustained. Seringham Pagoda, in an island of the Caveri, famous in Indoftan for its sanctity. Chandegeri, the ancient capital of the empire of Narzingua, formerly rich and powerful, and populous; near it is the famous pagoda of Tripetti. The offerings of the numerous pilgrims who resort hither, bring in an immense revenue. Tanjore, Madura, and Tinivelly, are the capitals of small states of the same name, which, with Marawar, are dependent on the nabob of Arcot.
Dominions of the nabob of Arcot, comprehending the eastern part only of the ancient Carnatic.	{
Territory of Futty Sing Guicker, in the Subah of Guzera,	{ Amedabat, Cambay.
Territory of the rajah of Ghod.	{ Gwalior, a celebrated fortrefs.

TIPOO SAIB'S TERRITORIES, PREVIOUS TO THE WAR OF 1790.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Kingdom of Mysore —	Seringapatam on the Caveri
Bednore — — —	Bednore, or Hyder Nuggar
Canara — — —	Mangalore
Part of Malabar Proper —	Calicut.

MARATTA STATES AND THEIR TRIBUTARIES.

This extensive country is divided among a number of chiefs or princes.

Southern Poonah Marattas, are naturally strong, being intersected by the various branches of the Ghauts.	{ Satara, the nominal capital of the Maratta states; the Paishwa at present resides at Poonah. Aurungabad, Amednagar, and Vissapour, are in his territories.
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The Concan, or tract between the Ghauts and the sea, was subject to the pirate An-

gria, and his successors, whose capital was the strong fortress of Gheria, taken by the English and Marattas in 1755.

Berar Marattas, their country is very little known to Europeans.

Nagpou is the capital.

Balassore has considerable trade.

Cuttack on the Mahanada, an important post, which renders this nation a formidable enemy to the British, as it cuts off the communication between the governments of Bengal and Madras.

Northern Poonah Marattas, governed at present by Scindia, Holkar, and some other less considerable princes.

Ougein, the residence of Scindia.

Territory of the Soubah of the decan.

Hydrabad is the capital

Country of the Abdalli. This government, which includes the soubah of Cabul, and the neighbouring parts of Persia, was formed by Abdalla, one of the generals of Thamas Kouli Khan, when, on the death of that usurper, his empire was dismembered; its capital is Candahar.

Country of the Seiks. They are said to consist of a number of small states independent of each other, but united by a federal union.

Country of the Jaits or Getes, very little known to Europeans.

Country of Zabeda Cawn, an Afghan Rohilla.

Territory of Agra on the Jumna.

Ferrukabad, or country of the Patan Rohillas, on the Ganges, surrounded by the dominions of Oude.

Bundelcund.

Travancore, near Cape Comorin.

P E R S I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 1300	} between	{	44 and 70 east longitude.	800,000,
Breadth 1100			25 and 44 north latitude.	

BOUNDARIES MODERN Persia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghistan, which divide it from Circassian Tartary, on the north-west; by the Caspian sea, which divides it from Russia, on the north; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Usbec Tartary, on the north-east; by India, on the east; by the Indian ocean, and the gulfs of Persia and Ormus, on the south; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the west.

This kingdom is divided into the following provinces; on the frontiers of India are Chorasan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Esterabad; Sableufan, including the ancient Bactriana and Candahor; and Sigistan, the ancient

Drangiana. The southern division contains Makeran, the ancient Gedrosia, and Farfistan, the ancient Persia. The south-west division, on the frontiers of Turkey, contains the provinces of Chufistan, the ancient Susiana, and Irac-Agem, the ancient Parthia. The north-west division, lying between the Caspian sea and the frontiers of Turkey in Asia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media; Gangea, Daghistan, part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan, and Mazanderan.

AIR.] Those countries which border upon Caucasus, Daghistan, and the mountains near the Caspian sea, are cold; as these adjacent mountains are commonly covered with snow. The air, in the midland provinces of Persia, is serene and pure, but in the southern provinces, it is hot, and sometimes communicates noxious blasts to the midland parts.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND } These vary like the air. Towards Tartary and the Cas-
ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. } pian sea, the soil is far from being luxuriant, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn, and fruits. South of mount Taurus, the fertility of the country, in corn, fruits, wine, and other luxuries of life, is equalled by few others. It produces wine and oil in plenty; senna, rhubarb, and the finest of drugs. The fruits are delicious, especially the dates, oranges, pistchio nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden stuff. There are vast quantities of excellent silk; and the gulf of Bassora formerly supplied great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts near Ispahan produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, the roses especially, are extracted waters of a salubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful article in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia, are of a most exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as some nations in Europe, by transplanting, ingrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian assafœtida flows from a plant called hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauce of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

No place in the world produces the necessaries of life in greater abundance and perfection than the valley of Shirauz; nor is there a more delightful spot in nature to be conceived, either for the salubrity of the air, or for the profusion of whatever is necessary to render life comfortable and agreeable. The fields yield plenty of rice, wheat and barley, which the farmers generally begin to reap in the month of May, and by the middle of July, the harvest is completed. Most of the European fruits are produced here, and many of them are superior in size and flavour to what can be raised in Europe, particularly the apricot and grape. Of the grapes of Shirauz, there are several sorts, all of them very good, but two or three more particularly so than the rest; the large white grape is extremely, luscious to the taste; the small white grape, as sweet as sugar; and of the black grape, the celebrated wine of Shirauz is made. People who have drunk this wine, for a space of time, seldom relish any other, though at the first taste, it is rather unpleasant to an European. It is pressed by the Armenians and Jews in the months of October and November, and a vast deal is exported annually to Abu Shehr, and other places, in the Persian gulf, to supply the Indian market. The pomegranate is excellent; the Persians call it the fruit of Paradise.

The breed of horses, in the province of Fars, is very indifferent, owing to the ruinous state of the country; but in the province of Dushtistan, lying to the south-west, it is remarkably good. The sheep are of a superior flavour, owing to the excellence of the pasturage in the neighbourhood of Shirauz, and are also celebrated for the fineness of their fleeces. They have tails of an extraordinary size; some weigh upwards of thirty pounds; but those which are sold in the markets, do not weigh above six or seven. The oxen are large and strong, but beef is seldom eaten by the natives, who confine themselves chiefly to mutton and fowls.

Provisions of all kinds are very cheap; and the neighbouring mountains afford an ample supply of snow throughout the year, which is gathered on their tops, brought in carts to Shirauz, and sold in their markets. The price of provisions is regulated in this city with the greatest exactness, by the judge of the police, who sets a fixed price upon every article, and no shop-keeper dares to demand more, under the penalty of losing his nose and ears. By this means, the poorest inhabitants are secured from imposition.

MOUNTAINS.] Caucasus and Ararat are called the mountains of Daghistan; the vast collection of mountains called Taurus, and their divisions, run through the middle of the country, from Natolia to India.

RIVERS.] No country, of so great an extent, has so few navigable rivers as Persia. The most considerable are the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxus, which rises in or near the mountains of Ararat, and, joining the Cyprus, falls into the Caspian Sea. Some small rivulets, falling from the mountains, water the country; but their streams are so inconsiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even with boats. The Oxus can scarcely be called a Persian river, although it divides Persia from Usbec Tartary. Persia has the river Indus on the east, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the west.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Persia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and, above all, turquoise stones, which are found in Chorasan. Sulphur, saltpetre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of white, red and black marble, have also been discovered near Tauris.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.} It is impossible to speak with any certainty concerning the population of a country so little known as Persia. If we are to judge by the vast armies, in modern as well as ancient times, raised there, the numbers whom it contains must be very great. The Persians, of both sexes, are generally handsome. Their complexions, towards the south, are somewhat swarthy. The men shave their heads; but they suffer a lock to grow on each side, and the hair to reach from their chin up to their temples. Religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans. They wear a maxim to keep their heads very warm, so that they never pull off their caps or turbans, out of respect, even to the king. Their dress is very simple. Next to their skin, they wear calico shirts; over them a vest, which reaches below the knee, girt with a sash; and over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their clothes, however, are commonly very expensive; consisting of the richest furs, silks, muslin, cottons, and the like valuable stuffs, richly embroidered with gold and silver. They wear a kind of loose boots on their legs, and slippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expensive in their equipages. They wear, at all times, a dagger, in their sash, and linen trowsers. The collars of their shirts and clothes are open; so that their dress is better adapted for the purposes of health and activity than the long robes of the Turks. The dress of the women is not very different; and, like that of the men, is very costly.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent ablutions, which are the more necessary, as they seldom change their linen. Early in the morning they drink coffee; and about eleven, go to dinner upon fruits, sweatmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat, at their repasts, cakes of rice, and others of wheat flour; and, as they esteem it an abomination, to cut either bread or any kind of meat after it is dressed, these cakes are made thin, that they may be easily broken with the hand; their meat, which is generally mutton, or fowls, is so prepared, that they divide it with their fingers. When the table is set in order before them, they eat in haste, and without any ceremony. They use opium, but not in such excess as the Turks; nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are great masters of

ceremony towards their superiors. They accommodate Europeans who visit them with stools, that they may not be forced to sit cross-legged. They smoke tobacco through a tube fixed in water, so as to be cool in the mouth, and when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country, rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Persians are fond of poetry, moral sentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars and their national revolutions, have mingled the native Persians with foreign nations. They are pleasing and agreeable in their behaviour.

The Persians, like the Hebrews, write from the right to the left; are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed in their manuscripts, for no printing is allowed there, is incredible. They are ostentatious in their equipages and dresses; and, like the Turks, and other eastern nations, are jealous of their women. They are fond of music, and take a pleasure in conversing in large companies. Their chief diversions are those of the field, hunting, hawking, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms, in all which they are very dexterous. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beasts; and privately play at games of chance.

There are places in Shirauz, distinguished by the name of Zoor Khana, the house of strength or exercise, to which the Persians resort for the sake of exercising themselves. These houses consist of one room, with the floor sunk about two feet below the surface of the earth, and the light and air are admitted to the apartment by means of several small holes made in the dome. In the centre is a large square terrace of earth, well beaten down, smooth and even; and, on each side, are small alcoves, raised about two feet above the terrace, where the musicians and spectators are seated. When all the competitors are assembled, which is on every Friday morning by day-break, they immediately strip themselves to the waist; and each man puts on a pair of thick woolen drawers, and takes in his hands two wooden clubs of about a foot and a half in length, and cut in the shape of a pear; these they rest upon each shoulder, and the music striking up, they move them backward and forward with great agility, stamping with their feet at the same time, and straining every nerve till they produce a very profuse perspiration. After continuing this exercise about half an hour, upon a signal given, they all leave off, quit their clubs, and, joining hands in a circle, begin to move their feet very briskly in unison with the music, which is all the while playing a lively tune. Having continued this for some time, they commence wrestling, in which the master of the house is always the challenger; and, being accustomed to the exercise, often proves conqueror. The spectators each pay money equal to the sixteenth part of a dollar, for which they are refreshed with tobacco and coffee. This mode of exercise must contribute to health, as well as add strength, vigour, and a manly appearance to the frame.

The Persians, with respect to outward behaviour, are certainly the Parisians of the east. Whilst a rude and insolent demeanor peculiarly marks the character of the Turkish nation towards foreigners and christians, the behaviour of the Persians would, on the contrary, do honour to the most civilized nations. They are kind, courteous, civil, and obliging to all strangers, without being degraded by those religious prejudices, so prevalent in every other Mahometan nation. They are fond of enquiring after the manners and customs of Europe; and, in return, afford copious information with respect to their own country. The practice of hospitality is, with them, so grand a point, that a man thinks himself highly honoured if you will enter his house and partake of what the family affords; whereas, going out of a house, without smoking, or taking any refreshment, is deemed, in Persia, a high affront; they say, that every meal, of which a stranger partakes with them, brings a blessing upon the house.

The Persians, in their conversation, use such extravagant and hyperbolical compliments on trifling occasions, that it would at first inspire a stranger with an idea, that every inhabitant of the place was willing to lay down his life, shed his blood, or spend his money in your service; and this mode of address is observed, not only by those of a higher rank, but even among the meanest artificers. The lowest of them will make no scruple, on your arrival, of offering you the city of Shirauz as a present. Freedom of conversation is a thing so totally unknown in Persia, as that *walls have ears*, is proverbially in the mouth of every one. The fear of chains, which bind their bodies, has also enslaved their minds.

In conversation, the Persians aspire at elegance, and repeat verses from the works of their most favourite poets, Hafez, Sadi, and Jami; a practise universally prevalent from the highest to the lowest; because those who have not the advantages of reading and writing, are, by the help of their memories, which are very retentive, always ready to bear their part in conversation. They delight in jokes and quaint expressions, and are fond of playing upon each other; which they sometimes do with great elegance and irony. They always pay attention to the person speaking, whom they never interrupt on any account. They are, in general graceful, and in many respects, a handsome people; their complexions are as fair as those of some Europeans.

MARRIAGES.] When the parents of a young man have determined upon marrying him, they look out, amongst their kindred and acquaintance, for a suitable match; they then go to the house of the intended bride. If the father of the woman approves, he immediately orders sweetmeats to be brought in, which are taken as a direct sign of compliance. After this, the usual presents on the part of the bridegroom are made, which, if the person be in middling circumstances generally consist of two complete suits of apparel of the best sort, a ring, a looking-glass, and a small sum in ready money, about the value of one hundred and fifty dollars, which is to provide for the wife in case of divorce. There is also provided a quantity of household stuff of all sorts, such as carpets, mats, bedding, utensils for dressing victuals, &c. The contract is witnessed by the *cadi*, or magistrate. The wedding-night being come, the bride is brought forth, covered from head to foot, in a veil of red silk, or painted muslin; a horse is then presented for her to mount, which is sent by the bridegroom; and when she is mounted, a large looking-glass is held before her by one of the bridesmaids, all the way to the house of her husband, as an admonition to her, that it is the last time she will look into the glass as a virgin, being now about to enter into the cares of the married state. The procession then sets forward in the following order. First, the music and dancing girls, after which are the presents in trays, borne upon men's shoulders; next come the relations and friends of the bridegroom, all shouting, and making a great noise. These are followed by the bride herself, surrounded by all her female connexions, one of whom leads the horse by the bridle, and several others, on horseback, close the procession. Rejoicings, upon this occasion, generally continue eight or ten days. Men may marry for life, or any determined time, in Persia, as well as through all Tartary; and travellers or merchants, who intend to stay some time in any city, commonly apply to the *cadi*, or judge, for a wife during the time that they propose to stay. The *cadi*, for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honest, and free from diseases; and he becomes surety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Russian embassy to Persia declares, that among thousands there has not been one instance of their dishonesty during the time agreed upon.

FUNERALS.] The funerals of the Persians are conducted in a manner similar to those in other Mahometan countries. On the death of a mussulman, the relations, and friends of the deceased assemble, and make loud lamentations over the body; after which it is washed, laid out on a bier, and carried to the place of interment

without the city walls, attended by a priest, who chaunts passages from the Koran all the way to the grave. If any mussulman should chance to meet the corpse during his procession, he is obliged, by the precepts of his religion, to advance to the bier, and offer his assistance in carrying it to the grave, crying out at the same time, *Lab Illab Ill Lillab !* There is no God, but God. After interment, the relations of the deceased return home, and the women of the family make a mixture of wheat, honey, and spices, which they eat in memory of the deceased, sending a part of it to their friends and acquaintance, that they also may pay him a like honour.

RELIGION.] The Persians are Mahometans of the sect of Ali; for which reason the Turks, who follow the succession of Omar and Abu-Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion, in many points, is blended with some bramin superstitions. When they are taxed by the christians with drinking strong liquors, as many of them do, they answer very sensibly, "You christians get drunk and debauched though you know that you are committing sins, which is the very case with us." Having mentioned the bramins, the comparison between them and the Persian *guebres* or *gours*, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the ancient magi, the followers of Zoroaster, might be worth a learned disquisition. Both of them held originally pure and simple ideas of a supreme being; but the Indian bramins and *parsees* accuse the *gours*, who still worship fire, of having sensualised those ideas, and introduced an evil principle into the government of the world. A combustible ground, about ten miles distant from Baku, a city in the north of Persia, is the scene of the devotions of the *guebres*. This ground is impregnated with inflammatory substances, and contains several old temples; in one of which the *guebres* pretend to preserve the sacred flame of the universal fire, which rises from the end of a large hollow cane thrust into the ground, resembling a lamp burning with very pure spirits. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the *gours*, who were banished out of Persia by Shah Abbas. The sect is said to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Persians and the Romans seem early to have driven the ancient christians into Persia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many sects are found, that evidently have christianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called *Souffees*, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mahometanism; and are numerous towards the Persian gulf. The Armenian and Georgian christians are very numerous in Persia. The present race of Persians are said to be very cool in their doctrines of Mahomet, owing chiefly to their late wars with the Turks.

The Persians observe the fast during the month of Ramazan, the ninth month of the Mahometan year, with great strictness and severity. About an hour before day-light they eat a meal, and from that time until the next evening at sun-set, they neither eat, nor drink of any thing whatever. Their fast is even so rigid, that if, in the course of the day, the smoke of tobacco, or the smallest drop of water reaches their lips, the fast is, in consequence, deemed broken, and of no avail. From sun-set to the next morning they are allowed to refresh themselves. This fast, when the month Ramazan falls in the middle of summer, as it sometimes must do, the Mahometan year being lunar, is extremely severe, especially to those who are obliged, by their occupation, to go about during the day-time; and it is rendered still more so, as there are several nights during its existence, which they are enjoined to spend in prayer. The Persians particularly observe two; the one being that in which their prophet Ali died of a wound, which he received from the hands of an assassin. The other is the twenty-third night of the month in which they affirm that the koran was brought down from heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel, and delivered to their prophet Mahomet.

LANGUAGE.] It has been disputed among the learned, whether the Arabs had their language from the Persians; but this chiefly rests on the great intermixture of Arabic words in the Persian language, and the decision seems to be in favour of the Arabs. The common people, especially towards the southern coasts of the Caspian sea, speak Turkish; and the Arabic probably was introduced into Persia under the caliphate, when learning flourished in those countries. Many of the learned Persians have written in the Arabic, and people of quality have adopted it as the modish language, as many European nations do the French. The pure Persian is said to be spoken in the southern parts, on the coast of the Persian gulf, and in Ispahan; but many of the provinces speak a barbarous mixture of the Turkish, Russian, and other languages. Their pater-noster is of the following tenor. *Ei Padere ma kib der ofsoni; pac bashed mam tu; bayayed padeshabi tu; sebwad chwawste tu kenzjunaaukib der ofson niz derzemini; beb mara jmrrouz nan kefas rouz mara; wadarguasar mara konaban ma zjunankibma niz mig sarim orman mara; wador ozmajjeh minedazzmara; likin cbalas kun mara ez efberir. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for both; and their poets were renowned throughout the east. There is a manuscript at Oxford, containing the lives of a hundred and thirty-five of the finest Persian poets. Ferdusi and Sadi were among the most celebrated. The former comprised the history of Persia in a series of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are said to be a monument of eastern genius and learning. Sadi was a native of Shirauz. He flourished in the thirteenth century, and wrote many fine pieces, both in prose and verse. Shemseddin was one of the most eminent lyric poets that Asia has produced. Nakhseeb wrote, in Persian, a book called the "Tales of a parrot" not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was a most animated and elegant poet who flourished in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whose beautiful compositions, on a great variety of subjects, are preserved at Oxford, in twenty two volumes. Hariri composed, in a rich, elegant, and flowery style, a moral work, in fifty dissertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interspersed with a number of agreeable adventures, and several fine pieces of poetry.

Of Hafez, the sprightly and voluptuous bard of Shirauz, the name and character are sufficiently known to Orientalists. The most powerful monarchs of the east sought in vain to draw him from the enjoyment of literary retirement, and to purchase the praises of his muse by all the honours and splendor of a court. His works were the admiration of the jovial and the gay, and the manual of mystic piety to the superstitious Mahometan, the oracle, which, like the *Sortes Virgilianæ*, determined the counsils of the wise, and prognosticated the fate of armies and of states. Seventeen odes have been translated into English by Mr. Nott, with which he has published the originals, for the purpose of promoting the study of the Persian language.

The tomb of this admired poet stands about two miles distant from the walls of the city of Shirauz, on the north-east side. It is placed in a large garden, and under the shade of some cypress trees, of an extraordinary size and beauty; it is composed of fine white marble from Tauris, eight feet in length and four in breadth. This was built by Kerim Khan, and covers the original one. On the top and sides of the tomb, are select pieces from the poet's own works, most beautifully cut in the Persian Nustaleek character. During the spring and summer seasons, the inhabitants visit it, and amuse themselves with smoking, playing at chess and other games, reading also the works of Hafez, who is in greater esteem with them than any other of their poets, and they venerate him almost to adoration, never speaking of him but in the highest terms of rapture and enthusiasm; a most elegant copy of his works is always kept upon the tomb, for the inspection of all who go there. The

principal youth of the city assemble here, and show every possible mark of respect for their favourite poet, making plentiful libations, of the delicious wine of Shirauz, to his memory. Close by the garden runs the stream of Roknabad, so celebrated in the works of Hafez, and, within a small distance, the sweet bower of Mosellay.

At present, learning is at a low ebb among the Persians. The learned profession, in greatest esteem among them, is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer, which often defeats the ends of the prescription. It is said, however, that the Persian physicians are acute and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no strangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country; many diseases fatal in other places, are equally rare; such as the gout, the stone, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore circumscribed; and they are very ignorant in surgery, which is exercised by barbers, whose chief occupation is in letting blood; for they trust the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The monuments of antiquity in Persia, are
 NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } more celebrated for their magnificence, and expense, than their beauty or taste. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Persepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and composed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient building are found in many parts of Persia, but void of that elegance and beauty which is displayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Persia are stupendous works; being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with sculptures. The chief of modern edifices, is a pillar at Ispahan, sixty feet high, consisting of the skulls of beasts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the suppression of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect such a column of human skulls; but upon the submission of the rebels, he performed his vow by substituting the others; each of the insurgents furnishing one.

The baths, near Gombroon, work such cures, that they are esteemed among the natural curiosities of Persia. The springs of the famous Naphtha near Baku, are mentioned often in natural history for their surprising qualities; but the chief of the natural curiosities in this country, is the burning phenomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood already mentioned under the article of religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES.] The houses of men of quality, in Persia are in the same taste with those of the Asiatic Turks already described. They are seldom above one story high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumsy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office houses being built apart. Few of them have chimnies, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly consists of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which serve them likewise as coverlids, with carpets under them.

Ispahan the capital of Persia, is seated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which supplies it with water. It is said to be twelve miles in circumference. The streets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amusement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houses, where they spend their summer evenings; and different families associate together. The royal square is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth; and it is said, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Ispahan one hundred and sixty mosques, one thousand eight hundred caravans, two hundred and sixty public baths, a prodigious number of fine squares, streets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to shade and better accommodate the

people. This capital is said, formerly to have contained six hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars; so that we may easily suppose, that it has lost great part of its magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above five thousand of its houses were inhabited.

Shirauz lies about two hundred and twenty-five miles to the south east of Ispahan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful, being laid out, for many miles, in gardens; the flowers, fruits, and vines of which are incomparable. The wines of Shirauz are reckoned the best of any in Persia. This town is the capital of Faristan, or Persia Proper, and has a college for the study of eastern learning, where the arts and sciences were taught; and is the same as that mentioned by Sir John Chardin, who visited this city in the last century. It is decaying very fast, but there are still mullahs and religious men residing in it. At present, it goes by the name of Mudrussa Khan, or the Khan's College; but literature and the sciences have long since been neglected at Shirauz, and the present situation of the country does not seem to promise a speedy revival. This city contains an uncommon number of mosques, and is adorned by many noble buildings; but its streets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above four thousand of its houses are inhabited. Shirauz has many good bazars and caravanserais: the bazar, built by Kerim Khan, is the handsomest. It is a long street, extending about a quarter of a mile, made entirely of brick. It is lofty and well laid out; on each side are the shops of the tradesmen, merchants, and others, in which are exposed for sale, a variety of goods of all kinds. These shops are the property of the khan, and are rented to the merchants at a very easy monthly rate. Leading out of this bazar, is a spacious caravanserai, of an octagon form, built of brick; the entrance is through a handsome arched gate-way. In the centre is a place for the baggage and merchandise; and on the sides, above and below, commodious apartments for the merchants and travellers. These are also rented at a moderate monthly sum. About the centre of the above-mentioned bazar, is another spacious caravanserai of a square form, the front of which is ornamented with a blue and white enamelled work, in order to represent China ware, and has a pleasing effect to the eye.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Persian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The English and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with Persians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which set out from various inland cities of Asia, under the convoy of guards.

[**MOSQUES AND BAGNIOS.**] We have placed them here, under a general head, as their form of building is pretty much the same all over the Mahometan countries.

Mosques are religious buildings, square, and generally of stone; before the chief gate there is a square court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whose roof is supported by marble pillars. Those galleries serve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the mosque. About every mosque there are six high towers called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. These towers, as well as the mosques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter the mosques; nor can a man, with his shoes or stockings on. Near most mosques is a place of entertainment for strangers during three days, and the tomb of the founder, with conveniences for reading the koran and praying.

The city of Shirauz is adorned with many fine mosques, particularly that built by the late Kerim Khan, which is a noble one. It is of a square form; in the centre is a stone reservoir of water, made for performing the necessary ablutions, previous to

prayer; on the four sides of the building are arched apartments, allotted for devotion, some of the fronts of which are covered with China tiles; but Kherim Khan dying before the work was completed, the remainder has been made up with a blue and white enamelled work. Within the apartments, on the walls, on each side, are engraved various sentences from the koran, in the Nushki character; and at the upper end of the square, is a large dome with a cupola at top, which is the particular place appropriated for the devotion of the vakeel or sovereign. This is lined throughout with white marble, ornamented with the curious blue and gold artificial lapis lazuli, and has three large silver lamps suspended from the roof of the dome. In the centre of the city is another mosque, which the Persians call the Musjidi Noo, or the New Mosque, but its date is nearly coeval with the city itself, at least since it has been inhabited by Mahometans. It is a square building, of a large size, and has apartments, for prayer, on each side; in them are many inscriptions in the old Cusick character, which, of themselves, denote the antiquity of the place.

The bagnios, in the Mahometan countries, are well constructed for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but oftener circular, built of white, well-polished stone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the first, for dressing and undressing; the second contains the water; and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholesome; though, to those not accustomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour; then handles and stretches his limbs as if he was dislocating every bone in the body; all which exercises are, in those inert, warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from the morning to four in the afternoon; when all male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and when coming out of the bath, display their finest clothes.

We might here attempt to describe the eastern seraglios, or harems, the women's apartments; but, from the most credible accounts, they are contrived according to the state and convenience of the owner, and divided into a number of apartments, which are seldom or never entered by strangers. There is no country where women are more strictly guarded than in Persia.

POLICE.] The police in Shirauz, as well as all over Persia, is very good. At sunset the gates of the city are shut; no person whatever is permitted to come in or go out during the night, the keys of the different gates being always sent to the governor, and remaining with him until morning. During the night, three drums are beaten at three different times; the first at eight o'clock, the second at nine, and a third at half past ten. After the third drum has sounded, all persons whatsoever found in the streets by the daroga, or judge of the police, or by any of his people, are instantly taken up, and conveyed to a place of confinement, where they are detained until next morning, when they are carried before the governor; and if they cannot give a very good account of themselves, are punished, either by the bastinado, or a fine.

Civil matters are all determined by the Cazi, and ecclesiastical ones, by an officer answering to the Mufti in turkey. Justice is carried on, in Persia, in a very summary manner; the sentence, whatever it is, being always put in execution on the spot. Theft is generally punished with the loss of nose and ears; robbing on the road, by ripping up the belly of the criminal, in which situation he is exposed upon a gibbet in one of the most public parts of the city, and there left until he expires in torment; a dreadful punishment, but it renders robberies, in Persia, very uncommon.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Persians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world, in silk, woolen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in these, join fancy, taste, and elegance, to richness, neatness, and show; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dying ex-

cels that of Europe. Their silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroideries and horse furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artists; which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia. Their jewellers and goldsmiths are clumsy workmen; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpressible disadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them slaves to their kings, who often engross either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That with the English and other nations, by the gulf of Ormus, at Gombroon, was the most gainful they had; but the perpetual wars in which they were engaged, have ruined their commerce. The scheme of the English, in trading with the Persians through Russia, promised advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto answered the expectations of neither.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Both these are extremely precarious, as resting in the breast of a despotic, and often capricious monarch. The Persians, however, had some fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne, female descendants. Blindness, likewise, was a disqualification for the royal succession. In other respects, the king's will was a law for the people. The instances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practised by the Mahometan kings of Persia, are almost incredible, especially during the two last centuries. The reason given to the christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their most savage princes, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exercise of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill grounded apology for his barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors; and the smallest disobedience to their will, is attended with immediate death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility, so that the respect due to every man, on account of his high station, expires with himself. The king has been known to prefer a younger son to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

REVENUES.] The king claims one-third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No rank or condition of Persians is exempted from severe taxations and services. The governors of provinces have particular lands assigned to them, for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expenses of the court, king's household, and great officers of state. After saying thus much, the reader cannot doubt that the revenues of the Persian kings were prodigious; but nothing can be said, with any certainty, in the present distracted state of that country. Even the water that is let into the fields and gardens, is subject to a tax, and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a head.

HISTORY.] The Persian empire succeeded the Assyrian or Babylonian. Its foundation was laid by Cyrus, about five hundred and fifty-six years before Christ. It ended in the person of Darius Codomannus, who was conquered by Alexander, three hundred and twenty-nine years before Christ. Alexander's empire was divided among his generals, whose descendants, in less than three centuries, were conquered by the Romans. These last, however, never fully subdued Persia; and the natives had princes of their own, by the name of Arsacides, who, more than once, defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself, but were subdued by Tamerlane. His posterity were supplanted by a doctor of law, Cheki Adir, the ancestor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be descended from Mahomet himself. Some of his successors were valiant and politic, and

enlarged the empire, and from him were sometimes called Sophis; but most of them were a disgrace to humanity*. Haffein, a prince of the Sefi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himself was by Esref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the representative of the Sefi family, had escaped from the rebels, and, assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy, all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At last Nadir, assuming the name of Tahmas Kouli Khan, and pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded, rebelled against his sovereign, made him a prisoner, and, it is supposed, put him to death.

The usurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Nadir Shah. His expedition, into Indostan, has been mentioned in the description of that country. He next conquered Usbec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghestan Tartars, whose country he found to be inaccessible. He defeated the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to strike terror into his subjects, by the most cruel executions. His conduct became intolerable, and, in 1747, he was assassinated in his own tent, partly in self-defence, by his chief officers and his relations. Many pretenders arose upon his death; and it may naturally be supposed, that a chronological and an accurate account of these various and rapid revolutions, is very difficult to be obtained. The confusion which prevailed through the whole country, from the death of Nadir, until the settlement of Kerim Khan, impeded the progress of literature, arts, and sciences. During this interval, the whole empire of Persia was in arms, and rent by commotions; different parties, in different provinces of the kingdom, were struggling for power, and each endeavouring to render itself independent of the other; torrents of blood were shed, and the most shocking crimes committed with impunity. The whole face of the country, from Gombroon to Russia, presents to the view thousands of instances of the misery and devastation which had been occasioned by these commotions. The picture is too horrible to dwell upon.

From the accounts that we have been able to collect, the pretenders to the throne of Persia, from the death of Nadir Shaw until the final establishment of Kerim Khan's government, were no less than nine. Kerim Khan Zund was a favourite officer of Nadir Shaw, and, at the time of his death, was in the southern provinces. Shirauz and other places had declared for him. He found means, at last, after various encounters, with doubtful success, completely to subdue all his rivals, and, finally, to establish himself as ruler of Persia. He was in power about thirty years, in the latter part of which he governed Persia under the appellation of vakeel, or regent; for he never would receive the title of shah. He made Shirauz the chief city of his residence, in gratitude for the assistance he had received from its inhabitants. He died in the year 1779, in the eightieth year of his age, regretted by all his subjects, who esteemed and honoured him as the glory of Persia. His character is deservedly celebrated for the

* The instances of wanton cruelty, and the most savage barbarity, recorded of some of the kings of Persia, are shocking to humanity, and a striking evidence of the miseries and calamities occasioned by despotic power. Shah Abbas, surnamed the great, having three sons, caused the eyes of the two youngest to be put out, and afterwards put the eldest to death. He was succeeded by his grandson, who began his reign by ordering the eyes of his only brother to be cut out. He also cast from a rock his two uncles, who

had before been blinded by order of Shah Abbas. The instances of his cruelty were innumerable: he buried alive forty-four women of his haram, though, when he was not hunting, or over his cups, he used to pass his time with them. Sefle, or Suliman, who ascended the throne of Persia in 1660, was a brutal tyrant. When he was intoxicated either with wine or anger, he often ordered the hands, feet, ears, and noses, of those near him to be cut off, their eyes to be plucked out, or their lives to be sacrificed.

public buildings which he erected, and the excellent police which he maintained; so that, during his whole reign, there was not, in Shirauz, a single riot productive of bloodshed; besides these circumstances, his aversion to severe punishments, his liberality and kindness to the poor, his toleration of people of different persuasions, and his encouragement to trade, together with his military abilities and personal courage, rendered him beloved by his own subjects; and his kindness to Europeans acquired him the respect of foreign powers.

From the death of Kerim Khan to the present time, there have been various competitors for the crown of Persia. Of these we shall only mention the two principal. Akau Mahomet Khan keeps possession of the provinces of Mazanderan and Ghilan, as well as the cities of Ispahan, Hamadan, and Tauris, where he is acknowledged as sovereign. Jaafar Khan has possession of the city of Shirauz, and the provinces of Beaboon and Shuster: he also receives an annual present from the province of Carmania, and another from the city of Yezd; Abu Shehr and Lar also send him tribute. The southern provinces are, in general, more fruitful than those to the northward.

Jaafar Khan is a middle-aged man, very corpulent, and has a cast in his right eye; in the places where he is acknowledged, he is well beloved and respected; he is very mild in his disposition, and just. In Shirauz he keeps up a most excellent police, and good government. He is very kind and obliging to strangers in general, and to the English in particular. Of the two competitors who at present contend for the government of Persia, he is the most likely, in case of success against his opponent, to restore the country to a happy and reputable state; but it will require a long space of time, to recover it from the calamities into which the different revolutions have brought Persia, a country, if an oriental metaphor may be allowed, once blooming as the garden of Eden, fair and flourishing to the eye; now, sad reverse! despoiled and leafless by the cruel ravages of war, and desolating contention.

The forces of the two competitors are nearly equal, consisting of about twenty-thousand men, chiefly horse. This was the situation of the country in 1788, according to the report of the last advices, when the fate of Persia was still undecided.

A R A B I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 1430	} between	{ 35 and 60 east longitude.	{ 12 and 30 north latitude. }	700,000:
Breadth 1200				

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Turkey on the north; by the gulfs of Persia, or Bassora, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the east; by the Indian Ocean on the south; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Arabia Petræa, N.	{ ——— ——— }	{ SUEZ, E. lon. 33-27. N. lat. 29-50.
2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle.	{ Haggiaz or Mecca - }	{ MECCA, E. lon. 45-30 N. lat. 21.20.
	{ Tehama - - }	{ Siden Medina Dhafar
	{ Mocha - - }	{ MOCHA, E. lon. 44-45 N. lat. 13-45.
	{ Hadramut - - }	{ Sibit Hadramut
3. Arabia Felix, S. E.	{ Caffeen - - }	{ Caffeen
	{ Segur - - }	{ Segur
	{ Oman or Muscat - }	{ Muscat
	{ Jamama - - }	{ Jamama
	{ Bahara - - }	{ Elcalf

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, east of the Red-Sea, and those called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

RIVERS, SEAS, GULFS, AND CAPES.] There are few fountains, springs, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the north-east limits of it. It is almost surrounded by the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulfs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosolgate and Musledon.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] As a considerable part of this country lies under the Torrid Zone, and the tropic of Cancer passes over Arabia Felix, the air is excessively dry and hot, and the country is subject to hot, poisonous winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal, especially to strangers. The soil, in some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and sometimes form mountains, by which whole caravans have been buried or lost. In these deserts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, says Dr. Shaw, are no pastures clothed with flocks, nor vallies standing thick with corn; here are no vineyards or olive-yards; but the whole is a lonesome, desolate wilderness, no otherwise diversified than by plains covered with sand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is the country ever, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day-time. But the southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea coasts, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, frankincense, spikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamum, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a small quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates, which last are found scarcely any where in such perfection as here and in Persia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS.] The most useful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by Providence for traversing the dry and parched deserts of this

country; for they are so formed, that they can throw up the liquor from their stomach into their throat, by which means they can travel six or eight days without water. The camels usually carry eight hundred pounds weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to rest, and in due time rise with their load. The dromedary is a small camel with two bunches on its back, and remarkably swift. It is an observation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will smell it a distance, and set up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horses are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of the English. They are only fit for the saddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their swiftness and high mettle. The finest breed is in the kingdom of Sunnaa, in which Mocha is situated.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } The Arabians are of a middle stature, thin, and of
CUSTOMS, AND DRESS. } a swarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are swift of foot, excellent horsemen, and are said to be in general a brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, since they became acquainted with fire-arms, good marksmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place, with their flocks and herds, as they have ever done since they became a nation.

The Arabians, in general are such thieves, that travellers and pilgrims, who are led to their country through motives of devotion or curiosity, are struck with terror on their approach towards the deserts. Those robbers traverse the country in considerable troops, on horseback: they assault and plunder the caravans. So late as the year 1750, a body of fifty thousand Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about sixty thousand persons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a Turkish army. On the sea-coast they are mere pirates, and make prize of every vessel that they can master, of whatever nation.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue shirt, tied about them with a white sash or girdle; and some of them have a vest of furs or sheep-skins over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of the men go almost naked; but the women are so wrapped up, that little of them can be discerned but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of flesh, except that of hogs; and prefer the flesh of camels, as we prefer venison, to other meat. They drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and, like them, refuse such fish as have no scales. Coffee and tea-water, and sherbet made of oranges, water and sugar, is their usual drink; they have no strong liquors.

LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.] Though the Arabians, in former ages, were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarcely a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language, used in Arabia, is the Arabick, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the east, from Egypt to the court of the great mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, is accounted by the people of the east the richest, most energetic, and copious language in the world. It is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin are among Europeans, and is used by Mahometans in their worship; for, as the koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other. They look upon it to have been the language of Paradise, and think no man can be master of it without a miracle, as consisting of several millions of words. The books which treat of it say, that they have a thousand terms to express the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of *lion*.

The Pater-noster in the Arabic is as follows. *Abuna elladki fi-ssamwat; jekaddas esmac;*

tati malacutac : taouri mafchatic, cama fi ffama ; kedhalec ala lardh aating cbobzena kefatna iaum beiaum ; wagfor lena donubena, wackataina, cama nogfor nachna lemen aca doina ; wala tadalbcbalna fikajarib ; laken mejjina me mescberir. Amen.

CHIEF CITIES, &c.] What is called the desert of Sinai, is a beautiful plain, near nine miles long, and above three in breadth ; it lies open to the north-east, but to the southward, is closed by some of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai.

On those mountains, are many chapels and cells, possessed by the Greek and Latin monks. The chief cities in Arabia are Mochà, Aden, Muschat, Suez, and Juddah, or Gedda.

Mocha is well built ; the houses are very lofty. The harbour is semicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are several handsome mosques in the city. Suez, the Arsinoe of the ancients, is surrounded by the desert, and is but an ill-built place. Ships are forced to anchor a league from the town, the leading channel to which has only about nine feet of water. Judda is the place of the greatest trade in the Red Sea, for there the commodities of Arabia and Europe are interchanged ; Arabia sending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c. and from Europe come cloths, iron, furs, and other articles by way of Cairo. The revenues, arising from these, with the profits of the port, are shared by the grand signior and the xeriff of Mecca, to whom, jointly, this place belongs.

Mecca, the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deserve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth place of Mahomet, is a mosque that is generally esteemed the most magnificent in the Turkish dominions. Its lofty roof is raised in the fashion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, which make a delightful appearance, and are conspicuous at a great distance. The mosque hath an hundred gates, with a window over each ; and the whole building within is decorated with the finest gildings and tapestry. The number of pilgrims, who yearly visit this place, is almost incredible ; every mussulman being obliged, by his religion, to come here once in his life-time, or send a deputy. At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the city to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a stately mosque, supported by four hundred pillars, and furnished with three hundred silver lamps, continually burning. It is called the *Most Holy*, by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of Mahomet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue, which the bashaw of Egypt renews every year. The camel which carries it, derives a sort of sanctity from this office, and is never used in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich, golden crescent, most curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones of great value. Pilgrims resort thither, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

GOVERNMENT.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are styled xerifs and imans, both of them including the offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the califs of the Saracens, the successors of Mahomet. These monarchs appear to be absolute. The succession is hereditary, and they have no other laws than those found in the koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs are subject to the Turks, and governed by bashaws ; but they receive large gratuities from the grand signior, for protecting the pilgrims that pass through their country, from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no regular militia ; but their kings command both the persons and purses of their subjects, as the necessity of affairs requires.

HISTORY.] The Arabs are, at present, and have remained from the remotest ages, during the various conquests of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, independent. Towards the north, and the sea coasts of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe

by the Turks, but the wandering tribes, in the southern and inland parts, acknowledge themselves subjects of no foreign inland power, and do not fail to harass and annoy all strangers who come into their country. The conquests of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their history, as the independence and freedom which they have ever enjoyed. Their conquests and religion, began with one man, whose character forms a singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of that division of Arabia, which, from the luxuriancy of the soil, and mild temperature of its climate, is distinguished by the epithet of Happy.

Mahomet was born anno 569, in the reign of Justinian II. emperor of Constantinople. Though illiterate, he was endowed with a subtle genius, and possessed a degree of enterprise beyond his condition. He had been employed, in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor; and had occasion in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, upon whose death he married his widow, Cadija, and, by her means, came to be possessed of great wealth. During his travels, he had observed a variety of sects in religion, whose hatred against each other was inveterate, while, at the same time, the greater part of them were agreed in many particulars. He carefully laid hold of these, and, by addressing himself to the love of power, riches, and pleasure, expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which had hitherto been established. Mahomet was subject to frequent fits of the epilepsy; and made his credulous disciples believe that these fits were trances, into which he was miraculously thrown by the Deity, during which he was instructed in his will, which he was commanded to publish to the world. By this story, and by leading a retired, abstemious, and austere life, he acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance, and neighbours. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the numbers, and the enthusiasm of his followers, he declared himself a prophet, sent into the world to teach the divine will, and to compel mankind to obey it. His mind, though rude and enthusiastic, was enlarged by travelling into distant countries, whose manners and religion he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that the system which he established should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the eastern countries were, at this time, addicted to the opinions of Arius. Egypt and Arabia were filled with jews, who had fled from the persecutions of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of those countries were pagans. Mahomet's system was exactly suited to these three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moses and Jesus Christ were the most eminent; but the endeavours of these had proved ineffectual, and God had, therefore, now sent his last and greatest prophet, with a commission more ample than Moses or Christ had been entrusted with. He had commanded him not only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and, for this end, to establish a kingdom upon earth, which should propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had designed utter ruin and destruction to those who should refuse to submit to him; but to his faithful followers, he had given the spoils and possessions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradise of all sensual enjoyments, especially those of love; that the pleasures of such as died in propagating the faith, would be exalted, and vastly transcend those of the rest. These, with the doctrine of predestination, and denying the use of strong liquors, were the capital articles of Mahomet's creed. Many of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. The person of Mahomet was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca, so that part of them were sufficiently convinced of the

deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a design to cut him off: but Mahomet, getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina. The fame of his doctrine, was, according to custom, greatest at a distance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the six hundred and twenty-second year of Christ, the fifty-fourth year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of his ministry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time, and the era is called, in Arabic, Hegira, "the flight."

Mahomet, by the assistance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others, whom his address attached to him, inspired most of his countrymen with a belief in his doctrines. The speedy propagation of his system, among the Arabians, was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt, and the east, who were previously disposed towards it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forsook their ancient faith, and became Mahometans. In a word, the contagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Persia; and Mahomet became a powerful monarch. He was proclaimed king at Medina, in the year 627; and after subduing part of Arabia and Syria, he died of poison in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both esteemed divine among their subjects. These were the califs of Persia and of Egypt, under the last of which Arabia was included. The former of these turned their arms to the east, and made conquests of many countries. The califs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and, under the name of Saracens or Moors, reduced most part of Spain, and the islands in the Mediterranean.

THE INDIAN AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN ISLANDS, Japan or Niphon, Bango, Tonso, and Dezima, form together what has been called the empire of Japan, and are governed by a despotic sovereign. They are situated about one hundred and fifty miles east of China, and extend from the thirtieth to the forty-first degree of north latitude, and from the one hundred and thirteenth to the one hundred and forty-seventh of east longitude. The metropolis is Jeddo, in the one hundred and forty-first degree of east longitude, and the thirty-sixth of north latitude.

The soil and productions of the country are much the same with those of China; and the inhabitants are famous for their lacker ware, known by the name of Japan. The islands themselves are very inaccessible, through their high rocks and tempestuous seas; they are subject to earthquakes and have some volcanos. The Japanese are idolaters, and irreconcilable to christianity. They are very shy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch; and Nagasacki, in the island of Dezima, is the only place where the latter are suffered to trade. The complexions of the Japanese are in general yellowish, although some few, chiefly women, are almost white. Their narrow eyes, and high eye-brows, are like those of the Chinese and Tartars; and their noses are short and thick. Their hair is universally black; and such a sameness of fashion reigns throughout this whole empire, that the head-dress is the same from the emperor to the peasant. The fashion of their clothes has remained without alteration from remote antiquity. They consist of one or more loose gowns, tied about the middle with a sash. People of rank have them made of silk, but the lower class of cotton stuffs. Women generally wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or silver flowers woven into the stuff.

Their houses are built with upright posts, crossed and wattled with bamboo, plaster-

ed both without and within, and white-washed. They generally have two stories; but the uppermost is low and seldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. They have no furniture in their rooms; neither tables, chairs, stools, benches, cupboards, nor even beds. Their custom is to sit down on their heels upon the mats, which are always soft and clean. Their victuals are served up to them on a low board raised but a few inches from the floor, and one dish only at a time. They have mirrors, but never fix them up in their houses as ornamental furniture: they are made of a compound metal, and used only at their toilets. Notwithstanding the severity of their winters, which obliges them to warm their houses from November to March, they have neither fire places nor stoves. Instead of these, they use large copper pots standing upon legs. These are lined on the inside with loam, on which ashes are laid to some depth, and charcoal lightened upon them, which is prepared in such a manner, as renders its fumes not dangerous. The first compliment offered to a stranger, in their houses, is a dish of tea, and a pipe of tobacco. Fans are used by both sexes equally. The whole nation are cleanly; every house, whether public or private, has a bath, of which daily use is made by the family. Obedience to parents, and respect to superiors, are the characteristics of this nation. Their salutations and conversations between equals abound also with civility and politeness; to which children are early accustomed by the example of their parents. Their penal laws are very severe; but punishments are seldom inflicted. Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes against society are committed. Commerce and manufactures flourish here, though, as these people have few wants, they are not carried to the same extent as in Europe. Agriculture is so well understood, that the whole country, even to the tops of the hills, is cultivated. They trade with no foreigners but the Dutch and Chinese, and in both cases with companies of privileged merchants. Besides the sugars, spices and manufactured goods, which the Dutch send to Japan, they carry thither annually upwards of two hundred thousand deer skins, and more than one hundred thousand hides, the greater part of which they get from Siam, where they pay for them in money. The merchandize which they export from these islands, both for Bengal and Europe, consists in nine thousand chests of copper, each weighing one hundred and twenty pounds, and from twenty-five to thirty thousand weight of camphor. Their profits on imports and exports are valued at forty or forty-five per cent. As the Dutch company do not pay duty in Japan, either on their exports or imports, they send an annual present to the emperor, consisting of cloth, chintz, succotas, cottons, stuffs, and trinkets.

The LADRONE ISLANDS, of which the chief is said to be Guam, are in east longitude one hundred and forty, north latitude fourteen; they are about twelve in number. We know nothing of them worth a particular mention, except that lord Anson landed upon one of them, Tinian, where he found plentiful refreshment for himself and his crew.

FORMOSA is an Island situated to the east of China, near the coast of the province of Fo-kein, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains which run through the middle, beginning at the south-coasts, and ending at the north. It is a very fine island, abounds with all the necessaries of life. That part of it which lies to the west of the mountains, belongs to the Chinese, who consider the inhabitants of the eastern parts as savages, though they are said to be a very inoffensive people. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are the same with the Chinese, already described. The Chinese have likewise subdued several other islands in those seas, of which we scarcely know the names. Ainan is between sixty and seventy leagues long, be-

tween fifty and sixty in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a timid, cowardly people, and live in the most unwholesome part of the island. The coast and cultivated parts are possessed by the Chinese.

The PHILIPPINES, so called from Philip II. of Spain, are said to be eleven hundred in number, lying in the Chinese sea, part of the Pacific Ocean, two hundred miles south east of China. Manilla, or Luconia, the largest, is four hundred miles long and two hundred broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintados, or painted people, and Mestizes, a mixture of all these. The islands belong to the king of Spain. They were discovered by Magellan, and in the reign of Philip II. conquered by the Spaniards. Their situation is such, between the eastern and western continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as with all the islands and places of the East Indies. Two ships from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on the commerce for the Spaniards, who make four hundred per cent. profit. The country is fruitful, and beautiful. Venison of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, sheep, goats, and a particular large species of monkeys, are found in great plenty. The nest of the bird saligan affords that dissolving jelly, which is so voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive surprisingly in those islands. If a sprig of an orange or lemon tree is planted there, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; so that the verdure and luxuriance of the soil are almost incredible. The tree ammet supplies the natives with water; and there is also a kind of cane, which, if cut, yields water sufficient for a draught. This tree abounds in the mountains, where the water is most wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about three thousand inhabitants; its port lies at the distance of three leagues, and is defended by the castle of St. Philip. In 1762, Manilla was reduced by the English, who took it by storm, and suffered the archbishop, who was the Spanish viceroy, to ransom the place for about a million sterling. The bargain was disowned by him and the court of Spain, so that great part of the ransom is still unpaid. The Spanish government is settled in the city of Manilla. The Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other islands particularly Mindanao, the largest next to Manilla, are governed by native princes. The sultan of Mindanao is a Mahometan.

These islands are enriched with all the profusion of nature; but they are subject to most dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the soil is pestered with many venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whose poisons kill almost instantaneously. Some of their mountains contain volcanos.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the SPICE or CLOVE ISLANDS, lie all within the compass of twenty-five leagues to the south of the Philippines. They are in one hundred and twenty-five degrees of east longitude, and between one degree south; and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. These islands produce neither corn nor rice. The inhabitants live upon a bread made of sagoe. Their chief produce consists of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vast quantities; which are monopolized by the Dutch, who destroy many plants, lest the natives should sell the superfluous spice to other nations. These islands are now governed by three kings, subordinate to the Dutch. Ternate is the largest of these islands though no more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria; and another called Fort Orange, in Machian.

AMBOYNA. This island is one of the most considerable of the Moluccas. It is situated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degrees of south latitude, and one hundred and twenty leagues to the eastward of Batavia. Amboyna

is about seventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garrison of seven or eight hundred men, besides small forts, which protect their clove plantations.

The **BANDA**, or **NUTMEG ISLANDS**, are situated between one hundred and twenty-seven and one hundred and twenty-eight degrees east longitude, and between four and five south latitude, comprehending the islands of Lantor, (the chief town of which is Lantor) Poleron, Rosinging, Pooloway, and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch, on these islands, are those of Revenge and Naffau. The nutmeg, covered with mace, grows on these islands only. The nutmeg harvest is in June and August.

The island of **CELEBES**, or **MACASSAR**, is situated under the equator, between the island of Borneo and the Spice islands, at the distance of one hundred and sixty leagues from Batavia, and is five hundred miles long, and two hundred broad. This island, notwithstanding its extreme heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief product is pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the study of poisons, with a variety of which, nature has furnished them. The Dutch have a fortification on this island; but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom resides in the town of Macassar. In this, and most of the other Oriental islands, the inhabitants live in houses built on large posts, which are accessible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their security against venomous animals. They are said to be hospitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chinese; and if their chiefs were not perpetually at war with each other, they might easily drive the Dutch from their island. Their port of Jampoden is the most capacious in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewise fortified **GILOLO** and **CERAM**, two other spice islands, lying under the equator. They allow no ships to traffic in those seas.

The **SUNDA ISLANDS** are situated in the Indian Ocean, between ninety-three and one hundred and twenty degrees of east longitude, and between eight degrees north, and eight degrees south latitude, comprehending the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lambee, Banca, &c. The three first, from their great extent and importance, require to be separately described.

BORNEO is said to be eight hundred miles long, and seven hundred broad, and, till late discoveries, was thought to be the largest island in the world. The inland part of the country is marshy and unhealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The soil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The ouran-outang is a native of this country. It is now found, by Dr. Camper, to have the intermaxillary bone, in common with other quadrupeds, and in many other particulars to differ from the human form, with which it was long supposed to have so near a resemblance. The sea coast of Borneo is governed by Mahometan princes; the chief port of this island is Benjar-Masseen. Borneo carries on a considerable commerce.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the east, and Java on the south-east, from which it is separated by the straits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees, and upwards, north-west of it, and five on the south-east; and is one thousand miles long, and one hundred broad. This island produces gold. Mr. Marsden thinks that it was unknown to the ancients. The highest mountain in Sumatra is called *Ophir* by the Europeans. Its summit is thirteen

thousand eight hundred and forty-two feet, above the level of the sea. This exceeds, by five hundred and seventy-seven feet, the height of the peak of Teneriffe. The Portuguese were the first discoverers and settlers, but were defeated in their attempts against Acheen. The first English fleet that made its appearance in this part of the world, visited Acheen in the year 1602, under captain Lancaſter, who carried a letter from queen Elizabeth to the king of that place. The English East-India company have two settlements here, Bencoolen, and fort-Marlborough; from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Acheen is the chief of the Mahometan princes, who possess the sea-coasts. The interior parts are governed by pagan princes, whose governments are all independent, and their language and manners are very different. The natural products of Sumatra are much the same with those of the adjacent islands, but this island is surpassed by few in rice and pepper. It is from this country that most of the cassia sent to Europe is brought. The cassia tree grows to fifty or sixty feet high, with a stem of about two feet diameter, and a beautiful and regular spreading head. The quantity of pepper produced in the East India company's district in Sumatra is annually twelve hundred tons; of which the greatest part is sent to Europe, and the rest to China.

Rain is very frequent here, sometimes very heavy, and almost always attended with thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon, and there are several volcanoes on the island. The people who inhabit the coast, are Malays, who came hither from the peninsula of Malacca, but the interior parts are inhabited by a very different people, who have no connexion with the Europeans. Their language and character differ much from those of the Malays; the latter using the Arabic character, as do the Acheenese. The people between the districts of the English company, and those of the Dutch at Palembang, on the other side of the island, write on long narrow slips of the bark of a tree, with a piece of bamboo. They begin at the bottom, and write from the left hand to the right, contrary to the custom of the other eastern nations. The inhabitants of the interior parts of Sumatra, are a free people, and live in small villages independent of each other, and governed each by its own chief. They have most of them, large swellings in their necks, in general as big as an ostrich egg, like the Goitres of the Alps. That part of this island, which is called the Cassia country, is well inhabited by a people called Battas, who differ from all the other inhabitants of Sumatra in language, manners, and customs. They have no king, but live in villages, and are generally at variance. They fortify their villages very strongly with double fences of camphor plank, pointed, and placed with their points projecting outwards; and between these fences they place pieces of bamboo, hardened by fire, and likewise pointed, which are concealed by the grass, but which will run quite through a man's foot. Such of their enemies as they take prisoners, they put to death and eat, and their skulls they hang up, as trophies, in the houses where the unmarried men and boys eat and sleep. They allow of polygamy; a man may purchase as many wives as he pleases; but Mr. Marsden observes, that an instance rarely occurs of their having more than one, and those only among a few of their chiefs. The original clothing of the Sumatrans is the same sort of cloth with that of the inhabitants of Otaheite. The buffalo makes a chief part of their food, and is the only animal employed in their domestic labours. The Sumatran pheasant is a bird of uncommon beauty.

Within about ninety miles of Sumatra is the island of ENGANHO, which is very little known, on account of the terrible rocks and breakers that entirely surround it. It is inhabited by naked savages, who are tall and well made, and who generally appear armed with lances and clubs. They speak a different language from the inhabitants of any of the neighbouring islands.

The greatest part of JAVA belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a populous city, lying in the latitude of six degrees south, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furnished with one of the finest harbours in the world. The town itself is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and surrounded by regular fortifications; but its suburbs are said to be ten times more populous than itself. The government here, is a mixture of eastern magnificence, and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attended by his guards and officers. The fine canals, bridges, and avenues, would render Batavia an agreeable residence, were it not extremely unhealthy. The description of its government and public edifices, has employed whole volumes. The citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the suburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almost every nation in the world. The Chinese, residing in this island, are computed at one hundred thousand; but about thirty thousand of that nation, were, in 1740, barbarously massacred, without the smallest offence proved upon them. This massacre was too unprovoked and detestable to be defended by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, sent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of since. A Dutch garrison, of three thousand men, constantly resides at Batavia; and about fifteen thousand troops are quartered in the island and the neighbourhood of the city. Their government is well calculated to prevent the independency either of the civil or military power.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR islands lie at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, and furnish provisions, consisting of tropical fruits, and other necessaries, for the ships that touch there. They are, otherwise, too inconsiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by an harmless, inoffensive people.

CEYLON. This island, though not the largest, is thought to be, by nature, the richest and finest in the world. It is situated in the Indian Ocean, near Cape Comorin, the southern extremity of the Hither Peninsula of India, being separated from the coast of Coromandel by a narrow strait, and is two hundred and fifty miles long, and two hundred broad. The natives call it the terrestrial paradise. It produces, besides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, silk, tobacco, ebony, musk, crystal, salt-petre, sulphur, lead, iron, steel, copper; as also cinnamon, gold, silver, and every sort of precious stones, except diamonds. All kinds of fowl and fish abound here. Every part of this island is well wooded and watered; and, besides some curious animals peculiar to itself, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, especially if spotted; but several noxious animals, such as serpents and ants, are likewise found here. The chief commodity of the island is its cinnamon, which is by far the best in all Asia. Though its trees grow in great profusion, yet the best are found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the chief settlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle of the country is mountainous and woody, but the rich and beautiful vallies are left in possession of the Dutch, who have, in a manner, shut up the king in his capital city, Candy, which stands on a mountain, in the middle of the island, so that he has scarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in his own dominions. The descendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinglasses, who value themselves upon their maintaining their ancient laws and customs. They are in general a sober, inoffensive people, and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portuguese and Dutch.

It may be here proper to observe, that the cinnamon tree, which is a native of this island, has two, if not three barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a-

middling growth and age afford the best ; and the body of the tree, which when stripped is white, serves for building and other uses. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of this delightful island, to defend them against the Portuguese, whom they expelled, and have monopolised it, ever since, to themselves. In January, 1782, Trincomale, the chief sea-port of the island, was taken by the English, but soon afterwards re-taken by the French, and restored to the Dutch by the last treaty of peace.

The MALDIVES. These are a vast cluster of small islands, or little rocks, just above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly resorted to by the Dutch, who carry on a profitable trade with the natives, for couries, a kind of small shells, which pass for money upon the coasts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The nut of the cocoa is a valuable fruit and medicine. Of this tree, they build vessels of twenty or thirty tons ; their hulls, masts, sails, rigging, anchors, cables, provisions, and firing, are all from this useful tree.

We have already mentioned BOMBAY, on the Malabar coast, in speaking of India.

With regard to the language of all the Oriental islands, nothing certain can be said. Each island has a particular tongue ; but the Malayan, Chinese, Portuguese, Dutch, and Indian words, are so frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European to know the radical languages. Their religion is Pagan, but intermixed with many Mahometan, Jewish, Christian, and other foreign rites.

The sea, which separates the southern point of the peninsula of Kamtschatka from Japan, contains a number of islands, in a position from north-north-east to south-south-west, which are called the KURILE ISLANDS. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in several of them are volcanoes and hot springs. The principal of these islands are inhabited ; but some of the little ones are entirely desert and unpeopled. They differ much from each other, in respect both to their situation and natural constitution. The forests, in the most northern ones, are composed of laryx and pines ; those to the southward produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In some of them are bears and foxes. The sea-otter, appears on the coasts of all these islands, as well as whales, sea-horses, seals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants have a great likeness to the Japanese, in their manners, language, and personal appearance ; others very much resemble the Kamtschatkades. The northern islands acknowledge the sovereignty of the empire of Russia ; but those to the south, pay homage to Japan. The men hunt, fish for sea animals and whales, and catch fowls. Their canoes are made of wood that their forests produce, or that the sea casts upon their shores. The southern islanders carry on a sort of commerce with Japan, to which they export whale-oil, furs, and eagle's feathers for flogging arrows. In return, they bring Japanese utensils of metal and varnished wood, skillets, sabres, different stuffs, tobacco, all sorts of trinkets, and small wares.

A F R I C A.

AFRICA, the third grand division of the globe, is generally represented as bearing some resemblance to the form of a pyramid, the base being the northern part of it, which runs along the shores of the Mediterranean, and the point or top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninsula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land, about sixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, usually called the Isthmus of Suez. Its utmost length, from north to south, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope, in 34-7 south latitude, is four thousand three hundred miles; and the broadest part, from Cape Verd, in 17-20 degrees, to Cape Guardafui, near the straits of Babel-Mandel, in 51-20 east longitude, is three thousand five hundred miles from east to west. It is bounded on the north, by the Mediterranean Sea, which separates it from Europe; on the east, by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divide it from Asia; on the south, by the Southern Ocean; and on the west, by the great Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America. As the equator divides this extensive country almost in the middle, and the far greater part of it is within the tropics, the heat is, in many places, almost insupportable to an European; it being there increased by the reflexion of the sun's rays from the vast deserts of burning sands. The coasts, however, and banks of rivers, such as the Nile, are generally fertile, and most parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being so populous as Europe or Asia. From what has been said, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In Africa, snow seldom or never falls in the plains: and it never lies but on the tops of the high mountains. The natives in these scorching regions, would as soon expect that marble should melt and flow in liquid streams, as that water, by freezing, should lose its fluidity, be arrested by the cold, and, ceasing to flow, become like the solid rock.

The geography of Africa has made a slower progress towards improvement than that of any other part of the world, during the last and present century. But this must be attributed to natural causes; as it is penetrated by no inland seas, like the Mediterranean, Baltic, or Hudson's Bay; nor overspread with extensive lakes, like those of North America.

One of the most considerable rivers in Africa, is the Niger, which falls into the Atlantic or Western Ocean at Senegal, after a course of two thousand eight hundred miles*. It increases and decreases as the Nile, fertilises the country, and contains grains of gold intermixed with its sand. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches of this river. The Nile divides Egypt into two parts, and discharges itself into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious course from its source in Abyssinia.

The most considerable mountain in Africa is the Atlas, a ridge extending from the Western Ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean, as far as Egypt. The mountains of the moon, extending themselves between Abyssinia and Monomotapa, are still higher than those of Atlas. Those of Sierra Leona, or the mountains of the lions, divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. The peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their meridian, rises about two miles high in the form of a sugar-loaf, and is situated on an island of the same name near the coast. Cape

* This is extremely difficult, if not impossible to ascertain. For (according to Mr. Lucas's communication to the African Association) both the rise and termination of the Niger are unknown: but the course is from east to west.

Verd is so called, because the land is always covered with green trees and mossy ground; it is the most westerly point of the continent of Africa. The cape of Good Hope was so denominated by the Portuguese, when they first went round it, in 1498, and discovered a passage to Asia. It is the southern extremity of Africa in the country of the Hottentots; at present in the possession of the Dutch, and the general rendezvous of ships of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one strait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mandel, and joins the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean.

The situation of Africa, for commerce, is extremely favourable, standing, as it were, in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any other quarter has with the rest. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, the English, and the French, who have settlements on its coasts, but that of the most authentic historians. It is, however, the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has ten thousand miles of sea coast, with noble, large, deep rivers, it is inhabited by barbarous or savage nations. At the mouth of many of its rivers are the most excellent harbours, deep, safe, calm, and sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but quite destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandize. In short, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, stored with inexhaustible treasure, and capable of so many improvements, seems to be almost entirely neglected, both by the natives, and by the Europeans who are settled in it.

Africa once contained several kingdoms and states, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the most extensive commerce. The kingdom of Egypt was celebrated; and Carthage once extended her commerce to every part of the ancient world; even the British shores were visited by her fleets. After this, the natives, constantly plundered and consequently impoverished, by the governors sent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might serve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals. They settled in the country, and incorporated with the former inhabitants; but, after a considerable space of time, they were attacked by the Roman armies, under the command of Belisarius. The emperor Justinian pretended a right to the dominion of this country; a right which could only be founded on the conquest of Carthage by the ancient Scipios. In support of so pure a title, Belisarius made no scruple to ravage a prodigious extent of country, to butcher an immense number of people who never had given him the smallest offence. The *virtues* and the disasters of this unfeeling instrument of despotism, have continued, even in the present age, to be the object of admiration and of sympathy, to the multitude of readers. In the seventh century, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of all the coasts of Egypt and Barbary. These were succeeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahometan religion, whose professors carried desolation with them wherever they came; the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with respect to religion, may be divided into three sorts; namely, Pagans, Mahometans, and Christians. The first are the most numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope, and they are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coast. The people of Abyssinia, or the upper Ethiopea, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites. There are also some Jews, in the north of Africa, who manage all the scanty trade which that part of the country enjoys.

There are scarcely any two nations, or, indeed, any two geographers, who agree in

the modern divisions of Africa. Very few travellers have penetrated into the heart of the country ; and, consequently, we are ignorant of the bounds, and even the names of several inland nations. According to the best accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following table.

	Nations.	Length.	Bread.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bear. from London.	Dist. of time from London.	Religions.
Barbary.	Morocco, Taflet, &c. }	500	480	219,400	Fez	1680 S.	0 24 aft.	Mahometans
	Algiers,	430	100	143,600	Algiers	920 S.	0 13 bef.	Mahometans
	Tunis,	220	170	54,400	Tunis	950 S. E.	0 39 bef.	Mahometans
	Tripoli,	700	240	75,000	Tripoli	1260 S. E.	0 56 bef.	Mahometans
	Barca,	430	300	65,400	Poleneta	1140 S. E.	1 26 bef.	Mahometans
	Egypt,	600	250	149,700	Grand Cairo	1930 S. E.	2 21 bef.	Mahometans
	Biledulgerid,	2500	350	485,000	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 aft.	Pagans
	Zaara,	3400	660	739,200	Tegessa	1830 S.	0 24 aft.	Pagans
	Negroland,	2200	840	1,025,000	Madlinga	2500 S.	0 38 aft.	Pagans
	Guinea,	1800	360	510,000	Benin	2700 S.	0 20 bef.	Pagans
Up. Ethiop.	Nubia,	940	600	264,000	Nubia	2448 S. E.	2 12 bef.	Mah. & Pag.
	Abysinia,	900	800	373,000	Gondar	2380 S. E.	2 20 bef.	Christians
	Abex,	540	130	160,000	Doncala	3780 S. E.	2 35 bef.	Christ. & Pag.
	The middle parts, called the Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 square miles.							
Low. Guinea.	Loango,	410	300	49,400	Loango	3300 S	0 42 bef.	Christ. & Pag.
	Congo,	540	420	172,800	St. Salvador	3480 S	1 0 bef.	Christ. & Pag.
	Angola,	360	250	38,400	Loango	3750 S	0 58 bef.	Christ. & Pag.
	Benguela,	430	180	64,000	Benguela	3200 S	0 53 bef.	Pagans
	Mataman	450	240	144,000	No Towns			Pagans
	Ajan,	900	300	234,000	Brava	3702 S. E.	2 40 bef.	Pagans
	Zanguebar,	1400	300	275,000	Melinda or Mozambique	4440 S. E.	2 38 bef.	Pagans
	Monomotapa,	960	660	222,500	Monomotapa	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans
	Monemugi,	900	660	310,300	Chicova	4260 S.	1 44 bef.	Pagans
	Sofala,	480	300	97,000	Sofala	4600 S. E.	1 18 bef.	Pagans
	Terra de Nat. Cadriaria or Hottentot. }	708	660	200,340	No towns Cape of Good Hope,	5200 S.	1 4 bef.	Moststupid Pagans

The principal islands of Africa lie in the Indian seas and Atlantic Ocean ; of which the following belong to or trade with the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from India.

Islands.	Sq. M.	Towns.	Trade with, or belong to
Babel-Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea,		Babel Mandel	All nations
Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean,	3,600	Calaulia	Ditto
The Comora Isles, ditto,	1,000	Joanna	Ditto
Madagascar, ditto,	168,000	St. Austin	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto,	1,840	Mauritius	French
Bourbon,	2,100	Bourbon	Ditto
St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean		St. Helena	English
Afcension, ditto,			Uninhabited
St. Matthew, ditto,			Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes Island, Fernandopo		St. Thomas, Anaboa	Portuguese
Cape Verd Islands, ditto,	2,000	St. Domingo	Ditto
Goree, ditto,		Fort St. Michael	French
Canaries, ditto,		Palma, St. Christophers	Spanish
Madeira, ditto,	1,500	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portuguese
The Azores, or Western Isles, lie nearly at an equal distance from Europe, Africa, and America	2,000	Angra, St. Michael	Ditto

Having given the reader some idea of Africa, in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their supposed dimensions, we shall now consider it under four grand divisions; first Egypt; secondly, the states of Barbary, stretching along the coast of the Mediterranean, from Egypt in the east, to the Atlantic ocean, west; thirdly, the kingdoms of Abyssinia, Fezzan, Bornou, and Cashna; and lastly, that part of Africa between the tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope. The last of these divisions, indeed, is vastly greater than the other three; but the nations which it contains are so little known, and so barbarous, and, like all barbarous nations, so similar in most respects to each other, that they may, without impropriety, be thrown under one general head.

E G Y P T.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 } Breadth 250 }	between	20 and 32 north latitude. 28 and 36 east longitude.	140,700.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, on the north; by the Red Sea, on the east; by Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the south; and by the desert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, on the west.

Divisions.	Chief Towns.
Lower Egypt	Grand Cairo, E. lon. 32 N. lat. 30. Bulac Alexandria Rosetto Damietta
Upper Egypt	Sayd or Thebes Colliar.

AIR.] It is observed by Mr. Volney, that from March to November, the heat is almost insupportable to an European. "During the whole of this season, the air is inflamed, the sky sparkling and the heat oppressive to all unaccustomed to it." The other months are more temperate. The southerly winds, which sometimes blow in Egypt, are by the natives called *poisonous winds*, or the *hot winds of the desert*. They are of such extreme heat and dryness, that no animated body, exposed to them, can withstand their fatal influence. During the three days which they generally last, the streets are deserted; and unfortunate is the traveller whom they surprise remote from shelter; when they exceed three days, they are intolerable. Very frequently the inhabitants are almost blinded with drifts of sand. These inconveniencies are remedied by the rising and overflowing of the Nile.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The vast fertility of Egypt is owing to the annual inundation of the Nile, occasioned by the rains which fall during May, June, and July, in Abyssinia and the neighbouring countries of Africa. According to Mr. Volney the commencement of the inundation is not entirely ascertained, though the Coptes fix it at the nineteenth of June. At the height of its flood, in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be

seen in the plains, but the tops of forests and fruit-trees, their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with various festivities. The banks or mounds which confine it, are cut by the Turkish bashaw, attended by his grandees. When the banks are cut, the water is let into what they call the grand canal, which runs through Cairo; from whence it is distributed into sluices, for supplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, such is the fertility of the soil, that the labour of the husbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground, in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and in about six weeks, nothing can be more charming than the prospect, which the face of the country presents, in raising corn, vegetables, and verdure of every sort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar-canes, and other plants, which require moisture, is supplied by small, but regular sluices from cisterns and reservoirs. Dates, plantanes, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harvest months, and produce three crops; one of lettuces and cucumbers, the latter of which is the chief food of the inhabitants, one of corn, and one of melons.

ANIMALS.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is said, that the inhabitants employ every day twenty thousand oxen in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the christians ride, being debarred by the Turks from riding on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head of a horse, is common in Upper Egypt. Tygers, hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes with the head like a dog, and the rat, called ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The cameleon, a little animal somewhat resembling a lizard, is found here as well as in the neighbouring countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to Egypt, but there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India, and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length; they have four short legs, with large feet armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable scales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the sedge, and other coverts, on the sides of the rivers; and in an attitude resembling the trunk of an old tree, sometimes surprises the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces likewise great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature somewhat resembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians, for its destroying serpents and pestiferous insects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

The cerastes, or horned viper, infests the greatest part of the eastern continent, especially the desert sandy parts of it. It abounds in Syria, in the three Arabias, and in Africa.

There are few subjects, of more curious investigation, than the incantation of serpents. There is no doubt of its reality. I have seen at Cairo, says Mr. Bruce, a man, who has taken a cerastes, with his naked hands, from a number of others, lying at the bottom of the tub, has put it upon his bare head, covered it with the common red cap that he wore, then taken it out, put it into his bosom, and tied it about his neck like a necklace; after which it has been applied to a hen, and bit it, upon which the bird has, in a few minutes, expired.

Mr. Bruce adds, that all the black people in the kingdom of Sennaar, are perfectly

armed against the bite of either scorpion or viper. They take the cerastes in their hands at all times, put them in their bosoms, and throw them to one another as children do apples or balls, without irritating them, by this usage, so much as to bite. The Arabs acquire an exemption from the mortal consequences attending the bite of these animals, by chewing a certain root, and washing themselves with an infusion of certain plants in water.

“One day,” says our author, “when I was with the brother of Skekh Adelan, prime minister of Sennaar, a slave of his brought a cerastes, which he had just then taken out of a hole, and was using it with every sort of familiarity. I told him my suspicion that the teeth had been drawn; but he assured me, they were not, as did his master Kittou, who took it from him, wound it round his arm, and, at my desire, ordered the servant to carry it home with me. I took a chicken by the neck, and made it flutter before him; his seeming indifference left him; and he bit it with great signs of anger, the chicken died almost immediately; I say his seeming indifference; for I constantly observed that however lively the viper was before, upon being seized by any of these barbarians, he seemed as if taken with sickness and feebleness, frequently shut his eyes, and never turned his mouth towards the arm of the person that held him. I asked Kittou, how they came to be exempted from this mischief? he said they were born so, and so said the grave and respectable men among them. Many of the lighter and lower sort talked of enchantments by words and by writing; but they all knew how to prepare any person by medicines, which were decoctions of herbs and roots.”

POPULATION, MANNERS, *cus.* } As the population of Egypt is almost confined
TOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } to the banks of the Nile, and as the rest of the
country is inhabited by Arabs, we can say little upon this head with precision. Egypt is not, at present, so populous as formerly, and its depopulation is owing to anarchy and despotism. According to Mr. Volney, the number of inhabitants may amount to two millions three hundred thousand, of which Cairo contains about two hundred and fifty thousand. This country is inhabited by four different races of people; the Turks, who call themselves masters of the country; the Arabs, who were conquered by the Turks; the Coptes, who are descended from the ancient Egyptians, mixed with the Persians, Greeks, and Romans, who successively conquered Egypt; and the Mamelouks, who were originally Circassian and Mingrelian slaves, and, being the only military force, are the *real* masters of the country.

The Turks, who reside in Egypt, wear the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Coptes, who dress very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The christians and Arabs, of the poorer class, content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather slippers, the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign christians, yellow. The dress of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are silk, when they can afford it; and such of them as are not exposed to the sun, have delicate complexions and features. The Coptes are generally excellent accountants; and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exercises and diversions are much the same as those made use of in Persia and other Asiatic countries. Egypt abounds with jugglers, fortune-tellers, and other adventurers of the same kind.

RELIGION.] The majority of the Mahometans are enthusiasts, and have among them saints, who pretend to a superior degree of holiness, and without any ceremony, intrude into the best houses, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little; and it would be hard to say, what species of christianity is professed by the christian Coptes, who are here numerous;

but they profess themselves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the most ancient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander of Macedon; and that, by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the califate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabesque, as it is called, is the current language; but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be spoken.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The ancient Egyptians were celebrated for their learning; and to them, the Greeks are supposed to have been somewhat indebted. The califs or Saracens, who, under the banner of the koran, subdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The first, or immediate successors of Mahomet, made war upon all kinds of literature, except the koran; and when they took possession of Alexandria, there is a common report, that the valuable manuscripts, in the library of that city, were applied, for some months, to cooking the victuals, and warming the baths of the conquerors. The califs of the second race were men of some state and learning. They bought up the manuscripts relating to astronomy, medicine, and some other branches of philosophy; but they had no taste for the Greek arts, sciences, history, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without returning to Egypt. The race, who called themselves califs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which the others had imposed.

The learning of the modern Egyptians consists in arithmetical calculations for the dispatch of business, of astrology, a few prescriptions in medicine, and some knowledge of the Mahometan religion.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] The pyramids of Egypt have been often described. Their antiquity is beyond the researches of history, and their original uses are still doubtful. They are eleven in number, and distant four leagues from Cairo. The basis of the largest, covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is five hundred feet, but, if measured obliquely to the terminating point, seven hundred feet*. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder, who, according to Herodotus, was Cheops, an Egyptian king, who succeeded Proteus, in the ninth century before the christian era.

The mummy pits, so called from their containing embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults, of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing mummies is now lost. It is said that some of the bodies, thus embalmed, are perfect and distinct at this day, though buried three thousand years ago. The labyrinth, in Upper Egypt, is a curiosity perhaps more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly under ground, cut out of a marble rock, and consists of twelve palaces, besides other apartments, the intricacies of which occasion its name. The lake Mæris was dug by order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches, which still subsist, and attest the utility as well as grandeur of the work. Artificial grottos and excavations abound in Egypt. The whole country, towards Grand Cairo, is a continued scene of antiquities, of which the oldest are the most stupendous, but the modern the most beautiful.

Pompey's pillar, which is situated on a rock, about a mile without the gates of the city of Alexandria, is a fine, regular column of the Corinthian order. The shaft is of one entire stone, eighty-eight feet nine inches, or ten diameters of the column; the whole altitude is one hundred and fourteen feet, including the capital and pedestal.

* Mr. Volney says, that a late mensuration assigns, to each face of the great pyramid, six hundred feet; and its perpendicular height, four hundred and eighty feet.

The body of the pillar is granite, but the capital is of another stone. This magnificent monument appears, in taste, says Mr. Bruce, to be the work of the period between Hadrian and Severus; but, though the former erected several large buildings in the east, it is observed of him, that he never put inscriptions upon them. This pillar has had a Greek inscription, and Mr. Bruce thinks that it may, very probably, be attributed to the time of the latter, as a monument of the gratitude of the city of Alexandria, for the benefactions that he conferred on them. He apprehends it to have been brought in a block from Thebais, in Upper Egypt, by the Nile. The Sphynx is no more than the head and part of the shoulders of a woman, hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high. It stands near one of the pyramids. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and is now practised in some parts of Europe.

The papyrus is one of the natural curiosities of Egypt, and served the ancients to write upon. Its use was early known in Egypt. Pliny says, on the authority of Varro, that the papyrus came not to be commonly used till after the conquest of Egypt by Alexander; yet it is plain from Anacreon, Alcæus, Æschylus, and the comic poets, that it was known in their time. Plato, Aristotle, Herodotus, and Theophrastus also speak of it. Numa, too, who lived three hundred years before Alexander, is said to have left a number of books, written on papyrus, which, a long time after his death, were found at Rome.

With Aristotle began the first arrangement of a library. The conquest of Alexander, and the building of Alexandria, laid open Egypt, its trade, and learning to the world. Papyrus then, or the paper made from it, was the only material employed for writing upon. The Ptolomies, and the kings of Pergamus, contended who should make the largest collection of books. The Ptolomies, masters of Egypt, and of the papyrus, availed themselves of this monopoly, to hinder the multiplication of books in Greece. The other princes probably smuggled this plant, and propagated it wherever it would grow out of Egypt. Eumenes, king of Pergamus, set about bringing to perfection the manufacture of parchment, which, long before, the Ionians had used through the scarcity of paper; for, whatever resemblance there might be in names, or whatever may be inferred from them, writing upon skins or parchment was much more ancient than any city or state in Greece, and in use probably before Greece was inhabited. The Jews made use of it in the earliest ages. At the time of which we are now speaking, we learn from Josephus, that the Jewish high priests transmitted a copy of the law to Ptolemy Philadelphus, in letters of gold upon skins.

Mr. Bruce has in his possession, a large and very perfect manuscript, that was dug up at Thebes. The boards are of the papyrus root, covered first with the coarser pieces of the paper, and then with leather, in the same manner as a book would be done now. The volume is somewhat in the shape of a small folio. The letters are strong, deep, black, and apparently written with a reed, according to the modern practice of the Abyssinians and Egyptians. It is said to be uncertain when the use of the papyrus was superseded by that of common writing paper. This last invention has perhaps been the most beneficial, next to those of writing and of printing, that has ever been discovered*.

* The more comprehensive exercise of thought, is that faculty which distinguishes man from the inferior animals; and to that faculty he is indebted for every advance that he has made to his present state of refinement, from an original state of rudeness, perhaps not much higher than the condition of the orang orang or the beaver. Every circumstance, therefore, which can promote the faculty of improving the human mind, is of the utmost advantage to society, and if we consider the subject with attention, it will become clear, that the greater part of our discoveries may

be traced up to three sources; the arts of writing, of printing, and of making paper. Of these three, the first, though the parent of the other two, is, by itself, of no decisive importance. In the middle ages, that is, in those which succeeded the destruction of the Roman empire, the art of writing was well known; but from the extreme scarcity of paper or of parchment, it was sometimes requisite to erase the text of a classic author, to make room for the subject that was about to be recorded. A fragment of Li-

CITIES, TOWNS, AND } In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities,
PUBLIC EDIFICES. } built before the epoch of authentic history, are still entire.
The colours of their paintings, and many of their other ornaments, are as fresh and lively as when first executed.

Alexandria was once the emporium of the world, and, by the Red Sea, furnished Europe, and a great part of Asia with the riches of India. It was founded by Alexander of Macedon. It stands forty miles west from the Nile, and is a hundred and twenty north-west of Cairo. This city rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage. The light-house, erected on the opposite island of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, was esteemed one of the wonders of the world. The mole, which was built to form a communication with the island of Pharos, is one thousand yards in length, and, though near two thousand years old, the excellence of its materials has resisted, in a great measure, the violence of winds and waves ever since. All the parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the cisterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which, at present, is a very indifferent sea-port, known by the name of Scanderoon.

Egypt was, in 1783, visited by monsieur Volney, a French traveller of more than common merit. Of Alexandria and of the people of Egypt in general, this writer has given an interesting description. He observes, that the picturesque appearance of the city itself, the spreading palm-trees, the terraced houses, which seem to have no roof; the lofty, slender minarets, all announce to the traveller, that he is in another world. A variety of novel objects present themselves to every sense. He hears a language whose barbarous sounds and sharp guttural accents, offend his ear. He sees dresses of the most unusual and whimsical kind, and figures of the strangest appearance. Instead of the smooth, shaved faces of Europe, the side curls, the triangular hats, and the short, close dresses, he views, with astonishment, tanned visages, with beards and mustachios, large pieces of stuff rolled round their bald heads; long garments, which, reaching from the neck to the feet, serve rather to veil than clothe the body; tobacco pipes of six feet long, with which every one is provided; hideous camels, which carry water in leathern sacks; and asses, saddled and bridled, which lightly trip along with their riders in slippers. He observes their markets supplied chiefly with dates, and round flat little loaves. A filthy herd of half-starved dogs range through the streets. A kind of wandering phantoms, under a long drapery of a single piece, discover hardly any thing human but two eyes, which inform him that they are women. The traveller is farther struck with the narrow ill paved streets, the low houses, the meagre, swarthy and barefooted inhabitants, with no other clothing, but a blue skirt fastened with a leathern girdle, or a red handkerchief. And the universal marks of misery, so manifest in all he meets, and the mystery which reigns around the houses, announce the rapacity of oppression, and the distress attendant upon slavery.

In Alexandria, we no sooner leave the new town, than we are astonished at the sight of an immense extent of ground overspread with ruins. During a walk of two hours, there is a double line of walls and towers, which form the circumference of the ancient Alexandria. The earth is covered with the remains of lofty buildings destroyed, whole fronts crumbled down, roofs fallen in, battlements decayed, and the stones corroded and disfigured by salt-petre. The traveller passes over a large plain furrowed with trenches, pierced with wells, divided by walls in ruins, covered over with ancient columns, and modern tombs, and palm trees. Here no living creatures are seen but owls, bats, and jackalls.

vy was found in the vatican some years ago, written on parchment. The Latin had been erased and something else written on transverse lines across. It

is plain, that during so great a scarcity of paper, the discovery of printing could have been of little consequence.

The new port of Alexandria, the only harbour for the Europeans, is clogged up with sand, inasmuch that, in stormy weather, ships are liable to bilge; and the bottom being also rocky, the cables soon chafe, and part, so that one vessel driving against a second, and that perhaps against a third, they are sometimes all lost. The old port is not subject to this inconvenience; but the Turks admit no ships into it, except those of musklemen.

In time of war, Alexandria is of no importance. No fortification is to be seen; and Pharos, with its lofty towers, cannot be defended. "It has not," says Mr. Volney, "four cannon fit for service, nor a gunner who knows how to point them. The five hundred Janisaries, who should form the garrison, reduced to half that number, are acquainted with nothing but how to smoke a pipe."

Rosetta, or Rischid, stands twenty-five miles to the north-west of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation, and the delightful prospect which commands the island of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewise a place of great trade. The length of the city is two miles; but it is only half a mile broad. In the environs are many country houses belonging to christian merchants, with fine gardens, producing the choicest fruits of the east. The Mahometan inhabitants are said to be civil and polite.

Cairo, now Mesra, the present capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air, and narrow streets. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old castle, the works of which are computed to be three miles in circumference. At the west end of this castle, are the remains of very noble apartments, some of them covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in Mosaic work; but these apartments are now only used for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually sent to Mecca. The well, called Joseph's well, is a curious piece of mechanism, about three hundred feet deep. On the bank of the Nile, opposite Cairo, lies the village of Gize, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles west is Bulac, called the port of Cairo. The streets of Cairo are pestered with jugglers and fortune tellers. One of the favourite exhibitions of the inhabitants, is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor; the intense heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the sound of a drum, the noise of that instrument incites them to dance ever after.

The environs of Cairo are full of heaps of dirt, formed by the rubbish that is accumulating every day, while the multitude of tombs, and the stench of common sewers, are, at once offensive to the smell and the sight. Within the walls, the streets are narrow and crooked, and, as they are not paved, the crowds of men, of camels, asses, and dogs, with which they are thronged, raise a very disagreeable dust. Private persons often water their doors, and then the dust is succeeded by mud and pestiferous exhalations. The houses, in Cairo, have two or three stories, a height unusual in the east, over which is a terrace of stone or tiles. In general, they are of earth and bricks badly burnt. Some are of soft stone, of a fine grain, obtained from a mountain adjacent to Cairo. These houses have usually the appearance of prisons; for there is no light from the street; as, in such a country, it is extremely dangerous to have many windows. It is even regarded as prudent to make the outward doors very low. The rooms within are very badly contrived. Among the higher ranks, are to be found a few ornaments and conveniences. They have, sometimes, large halls, with marble basins in the middle, from which the water spouts up; an accommodation extremely acceptable in the climate of Egypt. The floors are paved, inlaid with marble and coloured earthen ware. They are covered with mats and matresses; over these are spread rich carpets, on which the inhabitants sit cross-legged. Around the wall is a sort of sofa, with cushions, to support the back and elbows, and above, at the height

of seven or eight feet, there is a range of shelves, decked out with China and Japanese porcelain. The walls, naked in other respects, are chequered with sentences from the koran, and painted foliage and flowers, with which also the porticos of the beys are covered. The windows have neither glass nor moving sashes, but only an open lattice work. The light enters from the inner courts, from whence the sycamores reflect a verdure pleasing to the eye. An opening to the north, or at the top of the ceiling, admits a refreshing breeze, while, by a whimsical contradiction, the persons within, wrap themselves up in warm, woolen cloths and furs. The rich pretend, by this expedient, to escape diseases; but the common people, with their blue shirts and hard mats, are less liable to take cold, and enjoy better health. Mr. Volney, from whom this account of Cairo is chiefly extracted, computes, that the city does not contain more than two hundred and fifty thousand people.

Among the disagreeable singularities, that strike a stranger at Cairo, may be reckoned, the great number of ugly dogs which roam about the streets, and the kites which skim over the houses, with frequent and doleful cries. The muskulmen kill neither of these, though they are both held to be unclean. On the contrary, they often throw them the fragments of their tables; and devotees even endow charitable foundations of bread and water for dogs. These animals, at Cairo, very frequently suffer by hunger and thirst; yet, both in Egypt and Syria, the canine madness never breaks out.

At Cairo, the crowds which throng the streets, present nothing to the observation of a stranger; but rags and nakedness. He often meets, it is true, with horsemen richly dressed; but this display of luxury only renders the contrast of indigence more shocking. Every thing that he sees or hears, reminds him of his being in the country of slavery and tyranny. Nothing is talked of but intestine dissensions, the public misery, pecuniary extortions, bastinadoes, and murders. The officer of the night, in his rounds, and the officer of the day, in his circuit, judge, condemn, and execute, in the twinkling of an eye, without appeal. Executioners attend them, and, on the first signal, the head of the victim falls into a leathern bag, in which it is received for fear of soiling the place. Such is, according to Mr. Volney, the police of Cairo.

The picture of this city, as drawn by Mr. Bruce, is not more favourable. He never saw any place, he says, which he liked worse, which afforded less pleasure or instruction, or where the antiquities less answered the common descriptions of them.

The other towns of note in Egypt, are, Damiëta, supposed to be the ancient Pelusium; Sayd, on the west banks of the Nile, two hundred miles south of Cairo, said to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes; and Cosliar, on the west coast of the Red Sea. The general practice of strangers, who visit those places, is to hire a janizary, whose authority commonly protects them from the insults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a small city, and gives name to the isthmus, that joins Africa with Asia.

MARBLE QUARRIES.] It has been a wonder, says Mr. Bruce, with all travellers, and with myself among the rest, where the ancients procured that prodigious quantity of fine marble, with which all their buildings abound. That wonder, however, among many others, now ceases, after having passed, in four days, more granite, porphyry, marble, and jasper, than would build Rome; Athens, Corinth, Syracuse, Memphis, Alexandria, and half a dozen such cities. It seemed to be very visible, that those openings in the hills, which I call defiles, were not natural, but artificial, and that whole mountains had been cut out at these places.

“The porphyry shows itself by a fine purple sand, without any gloss, or glitter on it, and is exceedingly agreeable to the eye. It is mixed with the native white sand, and fixed gravel of the plains. Green, unvariegated marble, is generally seen in the same mountain with the porphyry. Where the two veins meet, the marble is for some inches brittle, but the porphyry of the same hardness as in other places.

“ The granite is covered with sands, and looks like stone of a dirty, brown colour. But this is only the change and impression the sun and weather have made upon it; for, upon breaking it, you see it is grey granite, with black spots, with a reddish cast, or bluish over it. This red seems to fade, from the outward air, but, upon working or polishing the surface, this colour again appears. It is in greater quantity than the porphyry, and nearer the Red Sea. Pompey’s pillar seems to have been hewn from this quarry.

“ Next to the granite, but never, as I observed, joined with it, in the same mountain, is the red marble. It is covered with sand of the same colour, and looks as if the whole mountain were spread over with brick-dust. There is also a red marble, with white veins, which I have often seen at Rome, but not in principal subjects. I have also seen it in Britain. The common green, called serpentine, looks as if covered over with Brazil snuff. Joined with this green, I saw two samples of that beautiful marble, they call *Isabella*; one of them, with a yellowish cast, which we call *quaker-colour*; the other with a bluish, which is commonly termed *dove-colour*. In this green, likewise, it was we saw the vein of *jasper*; but whether it was absolutely the same with this, which is the bloody *jasper*, or *blood-stone*, is what we had not time to settle.

“ I should first have made mention of the *verde antico*, the dark green with white irregular spots, because it is of the greatest value, and nearest the Nile. This is produced in the mountains of the plain green, or serpentine, as is the *jasper*, and is not discoverable by the dust, or any particular colour upon it. First there is a blue, fleaky stone. After lifting this, we come to the beds of the *verde antico*; and here the quarrying is very obvious, for it has been uncovered in patches, not above twenty-feet square. Then, in another part, the green stone has been removed, and another pit of it wrought.

“ I saw, in several places in the plain, small pieces of African marble scattered about, but no rocks or mountains of it. This prodigious store of marble, is placed upon a ridge, whence there is a descent to the east, or west, either to the Nile or Red Sea. The level ground, and hard-fixed gravel, are proper for the heaviest carriages, and will easily and smoothly convey any weight whatever to its place of embarkation on the Nile; so that another wonder ceased, how the ancients transported those vast blocks of marble to Thebes, Memphis, and Alexandria.”

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Egyptians export great quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts, calicoes, yellow wax, sal ammoniac, saffron, sugar, fenna, and cassia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, spices, calicoes, and other merchandises, which are landed at Suez, and from thence sent to Europe. Several European states have consuls resident in Egypt; but the customs of the Turkish government are managed by Jews. A number of English vessels arrive yearly at Alexandria; some of which are laden on account of the owners; but most of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jew, Armenian, and Mahometan traders.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] A viceroy is sent to Egypt from the Porte, under the title of *bashaw* of Cairo, and is one of the greatest officers of the Ottoman empire. But since the revolution of *Ali Bey*, the power of the Turks in Egypt is more precarious than in any other province. The government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican. The monarchical is executed by the *bashaw*. The republican, or rather the aristocratical part of the government, consists of a *divan*, composed of twenty-four *sangiacs*, *beys*, or lords. The head of them is called the *sheik bellet*, who is chosen by the *divan*, and confirmed by the *bashaw*. Every one of the *sangiacs* is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts sovereign power; the major part of them reside at Cairo. If the grand signior’s *bashaw* acts in opposition to the

sense of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not suffer him to continue in his post, and the Porte is obliged to send another. They have an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year Sultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamalukes.

REVENUES.] These are very inconsiderable, when compared with the natural riches of the country, and the despotism of its government. Some say they amount to a million sterling, but that two-thirds of the whole are spent in the country.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This consists in the Mamalukes, some bodies of whom are cantoned in the villages to exact tribute, and support authority. The greater part are assembled at Cairo. They amount to about eight thousand men, attached to the different beys, whom they enable to contend with each other, and to set the Turks at defiance.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs sat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyses, the second king of Persia, conquered the Egyptians, five hundred and twenty years before the birth of Christ. Egypt continued a part of the Persian empire, till Alexander of Macedon vanquished Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conquests of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being seized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the share of Ptolomy, by some supposed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about three hundred years before Christ. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominions over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolomies; and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the death of the famous Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolomy Dionysius, the last king. After her reign, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second calif of the successors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands seven hundred years. The famous library of Alexandria, said to consist of seven hundred thousand volumes, was collected by Ptolomy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolomy; and the same prince caused the Old Testament to be translated into Greek, but whether by seventy-two interpreters, and in the manner commonly related, is justly questioned; this translation is known by the name of septuagint. Omar subjected Egypt to the Mahometan power, about the year 640, and the califs of Babylon were sovereigns of the country till 870, when the Egyptians established a governor of their own, called the calif of Cairo.

About the time of the crusades, between the year 1150 and 1190, Egypt was governed by Noreddin, the Saracen sultan of Damascus, whose son, the famous Saladin, proved so formidable to the christian adventurers, and retook from them Jerusalem. He instituted the military corps of Mamalukes, like the janizaries of Constantinople, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and for nearly 300 years, chose their princes out of their own body. Egypt, for some time, made a figure under those usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks, till the time of Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the Mamalukes several bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

Ali Bey, a man of great abilities and address, attempted, a few years since, to wrest Egypt from the dominion of the Turks. He was, for a long time, successful in all his enterprizes; but on the 7th of March 1773, was defeated, wounded, and taken prisoner. He died of his wounds, and was buried at Grand Cairo.

Since the revolt of Ali Bey, the Ottoman power has become very precarious in Egypt. The porte still retains a pacha there; but this pacha, confined and watched in the castle of Cairo, is rather a prisoner to the Mamalukes, than the representative of the sultan.

THE STATES OF BARBARY*.

UNDER this head, we shall rank the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez; 2. Algiers; 3. Tunis; 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded, on the north, by the Mediterranean sea; on the south, by Tafilet; and, on the east, by Segelmessa and the kingdom of Algiers, being five hundred miles in length, and four hundred and eighty miles in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about one hundred and twenty-five miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers on the east, and Morocco on the south, and is surrounded in other parts by the sea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded, on the east, by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north, by the Mediterranean, on the south, by Mount Atlas, and, on the west, by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet. According to dr. Shaw, who resided twelve years at Algiers, in quality of chaplain to the British factory, and has corrected many errors of ancient and modern geographers, respecting the states of Barbary, this country extends, in length, four hundred and eighty miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between forty and one hundred miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean, on the north and east; by the kingdom of Algiers, on the west; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the south; being two hundred miles in length, from north to south, and one hundred and seventy in breadth, from east to west.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north, by the Mediterranean sea; on the south, by the country of the Beriberics; on the west, by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and the territory of the Gadamis; and on the east, by Egypt; extending about eleven hundred miles along the sea-coast; and the breadth is from one hundred to three hundred miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs, except that the capital of Biledulgerid (the ancient Numidia) is Dara.

This being premised, we shall consider the Barbary states as forming, which they really do, a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exercise of its internal polity; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom, in the customs and manners of the inhabitants.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed of all the other states, except in the months of July and August.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.} These states, under the Roman empire, were justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there, was considered as the highest state of luxury. The produce of their soil formed those magazines, which furnished all Italy, and a great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are ill cultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of the government, yet they are still fertile, not only in the above-mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plumbs, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in the kitchen gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on the plains; and, by the report of the Europeans, who have lived there for some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of life; for their great

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In the sea-port towns, and maritime countries, a bastard kind of Arabic is spoken; and sea-faring people are no strangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Latin, &c. that is so well known in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

ANTIQUEITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } This article is well worth the study of an
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } antiquary; but the subjects of it are difficult of access, being scattered over a wide extent of country, inhabited by ignorant and inhospitable barbarians. The reader can scarcely doubt, that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the most curious remains of antiquity. Some memorials of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatness are still to be met with, and many ruins of cities, which bear evidences of their ancient grandeur and populousness. These point out the old Julia Cæsarea of the Romans, which was little inferior, in magnificence, to Carthage itself. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are said to be still remaining, but no vestige of its walls. The same is the fate of Utica, famous for the retreat and death of Cato; and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and so over-run is the country with barbarism, that their very scites are not known with certainty, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings, which remain still in tolerable preservation. Besides those of classical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the most stupendous magnificence, are likewise found in this vast tract. These were erected under the califs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was subdued by the Turks, or reduced to its present form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curiosities belonging to this country, except its salt-pits, which, in some places take up an area of six miles. Dr. Shaw mentions springs, found here, that are so hot as to boil large pieces of meat very tender in a quarter of an hour.

CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almost in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez, thirty miles distant, and very populous. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but the common people live in a dirty, slovenly manner.

The City of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near one hundred and twenty thousand inhabitants, fifteen thousand houses, and one hundred and seven mosques. The public baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea, from Algiers, is very beautiful, being built on the declivity of a mountain; but the city, though for several ages it has braved some of the greatest powers in Christendom, could make but a faint defence against a regular siege, and, it is said, that three fifty-gun ships might batter it down from the harbour.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the finest of all these states, contains the remains of many noble cities, some of them still in good condition. The capital, about thirty miles south of old Carthage, has fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The streets (says Mr Stanly) are narrow, as in most hot countries; and, not being paved, they are dirty in winter, and dusty in summer. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; most of them have a porch, or gateway, with benches on each side, covered with mats, where the master of the house transacts his business, and receives his friends; no persons, except on some extraordinary occasions, having any farther admission. Beyond this is an open court, paved with marble stone, or glazed tiles, according to the ability of the owner, covered over, and sheltered from the sun and weather by a cloth, which, by means of pulleys may be varied at pleasure. When entertainments are given, the company meet in the court, which is always kept very clean. The public exchange for merchants and their goods

is commodious; but the inhabitants of Tunis are distressed for want of fresh water. Most of the water used in this city is rain-water, preserved in cisterns, into which it is conveyed by pipes from the roofs of the houses, which are all flat. These cisterns are so large, that they hold enough to serve the families five or six months. Almost every cistern has the base of a marble column hollowed out to cover the mouth; thousands of them being put to this use all over the country.

Merfa, two miles from Carthage, and eleven from Tunis, is a very pleasant situation. Here the bey has two country-houses, one of which has been a costly work, built by Hassan bey, surnamed the good. From these houses, are orange gardens reaching almost to the sea-shore; on the edge of which is a famous well of sweet water, esteemed the best and lightest in the kingdom.

The city of Tripoli consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but never can make any considerable figure, on account of the inconveniencies attending its situation, particularly the want of pure water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coast, is rather more than a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes between the Spaniards and Moors. Constantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities in Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides except the south-west.

Besides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie scattered up and down this immense tract of country. The city of Fez, at present the capital of the kingdom so called, is said to contain near three hundred thousand inhabitants, besides merchants and foreigners. Its mosques amount to five hundred; one of them is magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracy of its inhabitants. Tangier, situated about two miles within the straits of Gibraltar, was given, by the crown of Portugal, as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, consort of Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the English what Gibraltar is now; and it must have been a great acquisition had not the misunderstandings between the king and his parliament occasioned him to blow up its fortifications and demolish its harbour; so that from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing town. Ceuta, upon the same strait, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, besieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about eight hundred houses; but the inhabitants are said to be rich, and tolerably civilized in their manners.

The provinces of Suz, Tafilet, and Gefula, form no part of the states of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their sovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious.

Zaara is a desert country, thinly peopled, and nearly destitute of both water and provisions.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower subjects of these states know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be supplied with necessary utensils and manufactures; so that their exports consists chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, sword knots, and carpets, which are cheaper and softer than those in Turkey, though not so good in other respects. As they leave almost all their commercial affairs to the Jews and christians settled among them, the latter have established silk and linen works, which supply the higher ranks of their own subjects. They have no ships, that, properly speaking, are employed in commerce; so that the French and English carry on the greatest part of their trade. Their exports besides those already mentioned, consist of elephant's teeth, ostrich feathers,

copper, tin, wool, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum-arabic, and sandrac. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said to carry on a considerable trade, by caravans, to Mecca, Medina, and some inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vast numbers of negroes, who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities; the particulars of which are too many to specify. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco, are but half those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that no nation is fond of trading with these states, not only on account of their capricious despotism, but the villainy of their individuals, both natives and jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and, when detected, are seldom punished.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In Morocco, government cannot be said to exist. The emperors have, for some ages, been parties, judges, and even executioners, with their own hands, in all criminal matters; nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and they seldom observe even the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however of the califate government still continue; for in places where no military officer resides, the mufti or high-priest is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, act as justices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the grand signior to be his superior, and pays him a distant allegiance as the chief representative of Mahomet. What we have said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkish bashaw or dey, who governs in the name of the grand signior; yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious subjects to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy happens in the government, which commonly does by murder, every soldier in the army has a vote in choosing the succeeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodshed, yet he is no sooner fixed, than he is cheerfully recognized and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the porte; but that is seldom refused, as the divan is no stranger to the dispositions of the people. The power of the dey is despotic; and his income amounts to nearly seven hundred thousand dollars a year, without greatly oppressing his subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. A detachment of the army of their states is annually sent into each province, to collect a tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes taken at sea, sometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives. These deys pay slight annual tributes to the porte. When the grand signior is at war with a christian power he requires their assistance, as he does that of the king of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys, are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance, the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council, which consists of thirty bashaws. These bashaws seldom fail of forming parties, among the soldiers, against the reigning dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council; and the strongest candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is deposed; sometimes, though but very seldom, he resigns his authority, to save his life; and it is seldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited; but an unsuccessful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, seldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES.] We have already mentioned those of Algiers, but they are now said to be exceeded by those of Tunis. They consist of a certain proportion of the prizes taken

from christians, a small capitation tax, and the customs paid by the English, French, and other nations, who are suffered to trade with those states. As to the king of Morocco we can form no very accurate ideas of his revenue; but from the manner of his living, his attendance and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ransoms of christian slaves are his perquisites. He sometimes shares in the vessels of other states, which entitles him to a part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahometan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewise considerable profits in the Negroland, and other caravans, and in the slave-trade towards the south. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed one hundred and sixty-five thousand pounds a year.

MILITARY STRENGTH, } By the best accounts we have received, the king of Mo-
AT SEA AND LAND. } rocco can bring to the field one hundred thousand men; but the strength of this army consists of cavalry mounted by his negro slaves. Those wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but their king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, which lay at Sallee, and sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about six thousand five hundred foot, consisting of Turks, and cologlies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About one thousand of them do garrison duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the dey can bring two thousand Moorish horse into the field. Those troops are under excellent discipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary states keep up a force in proportion to their abilities; so that a few years ago, they refused to send a tribute to the Turkish emperor, who seems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and a more extensive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished, the present inhabitants have scarcely any merchant-ships belonging to them, or indeed any other ships than those that Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which, though increased since the last attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and small, and some years ago did not exceed six ships from thirty-six to fifty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law.

HISTORY.] Algiers had undergone a variety of revolutions in its form of government, previous to the beginning of the sixteenth century, which it is not within the plan of this sketch to describe. But about that time, a sudden revolution happened, which, by rendering the states of Barbary formidable to the Europeans, hath made their history worthy of more attention. Horuc and Hayradin, the sons of a potter in the isle of Lesbos, prompted by a restless and enterprising spirit, forsook their father's profession, put to sea, and joined a crew of pirates. They soon distinguished themselves by their valour and activity; and becoming masters of a small brigantine, supported their infamous trade with such conduct and success, that they assembled a fleet of twelve galleys, besides many vessels of smaller force. Of this fleet, Horuc, the elder brother, called Barbarossa, from the red colour of his beard, was admiral, and Hayradin second in command. Their names soon became terrible from the Straits of the Darnanelles to those of Gibraltar. Eutemi, king of Algiers, having attempted several times, without success, to take a fort which the Spanish governors of Oran had built not far from the capital, applied to Barbarossa. The corsair leaving his brother Hayradin with the fleet, marched at the head of five thousand men to Algiers. Such a force gave him the command of the town. He secretly murdered

the monarch whom he had come to assist, and proclaimed himself king in his stead. He lost his life in a war with the forces of Charles V. His brother Hayradin, known likewise by the name of Barbarossa, assumed the sceptre of Algiers. He built a strong mole for the safety of his ships. In this he employed thirty thousand christian slaves, whom he obliged to labour without intermission for three years, in which time the work was completed. Hayradin soon became dreaded not only by the Arabs and Moors, but also by the maritime christian powers, especially the Spaniards. Hassan-Aga, a Sardinian renegado, succeeded Hayradin. He had no sooner taken possession of his new government, than the Algerines renewed their ravages on the Spanish coast with greater fury than ever; extending them to the ecclesiastical state, and other parts of Italy. Charles V. therefore, determined to crush them, and set sail at the head of a powerful fleet, consisting of an hundred and twenty ships and twenty galleys, having on board thirty thousand troops, with an immense quantity of arms and ammunition. In this expedition, many young nobility and gentlemen attended as volunteers, and among these, many knights of Malta, so remarkable for their valour against the enemies of christianity. The Algerines were thrown into the utmost consternation. The city was surrounded only by a wall, with scarcely any out-works. The garrison consisted of eight hundred Turks and six thousand Moors, without fire-arms, and poorly disciplined and accoutred; the rest of their forces being dispersed in the other provinces of the kingdom, to levy the usual tribute on the Arabs and Moors. The Spaniards landed without opposition, and immediately built a fort, under the cannon of which they encamped, and diverted the course of a spring, which supplied the city with water. Being now reduced to the utmost distress, Hassan received a summons to surrender at discretion, on pain of being put to the sword with all his garrison. He was on the point of complying, when intelligence was brought, that the forces belonging to the western government were in full march towards the place; upon which it was resolved to defend it to the utmost. Charles, in the mean time, resolving upon a general assault, kept up a constant firing on the town; which made a very weak defence. But while the divan were deliberating on the most proper means of obtaining an honourable capitulation, a mad prophet, attended by a multitude of people, entered the assembly, and foretold the destruction of the Spaniards before the end of the moon, exhorting the inhabitants to hold out till that time. This prediction was soon accomplished in a very surprising manner; for, on the 28th of October, 1541, a dreadful storm of wind, rain, and hail, arose from the north, accompanied with violent shocks of earthquakes, and a dismal and universal darkness both by sea and land; so that the sun, moon, and elements, seemed to combine together for the destruction of the Spaniards. In that one night, some say in less than half an hour, eighty-six ships and fifteen galleys were destroyed, with all their crews and military stores; by which the army on shore was deprived of all means of subsistence. Their camp also, which spread itself along the plain under their fort, was laid quite under water, by the torrents which descended from the neighbouring hills. Many of the troops, in trying to remove into some better situation, were cut to pieces by the Moors and Arabs; while several galleys, and other vessels, endeavouring to gain some neighbouring creeks along the coast, were immediately plundered, and their crews massacred by the inhabitants. Next morning, Charles beheld the sea covered with the fragments of ships, and the bodies of men, horses, and other creatures, swimming on the waves; at which he was so disheartened, that, abandoning his tents, artillery, and all his heavy baggage, to the enemy, he marched at the head of his army, in no small disorder, towards Cape Mallabux, in order to reembark in those vessels, which had out-weathered the storm. But Hassan, who had watched his motions, allowed him just time to get to the shore, when he sallied out, and attacked the Spaniards in the midst of

their hurry to get into their ships. He killed great numbers, and brought away a still greater number of captives; after which he returned in triumph to Algiers.

The Spaniards had scarcely reached their ships, when they were attacked by a fresh storm, in which great numbers of them perished. A vessel in particular, containing seven hundred soldiers, besides sailors, sunk in the sight of Charles, without a possibility of saving a single man. At length, with much labour, they reached the port of Bujeyah. They stayed no longer here than till the sixteenth of November, when they set sail for Carthage, and reached it on the twenty-first of the same month. In this unfortunate expedition, upwards of one hundred and twenty ships and galleys were lost, with above three hundred colonels and other officers, and eight thousand soldiers and mariners, besides those destroyed by the enemy on their reembarkation, or drowned in the last storm. The number of prisoners was so great, that the Algerines sold some of them, by way of contempt, for an onion per head.

Hassan, the son of Hayradin Barbarossa, succeeded. Not long after, the Spaniards undertook an expedition against Mostagan, under the command of the count d'Alcandela; but were utterly defeated, the commander himself killed, and twelve thousand men taken prisoners. Hassan's successor, Mahomet, incorporated the janissaries and Levantine Turks together. He thus put an end to their dissensions, and laid the foundation of the Algerine independency on the porte. He likewise added some considerable fortifications to the city and castle, which he designed to render impregnable. Mahomet was succeeded by Ochali, a renegade, who reduced the kingdom of Tunis. It remained subject to the viceroy of Algiers only till the year 1586, when a bashaw of Tunis was appointed by the sultan.

In the year 1601, the Spaniards made another attempt upon Algiers. Their fleet was driven back by contrary winds, so that they suffered no loss. In 1609, the Moors being expelled from Spain, flocked, in great numbers, to Algiers; and, as many of them were able sailors, they made the Algerine fleet extremely formidable. In 1616, it consisted of forty ships, between two and four hundred tons burden, and their admiral was five hundred tons. It attacked christian ships, both English and French, with whom they pretended to be in friendship, as well as Spaniards and Portuguese, with whom they were at war. The Algerines were now become formidable to the European powers. The Spaniards, who were most in danger, solicited the assistance of England, the pope, and other states. The French, however, were the first who dared to show their resentment at the perfidious behaviour of these miscreants; and in 1617, M. Beaulieu was sent against them with a fleet of fifty men of war. He defeated their fleet, and took two of their vessels. Their admiral sunk his own ship and crew, rather than fall into the hands of the enemy. In 1620, a squadron of English men of war was sent against Algiers, but without effect. In 1623, the Algerines, and other states of Barbary, threw off their dependence on the porte. They made prizes of several merchant ships belonging to the powers at peace with the porte. They seized a Dutch ship and poleacre at Scanderoon; they even ventured on shore, and, finding the town abandoned by the Turkish aga and inhabitants, they plundered all the magazines and ware-houses, and set them on fire.

In 1637, the Algerines infested the British channel; and, according to Mrs. Macauley*, had made such a vast number of captures, as to have, at one time, between four and five thousand subjects of England prisoners. Some time after the Algerines fitted out a fleet of sixteen galleys and galliots, under the command of Hali Pinchin. The chief design of this armament was against the treasure of Loretto; which they were prevented, by contrary winds, from obtaining. Hereupon they made a de-

* History of England, vol. II. chap. 4.

scent on Puglia, in the kingdom of Naples; where they ravaged the whole territory of Necotra. They carried off a vast number of captives. Thence steering towards Dalmatia, they scoured the Adriatic, and loaded themselves with immense plunder. The Venetians, alarmed at such ravages, equipped a fleet of twenty-eight sail, under the command of admiral Capello, with express orders to burn, sink, or take, all the Barbary corsairs which he met with, either on the open seas, or even in the Ottoman harbours, agreeably to a late treaty of peace with the porte. Pinchinin was overtaken by Capello, and an engagement immediately ensued, in which the Algerines were defeated. Five of their vessels were disabled; one thousand five hundred men, Turks and christian slaves, were killed; besides one thousand six hundred galley slaves who regained their liberty. The Algerines fled to Velona, and reared their tents, and drew their booty and equipage along the shore. Capello kept up a brisk fire among their tents, while some well manned galliots and brigantines were dispatched to attack their shipping. Sixteen galleys, with all their cannon and stores, were towed out, and their booty destroyed.

The pirates did not long continue in the defenceless state to which this defeat reduced them; being able, at the end of two years, to appear at sea with a fleet of sixty-five sail, which brought in vast numbers of slaves, and an immense quantity of rich spoils; insomuch that the English, French, and Dutch were obliged to cringe to the Algerines, who sometimes condescended to be at peace with them, but swore eternal war against Spain, Portugal, and Italy, whom they considered as the greatest enemies to the Mahometan name. At last, Louis the fourteenth, provoked by the grievous outrages committed by the Algerines on the coasts of Provence and Languedoc, ordered, in 1681, a considerable fleet to be fitted out against them, under the marquis du Quesne, vice-admiral of France. His first expedition was against a number of Tripolitan corsairs; who had the good fortune to out-row him, and shelter themselves in the island of Scio, belonging to the Turks. This did not prevent him from pursuing them thither, and making such a terrible fire upon them, as destroyed fourteen of their vessels, besides battering the walls of the castle. This severity seemed only to be designed as a check to the piracies of the Algerines; but, finding that they still continued their outrages on the French coast, du Quesne failed, in August, 1682, to Algiers, cannonading and bombarding it so furiously, that, in a very short time, the whole town was in flames. The great mosque was battered down, and most of the houses laid in ruins, so that the inhabitants were on the point of abandoning the place; when, on a sudden, the wind turned about, and obliged du Quesne to return to Toulon. The Algerines immediately made reprisals, by sending a number of galleys and galliots to the coasts of Provence, where they committed the most dreadful ravages, and brought away a vast number of captives; upon which a new armament was ordered, at Toulon and Marseilles, to be got ready against them the next year; and the Algerines, having received early notice, put themselves into as good a state of defence as the time would allow.

In May, 1683, du Quesne, with his squadron, cast anchor before Algiers; where, being joined by the marquis d'Affranville, with five strong vessels, they resolved to bombard the town, and accordingly, one hundred bombs were thrown into it, which did terrible execution, while the besieged made some hundred discharges of their cannon against the assailants, without doing any considerable damage. The following night, bombs were again thrown into the city in such numbers, that the dey's palace and other great edifices, were almost destroyed; some of the batteries were dismounted and several vessels sunk in the port. The dey, and Turkish bashaw, as well as the whole soldiery, alarmed at this dreadful havoc, immediately sued for peace. As a preliminary, the French insisted on the surrender of all christian captives who had been taken fighting under their flag; which being granted, one hundred and forty-

two persons were directly delivered up, with a promise of sending on board the remainder, as soon as they could be got from the different parts of the country. Accordingly, du Quesne sent his commissary-general, and one of his engineers into the town, with exprefs orders to insist upon the delivery of all the French captives, without exception, together with the effects that had been taken from the French; and that Mezomorto, their then admiral, and Hali Rais, one of their captains, should be given as hostages.

This last demand having embarrassed the dey, he assembled the divan, and acquainted them with it. Upon this Mezomorto fell into a violent passion, and told the assembly that the cowardice of those who sat at the helm, had occasioned the ruin of Algiers; but that, for his part he would never consent to deliver up any thing that was taken from the French. He immediately acquainted the soldiery with what had passed; which so exasperated them, that they murdered the dey in the night, and next day chose Mezomorto in his place. This was no sooner done, than he cancelled all the articles of peace which had been made, and hostilities were renewed with greater fury than ever.

The French admiral now poured in such volleys of bonibs, that in less than three days, the greatest part of the city was reduced to ashes; and the fire burnt with such fury, that the sea was enlightened for two leagues round. Mezomorto, unmoved by all these disasters, and the vast numbers of the slain, whose blood ran in rivulets along the streets, or rather, grown furious and desperate, fought only how to wreak his revenge on the enemy; and, not content with causing all the French in the city to be cruelly murdered, he ordered their consul to be tied hand and foot, and fastened alive to the mouth of a mortar, from which he was shot away against their navy. By this piece of inhumanity, du Quesne was so exasperated, that he did not leave Algiers, till he had utterly destroyed all the fortifications, shipping, almost all the lower, and above two thirds of the upper part of the city; which became little more than a heap of ruins.

The Algerines were now thoroughly convinced that they were not invincible; and, therefore, immediately sent an embassy to France, begging, in the most abject terms, for peace; which Louis very soon granted, to their inexpressible joy. They now began to pay some regard to other nations, and to be somewhat cautious how they wantonly provoked their displeasure. The bombardment by the French had so far humbled the Algerines, that they condescended to enter into a treaty with England; which was, in 1686, renewed upon terms very advantageous to the latter. It is not to be supposed; however, that the natural perfidy of the Algerines would disappear on a sudden. Notwithstanding this treaty, therefore, they lost no opportunity of making prizes of English ships, when they could conveniently seize them. Upon some infringement of this kind, captain Beach, in 1695, drove ashore, and burned seven of their frigates, which produced a renewal of the treaty five years after; but it was not until the taking of Gibraltar and Port Mahon, that Britain could have a sufficient check upon them, to enforce the observation of treaties; and these have since proved such restraints upon Algiers, that they still continue to pay a greater deference to the English than to any other European power.

On the 23d of June, 1775, a fleet of six ships of the line, twelve frigates, and thirty-three other armed vessels, set sail from Carthage, in Spain, to attack Algiers. There was on board a body of troops amounting to above twenty-four thousand. They were commanded by the count O'Reilly, a personal favourite of the late king of Spain. They had, for the land service, an hundred and seventy-six pieces of artillery, mortars, and howitzers, with a suitable quantity of military stores. On the 30th of June, and 1st of July, they anchored in the bay of Algiers. On the 8th of July at day-break, the ships being stationed to batter the different forts, to the right and left of

the place of disembarkation, the troops, to the number of about eight thousand, were put on board the boats; which formed in six columns. The place of landing was a league and an half to the eastward of the city of Algiers. Eighty thousand Moors, of whom two-thirds were cavalry, came in fight, but did not attempt to oppose the landing of the Spanish forces. It is said, that the whole number of Africans, collected on this occasion, was not less than one hundred and fifty thousand. The troops advanced into a close country, which the Algerines had occupied in small parties. The grenadiers and light infantry of the Spaniards, were repulsed, and the whole body fell into confusion. In a very short time, they fled, leaving behind them a great number of killed and wounded. The latter, a few excepted, were, in spite of their intreaties, left to the mercy of the conquerors. Part of a second embarkation of troops added to the general confusion. A third body had cast up an entrenchment on the shore, for the protection of the army. The Africans attacked it, but were driven back with great slaughter on both sides. It is said that the Algerines had between five and six thousand men slain on the spot. The Spaniards were, nevertheless, obliged to abandon their attempt, and reembark their troops. Their wounded men, who were left on the field of battle, were every one murdered by the enemy. Fifteen pieces of cannon, and three howitzers, were left behind by these unfortunate invaders. The real amount of their loss can hardly have been less than three thousand lives.

The detail of the depredations committed by the Algerines, on the citizens of the United States, is reserved for the latter part of our work.

A B Y S S I N I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 900 } Breadth 800 }	between { 6 and 20 north latitude } 26 and 44 east longitude. }	378,000.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Senaar, or Nubia; on the east, partly by the Red Sea, and partly by Dancala; on the west by Gorham; and on the south by the kingdom of Gingiro, and Alaba.

It contains (according to Mr. Bruce, from whom the subsequent account is chiefly taken) the following provinces, viz. 1. Masuah; 2. Tigre; 3. Samen; 4. Begemder; 5. Amhara; 6. Walaka; 7. Gojam; 8. Damot; 9. Maitsha; 10. Dembea; 11. Kuara; 12. Nara.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The rainy season continues for six months of the year, from April to September, which is succeeded, without interval, by a cloudless sky, and vertical sun; and cold nights, which as immediately follow these scorching days. The earth, notwithstanding the heat of these days, is yet perpetually cold, so as to feel disagreeably to the soles of the feet; partly owing to the six-months' rain, when no sun appears, and partly to the perpetual equality of nights and days.

DISEASES OF THE CLIMATE.] The whole coast of the Red Sea, from Suez to Babelmandel, but more especially between the tropics, is very unwholesome. Violent fevers, called there *nedad*, make the principal figure in this fatal list, and generally

terminate, the third day, in death. If the patient survives till the fifth day, he very often recovers by drinking water only, and throwing a quantity of cold water upon him, even in his bed, where he is permitted to lie, without attempting to make him dry; or change his bed, till another deluge adds to the first. There is no remedy so sovereign here as the bark; but it must be given in very different times and manners from those pursued in Europe. Were a physician to take time to prepare his patient for the bark, by first giving him purgatives, he would be dead of the fever before his preparation was completed. The next common disease, in the low country of Arabia, the intermediate island of Masuah, and all Abyssinia, (for the diseases are exactly similar in all this tract) is the tertian fever, which is in nothing different from our tertian, and is successfully treated here in the same manner as in Europe. As no species of this disease, at least that I have seen, says our author, Mr. Bruce, menaces the patient with death, especially in the beginning of the disorder, some time may be allowed for preparation to those who doubt the effect of bark. There is a species of dysentery here, which begins with a constant diarrhoea, when the intestines are at last excoriated, and the mucus voided by the stools. This disease is rarely cured, if it begins with the rainy season. But if, on the contrary, it happens either in the sunny six-months, or the end of the rainy ones immediately next to them, small doses of ipecacuanha either carry it off, or change it into an intermitting fever, which yields afterwards to the bark.

The next disease, which we may say is endemial, is called *banzeer*, the *bogs* or the *swine*, and is a swelling of the glands of the throat, and under the arms. This the ignorant inhabitants endeavor to bring to a suppuration, but in vain; they then open them in several places; a fore and running follow, and a disease very much resembling what in Europe is called the evil.

The next, though not a dangerous complaint, has a terrible appearance. Small tubercles, or swellings, appear all over the body, but thickest on the thighs, arms, and legs. These swellings appear and disappear, for weeks together, without pain; though the legs often swell to a monstrous size, as in the dropsy. Sometimes the patients have ulcers in their noses and mouths. The small swellings or eruptions, when squeezed, very often yield blood; in other respects, the patient is generally in good health.

The next complaint we shall mention, as common in these countries, is called *farrentit*, a corruption of an Arabic word, which signifies the worm of Pharaoh; all bad things being, by the Arabs, attributed to these poor kings, who seem to be regarded by posterity as the evil geni of the country which they once governed. This extraordinary animal only afflicts those who are in a constant habit of drinking stagnant water; and, far from affecting the fleshy parts of the body, it generally comes out where the bone has least flesh upon it. Upon looking at this worm, on its first appearance, a small black head is very visible, with a hooked beak, of a whitish colour. Its body is seemingly of a white, silky texture, very like a small tendon, bared, and perfectly cleaned. After its appearance, the natives who are used to it, seize it gently by the head, and wrap it round a small piece of silk, or bird's feather. Every day, or several times a day, they try to wind it up on the quill as far as it comes readily; and, upon the smallest resistance, they give over; for fear of breaking it. "I have seen," says Mr. Bruce; "five feet or more of this extraordinary animal, winded out with invincible patience, in the course of three weeks. No inflammation then remained, and scarcely any redness round the edges of the aperture, only a small quantity of lymph appeared in the hole or puncture, which scarcely issued out upon pressing. In three days it was commonly well, and left no scar or dimple implying loss of substance."

"I, myself," says our author, "experienced this complaint. I was reading upon a sofa at Cairo, a few days after my return from Upper Egypt, when I felt, in the fore

part of my leg, upon the bone about seven inches below the centre of my knee-pan, an itching resembling that which follows upon the bite of a muscheto. Upon scratching, a small tumour appeared, very much like a muscheto bite. The itching returned in about an hour afterwards; and being more intent upon my reading than my leg, I scratched it till the blood came. I soon after observed something like a black spot, which had already risen considerably above the surface of the skin. All medicine proved useless; and the disease not being known at Cairo, there was nothing for it, but to have recourse to the only received method of treating it in this country. About three inches of the worm was winded out upon a piece of raw silk in the first week, without pain or fever; but it was broken afterwards through the carelessness and rashness of the surgeon, when changing a poultice on board the ship in which I returned to France. A violent inflammation followed; the leg swelled so as scarcely to leave appearance of knee or ankle; the skin, red and distended, seemed glazed like a mirror. The wound was now healed, and discharged nothing; and there was every appearance of a mortification coming on. The great care and attention procured me in the lazaretto at Marseilles, by a nation always foremost in the acts of humanity to strangers, and the attention and skill of the surgeon, recovered me from this troublesome complaint.

“ The last I shall mention of these endemial diseases, and the most terrible of all others that can fall to the lot of man, is the elephantiasis, which some have chosen to call the leprosy, or *Lepra Arabum*; though in its appearance, and in all its stages, it no more resembles the leprosy of Palestine, (which is, I apprehend, the only leprosy that we know) than it does the gout or the dropsy. I never saw the beginning of this disease. During the course of it, the face is often healthy to appearance; the eyes vivid and sparkling. Those affected have sometimes a kind of dryness upon the skin of their backs, which, upon scratching, I have seen leave a mealiness or whiteness; the only circumstance, to the best of my recollection, in which it resembled the leprosy, but it has no scabiness. The hair, too, is of its natural colour; not white, yellowish, or thin, as in the leprosy.

“ The chief feat of this disease is from the bending of the knee downwards to the ankle; the leg is swelled to a great degree, becoming one size from bottom to top, and gathered into circular wrinkles, like small hoops or plaits; between every two of which there is an opening, which is all raw flesh, or perfectly excoriated. From between these circular divisions, a great quantity of lymph constantly oozes. The swelling of the leg reaches over the foot, so as to leave about an inch or little more of it seen.”

[**QUADRUPEDS.**] There is no country in the world which produces a greater number or variety of quadrupeds, whether tame or wild, than Abyssinia. As the high country is now perfectly cleared of wood, by the waste made in that article from the continual march of armies, the mountains are covered, to the very top, with perpetual verdure and most luxuriant herbage.

The long rains in summer are not suddenly absorbed by the rays of the sun. A thick veil defends the ground when that luminary is in the zenith, or near it, affording heat to promote vegetation, without withering it, by destroying the moisture; and, by this means, a never-failing store of provender is constantly provided for all sorts of cattle. Of the cow-kind, great abundance present themselves every where, differing in size, some having horns of various dimensions, some without horns; differing also in the colour and length of the hair.

Among the wild animals, are prodigious numbers of the antelope kind; the bohur, sassa, secho, and madequa, and many others. Hyænas are still more numerous. There are few varieties of the dog or fox kind. Of these, the most numerous is the jackal. The wild boar, smaller and smoother in the hair than that of Barbary or Europe,

but differing in nothing else, is met frequently in swamps or on the banks of rivers covered with wood.

The elephant, rhinoceros, giraffa or camelopardalis, are inhabitants of the low, hot country; nor is the lion, leopard, or panther, seen in the high and cultivated country. There are no tigers in Abyssinia, nor, as far as we know, in Africa. Innumerable flocks of apes, and baboons, of different kinds, destroy the fields of millet every where; these, and an immense number of common rats, make great destruction in the country and harvest. There are no rabbits in Abyssinia, but hares abound. The hippopotamus and crocodile are in all the rivers, not only of Abyssinia, but as low down as Nubia and Egypt. There are many of the ass kind in the low country, towards the frontiers of Atbara, but no zebras; these are the inhabitants of Fazuclo, and Narea.

But of all the quadrupeds, there is none exceeds the hyæna for its merciless ferocity. "They were a plague," says Mr. Bruce," speaking of these animals, "in every situation, both in the city and in the field, and, I think, surpassed the sheep in number. Gondar was full of them, from the time it turned dark, till the dawn of day, seeking the different pieces of slaughtered carcases which this cruel and unclean people expose in the street without burial. Many a time in the night, when the king had kept me late in the palace, and it was not my duty to lie there, in going across the square from the king's house, not many hundred yards distant, I have been apprehensive they would bite me in the leg. They grunted in great numbers about me, though I was surrounded with several armed men, who seldom passed a night without wounding or slaughtering some of them."

[HUNTING THE ELEPHANT AND RHINOCEROS.] The hunting of these animals being one of the amusements of the natives, we shall give the reader an account of this dangerous sport, in the words of Mr. Bruce.

"On the 6th of January, 1772, an hour before day, after a hearty breakfast, we mounted on horseback, to the number of about thirty. But there was another body, both of horse and foot, who made hunting the elephant their particular business. These men dwell constantly in the woods, and know very little the use of bread, living entirely upon the flesh of the beasts they kill, chiefly that of the elephant or rhinoceros. They are exceedingly thin, light, and agile, both on horseback and foot; are very swarthy, though few of them black; none of them woolly-headed; and all of them have European features. They are called Agageer, a name of their profession, not of their nation, which comes from the word Agar, and signifies to hough or hamstring with a sharp weapon. More properly it means, indeed, the cutting the tendon of the heel, and is a characteristic of the manner in which they kill the elephant, which is, shortly, as follows. Two men, absolutely naked, without any rag or covering at all about them, get on horseback; this precaution is from fear of being laid hold of by the trees or bushes, in making their escape from a very watchful enemy. One of these riders sits upon the back of the horse, sometimes with a saddle, and sometimes without one, with only a switch or short stick in one hand, carefully managing the bridle with the other; behind him sits his companion, who has no other arms but a broad-sword, such as is used by the Slavonians, and which is brought from Trieste.

"As soon as the elephant is found feeding, the horseman rides before him as near his face as possible; or, if he flies, crosses him in all directions, crying out, "I am such a man and such a man; this is my horse, that has such a name; I killed your father in such a place, and your grandfather in such another place, and I am now come to kill you; you are but an ass in comparison of them." This nonsense he verily believes the elephant understands, who, chafed and angry at hearing the noise immediately before him, seeks to seize him with his trunk or proboscis, and, intent upon this, follows the horse every where, turning round with him, neglectful of making his escape by running straight forward, in which consists his only

safety. After having made him turn once or twice in pursuit of the horse, the horseman rides close up along-side of him, and drops his companion just behind on the off-side; and while he engages the elephant's attention upon the horse, the footman behind gives him a drawn stroke just above the heel, or what, in man, is called the tendon of Achilles. This is the critical moment; the horseman immediately wheels round, and takes his companion up behind him, and rides off full speed after the rest of the herd, if they have started more than one; and sometimes an expert agageer will kill three or four out of one herd. If the sword is good, and the man not afraid, the tendon is commonly entirely separated; and, if it is not cut through, it is generally so far divided, that the animal, with the stress he puts upon it, breaks the remaining part asunder. In either case, he remains incapable of advancing a step, till the horseman, returning, or his companions coming up, pierce him through with javelins and lances. He then falls to the ground, and expires with the loss of blood.

“My agageer, however, having wounded the first elephant, failed in the pursuit of the second, and being close upon him at entering the wood, he received a violent blow from a branch of a tree, which the elephant had bent by his weight; and, after passing, allowed it to replace itself, when it knocked down both the riders, and very much hurt the horse. This, indeed, is the great danger in elephant-hunting; for some of the trees that are dry and short, break by the violent pressure of so immense a body moving so rapidly, and fall upon the pursuers, or across the roads. But the greatest number of these trees being of a succulent quality, they bend without breaking, and return quickly to their former position, when they strike both horse and man so violently that they often beat them to pieces, and scatter them upon the plain. Dextrous, too, as the riders are, the elephant sometimes reaches them with his trunk, with which he dashes the horse against the ground, and then sets his feet upon him, till he tears him limb from limb with his proboscis. A great many hunters die this way.

“The elephant once slain, they cut the flesh off his bones into thongs, like the reins of a bridle, and hang these, like festoons upon the branches of trees, till they become perfectly dry, without salt, and they then lay them by for their provision in the season of the rains.

“The next morning we were on horseback, by the dawn of day, in search of the rhinoceros; many of which we had heard make a very deep groan and cry, as the morning approached. Several of the agageers then joined us, after we had searched about an hour in the thickest part of the wood, one of them rushed out, with great violence, crossing the plain towards a wood of canes that was about two miles distance. But though he ran, or rather trotted, with surprising speed, considering his bulk, he was, a very little time, transfixt with thirty or forty javelins, which so confounded him, that he left his purpose of going to the wood; and ran into a deep ditch without outlet, breaking about a dozen of the javelins as he entered. Here we thought he was caught in a trap, for he had scarce room to turn when a servant, who had a gun, standing directly over him, fired at his head, and the animal fell immediately, to all appearance, dead. All those on foot now jumped in with their knives to cut him up, and they had scarce begun, when the animal recovered so far as to rise upon his knees; happy then was the man that escaped first; and, had not one of the agageers, who was himself in the ditch, cut the sinew of the hind-leg, as he was retreating, there would have been a very sorrowful account of the foot hunters that day.

“After having dispatched him, I was curious to see what wound the shot had given, which had operated so violently upon so huge an animal; and I doubted not it was in the brain. But it had struck him no where but upon the point of the foremost horn, of which it had carried off above an inch; and this occasioned a concussion which had stunned him for a minute, till the bleeding had recovered him.”

BIRDS.] The number of birds, in Abyssinia, exceeds that of other animals beyond proportion. The high and low countries are equally stored with them. The first kind are the carnivorous birds. Many species of the eagle, hawk, and vulture kind, overstock all parts of the country. That species of glede, called Haddaya, so frequent in Egypt, comes very punctually into Ethiopia, at the return of the sun, after the tropical rains. The quantity of shell fish, which then cover the edges of the desert, and leave the salt-springs, where they have been nourished, surprised by the heat, and deserted by the moisture, are the first food these birds find in their way. They then are supplied by the carcases of those large beasts, the elephant, rhinoceros, and giraffa, the whole tribe of the deer kind, and the wild asses that are slain by the hunters, part of which only are used for food.

The vast quantity of field-rats and mice that appear after harvest, and swarm in the cracks, or fissures in the ground, are their next supply. But above all, the great slaughter made of cattle upon the march of armies, the beasts of burden which die under carriage and ill treatment, the number of men that perish by disease and by the sword, whose carcases are never buried by this barbarous and unclean people, compose such a quantity and variety of carrion, that it brings together, at one time, an immense multitude of birds of prey. These follow the camp, and abide by it; indeed, they seem another camp round it; for, besides those that venture among the tents, the fields on every side, as far as the eye can reach, are covered with them, and the branches of the trees ready to break under the pressure of their weight.

The Nisier or golden eagle, is one of the largest birds that flies. From wing to wing, he is eight feet four inches. The black eagle, rachamah, erkoom, moroc, she-regrig, and waalia, are particularly described by the historian of Abyssinia, to whose work we refer the reader who is desirous of information concerning them.

There is no great plenty of water-fowl in Abyssinia, especially of the web footed kind. Vast variety of storks cover the plains in May, when the rains are constant. All the deep and grassy bogs have snipes in them; and swallows there are of many kinds unknown in Europe; those that are common in Europe, appear in passage, at the very season when they take their flight from thence. There are few owls in Abyssinia; but these are of an immense size and beauty. There are no geese, wild or tame, except the golden goose, common in all the south of Africa.

INSECTS.] From the class of insects, we shall select the most remarkable, viz. the tsaltfalya or fly, which is in size very little larger than a bee, of a thicker proportion; and his wings placed separate like those of a fly; they are of pure gauze, without colour or spot upon them; the head is large, the upper jaw or lip is sharp, and has, at the end of it, a strong pointed hair, of about a quarter of an inch long; the lower jaw has two of these pointed hairs; and this pencil of hairs, when joined together, makes a resistance to the finger nearly equal to that of a strong hog's bristle. Its legs are ferrated in the inside, and the whole covered with brown hair or down. As soon as this plague appears, and their buzzing is heard, all the cattle forsake their food, and run wildly about the plain, till they die, worn out with fatigue, fright, and hunger. No remedy remains but to leave the black earth, and hasten down to the sands of Atbara; and there they remain while the rains last; this cruel enemy never daring to pursue them farther.

Though the size of the camel is immense, his strength vast, and his body, covered with a thick skin defended with strong hair, yet still, he is not capable to sustain the violent punctures the fly makes with his pointed proboscis. He must lose no time in removing to the sands of Atbara; for, when once attacked by this fly, his body, head, and legs break out into large bosses, which swell, break, and putrify to the certain destruction of the creature.

Even the elephant and rhinoceros, who, by reason of their enormous bulk, and the

vast quantity of food and water they daily need, cannot shift to desert and dry places, as the season may require, are obliged to roll themselves in mud and mire, which, when dry, coats them over like armour, and enables them to stand their ground against this winged assassin: and yet, upon almost every elephant and rhinoceros may be seen these tubercles, which may, most probably, be attributed to this enemy.

All the inhabitants of the sea-coast of Melinda, down to Cape Gardesfan, to Saba, and the south coast of the Red Sea, are obliged to put themselves in motion, and remove to the next sand in the beginning of the rainy season, to prevent all their stock of cattle from being destroyed. This is not a partial emigration: the inhabitants of all the countries from the mountains of Abyssinia northward, to the confluence of the Nile and Astaboras, are, once a-year, obliged to change their abode, and seek protection in the sands of Beja; nor is there any alternative, or means of avoiding this, though a hostile band was in their way, capable of spoiling them of half their substance.

Of all those that have written upon these countries, the prophet Isaiah, alone, has given an account of this animal, and the manner of its operation. *Isa.* vii. 18, 19. "And it shall come to pass; in that day, that the Lord shall hiss for the fly that is in the uttermost parts of the rivers of Egypt;"—"And they shall come, and shall rest, all of them, in the desolate vallies*, and in the holes of the rocks, and upon all thorns, and upon all bushes."

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] The *Papyrus*, which is a plant well known in Egypt, appears to have been early brought thither from Ethiopia. It is also found in Abyssinia. It never grows in the bed of a river, but in some small stream that issues out of it, or in some large stagnant lake or water-course. It does not even trust itself to the weight of the wave of the deepest part of the lake when agitated by the wind; but grows generally about the borders of it, as far as the depth of the water is within a yard. *Balsam*, or *balsam*, is also a native of Abyssinia. A great value was set upon this drug, in the east, in very early ages. We know from scripture, the oldest history extant, as well as the most infallible, that the Ishmaelites or Arabian carriers and merchants, trafficking with the India commodities into Egypt, brought with them balm as part of the cargo. Josephus†, in the history of the antiquities of his country, says, that a tree of this balm was brought to Jerusalem by the queen of Sheba (the queen of Abyssinia) and given, among other presents, to Solomon, who, as we know from scripture, was very studious of all sorts of plants, and skilful in the description and distinction of them. Notwithstanding this positive authority of Josephus, we are not to put it in competition with that of scripture, from which we know the place where it grew, and was sold to merchants, which was Gilead in Judæa, more than one thousand seven hundred and eighty years before Christ, or one thousand before the queen of Sheba; so that, reading the verse, nothing can be more plain than that it had been transplanted into Judæa, flourished, and had become an article of commerce in Gilead, long before the period Josephus mentions: "and they sat down to eat bread, and they lifted up their eyes and looked, and behold a company of Ishmaelites came from Gilead, with their camels, bearing spicery, and balm, and myrrh, going to carry it down into Egypt‡" At this time it probably acquired its name of Balm of Gilead. The *ensefe* is an herbaceous plant, which grows and comes to great perfection at Gondar, but it most abounds in that part of Maitsha and Goutto west of the Nile, where

* That is, they shall cut off from the cattle their usual retreat to the desert, by taken possession of those places, and meeting them there, where ordinarily they never come, and which therefore are the refuge of the cattle.

† Joseph. Antiq. lib. v.

‡ Gen. xxxvii, 25.

there are large plantations of it, and there, almost exclusive of every thing else, it is the food of the Galla inhabiting that province. When soft, like a turnip well boiled, if eaten with milk or butter, it is the best of all food, wholesome, nourishing and easily digested. The *teff* is a grain commonly sown all over Abyssinia, where it seems to thrive equally on all sorts of ground; from it is made the bread which is commonly used throughout Abyssinia. The Abyssinians, indeed, have plenty of wheat, and some of it of an excellent quality. They likewise make a fine wheat-bread as any in the world, both for colour and taste; but the use of it is chiefly confined to people of the first rank. The *teff* is used by all sorts of people, from the king downwards, and there are kinds of it which are esteemed as much as wheat. The best of these is as white as flour, exceedingly light and easily digested. There are others of a browner colour, and some nearly black. This last is the food of soldiers and servants. The cause of this variation, arises from the soil on which it grows, and from the degree of fineness with which it is sifted. The acacia tree is very common in Abyssinia, as are several other curious productions of the vegetable world.

LAKES.] The lake of Tzana is by much the largest expanse of water known in this country. Its extent, however, has been greatly exaggerated. Its greatest breadth is thirty-five miles, and its extent in length is forty-nine. The Nile, by a current always visible, crosses the end of it. In the dry months, from October to March, the lake shrinks greatly in size; but after those rivers are full, which are on every side of it, and fall into it, like radii drawn to a centre, then it swells, and extends itself into the plain country, and has of course a much larger surface.

CATARACTS OF THE NILE.] Omitting those of inferior note, we shall here give the reader some account of the great cataract of Alata. The first thing Mr. Bruce was shown, was the bridge, which consists of an arch of about twenty-five feet broad, the extremities of which were strongly let into, and rested on the solid rock, on both sides; but fragments of the parapets remained, and the bridge itself seemed to bear the appearance of frequent repairs, and many attempts to ruin it; otherwise in its construction, it was exceedingly commodious. The Nile here is confined between two rocks, and runs in a deep trough, with great roaring and impetuous velocity.

The cataract itself is a most magnificent sight. Its height is about forty feet. The river, when Mr. Bruce saw it, had been considerably increased by rains, and fell in one sheet of water, without any interval, above half an English mile in breadth, with a force and noise that was truly terrible, and which made him, for a time, perfectly dizzy. A thick fume, or haze, covered the fall all round, and hung over the course of the stream, both above and below, marking its tract, though the water was not seen. The river, though swelled with rain, preserved its natural clearness, and fell, as far as he could discern, into a deep pool or basin, in the solid rock.

SOURCE OF THE NILE.] The agows of Damot pay divine honours to the Nile. They worship the river, and thousands of cattle have been and still are offered to the spirit supposed to reside at its source. The village of Geesh, though not farther distant than six hundred yards, is not in sight of the sources of the Nile. In the middle of a marsh, near the bottom of the mountain of Geesh, arises a hillock, of a circular form, three feet from the surface of the marsh itself, tho' apparently founded much deeper in it. The diameter of this is somewhat short of twelve feet. It is surrounded by a shallow trench, which collects the water, and discharges it eastward. It is firmly built with sod or earthen turf, brought from the sides, and constantly kept in repair; and this is the altar, upon which all their religious ceremonies are performed. In the middle of this altar is a hole, obviously made, or at least enlarged, by the hand of man. It is kept clear of grass, or other aquatic plants, and the water in it is perfectly pure and limpid, but has no ebullition or motion, of any kind, discernible upon its surface.

This mouth, or opening of the source, is nearly three feet in diameter, and the water is about two inches from the lip or brim. The spring is about six feet six inches deep.

Ten feet distant from the first of these springs, a little on the west of south, is the second fountain, about eleven inches in diameter; but this is eight feet three inches deep. And about twenty feet distant from the first, is the third source; its mouth is more than two feet large, and it is five feet eight inches deep.

CAUSE OF THE INUNDATIONS } It is an observation that holds good through all
OF THE NILE. } the works of Providence, that although God, in the beginning, gave an instance of his Almighty power, by creating the world with one single fiat, yet, in the laws he has laid down for maintaining order and regularity in the details of his creation, he has invariably produced all those effects by the least degree of power possible, and by those means that seem most obvious to human conception. But it seemed, however, not according to the tenor of his ways and wisdom, to create a country, like Egypt, without springs, or even dews, and subject it to a nearly vertical sun, that he might save it, by such extraordinary an invention, as was the annual inundation, and make it the most fertile spot of the universe.

Whatever were the conjectures of the dreamers of antiquity, modern travellers and philosophers, describing, without prejudice or system, what their eyes saw, have found that the inundation of Egypt has been effected by natural means, perfectly consonant with the ordinary rules of Providence, and the laws given for the government of the rest of the universe. They have found, that the plentiful fall of the tropical rains; produced every year at the same time, by the action of a violent sun, has been uniformly, without miracle, the cause of Egypt being regularly overflowed.

The sun, being nearly stationary for some days in the tropic of Capricorn, the air there becomes so much rarified, that the heavier winds, charged with watry particles; rush in upon it, from the Atlantic on the west, and from the Indian Ocean on the east. The south wind, moreover, loaded with heavy vapour, condensed in that high ridge of mountains not far south of the line, which forms a spine to the peninsula of Africa, and, running northward, furnishes, with the other two, wherewithal to restore the equilibrium.

The sun, having gathered such a quantity of vapours, as it were, to a focus, now puts them in motion; and, drawing them after him in his rapid progress northward, on the 7th of January, for two years together, seemed to have extended his power to the atmosphere of Gondar, when, for the first time, there appeared in the sky, white, dappled, thin clouds, the sun being then distant 34° from the zenith, without any one cloudy or dark speck having been seen for several months before. Advancing to the line with increased velocity, and describing large spirals, the sun brings on a few drops of rain at Gondar, the first of March, being then distant 5° from the zenith; these are greedily absorbed by the thirsty soil, and this seems to be the farthest extent of the sun's influence, capable of causing rain, which then only falls in large drops, but lasts but a few minutes. The rainy season, however, begins most seriously upon his arrival in the zenith of every place, and these rains continue constant and increasing after he has passed it, in his progress northward. Before this, green boughs and leaves appear floating in the Bahar el Abiad, and show, that in the latitude where it rises, the rains are already abundant. The Galla, who inhabit, or have passed the river, give an account of its situation, which lies about 5° from the line.

In April, all the rivers in Amhara, Begemder, and Lasta, first discoloured, and then beginning to swell, join the Nile in the several parts of its course nearest them; the river then, from the height of its angle or inclination, forces itself through the stagnant lake, without mixing with it. In the beginning of May, hundreds of streams pour themselves, from Gojam, Maitsha, and Dembea, into the lake Tzana, which had become low by the intense evaporation, but now begins to fill insensibly, and con-

tributes a large quantity of water to the Nile, before it falls down the cataract of Alata. In the beginning of June, the sun, having now passed all Abyssinia, the rivers are all full, and then is the time of the greatest rains in Abyssinia, while it is, for some days, as it were, stationary in the tropic of Cancer.

Immediately after the sun has passed the line, he begins the rainy season to the southward, still as he approaches the zenith of each place; but the situation and necessities of this country being varied, the manner of promoting the inundation is changed. A high chain of mountains run about 6° south, along the middle of the continent towards the Cape of Good Hope, and intersects the southern part of the peninsula, nearly in the same manner that the river Nile does the northern. A strong wind from the south, stopping the progress of the condensed vapours, dashes them against the cold summits of this ridge of mountains, and forms many rivers which escape in the direction either east or west, as the level presents itself. If this is towards the west, they fall down the sides of the mountains in the Atlantic, and if on the east, into the Indian Ocean.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] GONDAR, the metropolis of Abyssinia, is situated upon a hill of considerable height. The top of it on which the town is placed, is nearly plain. It consists of about ten thousand families in time of peace, the houses are chiefly of clay, the roof thatched in the form of cones, which is always the construction within the tropical rains. On the west end of the town is the king's house, formerly a structure of considerable consequence. It was a square building, flanked with square towers. It was formerly four stories high, and, from the summit, had a magnificent view of all the country southward to the lake Izana. Great part of this house is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but there is still ample lodging in the two lowest floors of it, the audience chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long. The palace and all its contiguous buildings, are surrounded by two substantial stone walls thirty feet high, with battlements upon the outer wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner, by which you can go along the whole, and look into the street. There do not appear to have been any embrasures for cannon and the four sides of the wall are above an English mile and a half in length.

Dixan, the first town in Abyssinia, on the side of Taranta, is built on the top of a hill, perfectly in the form of a sugar loaf; a deep valley surrounds it every where like a trench, and the road winds spirally up the hill, till it ends among the houses. It is true of Dixan, as of most frontier towns, that the bad people of both contiguous countries resort thither. The town consists of Moors and christians, and is very well peopled; yet the only trade of either of these sects is a very extraordinary one, that of selling children. The christians bring such as they have stolen in Abyssinia, to Dixan, as to a sure deposit; and the Moors receive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Masuah, whence they are sent over to Arabia, or India. The priests of the province of Tigre, especially those near the rock Damo, are openly concerned in this infamous practice.

Axum is supposed to have been once the capital of Abyssinia, and its ruins are now very extensive; but, like those of other ancient cities, consist altogether of public buildings. In one square, which seems to have been the centre of the town, there are forty obelisks, none of which have any hieroglyphics upon them. They are all of one piece of granite, and, on the top of that which is standing, there is a *patera*, exceedingly well carved in the Greek taste. Axum is watered by a small stream, which flows all the year from a fountain in the narrow valley, where stand the rows of obelisks. The spring is received into a magnificent basin of one hundred and fifty feet square, and thence it is carried at pleasure, to water the neighbouring gardens, where there is little fruit, excepting pomegranates.

MASUAH. The houses of this town, which is situated upon an island bearing the

same name, on the Abyssinian shore of the Red Sea, are, in general, built of poles and bent grass, as in the towns of Arabia; but besides these, there are about twenty of stone, six or eight of which are two stories each.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] A considerable trade is carried on the Masuah, narrow and confined as the island is, and violent and unjust as is the government. But it is all done in a slovenly manner, and for articles where a small capital is invested. Property here is too precarious to risk a venture in valuable commodities, where the hand of power enters into every transaction.

Gondar and all the neighbouring country, depends for cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and a number of such articles, upon the Agows, who inhabit the province in which the sources of the Nile are found, and which is no where sixty miles in length, nor half that in breadth. These Agows come constantly, in succession, a thousand or fifteen hundred at a time, loaded with these commodities to the capital.

CUSTOMS.] The kings of Abyssinia are above all laws. They are supreme in all causes, ecclesiastical and civil. The land and persons of their subjects are equally their property, and every inhabitant of their kingdom is their slave. If he bears a higher rank, it is by the king's gift; for his nearest relations are accounted nothing better. The kings marry what number of wives they choose. However, these are not all queens; but among them there is one who is considered particularly as queen, and upon her head is placed the crown, and she is called Iteghe.

The king of Abyssinia is never seen to walk, nor to set his foot on the ground, out of his palace; and when he would dismount from the horse or mule on which he rides, he has a servant with a stool, who places it properly for him for that purpose. He rides, into the antichamber, to the foot of the throne, or to the stool placed in the alcove of his tent. He very often judges capital crimes himself. No man is condemned by the king in person to die for the first fault, unless the crimes be of a horrid nature, such as parricide, or sacrilege. And, in general, the life and merits of the prisoner are weighed against his immediate fault; so that, if his first behavior has had more merit towards the state, than his present delinquency is thought to have injured it, the one is placed fairly against the other, and the accused is generally absolved, when the sovereign judges alone.

The capital punishments in Abyssinia are the cross, slaying alive, and lapidation, or stoning to death. To these we may add the plucking out of the eyes, a cruelty too often committed. This is generally inflicted upon rebels. The dead bodies of criminals, slain for treason, murder, and violence, are seldom buried in Abyssinia. The streets of Gondar are strewed with pieces of their carcases, which bring the wild beasts in multitudes into the city as soon as it becomes dark, so that it is scarcely safe for any one to walk in the night. The dogs bring pieces of human bodies into the houses, and courtyards, to eat them in greater security.

METHOD OF COMPUTING TIME.] The Abyssinians, like the ancient Egyptians, their first colony, in computing their time, have continued the use of the solar year. Diodorus Siculus says, "they do not reckon their time by the moon, but according to the sun; thirty days constitute their month, to which they add five days, and the fourth part of a day; and this completes their year."

It is uncertain whence they derive the names of their months: they have no signification in any of their languages of Abyssinia. The name of the first month, among the old Egyptians, has continued to this day. It is Tot, probably so called from the first division of time among the Egyptians, from observation of the heliacal rising of the dog-star. The names of the months retained in Abyssinia, are possibly, in antiquity, prior to this. They are probably those given them by the Cushites before the kalendars at Thebes and Meroe, their colonies, were formed.

The Abyssinians have another way of describing time, peculiar to themselves : they read the whole of the four evangelists every year in their churches. They begin with Matthew, then proceed to Mark, Luke, and John, in order ; and when they speak of an event they write and say it happened in the days of Matthew ; that is, in the first quarter of the year, while the gospel of St. Matthew was yet reading in the churches.

They compute the time of the day in a very arbitrary, irregular manner. The twilight is very short, almost imperceptible. As soon as the sun falls below the horizon, night comes on, and all the stars appear. This term, then, the twilight, they choose for the beginning of their day, and call it *nagge*, which is the very time the twilight of the morning lasts. The same is observed at night, and *meset* is meant to signify the instant of the beginning of twilight, between the sun's falling below the horizon, and the stars' appearing. Mid-day is, by them, called *kater*, a very old word which signifies *culmination*, or a thing's being arrived or placed at the middle of the highest part of an arch. Every other time, in conversation, they describe by pointing at the place in the heavens where the sun was, when what they are describing happened.

RELIGION.] Mr. Bruce informs us, from the annals of Abyssinia, that in the time of Solomon, all this country was converted to Judaism, and the government of the church and state modelled to what was then in use at Jerusalem.

Some ecclesiastical writers, rather from attachment to particular systems, than from any conviction that the opinion they espouse is truth, would persuade us that the conversion of Abyssinia to christianity happened in the days of the apostles ; but it appears that this was effected by the labours of Frumentius (the apostle of the Abyssinians) in the year of Christ 333, according to our account ; of which conversation, the following narrative may not be unacceptable.

Meropius, a philosopher of Tyre, a Greek by nation and by religion, had taken a passage in a ship on the Red Sea to India, and had with him two young men, Frumentius, and Cædæus, whom he intended to bring up to trade, after having given them a very liberal education. Their vessel was cast away upon the coast of Abyssinia ; Meropius, defending himself, was slain by the natives, and the two boys carried to Axum, the capital of Abyssinia, where the court then resided. Cædæus was set over the king's household and wardrobe. Frumentius was entrusted with the young prince's education, to which he dedicated himself entirely.

After having instructed his pupil in all sorts of learning, he strongly impressed him with a love and veneration for the christian religion ; after which he himself set out for Alexandria, where he found St. Athanasius, newly elected to that see. Athanasius ordained Frumentius bishop of that country, who instantly returned and found his young king, his pupil, in the same good disposition as formerly. He embraced christianity ; the greatest part of Abyssinia followed his example, and the church of Ethiopia continued, with this bishop, in perfect unity and friendship till his death.

There is no country in the world, where there are so many churches as in Abyssinia. Though the country is very mountainous, and consequently the view much obstructed, it is very seldom you see less than five or six churches, and, if you are on a commanding ground, five times that number. Every great man that dies, thinks that he has atoned for all his wickedness, if he leaves a fund to build a church, or has built one in his life-time. The king builds many. When a victory is gained, a church is erected in the very field. Formerly this was the case when the enemy was pagan or infidel ; now the same is observed when the victories are over christians.

The situation of a church is always chosen near running water for the convenience of their purifications, and ablutions, in which they observe strictly the Levitical law. The churches are all round, with thatched roofs ; their summits are perfect cones ; the outside is surrounded by a number of wooden pillars, placed to sup-

port the edifice, about eight feet of the roof projecting beyond the wall of the church, which forms an agreeable walk, or colonnade around it, in hot weather, or in rain. The inside of the church is in several divisions, according as is prescribed by the law of Moses. The first is a circle somewhat wider than the inner one; here the congregation sit and pray. Within this is a square, and that square is divided by a veil or curtain, in which is another very small division, answering to the holy of holies. This is so narrow that none but the priests can go into it. You are bare-footed whenever you enter the church, and, in this state, you may go through every part of it, if you have any such curiosity, provided you are pure.

When you go to the church, you put off your shoes before your first entering the outer precinct. At entry you kiss the threshold, and two door-posts, go in and say what prayer you please; that finished, you come out again, and your duty is over. The churches are full of pictures, painted on parchment, and nailed upon the walls.

Their first bishop, Frumentius, being ordained about the year 333, and instructed in the religion of the Greeks, of the church of Alexandria, by St. Athanasius, then sitting in the chair of St. Mark, it follows that the religion which the Abyssinians received on their conversion to christianity, was that of the Greek church. They receive the holy sacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruised with the husk together, as it grows, so that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat spoon. They observe also circumcision.

HISTORY.] As the accounts of kings and princes of remote ages are not always entertaining, and as the history of a barbarous and uncivilised people will, we presume, afford but small amusement to our readers, whatever satisfaction they may have received from surveying the manners and customs of the people, and the natural history of the country, we shall therefore make no apology for omitting the account of the annals of Abyssinia, but refer those, who have any desire of information upon this subject, to the second volume of the travels of our adventurous author, where he will find a very ample detail through more than seven hundred pages of a ponderous quarto.

FEZZAN, BORNOU, AND CASHNA.

IT having been long a subject of regret, that little is known of the interior districts of Africa, we are happy to find that a number of learned and opulent individuals have formed themselves into a society for the purpose of exploring them. The association was formed, in London, on the ninth of June, in the year 1788; and, on the same day, a committee of its members, viz. lord Rawdon, the bishop of Landaff, sir Joseph Banks, Mr. Beaufoy, and Mr. Stuart, were invested with the direction of its funds, the management of its correspondence, and the choice of the persons to whom the geographical mission was to be assigned. Persuaded of the importance of the object, they lost no time in the execution of the plan. Two gentlemen were recommended to them, who, appearing to be eminently qualified for making the projected researches, were accordingly chosen. One was Mr. Ledyard; the other, Mr. Lucas. Mr. Ledyard's history, which pointed him out to the society as a proper person for undertaking the African adventure, is too curious and amusing to be omitted; and as it is so closely connected with this part of our work, it is presumed that it will not be thought foreign to its design.

Mr. Ledyard, an American by birth, seemed, from his youth, to have felt an invincible desire to make himself acquainted with the unknown regions of the globe.

For several years he had lived with the Indians of America, had studied their manners, and had practised the means of obtaining the protection, and of recommending himself to the favour of savages. In the humble situation of a corporal of marines, to which he submitted, rather than relinquish his pursuit, he had made, with captain Cook, the voyage of the world; and feeling, on his return, an anxious desire of penetrating from the northwestern coast of America, which Cook had partly explored, to the eastern coast, with which he himself was perfectly familiar, he determined to traverse the vast continent from the Pacific to the Atlantic Ocean.

His first plan, for the purpose, was that of embarking in a vessel, which was then preparing to sail, on a voyage of commercial adventure, to Nootka Sound, on the western coast of America. But the scheme being frustrated, by the rapacity of a custom-house officer, who had seized and detained the vessel, for reasons, which, on legal enquiry, proved to be frivolous, he determined to travel, over land, to Kamtschatka, from whence, to the western coast of America, the passage is extremely short. Possessed of only ten guineas, he crossed the British channel to Ostend, and, by the way of Denmark and the Sound, proceeded to the capital of Sweden, from which, as it was winter, he attempted to traverse the gulf of Bothnia on the ice, in order to reach Kamtschatka by the shortest way; but finding, when he came to the middle of the sea, that the water was not frozen, he returned to Stockholm, and, taking his course northward, walked into the arctic circle; and, passing round the head of the gulf, descended, on its eastern side, at Petersburg. There he obtained permission to accompany a detachment of stores which the empress had ordered to be sent to Yakutz, for the use of Mr. Billings, an Englishman, at that time in her service. Thus accommodated, he travelled eastward through Siberia, six thousand miles to Yakutz, where he was kindly received by Mr. Billings. From Yakutz, he proceeded to Oczakow, on the coast of the Kamtschatka sea, from whence he meant to have passed over to that peninsula, and to have embarked, on the eastern side, in one of the Russian vessels that trade to the western shores of America; but, finding that the navigation was completely obstructed by the ice, he returned again to Yakutz, in order to wait for the conclusion of the winter.

Such was his situation, when, in consequence of suspicions not hitherto explained, he was seized, in the empress's name, by two Russian soldiers, who placed him in a sledge, and, conveying him, in the depth of winter, through the deserts of northern Tartary, left him, at last, on the frontiers of the Polish dominions. As they parted, they told him, that if he returned to Russia, he would certainly be hanged; but that, if he chose to go back to England, they wished him a pleasant journey. In the midst of poverty, covered with rags, worn out with continual hardship, exhausted by disease, without friends, without credit, unknown and full of misery, he found his way to Königsberg. From thence he sailed for England, where, as we have mentioned, he was immediately engaged by the society for making discoveries in Africa.

Mr. Lucas's history, being less singular than that of Mr. Ledyard, is told with more brevity; but enough is said to satisfy every reader respecting his qualifications. He had been sent, when a boy, to Cadiz, in Spain, for education as a merchant, and having the misfortune, on his return, to be captured by a Sallee rover, was brought as a slave to the court of Morocco. Three years of captivity preceded his restoration to freedom and his consequent departure from Gibraltar, where, at the request of general Cornwallis, he accepted the offices of vice-consul and charge d'affairs in the empire of Morocco, and had the satisfaction to return, as the delegate of his sovereign, to the very kingdom, in which, for a long period, he had lived as a slave. At the end of sixteen years, he once more visited England, and was soon appointed Oriental interpreter to the British court, in which situation he was, when he became known to the committee, and expressed his willingness to undertake, in the service of

the association, whatever journey his knowledge of the manners, customs, and language of the Arabs might enable him to perform.

Mr. Ledyard undertook, at his own desire, the difficult and perilous task of traversing from east to west in the latitude attributed to the Niger, the widest part of the continent of Africa. On this bold adventure, he left London, June 30, 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the 19th of August.

Hence, he transmitted such accounts to his employers, as manifest him to have been a traveller who observed, reflected, and compared; and such was the information which he collected here from the travelling slave-merchants, and from others, respecting the interior districts of Africa, that he was impatient to explore them. He wrote to the committee, that his next communication would be from Sennaar, (six hundred miles to the south of Cairo): but death arrested him at the commencement of his researches, and disappointed the hopes which were entertained of his projected journey.

With a mixture of regret and disappointment, we turn from poor Ledyard, to notice Mr. Lucas's communications, which occupy the greatest part of the volume published by the association. He embarked for Tripoli, October 18, 1788, with instructions to proceed over the desert of Zahara to Fezzan, to collect, and to transmit, by way of Tripoli, whatever intelligence the people of Fezzan, or the traders thither, might be able to afford, respecting the interior of the continent, and to return by the way of Gambia, or the coast of Guinea.

Instructions to undertake great enterprizes, are more easily given than executed. So Mr. Lucas found; and so the reader, to his disappointment, will find likewise. Only a part of the plan was this geographic missionary able to carry into execution. He set out, indeed, mounted on a handsome mule, presented to him by the bey, the bashaw's eldest son, in company with Shereefs, for the kingdom of Fezzan, resolved, we suppose, to penetrate from Tripoli even unto Gambia; but his peregrinations, which began Feb. 1, 1789, terminated at Mesurata, on Feb. 7.

"Deprived of visiting Fezzan, and the other inland districts of Africa, Mr. Lucas solicits the information of his fellow-travellers, and transmits to the society the result of his conferences. A memoir compiled in this way, from the reports of a Shereef Imhammed, will not be deemed very satisfactory, and yet it certainly merits consideration, as it is, in part, corroborated by other testimonies.

"The Shereef might not mean to deceive; and yet in consequence of his education, and particular prejudices, on account of the language which he used, and of not properly distinguishing between vague report and attested facts, we may be allowed to question whether things exactly accord with the relation before us. The aga Mohammed told Mr. Ledyard, "That he would see in his travels, a people who had the power of transmuting themselves into the form of different animals," p. 28; and hence, it is fair to infer, that no absolute dependence is to be placed on the accuracy of the Mohammedan narrative of the interior districts of this quarter of the globe."

Having no other sources of information, however, we must for the present, content ourselves with these communications. From the various conferences of Mr. Lucas with the Shereef Imhammed, the following narrative is composed.

"It describes the kingdom of Fezzan to be a small circular domain, placed in a vast wilderness, as an island in the midst of the ocean, containing near an hundred towns and villages, of which Mourzouk is the capital; distant, south, from Mesurata about three hundred and ninety miles. In this kingdom are to be seen some venerable remains of ancient magnificence, some districts of remarkable fertility, and numerous smoking lakes, producing a species of fossil alkali, called *trona*. Agriculture and pasturage are the principal occupations of the Fezanners. They do not appear to have any coin; their medium of commerce is gold-dust; their houses, or rather huts, are

built of clay, and are covered with branches of trees, on which earth is laid. As rain never falls at Fezzan, this covering is sufficient protection. Their dress resembles that of the Moors of Barbary; but during the heats of summer, which are intense, they only wear drawers, and a cap to protect their heads from the immediate action of the sun. To these, many particulars are added of their persons, diseases, and mode of cure; of their religion, government, taxes, animal, and vegetable productions. Their sovereign, who is a tributary of the bashaw of Tripoli, administers impartial justice; and as a proof of the ascendancy which he possesses in this respect over his subjects, the Fezzanners, who travelled with Mr. Lucas, described to him the following custom:

“If a man has injured another, and refuses to go with him to the judge, the complainant draws a circle round the oppressor; solemnly charges him, in the king’s name, not to leave the place till the officers of justice, in search of whom he is going, shall arrive; and such (*if they are to be credited*) is, on the one hand, his fear of the punishment which is inflicted on those who disobey the injunction, and so great, on the other, is his dread of the perpetual banishment, which, if he seeks his safety by withdrawing from the kingdom, must be his inevitable lot, that this imaginary prison operates as a real confinement, and the offender submissively waits the arrival of the officers of justice.”

The compiler’s parenthesis (*if they are to be credited*) precludes the necessity of any remark. The narrative proceeds to state, that, south-east of Mourzouk, at the distance of one hundred and fifty miles, is a sandy desert, two hundred miles wide; beyond which, are the mountains of Tibesti, inhabited by ferocious savages, tributary to Fezzan. The vallies between the mountains are said to be fertilized by innumerable springs, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The annual tribute of the Tibestins to the king of Fezzan, is twenty camel loads of senna.

“This kingdom is inconsiderable, when compared with the two great empires of Bornou, and Cashna, which lie south of Fezzan, occupying that vast region which spreads itself from the river of the Antelopes, for twelve hundred miles westward, and includes a great part of the Niger’s course. Cashna, we are informed, contains a thousand towns and villages; and in Bornou, which is still more considerable, thirty languages are said to be spoken.” The latter is represented as a fertile and beautiful country; its capital being situated within a day’s journey of the river *Wod-el Gazel*, which is lost in the sandy wastes of the vast desert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdsmen, dwelling, like the old patriarchs, in tents, and whose wealth consists in their cattle*. (Bornou, or Bernoa, is a word signifying the land of Noah: for the Arabs conceive, that, on the retiring of the deluge, its mountains received the ark.) Though they cultivate various sorts of grain, the use of the plough is unknown; and the hoe is the only instrument of husbandry. Here grapes, apricots, and pomegranates, together with limes and lemons, and two species of melons, the water and the musk, are produced in abundance. But one of the most valuable of its vegetables, is a tree called *kedeyna*, which, in form and height, resembles the olive, is like the lemon in its leaf and bears a nut, of which the kernel and the shell are both in great estimation, the first as a fruit, the last on account of the oil which it furnishes, when bruised; and which supplies the lamps of the people of Bornou with a substitute for the oil of olives. Bees, it is added, are so numerous, that the wax is often thrown away as an article of no value in the market. The population is described by the expression of a *countless multitude*. We shall pass over their religion, which is Mahometan; their government, which is an elective monarchy; and the singular mode of their electing a new king from among the children of the deceased sovereign; but the account of the present sultan, his wives, and his children, is too curious not to be exhibited.

* Horses and horned cattle, goats, sheep, and camels, are the common animals of the country.

“ The present sultan, whose name is Alli, is a man of an unostentatious, plain appearance; for he seldom wears any other dress than the common blue shirt of cotton or silk, and the silk or muslin turban, which form the usual dress of the country. Such, however, is the magnificence of his seraglio; that the ladies who inhabit it, are said to be five hundred in number, and he himself is ascribed as the reputed father of three hundred and fifty children, of whom three hundred are males; a disproportion which naturally suggests the idea, that the mother, preferring to the gratification of natural affection, the joy of seeing herself the supposed parent of a future candidate for the empire, sometimes exchanges her female child for the male offspring of a stranger.

“ We are told that fire-arms, though not unknown to the people of Bornou, are not possessed by them.

“ South-east from Bornou, lies the extensive kingdom of Begarmee; and, beyond this kingdom, are said to be several tribes of negroes, idolaters, and feeders on human flesh. These, we are told, are annually invaded by the Begarmees; and, when they have taken as many prisoners as their purpose may require, they drive the captives, like cattle, to Begarmee.

“ The empire of Cahna bears a great resemblance to that of Bornou.

“ After perusing what is here related of the extent, population, fertility, manufactures, and commerce of these regions, we may be permitted to wonder at their having remained altogether unknown to Europeans. We cannot but suspect considerable exaggerations. That the interior parts of Africa are peopled, the caravans which go from Cairo and Tripoli, and which are often absent three years, sufficiently evince; but that they are divided into regular and civilized states, may be questioned. *At thousand towns and villages* in one empire, and *thirty different languages* spoken in the other, manifest a disposition in the Shereef Imhammed to enlargement, or, at least, to retail loose reports. That they should be acquainted with, yet not possess fire arms, nor make any attempt to navigate the Niger, nor even to take the fish that abound in the waters, but little accords with the history of their commerce, and of their progress in manufactures.

“ Let us, however, make all possible deductions; and be ever so incredulous as to some particulars, the prospect which this narrative opens to us, of the interior of Africa (the greater part of which we have been accustomed to consider as consigned, by nature, to perpetual sterility and desolation) must afford great pleasure; and though, as we have already remarked, it is far from being satisfactory, or from having answered the object of the mission, it may be regarded by the society as that sort of evidence, which should encourage them to persevere, and ought to induce Europeans, without delay, actually to explore the central provinces of the African continent.”

OF AFRICA, FROM THE TROPIC OF CANCER TO THE CAPE

OF GOOD-HOPE.

THIS immense territory is, comparatively speaking, very little known; no modern traveller having penetrated into the interior parts; so that we are ignorant not only of the bounds, but even of the names of several inland countries. In many material circumstances, the inhabitants of this extensive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyssinia, who are all tawny, and profess a mixture of christianity, judaism, and paganism, they are of a black complexion; in their religion, except

on the sea-coasts, which have been visited and settled by strangers, they are pagans; and the form of government is every where monarchical. Few princes, however, possess a very extensive jurisdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are grossly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they are little acquainted with one another, and generally united in small communities, each governed by its own prince. In Abyssinia, indeed, as well as in Congo, Loango, and Angola, we are told of powerful monarchs; but on examination, it is found that the authority of these princes stand on a precarious footing, each tribe or separate body of their subjects being under the influence of a petty chieftain of their own, styled *Negus*, to whose commands, however contrary to those of the *Negafcha Negafcht*, or king of kings, they are always ready to submit. This, indeed, must always be the case among rude nations, where the art of governing, like all others, is in a very simple and imperfect state. In the succession to the throne, force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or some other collateral relation, is, on this account, commonly preferred to the descendants, whether male or female.

The fertility of a country, so prodigiously extensive, might be supposed more various than we find it is; in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to the advantages of soil: it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile. This arises from the intense heat of the sun, which, where it meets with sufficient moisture, produces the utmost luxuriancy; and in those countries where there are few rivers, reduces the surface of the earth to a barren sand. Of this sort are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and consequently of other necessaries, are reduced to perfect deserts, as the name of the latter denotes. In those countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land, part of the year, as in Abyssinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the highest perfection and greatest abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batua, Truticui, Monomotapa, Casati, and Mehenemugi, are extremely rich in gold and silver. The baser metals likewise are found in these and many other parts of Africa. But the persons of the natives make the most considerable article in the produce and traffic of this wretched quarter of the globe.

On the Guinea or western coast, the English trade to James Fort, and other settlements near and up the river Gambia, where they exchange their woolen and linen manufactures, their hardware and spirituous liquors, for the persons of the natives. By the treaty of peace in 1783, the river Senegal, with its dependencies, were given up to France. Among the negroes, a man's wealth consists in the number of his family, whom he sells like so many cattle, and often at an inferior price. Gold and ivory, next to the slave-trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. These are carried on from the same coast; where the Dutch and French, as well as English, have their settlements for this purpose.

According to Mr. Ramsay, the British annual exports to Africa are estimated at five hundred thousand pounds, part of which is annually exchanged with American and other foreign traders on the coast. About fifty thousand pounds are returned in ivory, gold dust, gum, &c. The greatest part of the profits of the slave trade is raised on the sugar plantations. If, by establishing factories, encouraging civilization on the coast of Africa, and returning some of the West Indian slaves to their original country, the Europeans tried to atone for their past treachery to the natives, and instructed them in the culture of tobacco, indigo, cotton, rice, &c. to barter with them for their manufactures, great would be their profits*.

* It is most devoutly to be wished, by every friend of humanity, that the settlement forming at Sierra Leone (which is situated in 8° 12' N. L. and about 13° W.

L.) under the patronage of a respectable society of gentlemen in London, may answer those benevolent purposes, for which it was intended; viz. to introduce the light of

The Portuguese are in possession of the east and west coast of Africa, from the Tropic of Capricorn to the equator; which immense tract they became masters of, by their successive attempts, and happy discovery and navigation of the Cape of Good Hope. From the coast of Zanguebar, on the eastern side, they trade not only for the articles above mentioned, but likewise for several others, as senna, aloes, civet, amber-grise, and frankincense. The Dutch have settlements towards the southern part of the continent, in the country called Caffraria, or the land of the Hottentots, particularly Cape Town, which is well settled, and fortified; where their ships, bound for India, usually put in, and trade with the natives for their cattle, in exchange for which they give them spirituous liquors.

COUNTRY OF THE HOTTENTOTS.

DURING the thirty-six hours which I spent (says monsieur Vaillant) with the Gonaqua Hottentots, I had time to make several observations concerning them. I remarked that they make a clapping noise with their tongue, like the rest of the Hottentots. When they accost any one, they stretch forth the hand, saying *tabe*—I salute you.

“This affinity of customs, manners, and even conformation, their being so near Great Caffraria, and the accounts I afterwards received, convinced me these *bordes* of Gonaquas, who equally resemble the Caffrees and the Hottentots, must be a mixed breed produced by these two nations. The dress of the men, arranged with more symmetry, has the same shape with that of the Hottentots; but as the Gonaquas are a little taller, they make their mantles of calves’ instead of sheeps’ skin; they are both called *krofs*. Several of them wear, hanging from their necks a bit of ivory, or very white sheeps’ bone, and this contrast of the two colours produces a good effect, and is very becoming.

“When the weather is excessively hot, the men lay aside every superfluous part of their dress and retain only what they name their *jackals*. This is a piece of the skin of the animal so called, with which they cover what nature bids them conceal, and which is fastened to their girdle. This veil, however, negligently arranged, may be considered as a useless appendage, and is of very little service to their modesty. The women, much sonder of dress than the men, employ more care in adorning their persons. They wear a *krofs*, like the latter; but the apron which conceals their sex, is larger than those of the Hottentots. During the great heats, they retain only this apron, with a skin which descends behind, from their girdle to the calf of the leg. Young girls, below the age of nine years, go perfectly naked; when they attain to that age, they wear nothing but a small apron.

“Whatever may be the extent of the deserts of Africa, we must not form any calculations respecting its population, from those innumerable swarms of blacks which are found on the west, and which border all the coasts of the ocean, from the Canary Isles to the environs of the Cape of Good Hope. There is certainly no proportion to enable us to hazard even a conjecture; since, by a trade justly held in detestation by every man of humanity, the barbarous navigators of Europe have induced these negroes, by the most villainous attractions, to give up their prisoners, or those who are inferior to them in strength. As their wants increased, they have become inhuman

and perfidious beings; the prince has sold his subjects; the mother has sold her son; and nature, as an accomplice, has rendered her prolific.

"This disgusting and execrable traffic, is, however, still unknown in the interior part of the continent. The desert is really a desert; and it is only at certain distances that one meets with a few *bordes*, which are not numerous, and live on the fruits of the earth, and the produce of their cattle. After finding one horde, one must travel a great way to find another, the heat of the climate, the dryness of the sands, the barrenness of the earth, a scarcity of water, rugged and rocky mountains, ferocious animals, and besides these, the humour of the Hottentots, which is a little phlegmatic, and their cold temperament, are all obstacles to propagation. When a father has six children, it is accounted a phenomenon.

"The country of the Gonaquas, into which I penetrated, did not therefore contain three thousand people, in an extent of thirty or forty leagues. These people did not resemble those degenerated and miserable Hottentots, who pine in the heart of the Dutch colonies; who bear no marks of their ancient origin but an empty name; and who enjoy, at the expense of their liberty, only a little peace, purchased at a dear rate, by the excessive labour to which they are subjected on the plantations, by the despotism of their chiefs, who are always sold to government. I had here (continues M. Valliant) an opportunity of admiring a free and brave people, valuing nothing but independence; never obeying any impulse foreign to nature, and calculated only to destroy their magnanimous, free, and truly philanthropic character.

"The huts, constructed like those of the Hottentots in the colonies, were eight or nine feet in diameter, and were covered with ox or sheep skins; but more commonly with mats. They had only one opening, very narrow and low; and it was in the middle of their huts that the family kindled their fire. The thick smoke with which these kennels were filled, and which had no other vent but the door, added to the stench which they always retain, would have stifled any European who might have had the courage to remain in them two minutes. Custom, however, renders all this supportable to these savages.

"The two colours for which they show the greatest fondness, are red and black. The first is composed of a kind of ochry earth, which is found in several places of the country, and which they mix and dilute with grease: this earth has a great resemblance to brick-dust, or tiles reduced to powder. Their black is nothing else than soot, or the charcoal of tender wood: Some women, indeed, are contented with painting only the prominence of the cheeks; but in general they daub over their whole body, in compartments varied with a certain degree of symmetry; and this part of their dress requires no small length of time. These two colours, so much admired by the Hottentots, are always perfumed with the powder of the *boughou*, which is not very agreeable to the smell of an European. A Hottentot would perhaps find our odours and essences no less insupportable; but the *boughou* has, over our rouge and pastes, the advantage of not being pernicious to the skin, of not attacking and injuring the lungs; and the female Hottentot, who is acquainted with neither amber, musk, nor benjamin, never knows what it is to be oppressed by vapours, spasm, and the head-ach. The men never paint their faces, but they use a preparation made of both colours mixed, to paint the upper-lip as far as the nostrils; by which they enjoy the advantage of continually inhaling the odour of the substance employed for this purpose. Young girls sometimes favour their lovers so far as to apply this paint for them under the nose; and on this point they show a kind of coquetry which has a very powerful influence over the heart of a Hottentot novice. The reader, however, must not infer, that the Hottentot women pay so much attention to dress, as to neglect those daily and useful occupations, to which nature and their usages call them. Separated from Europe by an immensity of sea, and from the Dutch colonies by desert mountains and impassable

rocks, too much communication with these people, has not led them into the excesses of depravation. On the contrary, when they have the happiness of being mothers, nature addresses them in a different language; they assume, more than in any other country, a spirit suitable to their state, and readily give themselves up to those cares which the requires of them.

“ They are remarkably fond of hunting, and in this exercise they display great dexterity. Besides gins and snares, which they place at convenient spots to catch large animals, they also lie in wait for them, attack them as soon as they appear, and kill them with their poisoned arrows, or their assagays, which are a kind of lances. On the first view of their arrows, one would not suspect what destructive weapons they are; their smallness renders them so much more dangerous, as it is impossible to perceive and follow them with the eye, and, consequently, to avoid them. The slightest wound they make, always proves mortal, if the poison reaches the blood, and if the flesh be torn. The surest remedy is to amputate the wounded part, if it be a limb. but if the wound be in the body, death is unavoidable.

“ The Hottentots have not the least notion of the elements of agriculture; they neither sow nor plant, nor do they even reap any crop.—When they choose to give themselves the trouble, they make an intoxicating liquor, composed of honey and a certain root which they suffer to foment in a certain quantity of water. This liquor, which is a kind of hydromel, is not their usual beverage, nor do they even keep a stock of it by them. Whatever they have, they drink all at once, and frequently regale themselves, in this manner, at certain periods. They smoke the leaves of a plant which they name *dagba*. This plant is indigenous; it is the hemp of Europe. There are some of the savages who prefer these leaves to tobacco; but the greater part of them are fond of mixing both together.

“ Though they rear abundance of sheep and oxen, they seldom kill the latter, unless some accident happens to them, or old age has rendered them unfit for service; their principal nourishment, therefore, is the milk of their ewes and cows, besides which they have the produce of their hunting excursions, and, from time to time, they kill a sheep.

“ Those oxen which they intend for carrying burdens, must be broke and trained very early to the service; otherwise they would become absolutely untractable. On this account when the animal is still young, they pierce the cartilage which separates the nostrils, and thrust through the hole a piece of stick, about eight or ten inches in length, and almost an inch in diameter. The task of milking the cows and the ewes belongs to the women; and, as they never beat or torment them, they are surprisngly tractable, and are absolutely the same species as those in Europe.

“ Of their sheep and kine each village hath one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be herdsman. This charge requires many precautions, very different from those which are taken by our herdsman, beasts of prey being very numerous and fierce in the southern parts of Africa. Lions; indeed, are not common; but there are elephants, rhinoceroses, leopards, tygers, hyænas, and several kinds of wolves, together with more furious animals that abound in the forests, and occasionally make excursions towards the Cape, and destroy the tame cattle. To prevent these misfortunes, it is the business of the herdsman to go, or send, every day round his district, in order to discover if any beast of prey be lurking in that quarter. In which case, he assembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the stoutest among them arm themselves with javelins and pointed arrows, and follow the person who has discovered the beast, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themselves in two lines; the herdsman entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beast to follow him out; where he is inevitably destroyed.

“ These savages measure the year by the epochs of drought and rainy weather. This

division is common to all the inhabitants of the tropical regions, and is subdivided into moons; but they never count the days, if they exceed ten, that is to say, the number of their fingers. Beyond that, they mark the day or time by some remarkable epoch; for example, an extraordinary storm, an elephant killed, an infectious disorder among the cattle, an emigration, &c. The different parts of the day they distinguish by the course of the sun; and they will tell you, pointing with their finger, he was *there* when I departed, and *here* when I arrived. This method is far from being exact; but notwithstanding its want of precision, it is almost sufficient for these people, who having no appointments of gallantry, no law suits to attend, no perfidies to commit, no scandal to propagate, no occasion meanly to cringe before ignorant patrons, and no new play to damn, calmly behold the sun finish his course, and are under very little uneasiness whether twenty thousand clocks bring misery to one and happiness to another.

“A sense of delicacy makes the Hottentots keep themselves separate from others when they are sick. They are then seldom seen, and it would appear that they are ashamed of having lost their health. It never enters their thoughts to expose themselves in public for the purpose of exciting pity. This is a forced method, but useless in a country where every body is compassionate.

“When a Hottentot dies, he is buried in his worst kross, and the limbs are disposed in such a manner that the whole body is covered. The relations then transport it to a certain distance from the horde, and disposing it in a pit dug for this purpose, and which is never deep, cover it with earth, and then with stones, if any are to be found in the neighbourhood. Such a mausoleum proves but a very weak defence against the attacks of the jackal and the hyaena; as the body is soon dug up and devoured. The children, or the nearest relations of the deceased, take possession of whatever is left; but the quality of a chief is not hereditary. He is always appointed by the horde, and his power is limited. In their council his advice prevails, if it be judged good; if not, no regard is paid to it. When they are about to go to war, they know neither rank nor divisions; each attacks or defends after his own manner; the most intrepid march in the van; and, when victory declares itself, they do not heftow upon one man the honour of an action which has proved successful by the courage of all; it is the whole nation that triumph.

“Of all the people I ever saw,” continues Mr. Vaillant, “the Gonaquais are the only nation that can be considered as free; but they will perhaps be soon obliged to remove to a greater distance, or receive laws from the Dutch government. All the land to the east being in general good, the planters endeavour to extend their possessions in that quarter as much as they can; and their avarice doubtless will some day succeed. Misery then must be the portion of these happy and peaceable people; and every trace of their liberty will be destroyed by massacres and invasions. Thus have all those hordes, mentioned by old authors, been treated; and, by being often dismembered and weakened, they are now reduced to a state of absolute dependence on the Dutch. The existence of the Hottentots, their names, and their history, will therefore, in time, be accounted fabulous; unless some traveller, who may possess curiosity enough to induce him to discover their remains, should have the courage to penetrate into the remote deserts inhabited by the great Nimiquas, were rocks more and more hardened by time, and old and barren mountains, do not produce a single plant worthy to engage the attention of the speculative botanist.

“Some old authors have said that the families of the savages sleep all promiscuously together in the same hut; and are neither acquainted with difference of age, nor that invincible horror which separates beings connected by blood; this has led some to the most infamous suspicions. Yes, the whole family inhabit the same hut; the father lies by the side of his daughter, and the mother by the son; but on the return of aurora, each rises with a pure heart, and without having occasion to blush before the author

of all beings, or any of the creatures whom he has marked with the seal of his resemblance. A savage is neither a brute, nor a barbarian.

“ A phisognomist, or, if the reader chooses, a modern wit, would entertain his company by assigning to the Hottentot; in the scale of beings, a place between man and the ourang outang. I cannot, however, consent to this systematic arrangement; the qualities which I esteem in him, will never suffer him to be degraded so far; and I have found his figure sufficiently beautiful, because I experienced the goodness of his heart. It must, indeed, be allowed, that there is something peculiar in his features, which, in a certain degree, separates him from the generality of mankind; his cheek-bones are exceedingly prominent; so that his face, being very broad in that part, and the jaw bones on the contrary, extremely narrow, his visage continues still decreasing, even to the point of the chin. This configuration gives him an air of lankness, which makes his head appear very much disproportioned, and too small for his full and plump body. His flat nose rises scarcely half an inch at its greatest elevation; and his nostrils, which are extremely wide, often exceed, in height, the ridge of his nose. His mouth is large, and furnished with small teeth, well enamelled and perfectly white: his eyes, very beautiful and open, incline a little towards the nose, like those of the Chinese; and, to the sight and touch, his hair has the resemblance of wool; it is very short, curls naturally, and in colour is as black as ebony. He has very little hair, yet he employs no small care to pull out by the roots part of what he has; but the natural thinness of his eyebrows saves him from this trouble in that part. Though he has no beard but upon the upper lip, below the nose, and at the extremity of the chin, he never fails to pluck it out as soon as it appears. This gives him an effeminate look; which, joined to the natural mildness of his character, destroys that commanding fierceness common to all men in a state of nature. The women, with more delicacy of features, exhibit the same characteristic marks in their figure: they are equally well made. Their breasts, admirably placed, have a most beautiful form, while in the bloom of youth; their hands are small, and their feet exceedingly well shaped, though they never wear sandals. The sound of their voice is soft; and their idiom, passing through the throat, is not destitute of harmony. When they speak, they employ a great many gestures, which give power and gracefulness to their arms.

“ The Hottentots, being naturally timid, are, consequently, not an enterprising people. Their phlegmatic coolness, and their serious looks, give them an air of reserve, which they never lay aside, even at the most joyful moments; while, on the contrary, all other black or tawny nations give themselves up to pleasures with the liveliest joy, and without any restraint.

“ A profound indifference to the affairs of life, inclines them very much to inactivity and indolence: the keeping of their flocks, and the care of procuring a subsistence, are the only objects that occupy their thoughts. They never follow hunting as sportsmen, but like people oppressed and tormented by hunger. In short, forgetting the past, and being under no necessity for the future, they are struck only with the present; and it is that which alone engages their attention.

“ They are, however,” according to Mr. Vaillant, “ a good, kind, and hospitable people. Whoever travels among them, may be assured of finding food and lodging; and though they will receive presents, yet they never ask for any thing. If the traveller has a long journey to accomplish, and if they learn, from the information he requires that there are no hopes of his soon meeting with other hordes, that which he is going to quit, supplies him with provisions as far as its circumstances will allow, and with every thing else necessary for his journey, and for reaching the place of his destination. Such are these people, or at least such did they appear to me, in all the innocence of manners, and of a pastoral life. They excite the idea of mankind in a state of infancy.”

CAFFRARIA.

THE country known by the general denomination of Caffraria, is a very extensive region, bounded on the north, by Negroland and Abyssinia, on the west, by part of Guinea, Congo, and the sea; on the south, by the Cape of Good Hope; and on the east by the sea. It is divided into several territories and kingdoms, of which little is known; and it is computed to be several hundred miles long, and six hundred and sixty broad.

We shall give a more particular description of the people from two modern writers; the first celebrated for his botanical knowledge, the other for his taste in natural history, but more especially for his very entertaining and interesting travels into the interior parts of Africa, which, it is hoped, will not prove unacceptable to the reader.

The men among the Caffrees, says lieutenant Patterson, are from five feet ten inches to six feet high, and well proportioned, and, in general, evince great courage in attacking lions or any beasts of prey. Their colour is a jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The clothing of both sexes is nearly the same, consisting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs; pieces of brass in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms. They are also adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers fastened on their heads, with many fantastical ornaments.

They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle, and to such a height do they carry this passion, that if one particularly pleases them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it. Their whole exercise through the day is hunting, fighting, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances, and, in the time of war, use shields made of the hides of oxen.

The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate several vegetables, which are not indigenous to their country, such as tobacco, water-melons, a sort of kidney-beans, and hemp. The women also make baskets, and the mats which they sleep on. The men have great pride in their cattle; they cut their horns in such a way as to be able to turn them into any shape they please, and teach them to answer to a whistle. When they wish their cattle to return home, they go a little way from the house, and blow this small instrument, which is made of ivory, or bone, and so constructed as to be heard a great distance, and in this manner bring all their cattle home without any difficulty.

The soil of this country is a blackish, loomy ground, and so extremely fertile that every vegetable substance, whether sown or planted, grows with great luxuriance. There are great variations in the climate. It seldom rains, except in the summer; when it is accompanied with thunder and lightning. The country, however, is extremely well supplied with water, not only from the high land towards the north, but from many excellent fountains which are found in the woods. From what Mr. Patterson observed of this country, he was induced to believe it was greatly superior to any other known part of Africa. The woods produce a variety of arborious plants, and some of a great size; and are inhabited by elephants, buffaloes, &c. There is also a variety of beautiful birds and butterflies.

“To judge of the Caffrees by those I have seen,” says monsieur Vaillant, “they are taller than the Hottentots of the colonies, or even than the Gonaquais, though they greatly resemble the latter, but are more robust, and possess a greater degree of pride and courage. The features of the Caffrees are likewise more agreeable, none of their faces contracting towards the bottom, nor do their cheek bones project in the uncouth manner of the Hottentots; neither have they large flat faces and thick lips like their neighbours of Mosambique, but a well formed contour, and agreeable nose, with eyes sparkling and expressive; so that setting aside our prejudice with regard to colour,

there are many women among them who might be thought handsome by the side of an European lady. They do not disfigure themselves by daubing their eye-brows like the Hottentots; but are very much tattooed, particularly about the face.

“The hair of the Caffrees, which is strong and curling, is never greased; but they anoint the rest of their bodies, with a view of making themselves active and strong. The men are more particular in decorations than the women, being very fond of beads and brass rings. They are seldom seen without bracelets on their legs and arms, made of the tusks of an elephant, which they saw to a convenient thickness, and then polish and round. As these rings cannot be opened, it is necessary to make them big enough to pass the hand through, so that they fall or rise according to the motion of the arm. Sometimes they place small rings on the arms of their children, whose growth soon fills up the space, and fixes the ornament, a circumstance which is particularly pleasing to them.

“They likewise make necklaces of the bones of animals, which they polish and whiten in the most perfect manner. Some content themselves with the leg-bone of a sheep hanging on the breast, which is thought as pleasing a decoration, as a patch on the face of a pretty woman. In the warm season, the Caffrees only wear their ornaments; when the weather is cold, they make use of crosses made of the skins of calves or oxen, which reach to the feet. One peculiarity, which deserves attention, and does not exist elsewhere, is, that the Caffree women care little for ornaments. Indeed, they are well made, and pretty, when compared to other savages; and never use the uncouth profusion of Hottentot coquetry, not even wearing copper bracelets. Their aprons, like those of the Gonaquais, are bordered with small rows of beads, which is the only vanity they exhibit.

“The skin that the female Hottentot ties about the loins, the Caffree woman wears as high as her shoulders, tying it over the bosom, which it covers. They have, like the men, a cross or cloak of calf or ox skin, divested of the hair; but it is only in the cold and rainy season that either sex wears it. These skins are as soft and pliant as the finest stuffs. In the most severe weather, neither men nor women cover their heads. Sometimes, indeed, I have seen the head of a Caffree adorned with a feather stuck in the hair; but this sight is by no means common.

“One part of the daily occupation of the women is making earthen ware, which they fashion as dexterously as their husbands; they likewise make a curious kind of baskets, of a texture so compact, as to contain milk; and they also prepare the fields for seed, scratching the earth, rather than digging it, with wooden pick-axes.

“The huts of the Caffrees are higher and more commodious, than those of the Hottentots; and are built in the form of a perfect hemisphere; they are composed of wooden work, very strong and compact, covered, both within and without, with a mixture of earth, clay, and cow-dung. The opening or door-way, is so low, that, to enter the dwelling, you must crawl on your hands and knees, which makes it easier to defend themselves against animals, or the sudden attacks of an enemy. The hearth or fire-place is in the centre, surrounded by a circular rim, which rises two or three inches.

“The lands of Caffraria, either from their situation, or the number of small rivers which refresh them, are more fertile than those of the Hottentots. The Caffrees practise agriculture, which proves that they are not naturally wanderers.

“I have remarked,” continues Monsieur Vaillant, “that notwithstanding the beautiful forests which adorn Caffraria, and delightful pastures which spring up and almost cover the animals that feed on them; notwithstanding those rivers and streams which cross each other, in a thousand different directions, to render them rich and fertile; their oxen, their cows, and almost all their animals, are much smaller than those

of the Hottentots, a difference which undoubtedly arises from the nature of the sap, and a certain flavour predominant in every kind of grass.

“ Industry is the leading trait in the character of the Caffrees. Some arts, taught indeed by necessity, a love of agriculture, with a few religious dogmas, distinguish them as a more civilised people than those towards the south. Circumcision, which is generally practised among them, proves that they either owe their origin to an ancient people, or have simply imitated the inhabitants of some neighbouring country, of whom they have no longer any remembrance; neither do they use it (as they say) in any religious or mystical sense. They entertain a very high opinion of the supreme being, and of his power; believe in a future state, where the good will be rewarded, and the wicked punished; but have no idea of the creation, thinking the world had no beginning, and will ever continue in its present state. They have no sacred ceremonies, and never pray. They instruct their own children, having no priest; but instead of them a kind of forcerers or conjurers, whom they greatly revere.”

The Caffrees are governed by a chief or king, whose power is very limited, as he receives no tax, has no troops at his command, but being the father of a free people, is neither attended nor feared, but respected and beloved, and frequently poorer than many of his subjects. Being permitted to take as many wives as he pleases, who think it an honour to belong to him, it is necessary that he should have a large portion of land to cultivate, and a great number of cattle to tend and feed; these being his only resources for the maintenance of his numerous family, he is frequently in danger of being ruined. His cabin is neither higher, nor better decorated than the rest; his whole family and seraglio live round him, composing a group of a dozen or fifteen huts, and the adjoining land is generally of his own cultivation.

It is a custom among the Caffrees, for each to gather his own grain, which is their favourite nourishment, and which they grind, or rather crush between two stones; for which reason, the families living separately, each surrounded by his own plantation of corn, occasions a small *horde* sometimes to occupy a league square of ground, a circumstance never seen among the Hottentots.

The principal weapon of the Caffree, is the lance or assaygay, which shows his disposition to be at once intrepid and noble, despising, as below his courage, the envenomed dart, so much in use among his neighbours; seeking his enemy face to face, and never throwing his lance but openly. In war he carries a shield, of about three feet in length, made of the thickest part of the hide of a buffalo; this defends him from the arrow or assaygay, but is not proof against a musket ball. The Caffree also manages, with great skill, a club of about two feet and a half long, made of a solid piece of wood, three or four inches thick, in the largest part, and gradually diminishing towards one of the ends. In a close engagement, they strike with this weapon, or frequently throw it to the distance of fifteen or twenty paces, in which case it seldom fails of the intended effect.

The sovereignty here is hereditary, the eldest son ever succeeding. In default of male heirs, it is not the king's brother who succeeds, but the eldest nephew, and in case the king should have neither children nor nephews, the chiefs of the different herdes elect a king. Upon these occasions, a spirit of party sometimes prevails, which gives rise to factions and intrigues that generally end in bloodshed.

Polygamy is customary among the Caffrees. Their marriages are even more simple than those of the Hottentots, the parents of the bridegroom being always content with his choice; the friends of the bride are rather more difficult, but seldom refuse their consent; after which they rejoice, drink, and dance for weeks together, according to the wealth of the families; but these feasts are held only on the first espousals. They have no musical instruments but such as are used by the Hottentots. As for their dances, the step is not unlike the English.

At the death of the father, the sons and the mother divide the property he has left between them. The daughters, claiming nothing, remain at home with their mother or brother, unless it pleases some man to take them; and, if this circumstance takes place during the life of the parents, they receive cattle in proportion to the wealth of their father. The dead are seldom buried, but deposited in a deep trench, common to the whole horde, where the wild beasts repair at leisure, which preserves the air from those noxious vapours, which, otherwise, the putrefaction would occasion. The honours of burial are only due to the king or chief of a horde. They cover their bodies with piles of stones, in the form of a dome.

HISTORY.] The history of Africa is little known. We learn from the ancients, that the inhabitants were in the same rude situation, near two thousand years ago, in which they are at present.

The Portuguese are sovereigns of the greatest part of the coast, and have a number of black princes tributaries. There are some independent princes who have extensive dominions, particularly the kings of Dahome and Widah, the most noted of any for the infamous slave trade. Upwards of two hundred years have the European nations traded, with Africa, in human flesh, and encouraged, in the Negro countries, wars, rapine, desolation, and murder, that the West-India islands might be supplied with slaves. The annual exportation of poor creatures from Africa has exceeded one hundred thousand, many of whom are driven a thousand miles to the sea coast, their villages being surrounded, in the night, by an armed force, and the inhabitants dragged into perpetual captivity.

Of this execrable traffic, language is inadequate to paint the infamy and the horrors. It would, *a priori*, be almost impossible to conceive, that mankind should be so far sunk in depravity, as to sanction such a complication of cruelty and villainy as the slave trade, by the voice of any legislature whatever. Yet, shocking to relate, in countries that boast of civilization, refinement, and love of liberty, the utmost efforts of the humane, have been unable to terminate this odious traffic. A few specious palliatives, whose only effect will probably be to prolong the disorder they are pretended to remedy, by disguising the atrocities perpetrated, are all that have been procured. And there have been men found, of sufficient effrontery, to attempt to draw arguments, in favour of this purchase of their fellow creatures, from humanity itself!

A sea officer lately visited all the chiefs of the negroes in the British settlements, from Santa Apollonia to Athera, an extent of more than two hundred and fifty miles, and found the police and punishment of all crimes regulated by the slave trade. Those who commit crimes or trespasses against their laws, are, at the decision of twelve elders, sold for slaves for the use of their government, and the support of their chiefs. Theft, adultery, and murder, are the highest crimes, and, whenever they are detected, subject the whole family to slavery. But any individual condemned for the crime of his relation, may redeem his own person, by furnishing two slaves in his room. When a man commits one of the above cardinal crimes, all the male part of his family are forfeited; if a woman, the female part.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African islands, some lie in the Eastern or Indian Ocean, and some in the Western or Atlantic. We shall begin with those in the Indian Ocean; the chief of which are Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagascar, the Comora Islands, Bourbon, and Mauritius.

ZOCOTRA. This island is situated in east lon. 53, north lat. 12, thirty leagues east of Cape Gardesoi, on the continent of Africa. It is eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ships used formerly to put in when they lost their passage to India. It is a populous, plentiful country, yielding most of the fruits and plants usually found within the tropics, together with frankincense, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince or sheik, who is probably tributary to the porte.

BABELMANDEL. The island of Babelmandel gives name to the streight at the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is situated, in east lon. 44-30, north lat. 12, about four miles from the Arabian and Abyssinian shores. The Abyssinians and the Arabians formerly contended, with great fury, for the possession of this island, as it commands the entrance into the South Sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but, since the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance. The island is of small value, being a barren, sandy spot of earth, not five miles round.

The **COMORA** islands are: Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, Angezcia, and Comora; situated between 41 and 46 east lon. and between 10 and 14 south lat. at an equal distance from Madagascar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, claims sovereignty over, and exacts tribute from the others. It is about thirty miles long and fifteen broad, and affords plenty of provisions, and such fruits as are produced between the tropics. East-India ships, bound to Bombay, usually touch here for refreshments. The inhabitants are negroes of the Mahometan persuasion, and entertain strangers with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largest of the African islands, and is situated between 43 and 51 deg. east lon. and between 10 and 26 south lat. three hundred miles south-east of the continent of Africa; being near one thousand miles in length from north to south; and generally between two and three hundred miles broad. The sea rolls with great rapidity, and is exceedingly rough between this island and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel, or passage, through which all European ships, in their voyage to and from India, generally pass, unless prevented by storms.

Madagascar is a pleasant and fertile country, abounding in sugar, honey, vines, fruit-trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious stones, iron, some silver, copper, steel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods and champaign; is watered with numerous rivers, and well stored with fish. The air is generally temperate, and said to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; some white, some negroes, some Mahometans, some pagans. The whites, and those of a tawny complexion, who inhabit the coasts, are descended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites; but here are no mosques, temples, nor any stated worship, except that they offer sacrifices of beasts on particular occasions; as when sick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their assemblies, circumcise their children, declare war, enter into new-built houses, or bury their dead. Many of them observe the Jewish sabbath, and give some account of the sacred history, the creation and fall of man, as also of Noah, Abraham, Moses, and David; from whence it is conjectured that they are descended of Jews who formerly settled here; though none knows how or when. This island was discovered by the Portuguese, and the French took possession of it in 1642; but the people, disliking their government, drove them out in 1651; since which the

natives have had the sole possession of the island, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon each other for slaves and plunder.

MAURITIUS, or Maurice, was so called by the Dutch, who first touched here in 1598, in honor of prince Maurice, their stadtholder; but the French, its present masters, have given it the name of **THE ISLE OF FRANCE**. It is situated in east lon. 56, south lat. 20, about four hundred miles east of Madagascar. It is of an oval form, about one hundred and fifty miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ships, secure against any wind that blows, and one hundred fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleasant. The mountains, of which there are many, and some so high, that their tops are covered with snow, produce the best ebony in the world, besides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly resemble the ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The island is watered with several rivers, well stocked with fish; and though the soil is not the most fruitful, it yields plenty of tobacco, rice, and fruit; and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and sheep.

BOURBON. The Isle of Bourbon is situated in east lon. 58, south lat. 21, about three hundred miles east of Madagascar, and is about ninety miles round. There are many good roads for shipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and south sides; but hardly a single harbour where ships can ride secure against those hurricanes which blow during the monsoons. Indeed the coast is so surrounded with blind rocks, sunk a few feet below the water, that coasting along shore is, at all times, dangerous. On the southern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames, smoke, and sulphur, with a hideous, roaring noise, terrible, in the night, to mariners. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreshed with cooling gales, which blow, morning and evening, from the sea and land: sometimes, however, terrible hurricanes shake the whole island almost to its foundation; but generally without any other bad consequence, than frightening the inhabitants. The island abounds in brooks and springs, and in fruits, grass, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there), aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood, and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and resins, particularly benzoin, of an excellent kind, in great plenty. The rivers are well stocked with fish, the coast with land and sea tortoises, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergris, coral and the most beautiful shells, are found upon the shore. The woods are full of doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye and pleasant to the palate. The French first settled here in the year 1672, after they were expelled from the island of Madagascar. They have now some considerable towns in the island, with a governor; and here their East India ships touch and take in refreshments.

There are a great many more small islands about Madagascar, and on the eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where described.

Leaving, therefore, the eastern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immense ocean, lying between the two grand divisions of the globe, having Europe, Asia, and Africa on the east; and America on the west; towards which division we now steer our course, touching, in our way, at the following islands upon the African coast, which have not yet been described, viz. St. Helena, Ascension, St. Matthew, St. Thomas's, Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madiera islands.

ST. HELENA. The first island, on this side the Cape, is St. Helena, situated in west lon. 6-4, south lat. 16, being twelve hundred miles west of the continent of

Africa, and eighteen hundred east of South America. This island is a rock about twenty one miles in circumference, very high and steep, and only accessible at the landing place, in a small valley at the east side of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually dashing on the shore, it is generally difficult landing even here. There is no other anchorage about the island, but at Chapel Valley; and, as the wind always blows from the south-east, if a ship overshoots the island ever so little, she cannot recover it again. The English plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn; of the last however, the most part is destroyed by the rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be destroyed; so that the flour they use is almost wholly imported from England; and, in times of scarcity, they generally eat yams and potatoes instead of bread. Though the island appears, on every side, a hard, barren rock, yet it is agreeably diversified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden stuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geese, and turkeys, with which they supply the sailors, taking, in exchange, shirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of calico, silks, muslins, arrack, sugar, &c.

St. Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese on the festival of the empress Helena, mother of the emperor Constantine the great, whose name it still bears. It does not appear that the Portuguese ever planted a colony here. The English East India company took possession of it in 1600, and held it, without interruption, till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprise. However, the English, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again, within the space of a year, and, at the same time, took three Dutch East India ships that lay in the road. There are about two hundred families in the island, most of them descended from English parents. The East India ships take in water and fresh provisions here, in their way home; but the island is small, and the wind so much against them outward bound, that they then very seldom see it.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the company, besides a public table well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers are welcome.

ASCENSION. This island is situated in $7^{\circ} 40'$ south lat. and $17^{\circ} 20'$ west lon. 600 miles northwest of St. Helena. It received its name from its being discovered, by the Portuguese, on Ascension-day; and is a mountainous, barren island, about twenty miles round and uninhabited; but has a safe convenient harbour, where the East India ships generally touch, to furnish themselves with turtles or tortoises, which are very plentiful here, and vastly large, some of them weighing above a hundred pounds. The sailors going ashore in the night-time, frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are sometimes so cruel, as to turn many more than they use, leaving them to die on the shore.

ST. MATTHEW. This is a small island, lying in $6-1$ west lon. and $1-30$ south lat. three hundred miles to the north-east of Ascension, and was also discovered by the Portuguese, who planted and kept possession of it for some time; but afterwards deserting it, this island now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to settle there, except a small lake of fresh water.

The four following islands, viz, ST. THOMAS, PRINCES' ISLAND, ANNABOA, and FERNANDOPO, are situated in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were first discovered by the Portuguese, and belong still to them; they furnish

shipping with fresh water and provisions as they pass by. And, to the honour of the Portuguese government, and disgrace of the West India legislatures, there are fifteen hundred negro christians in St. Thomas's, instructed to read and write, who daily attend divine worship, clean and well clothed.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. These islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the river Gambia, opposite which they lie, at the distance of three hundred miles, between 23 and 26 degrees west lon. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about twenty in number; but some of them, being only barren, uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonavista, Sal, St. Nicolas, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio, are the most considerable, and are subject to the Portuguese. The air, generally speaking, is very hot, and in some of them very unwholesome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the descendants of Europeans, and negroes.

ST. JAGO, where the Portuguese viceroy resides, is the most fruitful, best inhabited, and largest of them all, being one hundred and fifty miles in circumference; yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits; but the plant of most considerable consequence is madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs. Here is plenty of roots, garden stuffs, hogs, and poultry. *Baya*, or *Praya*, (famous for an action between an English and French squadron); situated on the east side, has a good port, and is seldom without ships, those outward bound to Guinea or the East Indies; from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreshments.

In the island of **MAYO** or **MAY**, immense quantities of salt are made by the heat of the sun from the sea-water, which, at spring tides, is received into a sort of pan formed by a sand-bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. Here the English carry on a considerable trade for salt; and have commonly a man of war to guard the vessels that come to load with it, which, in some years, amount to a hundred or more. The salt costs nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on asses to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several British ships come hither for a freight of asses, which they carry to Barbadoes and other West India plantations. The inhabitants of this island, even the governor and priests, are all negroes, and speak the Portuguese language. The negro governor expects a small present from every commander that loads salt.

The island of **Fogo** is remarkable for being a volcano, continually sending up sulphureous exhalations; and sometimes the flame breaks forth, like *Ætna*, in a terrible manner, throwing pumice stones, which annoy all the parts adjacent.

GOREE is situated within cannon shot of Cape Verd, N. lat. 14 43. W. lon. 17-20, and was so called by the Dutch, from an island and town of the same name in Holland. It does not exceed two miles in circumference, but its importance rises from its situation for trade, so near Cape Verd, and it has been, therefore, a subject of contest between the European nations. It was first possessed by the Dutch; from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the English; but in 1665, it was re-taken by the Dutch; and in 1677 subdued by the French, in whose possession it remained, till the year 1759, when it was taken by the British. It was restored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the English in the last war, but again restored at the peace of 1783.

CANARIES. The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Islands, are seven in number, and situated between 12 and 19 degrees west lon. and between 27 and 29 degrees north lat. about 150 miles south-west of Morocco. Their particular names are, Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuerteventura, and Langorote. These islands enjoy a pure, temperate air, and abound in the most delicious fruits, especially grapes, which produce those rich wines that obtain the name of the Canary, whereof the greatest part is exported to England, which, in time of peace, is computed at ten thousand hogheads annually. The Canaries abound with those little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now so common and so much admired in Europe and America; but their wild notes, in their native land, far excel those in a cage in a foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about one hundred and fifty miles in circumference, and so extremely fertile as to produce two harvests in a year. Teneriffe, the largest of these islands next to that of Grand Canary, is about one hundred and twenty miles round; a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil; though it is encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glas observes that in going to this island in clear weather, the Peak may be easily discerned at one hundred and twenty miles distance, and in sailing from it, at one hundred and fifty. The Peak is of a conical form, about fifteen miles in circumference, and thirteen thousand two hundred and sixty-five feet perpendicular. This mountain is a volcano, and sometimes throws out such quantities of sulphur and melted ore, as to convert the rich lands into barren deserts. These islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans, destroyed that state, put a stop to the navigation on the west coast of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the rest of the world until they were again discovered in the year 1405; by the Spaniards, to whom they still belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives resembled the Africans, in their stature and complexion, when the Spaniards first came among them, their language was different from that spoken on the continent; they had none of the African customs, were masters of no science, and did not know there was any country in the world besides their own.

MADEIRAS. The three islands called the Madeiras, are situated, according to the author of Anson's voyage, in a fine climate, in 32-27 north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-50 west lon. about one hundred miles north of the Canaries, and as many west of Sallee in Morocco. The largest, from which the rest derive the general name of Madeiras, is about seventy-five miles long, sixty broad, and one hundred and eighty in circumference. It is composed of one continued hill, of a considerable height, extending from east to west; the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated and interspersed with vineyards; and, in the midst of this slope, the merchants have fixed their country seats, which from a very agreeable prospect. There is but one considerable town in the whole island, which is named Funchal, seated on the south part of the island, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the sea, it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place, where it is possible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it.

Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese in 1519: but others assert, that it was first discovered by an Englishman, in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still almost the only people who inhabit it. The Portuguese, at their first landing, finding it little better than a thick forest, rendered the ground capable of cultivation, by setting fire to the woods; and it is now very fertile, producing, in great abundance, the richest wine, sugar, the most

delicate fruits, especially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates, together with corn, honey, and wax. It abounds also with boars and other wild beasts, and with all sorts of fowls, besides numerous groves of cedar trees, and those that yield a juice called dragon's blood, mastic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this isle make the best sweetmeats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The sugar they make is extremely beautiful, and smells naturally of violets. This, indeed, is said to be the first place, in the west, where that manufacture was set on foot, and from thence it was carried to the Brasils, in America. The Portuguese not finding it so profitable as at first, have pulled up the greatest part of their sugar canes, and planted vineyards in their stead, which produce several sorts of excellent wine, particularly Madeira, malmsy, and tent; of which the inhabitants make and sell prodigious quantities. No less than twenty thousand hogheads of Madeira, it is said, are yearly exported, the greatest part to the West Indies, especially to Barbadoes, the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved, when exposed to the sun in barrels, after the bung is taken out. It is said no venomous animal can live here. Of the other two islands, one called Port Santo, lies at a small distance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compass, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ships may ride with safety against all winds, except the south-west; and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other island is an inconsiderable, barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we close the account of Africa, we continue our course westward, through this immense ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Western Islands, which are situated between 25 and 32 degrees west lon. and between 37 and 40 north latitude, nine hundred miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel, or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered in the middle of the fifteenth century, by Joshua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Lisbon, was, by stress of weather, driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemish Islands. On his arrival at Lisbon, he boasted of this discovery, on which the Portuguese set sail immediately, and took possession of them. To that nation they still belong, and are generally called the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All these islands enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air; but are exposed to violent earthquakes and inundations, from both which they frequently suffer much damage. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits; also in cattle, fowl, and fish. It is said that no poisonous or noxious animals breed on the Azores, and that if carried thither, they will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largest; being near one hundred miles in circumference, and containing fifty thousand inhabitants, was twice invested and plundered by the English, in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious, and has good anchorage, but is exposed to the south east winds. It is generally visited by homeward-bound fleets from Brasil, Africa, and the East Indies. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the residence of the governor of these islands, as well as of the bishop.

A M E R I C A.

ITS DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST.

WE are now a treat of a country of great fertility, vast extent, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of Art, owes, in many respects, more to that of Nature, than any other division of the globe. The particular circumstances of this country require, that we should, in some measure, vary our plan, and, before we describe its present state, unfold the cause and manner of its discovery.

Towards the close of the fifteenth century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their support to commerce. An interference of interests inspired a mutual rivalry; but, in traffic, Venice was much superior. She engrossed the whole commerce of India, the most valuable in the world; but then entirely carried on through the inland parts of Asia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red Sea. In this state of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, whose knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much superior to that of the age in which he lived, formed a project of sailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown route, and of opening to his country, a new source of opulence and power. But this proposal of sailing westward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoese, as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as absurd. Stung with disappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, laid his scheme before the court of France, where his reception was still more mortifying, and where his views were considered as extravagant and impracticable. Henry VII. of England, was his next resort; but the cautious politics of that prince were unfavourable to great but uncertain designs. In Portugal, where the spirit of adventure and discovery, about this time, began to operate, he had reason to expect better success. But the Portuguese contented themselves with creeping along the coast of Africa, and discovering one cape after another: they had no idea of venturing boldly into the open sea, and of risking much to acquire more. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expense, and he had not the means of defraying it. His mind, however, still remained firm; and he was inspired with that noble enthusiasm which always animates an adventurous and original genius: he became the more enamoured of his design, the more difficulty he found in accomplishing it. Spain was now his last resource, where, after eight years attendance and solicitation, he at length succeeded, chiefly through the interest of queen Isabella. Columbus set sail in the year 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon the most adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were deeply interested*. In this voyage he had a thousand diffi-

* Dr. Robertson observes, that the armament of Columbus was not suitable either to the dignity of the nation, by which it was equipped, or to the importance of the service for which it was destined. It consisted of three vessels. The Santa Maria, the largest, a ship of no considerable burden, was commanded by Columbus, as admiral; the other two were light vessels, hardly superior in burden or force to large boats. This squadron, if it merits that name, was victualled for twelve months, and had on board ninety men;

mostly sailors, together with a few adventurers who followed the fortune of Columbus, and gentlemen of Isabella's court, whom she appointed to accompany him. Though the expense of the undertaking, was one of the circumstances which chiefly alarmed the court of Spain, and retarded so long the negotiation with Columbus, the sum employed in fitting out the squadron, did not amount to twenty thousand dollars.

culties to encounter ; the most alarming of which was the variation of the compass. This phenomenon now first occurred. To superstitious minds, it pointed out great evil. They feared lest heaven had resolved to rob them of their only sure guide, now when its aid was most necessary. His sailors, always discontented, broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and insisting on their return. But the firmness and address of the commander, and much more the discovery of land, after a voyage of thirty-three days, put an end to the commotion. It was on the morning of the 12th of October, that Columbus descried an island, whose flat and verdant fields, well stored with wood, and watered with many rivulets, presented the aspect of a delightful country. The crew of the *Pinta* instantly began the *Te Deum*, as a hymn of thanksgiving to God, and were joined by those of the other ships, with tears of joy, and transports of congratulation. This office of gratitude to heaven was followed by an act of justice to their commander. They threw themselves at the feet of Columbus with feelings of self-condemnation mingled with reverence, and implored him to pardon their ignorance, incredulity, and insolence. After this the boats were all manned and armed, and they rowed towards the island with their colours displayed, with warlike music and other martial pomp. As they approached the coast, they saw it covered with a multitude of people, whom the novelty of the spectacle had drawn together, and whose attitudes and gestures expressed wonder and astonishment at the strange objects which presented themselves to their view. Columbus was the first European who set foot on the new world, which he had discovered. He landed in a rich dress, and with a naked sword in his hand. His men followed, and, kneeling down, they all kissed the ground, which they had so long desired to see ; and took solemn possession of the country in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella. The natives of the country were at first intimidated, but soon became familiar with the Spaniards, and trafficked with them. It was one of the Bahama islands on which Columbus had landed, and which he called *San Salvador* ; but he soon discovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that these could not be the Indians he was in quest of. In steering southward, however, he found the island called *Hispanioia*, abounding in all the necessaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hospitable people ; and, what was of still greater consequence, as it ensured his favourite reception at home, promising, from some samples he received, considerable quantities of gold. This island, therefore, he proposed to make the centre of his discoveries : and having left upon it a few of his companions as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure necessary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona : Columbus travelled thither, from Seville, amidst the acclamations of the people, attended by some of the natives, and conveying the gold, the arms, utensils, and ornaments of the country he had discovered. This entry into Barcelona was a species of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the islands that lie between North and South America ; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. The countries, which he had discovered, were considered as a part of India. Even after the error which gave rise to this opinion, was detected, and the true position of the new world was ascertained, the name has remained, and the appellation of *West Indies* is universally given to this country. Thus were the *West Indies* discovered by seeking a passage to the East and even after the discovery, still conceived to be a part of the eastern hemisphere. The present success of Columbus, his former disappointments, and the glory attending to unexpected a discovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his designs now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of seventeen sail was immediately prepared ; all the necessaries for conquest or discovery were embarked, and fifteen hundred men, among whom were several of high rank and fortune,

prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor, with the most ample authority. It is impossible to determine, whether the genius of this great man, in first conceiving the idea of these discoveries, or his sagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, most deserves our admiration. Instead of hurrying from sea to sea, and from one island to another, which, agreeably to the vulgar ambition of discoverers, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with such a field before him, unable to turn, on either hand, without finding new objects of curiosity, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the discoveries he had already made, than to acquire to himself the unavailing applause of visiting a number of unknown countries, from which he should have reaped no other benefit than the pleasure of seeing them. With this view, he directed his course towards Hispaniola, where he established a colony, and erected forts on the most advantageous grounds for securing the dependence of the natives. Having spent a considerable time in this employment, and laboured for the establishment of this colony with as much zeal and assiduity, as if his views had extended no farther, he next proceeded to ascertain the importance of his other discoveries, and to examine what advantages were most likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from some specimens, seemed a rich country; but whether it was an island, or a part of some great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To ascertain this point was the present object of his attention. In coasting along the southern shore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled among a multitude of islands, of which he reckoned one hundred and sixty in one day. These islands were well inhabited, and abounded with all the necessaries of life. He called them *Jardin de la Reina*, or the Queen's garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactors. In the same voyage, Jamaica was discovered. But to so many difficulties was Columbus exposed, on an unknown sea, amidst rocks and shelves, that he returned to Hispaniola, without acquiring any certain information with regard to Cuba, the main object of the enterprise.

By the first success of this great man, the public diffidence had been turned into admiration; but by a continuance of the same success, their admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies, in Spain, set every spring in motion against him: and there is seldom difficulty in finding specious grounds of accusation against such as are employed in the execution of extensive and complicated plans. An officer was dispatched from Spain, fitted, by his character, to act the part of a spy and informer, and whose presence plainly demonstrated to Columbus the necessity of returning to Europe, in order to remove the objections, and to falsify the calumny of his enemies.

It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to set out on a third expedition, still more famous than those he had before undertaken. He designed to stand to the southward from the Canaries, until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly westward, that he might discover what opening that might afford to India. In this navigation, after being long enveloped in a thick fog, and suffering numberless inconveniences from the excessive heats and rains between the tropics, they were, at length, favoured by a smart gale, and went before it seventeen days to the westward. At the end of this time, a seaman saw land, which was an island on the coast of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having passed this island, and two others which lie in the mouth of the river Oronoque, the admiral was surpris'd at an appearance he had never seen before: this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occasioned by a conflict between the tide of the sea, and the rapid current of that immense river. But, sailing forward, he plainly discovered that they were in fresh water; and judging rightly, that it was improbable any island should supply so vast a river, he began to suspect that he had discovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on to the westward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this discovery, he yielded to the uneasiness and

remonstrances of his crew, and bore away for Hispaniola. In the course of this discovery, Columbus landed at several places, where, in a friendly manner, he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time, the spirit of discovery spread itself widely, and many adventurers sought to avail themselves of the advantages which the discoveries of Columbus promised. The Portuguese discovered Brasil, which makes, at present, the most valuable part of their possessions. Cabot, an Englishman, discovered the north-east coasts, which form the united states of America; and Americus Vespusius, a merchant of Florence, sailed to the southern continent; and has had the fortune to give his name to the new world, discovered through the genius and enterprize of Columbus. The deprivation of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the smallest mortifications to which this great man was exposed. For such were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that, after discovering the continent, and making settlements in the islands of America, he was treated like a criminal, and carried over to Europe in irons. When he arrived in Spain, the court were ashamed of their ungenerous treatment of this great man, and orders were instantly issued to set him at liberty. He vindicated his conduct, in the presence of the king and queen, in the most satisfactory manner, and gave ample evidence of the malice of his enemies. Ferdinand and Isabella expressed their sorrow for what had happened, disavowed their knowledge of it, and joined in promising protection and future favour. Columbus, however, retained a deep sense of the indignity with which he had been treated. The fetters that he had been loaded with, were constantly hung up in his chamber, and he gave orders, that, when he died, they should be buried in his grave. But, notwithstanding the ill treatment which he had received, he undertook another voyage of discovery. He underwent, in the course of it, great fatigues; and returning to Spain, ended his life at Valladolid, on the 20th of May, 1506, in the fifty-ninth year of his age. He had the glory of making the one half of the world known to the other; a glory so much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder. The succeeding governors of Cuba and Hispaniola endeavoured to purchase the same advantages, by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good sense and humanity. These islands contained mines of gold. The Indians alone knew where they were situated; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of persuasion, hurried them to acts of the most shocking violence and cruelty against those unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treasure. The slaughter once begun, they set no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hispaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba that had about six hundred thousand. Bartholomew de las Casas, a witness of those barbarous depopulations, says, that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt the natives. The unhappy savages, almost naked and unarmed, were pursued like deer in the forests, devoured by dogs, killed by gun-shot, or surpris'd and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only slightly visited the continent: from what they saw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a still more valuable conquest. Fernando Cortez was dispatched from Cuba with six hundred men, eighteen horses, and a small number of field pieces. With this inconsiderable force, he proposed to subdue the most powerful state on the continent of America: this was the empire of Mexico; rich, extensive, and inhabited by millions of Indians, passionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whose fame in arms struck terror into the neighbouring nations. Never did a true history appear more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico, it is said, had subsisted for ages: its inhabitants were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a polished and intelligent people. They knew,

like the Egyptians of old, that the year consisted nearly of three hundred and sixty-five days. Their superiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror through the continent; and their government was founded on the sure basis of laws combined with religion. Mexico, the capital of the empire, situated in the middle of a spacious lake, was the noblest monument of American industry; it communicated with the continent by immense causeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of stone, its squares and market-places, the shops which glittered with gold and silver, and the sumptuous palaces of Montezuma, some erected on columns of jasper, and containing whatever was most rare, curious, or useful. But all the grandeur of his empire could not defend it against the Spaniards. In their march, they met with feeble opposition from the nations along the coast of Mexico, who were terrified at their first appearance. The warlike animals, on which the Spanish officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which issued from their hands, the wooden castles which had wafted them over the ocean, struck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover till it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched, they spared neither age nor sex, nothing sacred nor profane. At last, the inhabitants of Tlascala, and some other states on the coast, despairing of being able to oppose them, entered into their alliance, and joined armies with those terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and in his progress, discovered a volcano of sulphur and saltpetre, whence he could supply himself with powder. Montezuma heard of his progress, without daring to oppose it. This sovereign is reported by the Spaniards to have commanded thirty vassals, of whom each could appear at the head of one hundred thousand combatants, armed with bows and arrows, and yet he durst not resist a handful of Spaniards, aided by a few Americans, whose allegiance would be shaken by the first reverse of fortune. Such was the effect of Spanish victories, the fame of which always marched before them.

By sending a rich present of gold, which only increased the Spanish avarice, Montezuma hastened the approach of the enemy. No opposition was made to their entry into his capital. A palace was set apart for Cortez and his companions, who were already treated as masters of the new world. He had good reason, however, to distrust the affected politeness of this emperor, under which, he suspected some plot for his destruction was concealed. But he had no pretence for his violence; Montezuma treated him with kindness, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was surrounded with artillery, the most frightful of all engines to the Americans. At last a circumstance occurred, which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hostilities. In order to secure a communication by sea, to receive the necessary reinforcements, he had erected a fort, and left a small garrison behind him at Vera Cruz, which has since become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He understood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garrison in his absence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action; that Montezuma himself was privy to this violence, and had issued orders, that the head of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to destroy a belief, which then prevailed among them that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in person to the emperor, attended by a few of his most experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, and Cortez seemed extremely ready to believe him; though, at the same time, he alleged that the Spaniards in general would never be persuaded of it, unless he went with them to their residence, which would remove all jealousy between the two nations. The emperor, taken by surprise, assented. Thus, a powerful monarch, in the midst of his own palace, and surrounded by his guards, gave himself up a prisoner, to be disposed of according to the will of a few gentlemen who came to demand him. Cortez was now possessed of

an engine, by which every thing might be accomplished. The Americans had the highest respect, or rather a superstitious veneration for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and, at the same time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his tastes and passions, maintained the easy sovereignty of Mexico, by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their respect? Montezuma was the first to teach them more deference. Was there a tumult excited, though the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards? Montezuma ascended the battlements of his prison, and harangued his Mexicans into order and submission. This farce continued a long while: but on one occasion, when Montezuma was shamefully disgracing his character, by justifying the enemies of his country, a stone, from an unknown hand, struck him on the temple, which, in a few days, occasioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who had co-operated so strongly with the Spaniards, elected a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, who, from the beginning, had discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct, the unhappy Mexicans rushed against those very men, whom, a little before, they appeared ready to worship. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly established, to be expelled from Mexico. The immense tribute, which the granlees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to six hundred thousand marks of pure gold, besides an amazing quantity of precious stones, a fifth part of which being distributed among the soldiers, stimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to perish, rather than part with such precious spoils. The Mexicans, however, made no small efforts for independence; but their valour gave way before what they called the Spanish thunder. Guatimozin and the empress were taken prisoners. This prince, (when he lay stretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him discover in what part of the lake he had thrown his riches) said to his high-priest, condemned to the same punishment, and who loudly expressed his sense of the pains that he endured, "Do you suppose I lie on a bed of roses?" The high-priest remained silent, and died in an act of obedience to his sovereign. Cortez, possessing himself of a second emperor, made a complete conquest of Mexico; together with which, the Castille D'Or, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez and his soldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they received intelligence of another great empire, situated towards the equinoctial line, and the tropic of Capricorn, which was said to abound in gold, silver, and precious stones, and to be governed by a prince still more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near thirty degrees, and was the only other country in America, which deserved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened that the Spanish government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, they did not choose to adventure on new enterprises, certain it is, that this extensive country, more important than Mexico itself, was reduced by the endeavours and at the expense of three private persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a wealthy and artful priest. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low education. Pizarro, the soul of the enterprise, could neither read nor write. They sailed over into Spain, and, without difficulty, obtained a grant of what they should conquer. Pizarro then set out for the conquest of Peru, with two hundred and fifty foot, sixty horse, and twelve small pieces of cannon, drawn by slaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the same prejudices with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spaniards, and were, besides, of a character still more soft and unwarlike, it need not sur-

prise us, after what has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that, with this considerable force, Pizarro should make a deep impression on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumstances, likewise, which conspired to assist him, and which, as they discover somewhat of the history, religion, and state of the human mind in this immense continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of those uncommon men, who, calm and dispassionate themselves, can observe the passions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He observed that the people of Peru were naturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the sun. He pretended, therefore, to be descended from that luminary, whose worship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled to bear. By this story, romantic as it appears, he easily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his jurisdiction; a larger still he subdued by his arms; but he employed both force and deceit for the most laudable purposes. He united and civilized the distressed and barbarous people; he introduced among them laws and arts; he softened them by the instruction of a benevolent religion; in short, there was no part of America, where agriculture and the arts were so assiduously cultivated, and where the people were of such mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes succeeded Mango, distinguished by the title of yncas, and revered by the people as descendants of their great god, the sun. The twelfth of these was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guaiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spanish Peru. To secure himself in the possession, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country; and of this marriage was sprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Heufcar, of a different mother, had claimed the succession of the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connexion. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Heufcar, as a prisoner, in the tower of Cusca, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble and disjointed state was the kingdom of Peru, when Pizarro advanced to it. Ominous predictions, too, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the subjection of the empire by unknown persons, whose description was supposed to correspond with the appearance of the Spaniards. In these circumstances, Atabalipa, instead of opposing the Spaniards, exerted himself to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whose temper partook of the meanness of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with those he called barbarians; but who, however, though less acquainted with the cruel art of destroying their fellow creatures, were more civilized than himself. While he was engaged in conference, therefore, with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked the guards of that prince, and, having butchered five thousand of them, as they were pressing forwards, without regard to their particular safety, to defend the sacred person of their monarch, seized Atabalipa himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. Pizarro, with the sovereign in his power, might already be deemed the master of Peru: for the inhabitants of this country were as strongly attached to their emperor, as the Mexicans themselves. Atabalipa was not long in their hands, before he began to treat of his ransom. On this occasion, the ancient ornaments, amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treasures of the most magnificent temples, were brought out to save him, who was the support of the kingdom and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negotiation, by which he proposed, without releasing the emperor, to get into his possession an immense quantity of gold, the arrival of Almagro caused some embarrassment in his affairs. The friendship, or rather the external show of friendship, between these

men, was solely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold, enterprising spirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous, that might gratify their ruling passion. When their interests, therefore, happened to interfere, no measure could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the most considerable share of the treasure arising from the emperor's ransom, because he had the chief merit in acquiring it. Almagro insisted on being upon an equal footing: and at length, lest the common cause might suffer by a rupture between them, this arrangement was agreed to. The ransom was paid without delay, a sum exceeding their conception, but not sufficient to gratify their avarice. It amounted to above six millions of dollars, in value. On the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the shares of the chief commanders and officers, each private soldier had about the value of nine thousand dollars. With such fortunes, it was not to be expected, that a mercenary army would patiently submit to the rigours of military discipline. They insisted on being disbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand; sensible that avarice would still detain many in his family, and that those who returned with such immense fortunes, would induce new adventurers to pursue the same road to wealth. These wise reflections were abundantly verified; it was impossible to find better recruiting-officers than those who had themselves so much profited by the field; new soldiers constantly arrived, and the Spanish armies never wanted reinforcement.

This immense ransom was only a farther reason for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they discovered whether he had another treasure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince, from whom they expected no farther advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, on account of some instances of craft and duplicity, which he observed in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs, it is certain, that by his command, Atabalipa was put to death. To justify this cruel proceeding a sham charge was exhibited against the unhappy prince, in which he was accused of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumstances equally impertinent. The only just ground of accusation against him was, that his brother Huefcar had been put to death by his command; and even this was considerably palliated, because Huefcar had been plotting his destruction, that he might establish himself on the throne. Upon the death of the ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility set up the full brother of Huefcar; Pizarro set up a son of Atabalipa; and two generals, of the Peruvians, endeavoured to establish themselves by the assistance of the army. These distractions; which, in other circumstances, would have been extremely hurtful, were at present rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought against each other; their battles accustomed these harmless people to blood; and in the course of those quarrels among themselves, the inhabitants of Peru assumed some courage against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cause of their calamities. The losses which the Spaniards met with, in these quarrels, though inconsiderable in themselves, were rendered dangerous, by lessening the opinion of their invincibility, which they had been careful to preserve among the inhabitants of the new world. This consideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and this interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city of Lima, and in settling the Spaniards in the country. But as soon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war against the Indians, and after many difficulties, made himself master of Cusco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained two hundred leagues along the sea-coast, to the southward of what had been before granted, and Almagro two hundred leagues to the southward of Pizarro's go-

vernment. This division occasioned a warm dispute between them, each reckoning Cusco within his own district. But the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He persuaded his rival, that though the country, which really belonged to him, lay to the southward of Cusco, it was equally rich and fertile, and might be as easily conquered as Peru. He offered him his assistance in the expedition.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of subduing a kingdom for himself, listened to his advice; and, joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own as he judged necessary, penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; losing many of his men, as he passed over mountains of an immense height, and always covered with snow. He reduced, however, a very considerable part of the country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war, not to take advantage of the division of the Spanish troops. They made no effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indisposed, and Almagro removed at great distance, they nearly succeeded. The latter however, no sooner got notice of the siege of Cusco than, relinquishing all views of distant conquests, he returned to secure the grand object of his former labours. He raised the siege with infinite slaughter of the assailants; but having obtained possession of the city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no enemy but the Peruvians. This dispute occasioned a long and bloody struggle between the two Spanish generals, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the resentment fierce on both sides, because the fate of the vanquished was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, at an advanced age, fell a victim to the security of a rival, in whose dangers and triumphs he had long shared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprise, he had been intimately connected. During the course of this civil war, many Peruvians served in the Spanish armies, and learned, from the practice of the christians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable resolution. They saw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguishable resentment and avarice, and they conjectured that these passions would never permit their contests to subside. Let us retire, said they, from among them; let us fly to our mountains; they will speedily destroy each other; and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. The resolution was instantly put in practice, the Peruvians dispersed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force, on each side, been exactly equal, this singular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with success. But the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and to the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never since ventured to oppose the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now sole master of the field, and of the most extensive empire in the world, was still urged on, by his ambition, to undertake new enterprises. The southern countries of America, into which he had sometime before dispatched Almagro, offered the richest conquest. Towards this quarter, the mountains of Potosi, composed almost of entire silver, had been discovered, the shell of which only remains at present. He therefore followed the tract of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, passed the Andes, and sailed down to the mouth of the river Amazon: an immense navigation, which discovered a rich and delightful country; but, as it is mostly flat, and not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever since, neglected it. Pizarro, meeting with uninterrupted success, and having no superior to controul, nor rival to keep him within bounds, now gave loose reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and exercised the basest tyranny and cruelty against all who had not concurred in his designs. This conduct raised a conspiracy against him, to which he fell a sacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himself founded. The partisans of old Almagro, declared his son, of the same name, their viceroy. But the greater part of the nation,

though extremely well satisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur in this declaration. They waited the orders of the emperor Charles V. then king of Spain who sent over Vaca di Castro as governor. This man, by his integrity and wisdom was well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the most advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother country. By his prudent management, the mines of La Plata and Potosi, which were formerly an object of private plunder, became of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were silenced or crushed; young Almagro, who would submit to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, since the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was restored to Peru. It seems, however, that Di Castro had not been sufficiently skilled in gaining the favour of the Spanish ministry, by proper bribes or promises, which the ministry expected from the governor of so rich a country. By their advice, a council was sent over to controul Di Castro, and the peace of the colony was again disturbed, the flame of party, but just extinguished, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, set himself at the head of his brother's partisans, with whom many new malcontents had united. It was now no longer a dispute between governors about the bounds of their jurisdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal submission to the king. He acquired strength daily; and even went so far as to behead a governor who was sent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spanish fleet in the South Seas, by whose means he proposed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain; and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the situation of affairs, when the court of Spain, sensible of its mistake in not sending to America men of character and virtue, dispatched, with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gasca, a man differing only from Castro, in being of a more mild and insinuating behaviour, but with the same love of justice, the same greatness of soul, and the same disinterested spirit. All those, who had not joined in the revolt, flocked to his standard; many of Pizarro's friends, charmed with the behavior of Gasca, forsook their old connexions; the admiral was gained over, by insinuation, to return to his duty; and Pizarro himself was offered a full indemnity, provided he should return to his allegiance to the Spanish crown. But so intoxicating is the prospect of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard, rather than submit to an officer of Spain. With those of his partisans, therefore, who still continued attached to his interest, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered and taken prisoner. His execution followed soon after; and thus the brother of him, who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a sacrifice to the security of the Spanish dominion over that country.

The conquest of the great empires of Mexico and Peru, is the only part of the American history which deserves to be treated under the present head. What relates to the reduction of other parts of the continent, or of the islands, if it contains instruction or entertainment, shall be introduced when we come to treat of those particular countries. We now proceed to examine the manners, government, religion, and whatever composes the character of the natives of America: and as these are extremely similar all over this part of the Globe, we shall speak of them in general, in order to save continual repetitions; noticing, at the same time, when we enter upon the description of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants.

OF THE ORIGINAL INHABITANTS OF AMERICA.

THE discovery of America has not only opened a new source of wealth to the commercial part of Europe, but an extensive field of speculation to the philosopher, who would trace the character of man under various forms of society, and observe the movements of the human heart, or the operation of the human understanding, when untutored by science and untainted by corruption. So striking seemed the disparity between the inhabitants of Europe and the natives of America, that some speculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impossible they should be of the same species, or derived from one common source. This conclusion, however, is precipitate and erroneous*. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied, according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the necessaries of life, the force of custom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumstances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be discovered among them all, notwithstanding the various shades which characterise nations, and distinguish them from each other.

When the thirst of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe across the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immersed in what they reckoned barbarity; but which, however, was a state of independence and simplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively speaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almost every European art: even agriculture itself, the most useful of them all, was hardly known or cultivated very sparingly. The only kind of labour, on which they depended for acquiring the necessaries of life, was that of hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and forests supplied in great abundance. This exercise, which, among them, is a most serious occupation, gives a strength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. Their muscles are firm and strong; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce: their hair long, black, coarse, and strong. The colour of their skin resembles that of copper, admired among them, and heightened by the constant use of bears' fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their state of society and mode of living. A people who are

* It is no uncommon thing, even for men of learning and talents, when under the influence of local attachment, to draw conclusions, as arising from observation, and close attention to a subject, which on a longer acquaintance and more accurate investigation, prove to be merely the effect of ignorance of the necessary facts, or want of application to discover the proper result. The Europeans appear, in general, to be greatly exposed to this charge, in their observations on foreign countries and their productions; and this has given rise to many crude and unfounded histories published in Europe, of the aborigines of America, and the natural productions of this fertile quarter of the globe.

A total ignorance of the language of the natives, the difficulty attending the obtaining any tolerable acquaintance with their customs, phrases, habits, and manners, their jealousy of strangers, their profound silence on necessary occasions, and secrecy with regard to their domestic affairs,

added to their utter aversion to every idea of slavery, which they early annex to the government of the white, or, as in their language, it is literary expressed, the accursed people, all had a tendency to prevent European strangers from gaining any adequate knowledge of their real character as a people. But those, who have been born in their neighbourhood, and brought up in habits of intimacy and friendship with them, and in regard to whom all reserve and suspicion were done away, soon discovered, in these children of Nature, such strong traces of superior powers of mind, in those things in which their necessities and customs had called them to exercise their talents, as to lead them to return the compliment, when contrasted with the Europeans in general, and to consider the white people in common, as knowing but little of importance to the well being of man, except the discovery of a few useful manufactures.

constantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious subsistence, who live by hunting wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be supposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or a high flow of spirits. The Indians, therefore, are, in general, grave, even to sadness; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to some nations of Europe, and they despise it. Their behaviour to those about them is regular, modest, and respectful. Ignorant of the arts of amusement, of which that of saying trifles agreeably is one of the most considerable, they never speak but when they have something important to observe; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with some meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almost continually engaged in pursuits, which to them are of the highest importance. Their subsistence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands; and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be lost by the smallest inattention to the designs of their enemies. The cabins or huts of each nation or tribe, are mostly placed near each other, and form small towns. About these they kill the trees by girdling them. The women then scratch up the ground, and plant their corn. The natural luxuriance of the soil brings forward their crop with little further attention or labour. The different tribes or nations are extremely small, when compared with civilized societies, in which industry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vast number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury, renders useful to each other. These small tribes live at an immense distance; they are widely separated from each other, and hid in the bosom of extensive forests.

There is established in each society, a certain species of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with little variation; because over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly similar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great instruments of subjection in polished societies, an Indian has no method by which he can render himself considerable among his companions, but by a superiority in personal qualities of body or mind. But as nature has not been very lavish in her personal distinctions, where all enjoy the same education, all are nearly equal. Liberty, therefore, is the prevailing passion of the Indians; and their government, under the influence of this sentiment, is better secured than by the wisest political regulations. Though free, in the fullest sense of the word, they do not despise all sort of authority: they are attentive to the voice of wisdom, which experience has conferred on the aged, and they enlist under the banners of the chief, in whose valour and military address they have learned to repose their confidence. In every society, therefore, there is to be considered the power of the chief and of the elders; and, according as their government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a species of aristocracy. Among those tribes which are most engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant; because the idea of having a military leader, was the first source of his superiority, and the continual exigencies of the state requiring such a leader, will continue to support, and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather persuasive than coercive; he is revered as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice, and one act of ill-judged violence would deprive him of all authority. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be considered as an aristocracy, have no more power. In some tribes, indeed, there is a kind of hereditary nobility, whose influence, being constantly augmented by time, is more considerable. But this source of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex to the merit of our cotemporaries that of their forefathers, is too refined to be very common among the Indians. In most parts, therefore, age alone acquires respect, influence, and authority; because age brings experience, and experience is the chief source of knowledge among an uncivilized people. Among the Indians, business is conducted with such simplicity, as recalls, to those acquainted with an-

tiquity, a picture of the most early ages. The heads of families meet together in a house or cabin appointed for the purpose. Here the business is discussed; and here those of the nation, distinguished for their eloquence or wisdom, have an opportunity of displaying their talents. Their orators, like those of Homer, express themselves in a bold, figurative style, stronger and more expressive than refined, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and affecting. When the business is over, and they happen to be well provided with food, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. The feast is accompanied with a song, in which the real or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. Their dances, like those of the Greeks and Romans, are chiefly of the military kind; and music and dancing accompany every feast.

It often happens, that those different tribes or nations, scattered as they are at great intervals, meet in their excursions after prey. If there subsists no animosity between them, which seldom is the case, they behave in the most friendly and courteous manner; but if they happen to be in a state of war, or if there has been no previous intercourse between them, all who are not friends, are deemed enemies, and they fight with the most savage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they enjoy, it is left to the women. Their most common motive for entering into war, when it does not arise from any accidental rencontre or interference, is either to revenge themselves for the death of some lost friends, or to acquire prisoners, whom they sometimes adopt into their society in the place of such members of their tribe as they may have lost in war. These wars are either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case, all the young men, who are disposed to go out to battle (for no one is compelled) give a bit of wood to the chief, as a token of their design to accompany him; for every thing, among these people, is transacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief, who is to conduct them, fasts several days, during which he converses with no one, and is particularly careful to observe his dreams, which the presumption, natural to savages, generally renders as favourable as he could desire. A variety of other superstitions and ceremonies are observed. One of the most hideous is setting the war-kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies; which, among some nations, must formerly have been the case, since they still continue to express it in clear terms, and use an emblem significant of their ancient usage. Then they send wampum, or belts made of beads, to their allies, inviting them to come, and destroy their enemies. For, with the Indians, as with the Greeks of old,

“ A generous friendship no cold medium knows,
 “ But with one love, with one resentment glows.”

They think that those in their alliance must not only adopt their enmities, but have their resentment wound up to the same pitch with themselves. And, indeed, no people carry their friendships, or their resentment, so far as they do; and this is what should be expected from their peculiar circumstances: for the Indians, who live in small societies, who see few objects and few persons, become wonderfully attached to these objects and persons, and cannot be deprived of them without feeling themselves miserable. Their ideas are too confined to enable them to entertain just sentiments of humanity, or universal benevolence. But this very circumstance, while it makes them cruel and savage to an incredible degree, towards those with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendships, and to the common tie, which unites the members of the same tribe, or of those different tribes, which are in a state of

alliance. Without attending to this reflexion, some facts, which we are going to relate, would excite our wonder without informing our reason, and we should be bewildered in a number of particulars, seemingly opposite to one another, without being sensible of the general cause from which they proceed.

Having finished all the ceremonies previous to the war, they issue forth, with their faces painted chiefly with vermilion, which gives them a most horrid appearance. Then they exchange their clothes with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them to a considerable distance, to receive those last tokens of eternal friendship.

The great qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to surprize their enemy, and to escape his snares; and, indeed, in these they are superior to all nations in the world. Accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, having their perceptions sharpened by keen necessity, and living in every respect according to nature, their external senses have a degree of acuteness almost incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smoke of their fires, which they smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they count and distinguish with the utmost facility. They can even distinguish the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and determine the precise time when they passed, where an European could not, with all his glasses, distinguish the trace of a footstep. These circumstances, however, give them no superiority, except against the whites, because all the Indian tribes are equally skilful. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making use of any thing, by which they might run the danger of a discovery. They light no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals. They lie close to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and, marching along in files, he that closes the rear, diligently covers, with the leaves, the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refresh themselves, scouts are sent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they suspect an enemy to lie concealed. In this manner, they enter by surprize the villages of their foes; and while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, or make prisoners of as many as they can manage, or as have strength enough to be useful to their nation. But when the enemy is apprised of their design, and coming on in arms against them, they throw themselves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to resemble. Then they allow a part to pass unmolested, when all at once, with a tremendous shout rising up from their ambush, they pour a storm of musket-bullets on their foes. The party attacked returns the same cry. Every one shelters himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground, to give a second fire. Thus does the battle continue until one party is so much weakened as to be incapable of farther resistance. But if the force on each side continues nearly equal, the fierce spirit of the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They abandon their distant war, they rush upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and insulting their enemies with the bitterest reproaches. A cruel combat ensues: death appears in a thousand hideous forms, which would congeal the blood of civilized people to behold, but which rouse the fury of savages. They trample, they insult over the dead bodies, tearing the scalp from the head, and wallowing in their blood like wild beasts. The flame rages on till it meets with no resistance; then the prisoners are secured; and the fate of those unhappy men is a thousand times more dreadful than that of those who have died in the field. The conquerors set up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have lost. They approach in a melancholy and severe gloom to their own village; a messenger is sent to announce their arrival, and the women with frightful shrieks, come out to mourn

their dead brothers or their husbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates, in a voice to the elders, a circumstantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator* proclaims aloud this account to the people, and as he mentions the names of those who have fallen, the shrieks of the women are redoubled. The men most connected with the deceased by blood or friendship, join these cries. The last ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; and the tears are wiped from their eyes, and, by an unaccountable transition, they pass, in a moment, from the bitterness of sorrow to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the prisoners, whose fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characterises the savages.

We have already mentioned the strength of their affections or resentments. United as they are, in small societies, connected within themselves by the firmest ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the most intense warmth within the limits of their own village, seldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation: and their resentment is easily extended from the individual who has injured them, to all others of the same tribe. The prisoners, who have the same feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The person who has taken the captive, attends him to the cottage, where, according to the distribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to supply the loss of a citizen. If those who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occasion for him, or their resentment for the loss of their friends be too high to endure the sight of any connected with those who were concerned in it, they sentence him to death. All those who have met with the same severe sentence being collected, the whole nation is assembled at the execution, as for some great solemnity. The prisoners are tied to a stake, where they commence their death-song, and prepare for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other side, are determined to put it to the proof, by the most refined and exquisite tortures. They be-

* I may challenge (says Mr. Jefferson, in his notes on Virginia) the whole orations of Demosthenes and Cicero, and of any more eminent orator, if Europe has furnished more eminent, to produce a single passage superior to the speech of Logan, a Mingo chief, to lord Dunmore, when governor of this state; and, as a testimony of their talents in this line, I beg leave to introduce it, first stating the incidents necessary for understanding it.

In the spring of the year 1774, a robbery and murder were committed on an inhabitant of the frontiers of Virginia, by two Indians of the Shawanoe tribe. The neighbouring whites, according to their custom, undertook to punish this outrage in a summary way. Col. Cresap, a man infamous for the many murders he had committed on these much-injured people, collected a party, and proceeded down the Kanhaway in quest of vengeance. Unfortunately, a canoe of women and children, with one man only, was seen coming from the opposite shore, unarmed, and unsuspecting an hostile attack from the whites. Cresap and his party concealed themselves on the bank of the river, and the moment the canoe reached the shore, singled out their objects, and, at one fire, killed every person in it. This happened to be the family of Logan, who had long been distinguished as a friend of the whites. This unworthy return provoked his vengeance; he accordingly signalized himself in the war which ensued. In the autumn of the same year, a decisive battle was fought, at the mouth of the great

Kanhaway, between the collected forces of the Shawanoes, Mingoes, and Delawares, and a detachment of the Virginia militia. The Indians were defeated, and sued for peace. Logan, however, detained to be seen among the suppliants. But lest the sincerity of a treaty should be distrusted, from which so distinguished a chief absented himself, he sent, by a messenger, the following speech to be delivered to lord Dunmore:

“ I appeal to any white man to say, if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry, and he gave him not meat; if ever he came cold and naked, and he clothed him not. During the course of the last long and bloody war, Logan remained idle in his cabin, an advocate for peace. Such was my love for the whites, that my countrymen painted, as they passed, and said, ‘ Logan is the friend of white men.’ I have even thought to have lived with you, but for the injuries of one man. Col. Cresap, the last spring, in cold blood, and unprovoked, murdered all the relations of Logan, not sparing even my women and children. There runs not a drop of my blood in the veins of any living creature. This called on me for revenge. I have killed many: I have fully glutted my vengeance. For my country, I rejoice at the beams of peace. But do not harbour a thought that mine is the joy of fear. Logan never felt fear. He will not turn on his heel to save his life. Who is there to mourn for Logan!—Not one.”

gin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe made red hot, which he smokes like tobacco; then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they pull off the flesh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, into which powder is sometimes put, cutting, burning, and pinching them successively; they pull off his flesh, thus-mangled and roasted, by degrees and smear their faces with the victim's blood in an enthusiasm of fury. They sometimes pull and extend the prisoner's limbs in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours, and sometimes, such is the strength of the sufferer, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with variety of torture, often falls into so profound a lethargy, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his suffering. He is again fastened to the stake, and again they renew their cruelty: they stick him all over with small matches of a species of wood, that easily takes fire, but burns slowly; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; and lastly, after having burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires—after having so mangled the body, that it is all but one wound—after having mutilated his face in such a manner that it carries nothing human in it—after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red-hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind, and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, reels back and forward; until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or dagger.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than furies, even outdo the men in this scene of horror, while the principal persons of the country sit round the stake, smoking and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, smokes too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there seems a contest, which shall exceed, they in inflicting the horrid pains, or he in enduring them, with a firmness and constancy almost incredible: not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance escapes him; he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exasperate them to a perfect madness, rage and fury, he continues his insults even of their ignorance in the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquisite methods, and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for an Indian to behave otherwise, as it would be for a white man to suffer like an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of early education and a thirst of glory. *I am brave and intrepid*, exclaims the savage, in the face of his tormentors; *I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; those who fear them are cowards; they are less than women: life is nothing to those who have courage: may my enemies be counfounded with despair and rage! Ob! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the last drop.*

These circumstances of cruelty, which so exceedingly degrade human nature, ought not, however, to be omitted, because they serve to show, in the strongest light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity the passions of men may be carried, when let loose from the government of reason, and uninfluenced by the dictates of christianity; a religion that teaches compassion to our enemies, which is neither known

nor practised in other institutions ; and it will make us more sensible, than some appear to be, of the value of commerce, the arts of a civilized life, and the light of literature ; which if they have abated the force of some of the natural virtues, by the luxury which attends them, have taken out likewise the sting of our natural vices, and softened the society of the human race.

Nothing in the history of mankind, as we have already observed, forms a stronger contrast than this cruelty of the savages towards those with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who consist of all those who live in the same village, or are in alliance with it ; among these all things are common ; and this, though it may in part arise from their not possessing very distinct notions of separate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the strength of their attachment ; because they are ready to serve their friends, with their lives as well as their fortunes. Their houses, their provisions, are devoted to oblige their guests. Has any one of these succeeded ill in his hunting ? Has his harvest failed ? or is his house burned ? He feels no other effects of his misfortune than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his friends ; but to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended, the Indian is implacable. He conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, until by some treachery or surprise, he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his resentment, no distance of place great enough to protect the object ; he crosses the steepest mountains, he pierces the most impracticable forests, and traverses the most hideous bogs and deserts for hundreds of miles ; bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprising his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities. To such extremities do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity ; and such indeed, in general, is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have said respecting the Indians, would be an imperfect picture, did we omit observing the force of their affection, which principally appears in the treatment of their dead. When any one of their society is cut off, he is lamented by the whole : on this occasion, a thousand ceremonies are practised, denoting the most lively sorrow. Of these, the most remarkable, as it discovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feast of the dead or the feast of souls, which is renewed every ten years among some tribes, and every eight among others. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order ; and nothing is omitted, that it may be celebrated with the utmost pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be present, and to join in the solemnity. At this time, all who have died since the last feast, are taken out of their graves : those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages, are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcases.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general disinterment. We cannot describe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the most authentic account of those nations.

Without question, says he, the opening of these tombs displays one of the most striking scenes, that can be conceived ; in this humbling portrait of human misery, in so many images of death, she seems to take pleasure to paint herself in a thousand various shapes of horror, in the several carcases, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered ; others have a sort of parchment upon their bones ; some look as if they were baked and smoked, without any appearance of rottenness ; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction ; while others are covered with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to

strike us most, the horror of so shocking a sight, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deserves our admiration more, than that eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderness; gathering up carefully even the smallest bones; handling the carcases, disgusting as they are, with every thing loathsome, cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders through tiresome journeys several days, without being discouraged by the offensiveness of the smell, and without suffering any other emotions to arise than those of regret, for having lost persons who were so dear to them in their lives, and so lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feast in honour of the dead; during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses which took place between them and their friends, are piously called to mind. The strangers, who come sometimes many hundred miles to be present on the occasion, join in tender condolence; and the women, by frightful shrieks, demonstrate that they are pierced with the sharpest sorrow. Then the dead bodies are carried from the cabins for the general reinterment. A great pit is dug in the ground, and thither, at a certain time, each person, attended by his family and friends, marches in solemn silence, bearing the dead body of a son, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or the dust of those which were quite corrupted, are deposited in the pit: then the torrent of grief breaks forth anew. Whatever they possess most valuable, is interred with the dead. The strangers are not wanting in their generosity, and confer those presents which they have brought with them for the purpose. Then all present go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preserve with the most religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with entire new furs, and over these with bark, on which they throw stones, wood, and earth. Then, taking their last farewell, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned, that in this ceremony the savages offer, as presents to the dead, whatever they value most highly. This custom, which is universal among them, arises from a rude notion of the immortality of the soul. They believe this doctrine most firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the soul of their friend is separated from the body, they conceive that it still continues to hover around it, and to require and take delight in the same things with which it formerly was pleased. After a certain time, however, it forsakes this dreary mansion, and departs far westward into the land of spirits. They have even gone so far as to make a distinction between the inhabitants of the other world; some, they imagine, particularly those, who, in their life-time, have been fortunate in war, possess a high degree of happiness, have a place for hunting and fishing, which never fails, and enjoy all sensual delights, without any hard labour to procure them. The souls of those, on the contrary, who happen to be conquered, or slain in war, are extremely miserable after death.

Their taste for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a strong bias to their religion. Areskouï, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. They invoke him before they go into the field; and according as his disposition is more or less favourable to them, they conclude they will be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun and moon; among others there are various traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods: traditions which resemble the Grecian fables, but which are more inconsistent and infinitely less agreeable. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and except when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no sort of worship. Like all rude nations, however, they are strongly addict-

ed to superstition. They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii or spirits who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happiness or misery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diseases proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for cures. The ministers of their genii are their priests, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These priests are supposed to be inspired by the good genii, most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed by the genii whether they will escape the disease, and in what manner they must be treated: but these spirits are extremely simple in their system of physic, and in almost every disease, direct the priest to the same remedy. The patient is generally enclosed in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone, red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well soaked with the warm vapour and his own sweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This coarse method, which destroys many lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. Their physicians have likewise the use of some specifics of wonderful efficacy; and all the savages are dexterous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of these remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are administered.

It should be observed by the reader, that the particulars which have just been mentioned concerning the manners of the Indians, chiefly relate to the inhabitants of North America. The manners and general characteristics of a great part of the original inhabitants of South America, were somewhat different. They were not only averse to toil, but seemed incapable of it; and, when roused by force from their native indolence, and compelled to work, they sunk under tasks which the inhabitants of the other continent would have performed with ease. This feebleness of constitution seemed almost universal among the inhabitants of South America. The Spaniards were also struck with the smallness of their appetite for food. The constitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded, in their opinion, the abstinence of the most mortified hermits; while, on the other hand, the appetites of the Spaniards appeared to the Americans insatiably voracious; and they affirmed, that one Spaniard devoured more food in a day, than was sufficient for ten Americans. But though the demands of the native Americans for food were very sparing, so limited was their agriculture, that they hardly raised what was sufficient for their own consumption. Many of the inhabitants of South America confined their industry to rearing a few plants, which, in a rich and warm climate, were easily trained to maturity; but if a few Spaniards settled in any district, the addition soon exhausted their scanty stores, and brought on a scarcity. The inhabitants of South America, compared with those of North-America, are generally more feeble in their frame, less vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a gentle, but dastardly spirit, more enslaved by pleasure, and sunk in indolence.

A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA:

THIS great western continent, frequently denominated the NEW WORLD, extends from the 80th degree north, to the 56th degree south latitude; and where its breadth is known, from the 35th to the 136th degree west longitude from London; stretching between eight and nine thousand miles in length, and in its greatest breadth, three thousand six hundred and ninety. It sees both hemispheres, has two summers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords,

It is washed by the two great oceans—to the eastward, by the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa, and to the west, by the Pacific, or great South Sea, by which it is separated from Asia. By these seas it carries on a direct commerce with the other parts of the world. It is composed of two great continents, one on the north, the other on the south, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a sort of isthmus fifteen hundred miles long, and, in one part, at Darien, so extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only sixty miles over. In the great gulf, which is formed between the isthmus and the northern and southern continents, lie a multitude of islands, many of them large, most of them fertile, and denominated the West Indies, in contradistinction to the countries and islands of Asia, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the East Indies.

Before we begin to treat of separate countries, in their order, we must, according to just method, take notice of those mountains and rivers, which disdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. For though America is not, in general, a mountainous country, it has the greatest mountains in the world*. In South America, the Andes, or Cordilleras, run from north to south along the coast of the Pacific ocean. They exceed, in length, any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe; extending from the isthmus of Darien to the straits of Magellan, they divide the whole southern parts of America, and run a length of four thousand three hundred miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length; for, though in part within the torrid zone, they are constantly covered with snow†. In North America, which is chiefly composed of gentle ascents, or level plains, we know of no considerable mountains, except those towards the pole, and that long ridge which runs through the American states, and which is called the Apalachian or Allegany mountains.

America is, without question, that part of the globe which is best watered; and that not only for the support of life, and all the purposes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade and the intercourse of each part with the others. In North America, such is the wisdom and goodness of the Creator of the universe, that those vast tracts of country, situated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immense and unknown distance from the ocean, are watered by inland seas, called the Lakes of Canada, which not only communicate with each other, but give rise to several great rivers, particularly the Mississippi, running from north to south till it falls into the gulf of Mexico, after a course, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progress, the vast tribute of the Illinois, the Missouri, the Ohio, and other great rivers, not inferior to the Rhine, or the Danube; and on the north, the river St. Laurence, running a contrary course from the Mississippi, till it empties itself into the ocean near Newfoundland; all of them being almost navigable to their heads, lay open the immense recesses of this great continent, and afford such an inlet for commerce, as must produce the greatest advantage, whenever the country adjacent shall be fully inhabited, by an industrious and civilized people. The eastern side of North America, besides the

* Dr. Robertson observes, that "the mountains of America are much superior in height to those in the other divisions of the globe. Even the plain of Quito, which may be considered as the base of the Andes, is elevated farther above the sea than the top of the Pyrenees. This stupendous ridge of the Andes, no less remarkable for extent than elevation, rises in different places, more than one third above the pike of Teneriffe, once thought to be the highest land in the ancient hemisphere. The Andes may literally be said

to hide their heads in the clouds; the storms often roll, and the thunder bursts below their summits, which, though exposed to the rays of the sun, in the centre of the torrid zone, are covered with everlasting snows."

† Chimborazo, the highest of the Andes, is twenty thousand six hundred and eight feet; of this about two thousand four hundred feet from the summit are always covered with snow. Carazon was ascended by French astronomers, and is said to be fifteen thousand eight hundred feet high.

noble rivers of Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, and Potowmack, supplies several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation; hence many parts of the settlements are so advantageously intersected with navigable rivers and creeks, that the planters, without exaggeration, may be said to have each a harbour at his door.

South America is, if possible, in this respect, even more fortunate. It supplies the two largest rivers in the world, the rivers Amazon, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plate river. The first, rising in Peru, not far from the South Sea, passes from west to east and falls into the ocean between Brasil and Guiana, after a course of more than three thousand miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata rises in the heart of the country, and having its strength gradually augmented, by an accession of many powerful streams, discharges itself with such vehemence into the sea, as to make it taste fresh for many leagues from land. Besides these, there are other great rivers in South America, of which the Oronoque is the most considerable.

A country of such vast extent on each side of the equator, must necessarily have a variety of soils as well as of climates. It is a treasury of Nature, producing most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and higher perfection. The gold and silver of America have supplied Europe with such immense quantities of those precious metals, that they are become vastly more common; so that gold and silver in Europe now bear little proportion to the high price set upon them before the discovery of America.

This country also produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other rare stones, which, by being brought in great quantities into Europe, have also fallen in value. To these, chiefly the production of Spanish America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use. Of these are the plentiful supplies of cochineal, indigo, anetto, logwood, brazil, sastic, pimento, lignum vitæ, rice, ginger, cocoa, or chocolate nut, sugar, cotton, tobacco, vanillas, red wood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili, Jesuit's bark, mechoacan, sassafras, sarsaparilla, cassia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergrise, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the discovery of America, the Europeans were either strangers, or were forced to buy them at an extravagant rate from Asia and Africa.

This continent has also a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicaton, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants; and so fertile is the soil, that many exotic productions are nourished in as great perfection as in their native ground.

America is possessed by the aborigines, by the citizens of the united states, the Spaniards, the English, and the Portuguese. The Spaniards have the largest and richest portion, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana, in North America, to the straits of Magellan in the South Sea, except the large province of Brasil, which belongs to Portugal; for though the French and Dutch have some forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the southern continent.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America formerly was Britain, who derived her claim to North America, from the first discovery of that continent, by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated solely to an island upon its coast. It was a long time before the British made an attempt to settle this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave com-

mander, first showed the way, by planting a colony in the southern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of Elizabeth, the *virgin* queen!

The French, indeed, from this period, until the conclusion of the war, terminated by the peace of 1763, laid a claim to, and actually possessed Canada and Louisiana, comprehending all that extensive inland country, reaching from Hudson's Bay, on the north, to Mexico, and the gulf of the same name, on the south. They also made some advances upon the back of the British settlements, and rendered their acquisitions more secure and permanent by a chain of forts, well supplied with all the implements of war. At the same time, they laboured incessantly to gain the friendship of the Indians, by various arts, and even by intermarriages. They not only trained the Indians to the use of arms, but infused into them the most unfavourable notions of the English. The British colonies, thus hemmed in, and confined to a slip of land along the sea-coast, by an ambitious and powerful nation, the rivals of Britain, began, in 1755, to apprehend danger. The British empire in America, yet in its infancy, was threatened with a total dissolution. The British government commenced a vigorous attack on the French forts and possessions. A long war succeeded, in which the British and Americans were very successful; for, after much blood was shed, and every inch of ground bravely disputed, the French were not only driven from Canada, and its dependencies, but obliged to relinquish all that part of Louisiana, lying on the east side of the Mississippi.

Thus, at an immense expense, and with the loss of many brave men, the colonies of Britain were preserved, secured, and extended so far, as to render it difficult to ascertain the precise bounds of her empire in North America, to the northern and western sides; for to the northward, it should seem that she might have extended her claims quite to the pole itself, nor did any nation seem inclined to dispute the possession of this northernmost country with her. From the pole to Cape Florida, in the gulf of Mexico, she had a territory nearly four thousand miles long, in a direct line; which was the more valuable, as it included the most temperate climates of this new world, and such as were best suited to the British constitutions. But to the westward, her boundaries reached to the nations unknown even to the native Indians of Canada. If we might hazard a conjecture, it was nearly equal to the extent of all Europe. But her flattering prospects, respecting America, were greatly abridged by the contest with her colonies, which, after eight years continuance, with a great expense of treasure and blood, ended in their dismemberment from the British empire, and in the establishment of a new republic, styled, "The united states of America." This country is washed by the Atlantic ocean on the east, and on the south by the gulf of Mexico. We have already taken notice of the river St. Laurence, the Mississippi, the lakes of Canada, and other great bodies of water, which fertilize and enrich its northern and western boundaries, as well as the interior parts.

The multitude of islands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, and divided among the Spaniards, English and French. The Dutch, indeed, possess three or four small islands, which, in any other hands, would be of no consequence; and the Danes have one or two. We shall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the one farthest to the north; but as Labrador, or New Britain, and the country round Hudson's Bay, with those vast regions towards the pole, are little known, we can only include, within the following table, the countries that have been formed into regular governments, which bring us to the 50th degree of north latitude.

A S U M M A R Y V I E W
OF THE
F I R S T S E T T L E M E N T S
O F N O R T H A M E R I C A

NAMES OF PLACES.	WHEN SETTLED.	BY WHOM.
Quebec,	1608	By the French.
Virginia,	1609	By lord de la War.
Newfoundland,	1610	By governor John Guy.
New-York,	1614	By the Dutch.
New-Jersey,	1614	By the Dutch.
Plymouth,	1620	By part of Mr. Robinfon's congregation.
New-Hampshire,	1623	{ By a small English colony near the mouth of Piscataqua river.
Delaware,	1627	By the Swedes and Fins.
Pennsylvania.	1627	By the Swedes and Fins.
Massachusetts Bay,	1628	By captain John Endicot and company.
Maryland,	1633	{ By lord Baltimore, with a colony of Ro- man catholics.
Connecticut,	1635	{ By Mr. Fenwick, at Saybrook; near the mouth of Connecticut river.
Rhode-Island,	1635	{ By Mr. Roger Williams and his per- secuted brethren.
New-Jersey,	1664	{ Granted to the duke of York by Charles II. and made a distinct government; and settled some time before this by the English.
South-Carolina,	1669	By governor Sale.
Pennsylvania,	1682	By Wm. Penn, with a colony of quakers.
North-Carolina,	1728	{ Erected into a separate government; settled before by the English.
Georgia,	1732	By general Oglethorp.
Kentucky,	1769	By col. Daniel Boon.
Vermont,	1764	{ By emigrants from Connecticut and o- ther parts of New-England.
Territory northwest of the Ohio,	1787	By the Ohio and other companies.

The fifteen united states, with the Western Territory.

GRAND DIVISIONS OF NORTH AMERICA.

The United States.	Len.	Bre.	Sq. Miles.	Chief towns.	Popul.	Relative situation from Philad. between
Rhode-Island	68	40	2000	N. Port & Providence	68,823	52° and 4° E. lon. 41° and 43° N. lat.
Vermont	126	70	10,000	Windsor & Rutland	85,339	42° and 45° N. lat. 1° 35' and 3° 30' E. lon.
New-Hampshire	168	60	9,491	Portsmouth	141,885	42° 41' and 45° 11' N. lat. 4° 30' and 6° 7' E. lon.
District of Maine	176	125	21,750	Portland	96,546	40° and 5° E. Lon. 43° and 48° N. lat.
Massachusetts	125	50	6320	Boston	378,787	1° 30' and 5° 40' E. lon. 41° 30' and 43° N. lat.
Connecticut	82	57	4674	Hartford & N. Haven	257,946	41° and 42° 2' N. lat. 1° 50' and 3° 20' E. lon.
New-York	350	300	44,000	New-York	340,120	40° 45' and 45° N. lat. 5° W. 1° 30' E. lon.
New-Jersey	160	92	8,320	Trenton	184,139	39° and 41° 24' N. lat. Philad. merid. 1° E. lon.
Pennsylvania	288	136	44,900	Philadelphia	434,373	2° E. and 5° W. lon. 39° 43' and 42° N. lat.
Delaware	92	24	2000	Wilmington	59,094	38° 30' and 40° N. lat. 0° and 1° 43' W. lon.
Maryland	134	110	14,000	Annapolis	319,728	37° 56' and 39° 44' N. lat. 0° and 4° 30' W. lon.
Virginia	446	224	70,000	Richmond	747,610	36° 30' and 40° 30' N. lat. 0° and 8° W. lon.
North Carolina	300	130	84,000	Newbern	288,194	1° and 6° 30' W. lon. 33° 50' and 36° 50' N. lat.
South Carolina	200	135	20,000	Charleston	249,178	4° and 9° W. lon. 31° and 35° N. lat.
Georgia	300	240	72,000	Savannah	81,588	31° and 33° N. lat. 5° and 16° W. lon.
Kentucky	250	200	50,000	Lexington	73,677	3° and 15° W. lon. 36° 3' and 39° 30' N. lat.
Ten. N. W. of the Ohio	900	700	411,000	Memphis	72,820	37° and 50° N. lat. 6° and 23° W. lon.
Ter. S. W. of the Ohio	430	105	35,700	Abingdon	53,691	35° and 36° 30' N. lat. 6° 20' and 16° 30' W. lon.
New-Britain	850	750	218,750	Quebec		
Upper & Lower Canada	1400	400	500,000	Halifax		
New-Scotland	317	254	57,000	St. John,		
New-Brunswick				St. Augustin,		
East-Florida	500	440	100,000	Pensacola		
West-Florida						
Louisiana	1300	645	516,000	New-Orleans		
N. Mexico and California	2000	1000	600,000	St. Fee, St. Juan		
Mexico or New Spain	2000	600	318,000	Mexico		

The whole territory of the united states contains, by computation, one million of square miles. The present British possessions contain about one hundred and fifty-seven thousand. The population of the united states, at this time, is upwards of four millions.

Grand divisions of SOUTH AMERICA.

Nations.	Length.	Bread.	Sq. Miles.	Chief cities.	Dist. and bear. from London.	Belongs to
Terra Firma	1400	700	700,000	Panama	4620 S. W.	Spain
Peru	1800	600	970,000	Lima	5560 S. W.	Ditto
Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 960 B						
Guiana	780	480	250,000	Surinam Cayenne	3840 S. W.	Dutch French
Brazil	2500	700	940,000	S. Sebastian	6000 S. W.	Portugal
Parag. or La Plata	1500	1000	1,000,000	Buen. Ayres	6040 S. W.	Spain
Chili	1200	500	206,000	St. Jago	6600 S. W.	Spain
Terra Magellania, or Patagonia	1400	460	325,000	The Spaniards took possession of it, but did not think it worth while to settle there.		

THE PRINCIPAL ISLANDS OF NORTH AMERICA, BELONGING TO THE EUROPEANS,
ARE,

	Islands.	Length.	Bread.	Square Miles.	Chief towns.	Belongs to
In the gulf of St. L.aa.	Newfoundland	350	200	35,500	Placentia	Britain
	Cape Breton	110	80	4,000	Louisburg	Ditto
In the Atla.	St. John's	103	30	2,000	Charlotte town	Ditto
	The Bermuda isles	20,000 acres		31	St. George	Ditto
In the Atlantic, between North and South America.	The Bahama isles	very numerous			Nassau	Ditto
	Jamaica	140	60	6,000	Kingston	Ditto
	Barbadoes	21	14	140	Bridgetown	Ditto
	St. Christopher's	20	7	80	Basse-terre	Ditto
	Antigua	20	20	100	St. John's	Ditto
	Nevis and Montserrat	each of these is 18 circum.			Charlestown Plymouth	Ditto Ditto
	Barbuda	20	12	60		Ditto
	Anguilla	30	10	50		Ditto
	Dominica	28	13	150		Ditto
	St. Vincent	24	18	150	Kingston	Ditto
	Granada	30	15	150	St. George's	Ditto
	Cuba	700	90	38,400	Havannah	Spain
	Hifpaniola	450	150	36,300	St. Domingo	Do and France
	Porto Rico	100	49	3,200	Porto Rico	Spain
	Trinidad	90	60	2,897	St. Joseph	Ditto
	Margarita	40	24	624		Ditto
	Martinico	60	30	300	St. Pierre	France
	Guadaloupe	45	38	250	Basse-terre	Ditto
	St. Lucia	23	12	90		Ditto
	Tobago	32	9	108		Ditto*
	St. Bartholomew	all of them inconsiderable.				Ditto
	Defeada, and Marigalanta					Ditto
	St. Eustatia		29 circum.			Ditto
	Curassou	30	10	342	The Bay	Dutch
	St. Thomas	15 circum.				Ditto
	St. Croix	30	10		Basse End	Denmark Ditto

* Lately ceded to Sweden by France. Some of the French West India islands have been reduced by the British forces. As their possession is entirely precarious, it is thought better not to alter the name of the former possessors. The statement of length, of breadth, and of square miles, in the above table, is not inserted as altogether accurate. Few of the countries or islands in it have undergone a regular mensuration.

NEW - BRITAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	850	} between	{ 50 and 70 north latitude.	}	318,750
Breadth	750				

NEW-BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay, and commonly called the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, now North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands, and frozen seas, about the pole, on the north; by the Atlantic ocean, on the east; by the bay and river of St. Laurence and Canada, on the south; and by unknown lands, on the west. Its length is computed at eight hundred and fifty miles, and its breadth at seven hundred and fifty.

MOUNTAINS.] The tremendous high mountains in this country towards the north, their being covered with eternal snow, and the winds blowing from thence for three quarters of the year, occasion a degree of cold in the winter over all this country, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the same latitude.

RIVERS, BAYS, STRAITS, } AND CAPES. } These are numerous, and take their names generally from the English navigators and commanders by whom they were first discovered; the principal bay is that of Hudson, which includes several others; the principal straits are those of Hudson, Davis, and Belleisle; and the chief rivers are the Moose, Severn, Rupert, Nelson, and Black River.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This country is extremely barren; to the northward of Hudson's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is seen no longer, and the sterile earth is incapable of any better production than some miserable shrubs. Every kind of European seed, which has been committed to the earth, in this inhospitable climate, has hitherto perished; but, perhaps, the seed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway, which might be more congenial to the climate, has not been tried. All this severity, and long continuance of winter, and the consequent barrenness of the earth, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-one.

ANIMALS.] These are the moose deer, stags, rein deer, bears, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermins, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, there are geese, bustards, ducks, partridges, and all species of wild fowls. Of fish, there are whales, morfes, seals, cod-fish, and a white fish preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and fresh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at Port Nelson, in one season, ninety thousand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five thousand hares.

All the animals of these countries are clothed with a close, soft, warm fur. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the several animals; when that season is over, which lasts only for three months, they all assume the livery of winter, and every species of beasts, and most of their fowls, are of the colour of the snow; every thing, animate and inanimate, is white. This is a surprising phenomenon. But what is yet more wonderful, and is indeed one of the many striking things, that draw the most inattentive to an admiration of the wisdom and goodness of providence, is, that the dogs and cats from England, which have been carried into Hudson's Bay on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, softer, and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.

PERSONS AND HABITS.] The men of this country show great ingenuity in their

manner of kindling a fire, in clothing themselves, and in preserving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white, which every where surrounds them, for the greatest part of the year; in other respects they are very unimproved. They are of a tawny complexion, and lead a vagrant life, moving from place to place, spending their time in hunting and fishing. In their shapes and faces, they do not resemble the Indians who live to the southward; they are much more like the Laplanders and the Samoeids of Europe, already described, from whom they are probably descended. Those on the coast, appear to be peaceable and inoffensive, and are dexterous in managing their kiacks or boats. The others seem to be of a Tartar original.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of these northern seas and countries was owing to a project formed in England, for the discovery of a north-west passage to China and the East-Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then, it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet completed: and from the late voyages of discovery, it seems manifest, that no practicable passage ever can be found. Frobisher only discovered the main land of New-Britain, or Terra de Labrador and those straits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coasts, but he seems never to have entered the bay. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure, the first in 1607, the second in 1608, and his third and last in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the straits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated, to eighty degrees and an half, into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for discovery not being abated by the difficulties with which he struggled in this empire of winter, he staid there until the ensuing spring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships, without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized upon him, and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them, in an open boat, to the fury of the icy seas. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhospitable coast, were destroyed by the natives; but the ship and the rest of the men returned home.

Other attempts towards a discovery were made in 1612; and 1667; and a patent for planting the country, with a charter for a company, was obtained in the year 1670. In 1746, captain Ellis wintered as far north as fifty-seven degrees and a half, and captain Christopher attempted farther discoveries, in 1761. But besides these voyages, which satisfy us that we must not look for a passage on this side of the latitude of sixty-seven degrees north, we are indebted to the Hudson's Bay Company for a journey by land; which throws much additional light on the subject, by affording, what may be called demonstration, how much farther north, at least in some parts of their voyage, ships must go, before they can pass from one side of America to the other. The northern Indians, who come down to the company's factories to trade, informed their agents, of a river, which, on account of much copper being found near it, had obtained the name of the Copper-mine river. The company, being desirous of examining into this matter with precision, directed Mr. Hearne, a young gentleman in their service, and who, having been brought up for the navy, and served in it the war before last, was extremely well qualified for the purpose, to proceed over land, under the convoy of those Indians, for that river; which he had orders to survey, if possible, quite down to its exit into the sea, to make observations for fixing latitudes and longitudes; and to bring home maps and drawings, both of it and of the countries through which he should pass.

Mr. Hearne set out from Prince of Wales's Fort, on Churchill river, latitude fifty-eight degrees forty-seven minutes and an half north, and longitude ninety-four degrees seven minutes and an half west from Greenwich, on the 7th of December, 1770. On the 13th of June, he reached the Copper-mine river, and found it, even to its exit

into the sea, encumbered with shoals and falls, and emptying itself over the dry flat of the shore. The tide was then out, but seemed, by the edges of the ice, to rise about twelve or fourteen feet. This rise, on account of the falls, carries the sea but a very small way within the river's mouth, so that the water in it had not the least brackish taste. Mr. Hearne is, nevertheless, sure that it empties itself into the sea, or a branch of it, by the quantity of whalebone and seal-skins which the Esquimaux had at their tents; and also by the number of seals, which he saw upon the ice. The sea, at the river's mouth, was full of islands and shoals, as far as he could see, by the assistance of a pocket telescope; and the ice was not yet (July 17th) broken up, but thawed away only for about three quarters of a mile from the shore, and for a little way round the islands and shoals. But he had the most extensive view of the sea, when he was about eight miles up the river, from which station the extreme part of it bore N. W. by W. and N. E.

By the time Mr. Hearne had finished his survey of the river, which was about one o'clock in the morning on the 18th, there came on a very thick fog and drizzling rain; and as he had found the river and sea, in every respect, unlikely to be of any utility, he thought it unnecessary to wait for fair weather, to determine the latitude more exactly by observation; but by the extraordinary care which he took in observing the courses and distances, in walking from *Congecabawbachaga*, where he had two very good observations, he thinks the latitude may be depended on within 20 at the utmost. It appears from the map, which Mr. Hearne constructed of this singular journey, that the mouth of the Copper-mine river lies in latitude seventy two degrees N. and longitude twenty five degrees W. from Churchill river; that is, about one hundred and nineteen degrees W. of Greenwich. Mr. Hearne's journey back from the Copper-mine river to Churchill, lasted till June 30th, 1772; so that he was absent almost a year and seven months. The extraordinary hardships which he suffered, and the essential service that he performed, have met with a suitable reward. He was for several years governor of Prince of Wales' Fort, on Churchill river.

The consequences resulting from this extensive discovery are obvious. We now see that the continent of North America stretches from Hudson's Bay, so far to the north-west, that Mr. Hearne travelled near thirteen hundred miles before he arrived at the sea; and that the whole of his tract to the northward of sixty-one degrees of north latitude, lay near six hundred miles due west of the western coast of Hudson's Bay, at the same time that his Indian guides were acquainted with a large tract of land stretching farther in the same direction. Futile, therefore, are the arguments of those who, about forty years ago, so strongly contended for the practicability of a north-west passage through Hudson's Bay.

Though the adventurers failed in the original purpose for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage. The vast countries which surround Hudson's bay, as we have already observed, abound with animals, whose fur and skins are valuable. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not consist of above nine or ten persons, for the exclusive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever since with great benefit to themselves. The fur and peltry-trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this exclusive company, whose interested, not to say iniquitous spirit, has been the subject of long and just complaint. The company employ four ships, and one hundred and thirty seamen. They have several forts, viz. Prince of Wales' fort, Churchill river, Nelton, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay, and are garrisoned by one hundred and eighty-six men. The French, in May, 1762, took and destroyed these forts, and the settlements, &c, valued at five hundred thousand pounds. The company export commodities to the value of sixteen thousand pounds, and bring home returns to the value of twenty-nine

thousand three hundred and forty pounds, which yield to the British revenue three thousand seven hundred and thirty four pounds. This includes the fishery in Hudson's Bay. This commerce small as it is, affords immense profits to the company, and even some advantages to Britain in general; for the commodities exchanged with the Indians for their skins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, those articles are sent, of which there is, in Britain, the greatest plenty, and which, in the mercantile phrase, are drugs. Though the workmanship, too, happens to be in many respects so deficient, that no civilized people would receive it, it will be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the skins and furs brought from Hudson's Bay, enter largely into the manufactures of Britain, and afford her materials for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage. These circumstances tend to prove, incontestibly, the immense benefit that would result to Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudson's Bay, since, even in its present restrained state, it is so advantageous. This company, it is probable, do not find their trade so advantageous now as it was before the cession of Canada. The only attempt made to trade with Labrador, has been directed towards the fishery. Britain has no settlement here, though the annual produce of the fishery, amounting to upwards of two hundred thousand dollars, and the natural advantages of the country, should encourage her to attempt a settlement.

CANADA, OR THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	1400] between	[61 and 81 west longitude.]	100,000
Breadth	400		[45 and 52 north latitude.		

BOUNDARIES.] THE French comprehended, under the name of Canada, a very large territory, taking into their claim part of Nova Scotia, New England, and New-York, on the east; and, to the west, extending it as far as the Pacific Ocean. That part, however, which they had been able to cultivate, and which had the appearance of a colony, lay chiefly upon the banks of the river St. Laurence, and the numerous small rivers falling into that stream. This being reduced by the British arms, in the war of 1756, was formed into a British colony, called the province of Quebec, which is now bounded by New Britain and Hudson's Bay, on the north and east; by Nova Scotia, New England, and New York, on the south, and by unknown lands on the west.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The climate of this extensive province is not very different from the colonies last mentioned; but as it is much farther from the sea, and more northerly than a great part of them, it has a much severer winter, though the air is generally clear; but like most of the American tracts that do not lie too far to the northward, the summers are very hot, yet pleasant.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate is cold, and the winter long and tedious, the soil is in general very good, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other sorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated. The isle of Orleans, near Quebec, and the lands near the river St. Laurence, and other rivers, are remarkable for fertility. The meadow-grounds in Cana-

da, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle.

TIMBER AND PLANTS.] The uncultivated parts of North America contain the greatest forests in the world. They are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and, in all appearance, as old as the world itself. Nothing is more magnificent to the sight; the trees lose themselves in the clouds; and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that even among those persons who have taken most pains to know them, there is hardly one, perhaps, acquainted with half the number. The province we are describing, produces, amongst others, two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three sorts of ash-trees, the free, the mongrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes; some of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty persons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they sew together into the inner rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter resembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November, the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are also found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar tree, the fruit of which, infused in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton tree, on the top of which grow several tufts of flowers, which, when shaken in the morning, before the dew falls off, produce honey, which may be boiled up into sugar, the seed bring a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the sun-plant, which resembles a marigold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capilaire, and the hop-plant.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine. It is said that silver has been found in some of the mountains. The country also abounds with coals.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold, and deep. The principal are, the Outtauais, St. John's, Seguinay, Des Prairies, and Trois Rivieres, but they are all swallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river issues from the lake Ontario, and, taking its course north-east, washes Montreal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile islands. It continues the same course, and meets the tide upwards of four hundred miles from the sea, where it is navigable for large vessels. Below Quebec, three hundred and twenty miles from the sea, it becomes broad, and so deep, that ships of the line contributed, in the former war, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progress innumerable streams, this great river falls into the ocean, at Cape Roseres, where it is above an hundred miles broad, and where the cold is intense, and the sea boisterous. In its progress it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and islands, many of them fruitful and extremely pleasant.

LAKES.] Here are five lakes, the smallest of which is a piece of fresh water as great as any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not less than two hundred leagues in circumference. Erie or Oswego, longer but not so broad, is rather larger. That of Huron spreads greatly in width, and is, in circumference, not less than three hundred, as is that of Michigan, though like the lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake superior, which contains several large islands, is five hundred leagues in circuit. All of these are navigable by any vessels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a stupendous fall or cataract, which is called the Falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the

rock crosses it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is one hundred and thirty feet, no words can express the consternation of travellers at seeing so great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from so great a height, upon the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height, being all covered into foam through those violent agitations. The noise of this fall is often heard at the distance of fifteen miles, and sometimes much farther. The vapour arising from the fall may sometimes be seen at a great distance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of smoke, and in the appearance of a rainbow, when the sun and the position of the traveller are favourable. Many beasts and fowls here lose their lives, by attempting to swim across the stream in the rapids above the fall, and are found dashed in pieces below; and sometimes the Indians, through carelessness or drunkenness, have met with the same fate, and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by such a number of eagles, as are invited hither, by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Lawrence, as we have already observed, is the outlet of these lakes; by this they discharge themselves into the ocean. The French, when in possession of the province, built forts, at the several straits, by which these lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the last of them communicates with the river. By these they effectually secured to themselves the trade of the lakes, and an influence upon all the nations of America which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] These make the most curious, and hitherto the most interesting part of the natural history of Canada. The animals that find shelter and nourishment in the immense forests of Canada, and which indeed traverse the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are minks, musk-rats, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, squirrels of a large size and greyish hue, hares, and rabbits. The southern parts, in particular, breed great numbers of buffaloes, deer of a small size, various sorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, swarm with otters, beavers, or castors, of which the white are highly valued, being scarce, as well as of the right black kind. The American beaver, though resembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the most curious animal with which we are acquainted. It is near four feet in length, and weighs sixty or seventy pounds. It lives from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The savages, who waged continual war with this animal, believed it was a rational creature, that it lived in society, and was governed by a leader, resembling their own sachem or prince. It must, indeed, be allowed that the curious accounts given of this animal by travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to serve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and severity of it, are sufficient to show the near approaches of instinct to reason, and even, in some instances, the superiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and straw-colour; but it is observed, that the lighter their colour, the less quantity of fur they are clothed with, and the warmer the climate they live in. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry are the skins before they are applied to any use; the green are the furs that are worn, after being sewed to one another, by the Indians, who besmear them with unctuous substances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down, that is manufactured into hats, that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and English have, of late, found the secret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and stockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Besides the fur, this useful animal produces the true castoreum: the value of this drug is well known. The musk rat resembles the beaver, in every

thing but its tail. It affords a very strong musk. The elk is of the size of a horse or mule. Many extraordinary medicinal qualities, particularly that of curing the falling sickness, are ascribed to the hoof of the left foot of this animal. Its flesh is very agreeable and nourishing, and its colour a mixture of light-grey and dark red. It loves the cold countries; and when the winter affords it no grass, it gnaws the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when it is hunted, as it sometimes springs furiously on its pursuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to it, and while the deluded animal spends his fury on these, he takes proper measures to dispatch it.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail so long, that Charlevoix says, he twisted it several times round his body. It is about two feet in length, from the end of the snout to the tail. It is said, that this animal, winding himself about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, and, twisting his strong tail round his body, cut his throat in a moment.

The buffalo, a wild animal of the ox kind, has much the same appearance with those of Europe; his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly esteemed. The flesh of the female is very good, and the buffalo hides are soft and pliable as chamois leather, but so very strong, that the bucklers which the Indians make use of, are hardly penetrable by a musket ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domestic animal. Wolves are scarce in Canada, but they afford the finest furs in all the country: their flesh is white, and good to eat. The black foxes are generally esteemed, and very scarce; but those of other colours are more common; and some, on the upper Mississippi, are of a silver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water-fowls, which they decoy by a thousand antic tricks; and then spring upon, and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat, or skunk, has a most beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the smell of which is nauseous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it sprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the assailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful silver colour, with a bushy tail, and twice as big as the European. Here are three sorts of squirrels; that called the flying-squirrel will spring forty paces and more, from one tree to another. This little animal is easily tamed, and is very lively. The Canadian porcupine is something less than a middle sized dog; when roasted, he eats full as well as a sucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from those in Europe, only that they turn grey in winter. There are two sorts of bears here, one of a reddish, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the most dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unless when wounded, or oppressed with hunger. They run themselves very poor in the month of July, and it is then somewhat dangerous to meet them. During winter, when the snow lies from four to six feet deep, they are said to support themselves by sucking their paws. Scarcely any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater solemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one day, is more eagerly sought after, than that of an eminent warrior; as this chase supplies the family with both food and clothing.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goshawks, tercols, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they spread out as a fan, and which make a very beautiful appearance; woodcocks are scarce in Canada, but snipes, and other water game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is said, by some writers, to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl, still better. Here are black-birds, swallows, and larks; no less than twenty-two different species of ducks, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water fowl; but always at a distance from houses. The Canadian wood pecker is a beautiful bird. Thrushes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird, of melody, is

the white-bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very snowy, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring. The fly bird is, perhaps, the most beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock chafer, and he makes a noise with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-snake chiefly deserves attention. Some of these are as thick as a man's leg, and are long in proportion. What is most remarkable in this animal, is the tail, which is scaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is said there grows every year one ring, or row of scales; so that they know its age by its tail, as we do that of a horse by its teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noise, from which it has its name. The bite of this serpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant which is called rattle-snake herb, the root of which is a certain antidote against the venom of this serpent, and that with the most simple preparation, for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied, like a plaster, to the wound. The rattle-snake seldom bites passengers, unless it is provoked; and never darts itself at any person, without first rattling three times with his tail. When pursued, if it has but little time to recover, it folds itself round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itself, with great fury and violence, against its pursuers: nevertheless, the savages chase it, and find its flesh very good.

The river St. Laurence contains, perhaps, the greatest variety of fish of any river in the world, and these in the greatest plenty and of the best sorts.

Besides a great variety of other fish in the rivers and lakes, are sea-wolves, sea-cows, porpoises, the lencornet, the goberque, the sea-plaice, salmon, lobsters, the chaourasou, sturgeon, the achigau; the gilthead, tunny, trout, turtle, prey, smelts, conger-eels, mackarel, soals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The sea-wolf is an amphibious creature; the largest are said to weigh two thousand pounds; their flesh is good eating; but the chief advantage lies in the oil, which is proper for burning, and currying of leather; their skins make excellent coverings for trunks, and though not so fine as Morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less liable to cracks. The shoes and boots made of those skins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make, excellent and lasting covers for seats. The Canadian sea-cow is larger than the sea-wolf, but resembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickness and length of a man's arm, which, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory, as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoises of the river St. Laurence are said to yield a hoghead of oil, and of their skins waist-coats are made. The lencornet is a kind of cuttle fish, quite round, or rather oval; there are three sorts of them, which differ only in size; some being as large as a hoghead, and others but a foot long; the last only are caught, and they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taste and smell of a small cod. The sea-plaice is good eating; and taken by long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaourasou is about five feet long, and six or eight inches thick, resembling a pike; but is covered with scales that are proof against a dagger. His colour is a silver grey; and there grows under his mouth a long, bony substance, ragged at the edges. One may readily conceive, that an animal so well fortified, is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but this fish preys also on the feathered creation. He conceals himself among the canes and reeds, in such a way, that nothing is to be seen besides his weapon, which he holds raised perpendicularly above the surface of the water. The fowls which come to take rest, imagine the weapon to be only a withered reed, and perch upon it; but they are no sooner alighted, than the fish opens his throat, and makes such a sudden motion to seize his prey, that it seldom escapes him. This fish is an inhabitant of the lakes. The sturgeon is both a fresh and salt water fish, taken on the coasts of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a small kind of stur-

geon, the flesh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fish peculiar to the river St. Laurence.

[INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the former war, the banks of the river St. Laurence, above Quebec, were populous. The number of the French and English, settled in this province, is undoubtedly upon the increase. In the year 1783, Canada and Labrador were supposed to contain about one hundred and thirty thousand inhabitants*. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are numerous; but these people decrease in population where the Europeans multiply, owing chiefly to the immoderate use of spirituous liquors of which they are excessively fond.

Quebec, the capital of Canada, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, about three hundred and twenty miles from the sea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble and partly of slate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houses in both are of stone. The fortifications are strong, though not regular. The governor resides in the citadel. The number of inhabitants is computed at about fifteen thousand. The river which, from the sea hither, is four or five leagues broad, contracts, all of a sudden, to about the breadth of a mile. The haven, which lies opposite to the town, is safe and commodious, and the water is about five fathom deep. The harbour is flanked by two batteries. They are raised twenty-five feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about one hundred and seventy miles, in sailing up the river St. Laurence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places, very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way; several farm-houses, neatly built, show themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony, but there are few towns or villages. Many beautiful islands are interspersed in the channel of the river.

The town called Trois Rivieres, stands about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Laurence. It is much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who, by the course of the rivers, come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The country is pleasant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of houses stand on both sides of the river.

Montreal stands on an island in the river St. Laurence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the south shore. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island was become a most delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the convenience of life. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well-formed streets; and when taken by the English, the houses were built in an elegant manner; and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the southernmost side of the river, as the hill, on the side of which the town is situated, falls gradually to the water. This place is surrounded by a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but since it fell into the hands of the English, it hath suffered much by fires, one of which happened in the winter 1794.

[GOVERNMENT.] Before the former war, the French were free from all taxes, and had full liberty to hunt, fish, fell timber, and to sow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. By the capitulation granted to the French, when this country was

* In 1784, general Haldimand ordered a census of the inhabitants to be taken, when they amounted to one hundred and thirteen thousand and twelve English and French, exclusive of ten thousand loyalists settled in the upper parts of the province.

reduced, both individuals and communities were secured in all their rights and privileges.

It was enacted by parliament in the year 1774, that it should be lawful for the king of England to appoint a council for the affairs of the province of Quebec, to consist of such persons resident there, not exceeding twenty three, nor less than seventeen, as he should appoint; and upon the death, removal, or absence of any of its members, to appoint others to succeed them. This council was vested with authority to make laws for the government of the province, with consent of the governor. They could not lay taxes, except for the purpose of making roads, repairing of public buildings, or such local conveniences. Disputes as to property and civil rights were determined by the French laws of Canada; but the criminal law of England was to have force in the province. The inhabitants of Canada were allowed, by this act, not only to profess the Roman catholic religion, but their clergy were invested with a right to claim their accustomed tithes from those of the same religion. This act occasioned an alarm both in England and America, and excited a spirit of dissatisfaction against the British government in the colonies.

The form of government here has undergone a material change since the American revolution. By an act of parliament passed in the year 1791, and which took effect on the first of January, 1792, Canada was divided into two provinces, called Upper and Lower Canada. In both, the legislative authority is vested in two branches, the one styled the "legislative council," to consist of seven persons in Upper Canada, and fifteen in Lower, appointed, by the king, for life, and whose seats, on their decease, are to be filled by their heirs male, respectively. The other branch is called, "the assembly," and is to consist, in Upper Canada, of sixteen members, and in Lower, of fifty, to be chosen by the people. A person must possess a freehold of at least five pounds per annum, to vote for a member of assembly; and to be a member, it is requisite to possess a house or farm of at least the value of ten pounds per ann.

The former laws and customs are to continue in force, except so far as altered by this act, and such future acts as shall be made by the king, with the advice and consent of the legislatures of the two provinces. The protestant is declared to be the established religion; but other forms of worship are tolerated. The bishop of Nova Scotia is supreme over the clergy of the Canadas. Their support is provided for by an allowance of one-seventh part of all the lands granted by the crown. The habeas corpus act and trial by jury are secured to the subjects of Britain in these provinces. The judges of the courts are appointed and paid by the king; but hold their seats during good behaviour. Their judgments are not conclusive, appeals being allowed from them to the king in council.

Such is the outline of the constitution as established, in 1791, by the parliament of Britain, and imposed on the people of Canada; on which one observation naturally occurs: that it is nothing but a servile copy of the British constitution, and breathes little of that spirit of equal liberty and attention to the general welfare and happiness of the people, which would have strongly marked a system of government penned and established by a just representation of themselves.

British America is superintended by an officer, styled governor-general of the four British provinces in North America. He is commander in chief of all the forces in the provinces and governments attached to them, and in Newfoundland. Each of the provinces has likewise a lieutenant governor.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] The expulsion of the French from Canada, paved the way for the independence of the united states of North America. It deserves, therefore, to be regarded as one of the most fortunate events in the history of mankind. The late supremacy of Britain over this country, was of no real advantage to herself, nor can she likely derive any profit from the possession of Canada. That province

principally wants from Europe, wine, or rather rum, clothes, chiefly coarse linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a sort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints; kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was possessed by the French, the Indians supplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, like the original inhabitants, traversed the vast lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible industry and patience, carrying their goods into the remotest parts of America. On the other hand, Indians, from the distance of one thousand miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and sometimes lasted for three months. On this occasion, many solemnities were observed; guards were placed, and the governor attended to preserve order, in such a concourse, and with so great a variety of savage nations. But sometimes great disputes and tumults happened; and the Indians frequently exchanged for a dram all they were possessed of. Many of these nations passed by the settlement of Albany in New York, and travelled two hundred and fifty miles farther to Montreal, though they might have purchased the goods cheaper at the former.

HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

NOVA SCOTIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	350	between	{ 43 and 49 north latitude. 60 and 67 west longitude. }		57,000
Breadth	230				

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river St. Laurence, on the north; by the gulf of St. Laurence and the Atlantic ocean, on the east; by the same ocean, on the south; and by Canada and New-England, on the west. In the year 1784, this province was divided into *two governments*.

The province and government now styled NEW-BRUNSWICK, is bounded, on the westward of the mouth of the river St. Croix, by that river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of the province of Quebec; to the northward, by that boundary, as far as the western extremity of the Bay de Chaleurs; to the eastward, by the same bay, to the gulf of St. Laurence, to the bay called Bay Verte; to the south, by a line in the centre of the Bay of Fundy, from the river St. Croix to the mouth of the Musquat river, by the same river to its source, and from thence by a due east line across the isthmus into the Bay Verte, to join the eastern lot above described, including all islands within six leagues of the coast.

RIVERS.] The river St. Laurence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Rigoche and Nipisquit run from west to east, and fall into the bay of St. Laurence. The rivers of St. John, Passamaquodi, Penobscot, and St. Croix, which run from north to south, fall into Fundy Bay, or the sea, a little to the eastward of it.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The seas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic ocean, Fundy Bay, and the gulf of St. Laurence. The lesser bays are, Chenigto and Green Bay upon the isthmus, which joins the north part of Nova Scotia to the south; and the Bay of Chaleurs on the north-east; the bays of Chebucto, Prosper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Maltois, port Vert, and port Joly, on the south; port la Tour, on the south-east;

port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas, on the south side of Fundy Bay, and port Roseway, now the most populous of all.

The chief capes are, Cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Cape Port, and Epis, on the east; Cape Fogeri, and Cape Canceau, on the south; Cape Blanco, Cape Vert, Cape Theodore, Cape la Heve, and Cape Negro, on the south; Cape Sable, and Cape Fourche, on the south west.

LAKES.] The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the temperate zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European constitutions. The people are wrapt up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year, and, for four or five months, it is intensely cold. But though the cold in winter, and the heat in summer, are great, they come on gradually, so as to prepare the body for enduring both.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] From such an unfavourable climate little can be expected. Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, was, till lately, almost a continued forest; and agriculture, though attempted by the English settlers, has hitherto made little progress. In most parts, the soil is thin and barren, the corn it produces, of a shrivelled kind like rye, and the grass intermixed with a cold, spongy moss. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninsula to the southward, which do not yield to the best land in New-England; and, in general, the soil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ship-building, and produces pitch and tar. Flattering accounts have been given of the improvements making in the settlements and the bay of Fundy. A great quantity of land has been cleared, which abounded in timber, and ship-loads of excellent masts and spars have been sent to England.

ANIMALS.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl, and all kinds of game, as well as many kinds of European fowls and quadrupeds, have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the close of March, the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in prodigious shoals. Herrings come up in April, and the sturgeon and salmon in May. But the most valuable appendage of New-Scotland is Cape Sable coast; along which is one continued range of cod fishing banks; and excellent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF } Notwithstanding the forbidding appearance of
TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } this country, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made. The first grant of lands in it was given by James I. to his secretary, sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or new Scotland. Since then, it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English nation backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the English till the peace of Utrecht, and their design in acquiring it does not seem to have so much arisen from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehension that the French, by possessing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy the other English settlements. Upon this principle, three thousand families were transported in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country. The town which they erected is called Halifax, from the earl of that name, to whose wisdom and care this settlement is owing. This town stands upon Chebucto Bay, very commodiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with most parts of the province, either by land carriage, the sea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, were a small squadron of ships of war lies during the winter, and in summer puts to sea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fishery, and to see that the articles of peace, relating thereto, are duly observed by the French. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened.

with forts of timber. Three regiments of soldiers are stationed in it. The number of inhabitants is four thousand. They live very comfortably by the trade which they carry on in furs and naval stores, by their fisheries, and by supplying the wants of the governor and garrison already mentioned.

Annapolis Royal stands on the east side of the bay of Fundy, and though but a small place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the finest harbours in America, capable of containing a thousand vessels at anchor, in the utmost security. The town is also protected by a fort and garrison. St. John's is a new settlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the bay of Fundy on the west side. Since the conclusion of the American war, the emigration of loyalists to this province, from the united states, has been very great. By them new towns have been raised, but particularly at port Roseway, where is now a city named *Shelburne*, which extends two miles on the water side, and one mile back, with wide streets crossing each other at right angles. The harbour here is deep, capacious, and secure, and the tide has a great rise and fall. Such of the loyalists as apply for lands have them in proportion to the property which they possessed before the troubles in America commenced, allowing for such as have large families to provide for. And it is said, that the new-appointed governor of New Brunswick has instructions, to "grant, without fee or reward, to such reduced officers as served in provincial corps during the late war in North America, and shall personally apply for the same, the following quantities of lands, subject, at the expiration of ten-years, to the same quit rents as other lands are subject to in the province of Nova Scotia, as also subject to the same conditions of cultivation and improvement. To every person having the rank of a field officer, three thousand acres." The reduced officers of the navy are entitled to land in the same proportion.

The exports from Britain to this country consist chiefly of woollen and linen cloth, and other necessaries for wear, of fishing tackle, and rigging for ships. The amount of exports, at an average of three years, before the new settlements, was about twenty six thousand five hundred pounds. The only articles in exchange are timber, and the produce of the fishery, which, at a like average, amount to thirty-eight thousand pounds. But from the late increase of the inhabitants, it was supposed that they would erect saw mills, and endeavour to supply the West India islands with lumber of every kind, as well as with the produce of the fishery, which would be a profitable trade to both countries. The whole population of Nova Scotia and the islands adjoining, is estimated at fifty thousand. Recent accounts of these settlements represent them at present in a declining state, great numbers of the houses in the new towns being uninhabited and considerably reduced in value.

UNITED STATES:

IN describing the present situation of the different states, which compose the federal Union, we shall give a separate historical detail of the rise and progress of each of them. Their history cannot, with any degree of perspicuity, be comprehended in one uniform narrative, without incurring the same objection which Dr. Robertson has advanced against the decades of Herrera. By attempting to embrace a variety of distinct histories, under one chronological detail, this writer has cast his whole work into a sort of confusion. Under the present head, therefore, the whole design is to give a short view of the voyages of discoveries, which tended to the establishment of the British colonies.

We have already observed, that Columbus applied to Henry the seventh of England for assistance to discover the New World. With an alacrity which had been displayed by no other monarch, Henry embraced the proposal; but the design was frustrated by an accident. Yet, though disappointed of the honour of patronizing the discoverer of America, Henry attempted, very early, to rival his progress. In 1495, he granted a commission to John Cabot, a Venetian navigator, to discover unknown lands, and annex them to the crown of England. In spring 1496, this commander, with two vessels, set sail from England, in quest, as we are told, of *China*. He fell in with the north side of Terra Labrador; and coasted northwards as far as the sixty-seventh degree of latitude.

In 1497, he made a second voyage. On the 24th of June, in that year, he descried Bonavista, on the north-east side of Newfoundland; and traversed the coast of this continent from Davis's straits, to cape Florida. In 1502, we find Sebastian, the son of John Cabot, at Newfoundland, from whence he carried three of the natives of England. No settlement, nor even any plan of commerce appears to have succeeded these voyages. The reign of Henry the eighth began in 1509, and was sufficiently occupied in support of foreign wars, and the suppression of five domestic rebellions.

John Ponce sailed from Porto Rico northerly, and discovered the continent, in 30° 3' north latitude. He gave it the name of Florida.

In 1520, John Verrazano, a Florentine, in the service of Francis the first, ranged the coast of North America, from latitude twenty-eight to fifty north. In a second voyage, this navigator was lost. In 1525, Stephen Gomez, a Spaniard, sailed from Cuba, and Florida, northward to the 46 degree of latitude, in quest of a passage to the East Indies. In 1534, Francis the first gave the command of some vessels, on a voyage of discovery, to James Cartier. In May, of the same year, this adventurer arrived at Newfoundland. From thence he sailed to the north, and, on the day of the festival of St. Laurence, he found himself in about latitude 48° 30' north, and in the midst of a broad gulf, to which and to the great river, which flows into it, he gave the name of the saint. His object was the discovery of a passage to China; an attempt, in which it is needless to say, how he succeeded.

In 1535, he sailed up the river St. Laurence for three hundred leagues, built a fort, in which he spent the winter, and returned to France, in the following spring.

In 1539, Ferdinand de Soto, with nine hundred land forces, on board of his fleet, sailed from Cuba, for the conquest of Florida. The country, an immense forest, was not worth that trouble. In May 1542, de Soto died, and was buried on the banks of the Mississippi. In 1542, three French ships, with two hundred men, women, and children, on board of them, were sent as a colony to Canada. They built a fort, in which they spent the winter. Alarmed perhaps by the severity of that season, they returned in the ensuing spring to Europe. A second body of adventurers sailed from France, 1550, for Canada; but as they were never after heard of, it seems that they must have perished by sea.

In 1562, the famous admiral Coligni sent a fleet to Florida, under the command of John Ribault. A fort was erected, and a colony begun. Some other supplies of people were afterwards sent out. But the settlement was almost totally destroyed by the Spaniards. The survivors, or part of them, escaped back to France. In 1568, a French commodore, who had been dispatched for that purpose, attacked the Spaniards in their new possessions, and dispersed or extirpated them. For thirty-five years after this time, the French nation, being engaged in almost one continued civil war at home, had no leisure to attend to foreign settlers. Sully, in his memoirs, mentions a proposal for settling Canada, as expensive and unprofitable.

In 1576, captain Frobisher was sent from England to discover a north west passage

to the East Indies. He saw the straits which bear his name, but was forced by the ice to return.

Sir Walter Raleigh, fitted out two ships, with an hundred and seven passengers, and sent them to form a settlement, on the coast of North America. In June 1585, they arrived on the coast, and anchored in a harbour seven leagues west of the Roanoke; but in July 1586, they returned to England. Some other parties were also sent out for the purpose of making settlements; but they were all either massacred by the Indians, or perished from want, and from the hardships inseparable from the first establishment of a new colony. In 1590, governor White came over with recruits and supplies for the colony, but he found that the former settlers had been exterminated.

In spring 1602, Bartholomew Gosnold, and thirty two other persons, discovered and gave names to Cape Cod, Martha's Vineyard, and Elizabeth's island. They intended to have made a settlement, but their courage failed. All attempts to settle this continent by the Dutch, the French, or the English, for above an hundred years after the voyages of Columbus, were unsuccessful. In 1603, sir Walter Raleigh, who acted under a patent from queen Elizabeth, sent two small vessels to make discoveries, in what was then called North-Virginia. They came upon the coast in latitude forty three degrees thirty minutes north. They coasted southward to Cape Cod bay; thence round the cape, into a commodious harbour, forty one degrees twenty five minutes, where they went ashore and continued for seven weeks. They loaded one of their vessels with saffras, and returned to England.

In 1604, De Mons, a French navigator, ranged the coast of America from St. Laurence to Cape Sable, and round to Cape Cod. In May 1605, George's Island, and Pentecost harbour, were discovered by captain George Weymouth.

In 1606, James the first, by a patent, divided Virginia, as the coast of North America was then called, into two colonies, North and South Virginia. Next year, a London company, to whom Virginia had been granted, sent out a colony in three vessels. Their commander entered the Chesapeak bay, landed, and soon after gave to the most southern point, the name of Cape Henry, which it still retains. They began a settlement on James' river at a place they called James' town. This was the first town, settled by the English, in North America. The colony consisted but of one hundred and four persons. In the following winter, this town was burnt. From such recent, such diminutive, and disastrous beginnings, hath arisen, in less than two centuries, the state of Virginia, which contains at present more than eight hundred thousand people.

About the same time, the Plymouth company, to whom North Virginia had been granted, fitted out two vessels with an hundred passengers. They sailed for this continent, on the thirty first of May 1607. They arrived in the month of August, and settled about ten leagues to the south of Sagahadock river. A great part of the colony, terrified by the approach of winter, returned to England. Their president remained with only forty five men.

During this year, a company of merchants in France, founded Quebec; or rather, the colony which they sent out, built a few huts, which did not take the form of a town, till the reign of Louis the fourteenth.

The store house of the Sagahadock colony took fire during the winter, and was consumed. The colony broke up, and returned to England.

Tantae molis erat Romanam condere gentem.

In 1608, the London company sent captain Nelson, with two vessels, and an hundred and twenty persons, to James' town, and next year captain John Smith arrived

on the coast of south Virginia, and by sailing up a number of rivers, discovered the interior country. In September, captain Newport arrived with seventy persons, who were, at that time an important addition to the colony.

In June, 1609, seven ships, with a ketch and a pinnace, and with five hundred passengers on board, sailed from Falmouth for South Virginia. In crossing the Bahama gulf, the fleet was, on the twenty fourth of July, overtaken by a violent storm and separated. Four days after, sir George Somers ran ashore the vessel under his command, on one of the Bermuda islands; which, from this accident, have been called the Somer islands. The passengers, to the number of one hundred and fifty, got safe on shore, and remained on the island till the following May. The rest of the fleet reached Virginia in safety. By these various supplies, the colony may have been augmented to about six hundred persons.

In 1610, the party who had been shipwrecked on the Bermuda islands, built a sloop for transporting themselves to the continent. They embarked, for Virginia, on the tenth of May, to the amount of about one hundred and fifty persons. On their arrival at James town, they found the colony reduced to sixty; and those few in a very distressed situation. The adventurers unanimously resolved to return to England. For this purpose, on the seventh of June, the whole colony broke up their settlement, embarked on board of their vessels, and sailed down the river, on their way back to their native country.

An unforeseen, but fortunate circumstance, reversed their destination. The London company had constituted lord de la War governor and captain general of South Virginia; and the sequel demonstrated that they could not have made a better choice. His lordship embarked for America, with an hundred and fifty settlers, on board of three vessels. On the very day after the colony had broken up, he met them descending the river. They were persuaded by his lordship to return. He immediately entered upon the government. The history of Virginia may properly be said to commence with that event.

The settlement of New-York was begun by the Dutch, a short time after. Henry Hudson, an Englishman, having engaged in their service, entered, in 1609, Hudson's river, to which he gave his name. He ascended, in his boat as far as Albany. In 1613, the Dutch sent some persons to this river to trade with the Indians. In 1614, the states general granted a patent to sundry merchants for the exclusive trade on Hudson's river, and, in the same year, this company built a fort near Albany. From this time, we may date the settlement of New-York, of which a history will be annexed to the description of the state.

Conception Bay, on the island of Newfoundland, was settled in the year 1610, by about forty English planters, under a patent of incorporation from James the first.

Between the years 1614, and 1620, several attempts were made by the Plymouth company to settle New England, by which name that country now began to be called. The scheme was repeatedly disappointed. A particular account of the actual establishment of this colony, and of its history till the commencement of the late revolution, will be given under the article of Massachusetts.

In 1627, a colony of Swedes landed at Cape Henlopen. They purchased from the Indians the land from that cape to the falls of the Delaware. On this river, they built several forts and settlements.

We have thus laid before the reader a brief survey of what may be called the discovery of the coast of America. A complete narrative on this subject would of itself, require a volume. A narrative of the settlement, rise, and progress of each individual state, will be given under its separate head; as, for reasons which we have already mentioned, and which are extremely obvious, the history of the whole cannot, with propriety, be blended together.

HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

AT the conclusion of the war in 1763, the British colonies of North America, were in a state of high political prosperity. Their population, commerce, and wealth advanced with rapid pace. Their internal government was conducted with a degree of steadiness, frugality, and wisdom which have been but seldom equalled. The whole annual expenses, of their domestic administration, cost less than seventy thousand pounds sterling: a memorable example how cheaply three millions of people, though scattered over an immense continent, may not only be governed, but well governed.

The conquest of Canada was almost the only event in the preceding war between France and Britain, with which the North Americans had any sort of concern, or from which it was supposed that they were to reap any share of advantage. If the statesmen of Europe found, or fancied, that it was for their interest to steep the plains of Germany, of Cuba, or of Indostan, with the blood of mankind, this was an affair of no concern to a farmer on the banks of the Delaware, or the Potowmac. Those who reap the benefits of victory, are, in justice, bound to discharge the expense of it. Lord Chatham boasted, in the British parliament, that *America was conquered in Germany*. He ought to have said that America was never conquered at all. As to Canada, one single Hanoverian campaign, in the course of that war, cost one hundred times more money than the whole province of Canada was worth. A tenth part of the expense of such a campaign, would have been sufficient for defending the colonies, to the end of the contest, against all the Frenchmen and savages who were likely to have invaded them. If Britain chose to squander her blood and treasure in such an extraordinary scheme of conquest, she alone ought to have supported the burden of debts and taxes produced by her own temerity. To say that she undertook that war on the principle of generosity to her colonies, may correspond with the loquacious vanity of an English historian; but the assertion is completely overturned by the whole political system of "the mother country," as Britain has been termed by Americans and by herself. This affectionate mother had driven from her bosom the greater part of her original colonists, with every mark of hostility and contempt. When they had made some progress in agriculture, their commerce and industry were cramped by numerous and vexatious edicts. At the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, or at that of Utrecht, 1713, Britain could, without difficulty, have expelled the French from the utmost corner of north America. She neglected both opportunities, and would likewise have overlooked that of 1763, but from motives extremely different from those of maternal tenderness. It was necessary for the credit of the authors of that *wonderful* treaty, that some part of the dominions, wrested from France, should be retained in the hands of Britain. There arose a dispute whether Canada, or the French islands in the West Indies, were the most proper objects of ambition. Had Martinico, and the other conquered islands been kept by the British, the market of England must have been opened to the planters of these islands. Hence a competition would have arisen in the British market between the landholders of the French and those of the British islands, that might have ended in the bankruptcy of the latter. This question produced a dispute. The friends of the British West India planters insisted upon restoring the French islands, and detaining Canada; while others insisted upon detaining possession of the Sugar Islands, and restoring that province to its former proprietors. The very existence of this contest announces the impropriety of pretending that the welfare of the colonies formed part of the legislative plans of Britain. Indeed, nothing could be farther from her design; for the war was hardly ended, when she attempted to reduce the North American colonies to the same state

of unconditional servitude, to which she has, a few months ago, reduced Ireland; and Chatham boasted in parliament that he would not suffer the Americans to manufacture even a hob-nail for a horse shoe. We have been led into a short statement of incontrovertible facts, in reply to the preposterous accusation of *ingratitude*, so loudly thundered in our ears, by the orators of Britain.

In March 1764, a bill was passed in the British parliament, by which heavy duties were laid on commodities imported by the colonists from such West India islands as did not belong to Britain. The duties were to be paid into the exchequer in specie. In the same session, another bill was framed to restrain the currency of paper money in the colonies. The assembly of Massachusetts or Pennsylvania had an equal title to have imposed restrictions on the paper currency of the bank of England. Two questions now arose between England and America, concerning the former of these statutes. The first respected the principal of taxation, and the second, the mode of collecting it. The constant plea of the Americans, during the whole course of the controversy, rested upon this doctrine, that *taxation without representation* is but another term for slavery. The advocates of England's supremacy replied, "We are ourselves the most free and happy people in the world. Yet not one hundredth person among us has a voice in the election of our representatives. What right, then, have you to complain? You are placed but upon a level with ninety nine parts in an hundred of your parents and hereditary protectors, the British nation." This kind of logic did not correspond with the common sense of the North Americans. They were determined to refuse the right of taxing their property to legislators, whom they had never seen, of whom they knew nothing, and who at the distance of twelve hundred leagues from their country, could know but little of them. That an immense majority of the inhabitants of England suffered themselves to be taxed without being represented, was an instance of servility unworthy of imitation. It had long been stigmatized by the English themselves as a grievance of the first magnitude, and in any point of view, held out an example which was altogether inapplicable to the situation of the Americans. That part of the English nation which sent representatives to parliament, was inseparably blended with those who did not send any. The taxes on both classes of inhabitants were invariably the same, and their interests were in every instance entirely inseparable. But with regard to the colonies, the case was widely different. They formed a distinct and very distant nation, and whatever influence they might possess in the parliament of Britain, could be but accidental and partial. It was therefore evident that burdens might be multiplied upon them to an indefinite extent. The least calamity which could be expected, was, that the British house of commons were to tax them as heavily, as they taxed their own countrymen. Such a measure would infallibly have reduced the colonies to a state of desolation. The mode of collection, specified by the act of parliament for a duty on goods imported by the colonists, as above mentioned, was, if possible, still more repugnant to the common feelings of mankind. The penalties incurred by the breach of this statute might be recovered in the courts of admiralty, before a single judge, without a trial by jury. There was another clause in the act yet more disreputable to its authors. The salaries of the judges were to arise from the forfeitures. Violent remonstrances were made to the ministry, but without success. This outset afforded no very auspicious specimen of the progress of English supremacy, and American obedience. The colonists, finding that all argument was in vain, at last combined in an agreement to import no more of the manufactures of Britain, but to encourage, to the utmost, those of America. The British merchants concerned in their commerce, seconded their resistance, by an excessive clamour, but to no purpose. On the twenty second of March 1765, the stamp act followed. The pretended reason was, that a sum might be produced sufficient for the defence of the colonies against a foreign enemy. The Americans

answered that they were abundantly able to defend themselves, and that whether or not, the parliament of Britain had no right whatever to tax them.

The reception of the stamp act in America was such as might have been expected. The act first arrived at Boston, where the bells were muffled, and rung a funeral peal. This unfortunate publication was first hawked about the streets, with a Death's head affixed to it, and then burnt by the populace. The stamped paper itself was seized and destroyed, unless where kept in fortified places. Those who had been appointed to receive the stamp duties, were compelled to refuse that office; and such Americans, as espoused the cause of Britain, had their houses plundered, and burnt. The tempest of indignation burst out at once all over the colonies. Non-importation agreements were universally embraced. In consequence of this general alarm, the first AMERICAN CONGRESS was held at New-York, in October, 1765. The cabinet of England shrunk from its usurpation, and the stamp-act was repealed.

About this time Dr. Franklin was examined by the British house of commons, and gave it as his opinion, that the stamp-act was impracticable and ruinous. He said that America did not stand in need of British manufactures; that materials of all kinds were to be had in plenty; the wool was fine; flax grew in abundance; and iron was every where to be found. This information, though very obvious, must have been very unacceptable to the partisans of British supremacy.

The doctor added, that "the Americans had been grossly misrepresented, as void of gratitude and affection to the parent state; that in the war of 1755, they had, at their own expense, raised an army of twenty five thousand men; and in that of 1736, had assisted the British expeditions against South America with several thousand men, and had made many brave and some important expeditions against the French in North America." He likewise reminded the house, that the war of 1755, had not originated in defence of the colonies, but from a contest about the limits between Canada and Nova Scotia, and in defence of the English right to trade on the Ohio.

But though the English ministry submitted to repeal the stamp-act, it was judged proper to publish a declaratory bill, setting forth the authority of the mother country, as it was called, to bind the colonies by laws and statutes in all cases whatever. This much diminished the satisfaction with which the repeal of the stamp act had been received in America. An act was not long after passed, providing the troops stationed in different parts of the colonies, with such accommodations as were necessary for them. The assembly of New-York rejected this mode of quartering the soldiers, and substituted one of their own. This example was followed by the assembly of Massachusetts. The British parliament immediately suspended the legislative power of the assembly of New York, till they should comply with the terms of the act. That of Massachusetts prevented the same treatment by a reluctant submission. In June 1767, a bill for taxes on tea, paper, painted glass, and colours, was passed by parliament; and excited still more universal alarm and indignation, all over the continent, than even the stamp-act itself.

A vessel, belonging to one of the principal merchants of Boston was, about this time, seized, as its owner had neglected some of the new regulations. The populace attacked the houses of the commissioners of customs, broke their windows, destroyed the collector's boats, and obliged the custom house officers to take refuge in Castle William, at the mouth of the harbour.

Bernard, governor of the province of Massachusetts, dissolved the assembly. This prerogative of dissolution, has, in England, been often exerted to serve the purposes of the court. The practice cannot exist in any nation that enjoys legitimate ideas of liberty. When three, five, or seven hundred persons are embodied on public business, why ought they to be dispersed at the command of an individual? The assembly had sent a petition to George the third, requesting him to remove Bernard from the of-

fice of governor. Their petition was rejected, on the ground of this doctrine, that without the concurrence of the governor, they had no right to present one. Thus the assembly, in their capacity as legislators, were to be reduced to a situation correspondent with that of the negroes on a West India plantation. Though the governor might happen to be one of the most hateful despots that ever deformed history, they were not to complain of his *excellency*, without his consent. In a word, they were not to complain at all; for this is the exact amount of the royal refusal. The puerility of such an expedient could be equalled by nothing but its effrontery. The prospect did not brighten by intelligence, that a number of troops had been directed to repair to Boston. It was, no doubt, expected, that the presence of these military apostles would kindle or confirm the loyalty of the citizens to their king, and their *gratitude* to the mother country.

A dreadful alarm took place, and the people called upon the governor to convene a general assembly. This he refused, and the people themselves formed a *convention*. The proceedings of this assembly partook of the temper and disposition of their predecessors. They went a step farther; and voted, "that there was apprehension, in the minds of many, of an approaching rupture with *France*." Under this pretended terror, they requested their constituents to put themselves in a posture of defence against any sudden attack of an enemy. Circular letters, to this effect, were directed to all the towns in the province; and Hatfield, alone, refused its concurrence. The convention again desired the governor to summon an assembly. He refused them an audience, and even threatened to treat them as rebels. At last they dissolved themselves, and sent over to Britain a narrative and a vindication of their proceedings.

The troops, which had been expected, arrived on the day of the dissolution of the convention; and their appearance had a considerable effect on the Bostonians. But a large detachment having been sent off, the remainder were treated with contempt; and it was resolved, by the townsmen, to expel them altogether. The country people took up arms for this purpose, and were to have assisted their friends in the capital. Before this design could be put in execution, an accidental fray brought matters to an explanation.

On the 5th of March, 1770, the soldiers quarrelled with the people of Boston. A tumult ensued. The military fired, and several Americans were killed or wounded. The people throughout the province arose in arms, and the regulars, to escape extirpation, retired to Fort William. In the mean time, the duties, which had been the cause of so much mischief, were repealed, except three pence per pound upon tea. This was left on purpose to maintain, what in Britain is called, *the dignity of the crown*, a trite and trifling phrase, suitable to the rest of their political system! The science of legislation is a stranger to any kind of *dignity*, but that of wisdom and of justice. The amount of this tax could be of no consequence; for it was not expected to produce above sixteen thousand pounds per annum, which is less than one-fiftieth, or perhaps, one-sixtieth part of the personal salary of the king of England. The ministry were so ill-informed, as to suppose, that the diminutive amount of this duty would hinder it from proving an object of discontent to North America. They imagined that they were, at any time, able to reduce the colonies to unconditional submission, and perhaps they were not averse to the revival of those scenes of plunder and confiscation, by which their ancestors, in the middle of the seventeenth century, had, *with so much glory*, converted Ireland into a wilderness. The opposition, as they are called, insisted that the parliament should abolish the remaining duty on tea, with the other duties; but in vain.

A new assembly was convened in Massachusetts. They commenced their operations by accusing the parliament of England with having violated, in various instances, the rights of the colonists. Their animosity was embittered by the discovery of a

confidential correspondence between Hutchinson, the governor of Massachusetts, and some members of the English administration. This virtuous "shepherd of the people" complained of the behaviour of the inhabitants of that province. He recommended *vigorous*, that is to say, bloody measures, and, among other advices, which might have been expected from his character and situation; he asserted, that there must be an abridgment of what is called *British liberty*." His letters; or incontestible copies of them, had fallen into the hands of Dr. Franklin, who was, at that time, agent for the colony, at London. They were immediately transmitted to Boston, where the assembly, whom he had just mentioned, were sitting. By that body, they were submitted to the perusal of the governor, and a petition was instantly dispatched to the king of England, respectfully desiring him to remove that officer and his deputy. Their demand was rejected, and their petition itself was declared groundless and scandalous. Some time before this accident, salaries had been settled on the judges of the superior court of Boston. The measure was condemned by the people of Massachusetts in the strongest terms. The plain design of this act of bounty was, to make the people alike subservient to the crown, upon both sides of the Atlantic.

In the midst of this confusion, three ships, laden with tea, arrived in Boston harbour. As this tea was subject to a duty of three pence per pound to the government, the townsmen were, for that reason, determined that it should not be landed. The captains of the vessels, alarmed at the disposition which prevailed among the people, offered to return to Europe, without discharging their cargoes, if they could obtain a proper acquittance from the consignees, the custom-house, and the governor. The cargoes had been consigned to a son of Mr. Hutchinson, and some others of his relations; and the governor, who knew himself to be already as much detested as he possibly could be, by the province, refused to grant or obtain the proper discharges. On the evening after this refusal, seventeen persons, disguised like Mohawk Indians, boarded their ships, and cast their cargoes, consisting of three hundred and forty-two chests of tea, into the water. No tea was destroyed in any other of the American sea ports, as the parties concerned very prudently chose, rather to send the cargoes back to Britain; than run the risk of landing them. In South Carolina, tea was landed and stored without being offered for sale.

This destruction of the tea at Boston, took place in November 1773, and extinguished every hope of an amicable accommodation. The ministry of Britain, finding themselves universally insulted and despised, resolved to enforce their authority by every possible method; and as Boston had been the chief scene of what were called riots and outrages, it was determined to punish that city in an exemplary manner. George the third informed his parliament of the undutiful behaviour of the Bostonians; and on the 25th of March, 1774, *the Boston port-bill* was passed. By this act, the harbour of Boston was to be shut up from and after the 1st of June 1774, till it should appear to his majesty, that full satisfaction had been made to the East India company for the destruction of their tea. This prohibition did not extend "to any fuel or victuals brought coastwise from any part of the continent of America for the necessary use and sustenance of the inhabitants." A second bill was passed, altering their charter as granted by William the third, and making the judges and sheriffs removable at the pleasure of the king. A third ordained, that any person indicted for murder, or other capital offence, committed in aiding the magistrates to execute the laws, might be sent by the governor to any other colony, or even to Britain for his trial. The Quebec bill succeeded. Its object was to secure the attachment of Canada to England, and prevent its junction with the colonies in their resistance to parliament.

The assembly of Massachusetts passed a vote against the acceptance of salaries by the judges from the crown; a practice, which, wherever it has been adopted, pro-

duces, with almost mathematical certainty, the political corruption of the bench. The question was put to the judges, whether they would accept their salaries, as usual, from the provincial assembly? Four answered in the affirmative; but Peter Oliver, the chief justice, refused; for this he made a long apology, by which no body was satisfied. A petition and an accusation against him were brought before the governor, by the assembly. His excellency replied by immediately dissolving them: General Gage was soon after appointed governor of this colony; he had been popular in the country, where he had several connexions. But he brought with him the Boston port-bill. It was received with extravagant marks of rage, and the herald of such intelligence could, in his own person, hardly be acceptable.

It had been expected by the English ministry, that the people of the sea-port towns, such as Salem, that were rivals in commerce to Boston, would rejoice in her calamities, and take advantage of them. But here, as in every other expectation, the government of Britain was disappointed. Contributions for their subsistence poured in from every quarter. The inhabitants of Marblehead were even so generous as to offer to those of Boston the use of their wharfs and warehouses, free of all expense. The ministry had fancied a resemblance between the condition of the inhabitants in the two hemispheres, and acted accordingly. Hence arose their incessant mistakes. Nothing could, indeed, present a greater contrast than the internal situation of Old and New England. In the former, every thing proceeded upon a scale of corruption gradually descending from the crown to the overseer of a parish work-house. An overgrown and useless peerage engrossed among themselves and their adherents the great officers of the state. The clergy of the established episcopal church, who, with a few exceptions, feared nothing but the loss of their immense revenues, were ready to support any measures that were adopted by the cabinet. In the house of commons almost every seat was bought and sold. The people at large were divided into so many corporations, and sects of various kinds, that a general union of sentiments or of interests had long been impossible. To whatever quarter venality cast her eye, the horizon was bounded by an ample field of victory. But in the four provinces of New-England, and the same description applies, with very little variation, to the rest of the continent, the prospect was perfectly the reverse. A hereditary body of nobles was utterly unknown. The assembly were elected by the people, without much canvassing, and without a suspicion of bribery. Enormous pensions were unheard of. The yell of *church and king*, which has so frequently excited such extensive ravages in England, could not be commenced in a country, where the people knew nothing of royalty but the empty name, and where no despotic church domineered over the feelings and properties of sects less fortunate than herself. Corporations, where they could be met with at all, were but a shadow, and an universal right of conscience had extinguished the embers of fanatical discord. America was not, like England, shocked with a load of public creditors, who, under the specious title of the *monied interest* and under the futile pretence of administering to her necessities, were to devour her vitals, and whose views were, to be incessantly hostile to the general welfare of society. Too numerous to be bribed by secret service-money, and too intelligent to be deceived by sophistical jargon about the universal supremacy of parliament, the great body of the Americans were composed of independent landholders, or of persons who expected to become so. It was not surprising, therefore, that their opposition was obstinate, or that corruption found no object on which it might fasten its fangs. Incapable of properly comprehending the causes of resistance, or of feeling the sentiments which inspired it, the ministry of England, and even a great part of the nation at large, continued, from the first to the last day of the contest, to look forward, with fond hopes, to an imaginary crisis, when the colonists would throng,

with the reviving ardour of loyalty, to the standard of despotism. We return to the narrative.

A congress of delegates from all the provinces had been anxiously demanded. This congress, the first which met at Philadelphia, convened on the 26th of October, 1774. The members in number fifty-one, began business, by stating their claims, as subjects of the crown of Britain. They denied the right of parliament to tax them. They commended the conduct of the people of Boston, & declared, that in case of attempts to enforce the obnoxious statutes, all America ought to join in their aid. They next addressed general Gage, in a stile which amounted to but little less than a declaration of hostilities. They drew up a petition to George the third, an address to the British nation, and a second to the colonies. It is unnecessary here to enter into a particular account of their contents. Their enemies could not deny that their sentiments were dignified, and their language elegant. They were superior to any publications of the same kind that had ever been produced in the ferment of English parties. In the beginning of the year 1775, the fishery-bills were passed in parliament. By these, the colonies were prohibited from trading with Britain, Ireland, or the West-Indies, or from fishing on the banks of Newfoundland. The approaching war was more unpopular than any other in which England had ever been engaged. At home, the merchants foresaw nothing but the ruin of their credit, and the tradesmen, of their manufactures. John Horne Tooke, an English episcopal clergyman, whose name deserves to be held in perpetual remembrance by the friends of American freedom, and who, through the vicissitudes of eighteen successive years, hath since incessantly persisted in supporting the cause of political reformation, published an advertisement, soliciting subscriptions for the relief of the inhabitants of Boston. For this bold step, he had the honour of being prosecuted by the British government. Upon his trial, he displayed the same presence of mind, the same nervous eloquence, the same contempt for personal consequences, which at this moment continue to distinguish & ennoble his character. He boldly informed the court that he had leisure to stay in prison for a longer period than they dared to confine him. He was condemned to a long imprisonment, and was declared incapable of holding any public office. It was remarked, that all over Europe, the voice of mankind was on the side of America. Voltaire and Rousseau, two writers, whose names are known to every body, but who had never perhaps concurred in any former opinion, were alike ardent in espousing the cause of the colonies. The king of Prussia was on the same side of the question; not solely from an attachment to republican principles, but from a conviction of the absurdity of the conduct of Britain. An Englishwoman had, about this time, discovered an imaginary cure for the hydrophobia, and Frederic, in his correspondence with some Frenchmen of letters, printed since his death, employs more than once the following memorable expression: "Pray recommend Mrs. Sirven's medicine to the parliament of England, for *THEY have certainly been bitten by a mad dog.*" The Scots nation only, though with a small number of honourable exceptions, came forward, with peculiar zeal, as the advocates of the government system.

The period now approached, when America was to be in want of the assistance of all her partisans. At Newport in Rhode Island, and in New-Hampshire, the inhabitants seized some cannon and military stores, the property of the British government. It was not, however, till the 19th of April 1773, that blood was first shed. General Gage was informed, that a quantity of ammunition had been collected at Concord, a town twenty miles from Boston, where a provincial congress was at that time held. He dispatched eight hundred troops to destroy this magazine. Their attempt was successful; but the whole country being alarmed, the party was in danger. A second body of nine hundred troops relieved their distress; but their escape cost them sixty-five men killed, an hundred and seventy-four wounded, and twenty-four taken prison-

ers. The Americans had only forty-nine men killed, and thirty-nine wounded or missing. In a few days, Boston was blockaded by an American army of twenty thousand men.

About the end of the following May, several reinforcements arrived at Boston. On the 16th of June, one thousand Americans were ordered to cast up an entrenchment on Breed's hill, a post of advantage, in the neighbourhood of the town. The soldiers worked from midnight till morning. Next day, they were attacked in their entrenchments, by Howe, Clinton, and Burgoyne, at the head of three thousand men. The contest was remarkably obstinate. The assailants were on the point of being repulsed; but at last their numbers, their bravery, and their discipline, forced the Americans, who did not, at any time of the action, exceed fifteen hundred men, to quit the ground. More than a thousand of the British troops were either slain or wounded. Among the former was major Pitcairn, a Scotch officer, who commanded the party that first fired on the militia at Lexington, in their way to Concord. Joseph Galloway, in his correspondence with lord George Germaine, has left an account of this battle, known, by mistake, under the name of Bunker's hill, which is at a small distance. This writer says, that the regulars suffered greatly by a wretched blunder in the management of the artillery. When they came to the entrenchments of the Americans, it was found that their balls were too large for the bore of the field-peices. He adds, that Howe himself might as well have cut the throats of his men, on Boston common; for that, as the Americans had fortified themselves at the extremity of a peninsula next the sea, he had only occasion to have ordered the ships of war close up between the Americans and the main land; and their whole party must have surrendered, as if caught in a bag, without firing a single shot. Charlestown, in the neighbourhood of Boston, was burnt, during the action, by order of general Gage. About four hundred houses were reduced to ashes.

About this time, some gentlemen in Connecticut formed a design of invading Canada. Ethan Allen was one of the leaders of this party. He took Ticonderoga by surprise, without loss, and even without resistance. Crown-Point was seized, at the same time, by colonel Warren; and the Americans became masters of lake Champlain. In autumn, general Montgomery took the command of the forces of Canada. He was soon master of St. John's, a garrison which commands the entrance into that province. He next surprised Montreal; and on the 31st of December 1775, he attempted to storm Quebec. His troops were repulsed with the loss of an hundred men killed, and three hundred made prisoners. Montgomery himself, and his aid de camp, captain Macpherson, were among the slain. Benedict Arnold had been wounded in this action, after displaying great conduct and bravery. Upon the defeat and death of Montgomery, he assumed the command of the forces, but was soon obliged to retreat, without performing any important service. Upon the 1st of January 1776, Norfolk, in the state of Virginia, was burnt by order of lord Dunmore; with a destruction of property computed at above fifteen hundred thousand dollars; and Falmouth, in the province of Maine, shared the same fate. General Washington had been appointed to the command of the American troops; and in March, 1776, he forced Howe and the British army to quit Boston. On the 25th of June following, a small squadron of ships, commanded by sir Peter Parker, and a body of troops under general Clinton and lord Cornwallis, attempted to take Charleston in South Carolina. They were repulsed on all sides, with great slaughter.

In July, 1776, the congress published the declaration of independence, which separated America from Britain. This event took place two hundred and eighty-four years after the discovery of America, by Columbus, one hundred and sixty six from the first effectual settlement of Virginia, and one hundred and fifty-six from the first settlement of Plymouth, in Massachusetts.

Just after this declaration, general Howe, with about thirty thousand regular troops landed on Staten-Island. To preserve, if possible, the city of New-York from falling into the hands of the enemy, the Americans entrenched themselves on Long-Island. They were driven from some of their posts by the British. Above two thousand Americans fell on the field, and above half that number were taken prisoners. Howe has been blamed for not pursuing his victory, and storming the American entrenchments, at the extremity of the island. We have respectable authority for saying, that this attempt would have been very hazardous, if not impracticable. The ships of war endeavoured to cut off the retreat of the defeated army to the main land; but the Americans, by the providential interposition of the succeeding night, and of a very thick fog, escaped without the farther loss of a man, and with their whole baggage. Their last boat was but fifty yards from the shore, early next morning, when the sky cleared up; so that the delay of retiring for a few hours, would have made their destruction unavoidable. The American officers had been forced into this awkward situation, against their own judgment, by the pressing importunities of the citizens of New-York, which was abandoned to the conquerors. Fort Washington, on York-Island, surrendered soon after, with two thousand prisoners. Clinton took possession of Rhode-Island; and sickness and desertion filled up the measure of American misfortunes. Their main army was reduced from twenty five thousand men, of which it had consisted when Howe landed on Long-Island, to less than an eighth part of that number. General Lee, on whose military skill the infant republic had much dependence, allowed himself, by the most culpable negligence, to be made prisoner, at a distance from the troops which he commanded. The approach of winter checked the rapid progress of the British arms, and this circumstance was improved into important advantages, by the perseverance and intrepidity of general Washington. At Trenton, and near Princeton, in the Jerseys, he surprised two different bodies of the enemy's troops, took about thirteen hundred prisoners, killed a considerable number, and threw the rest into such confusion, that they made a kind of retreat or flight to Brunswick. The American forces immediately took so advantageous a situation, that the British found it impossible to extend their cantonments in that part of the country. Thus ended the campaign of 1776, with the acquisition of New-York; and a few fortresses in its neighbourhood, where the conquerors were constrained to act with as much circumspection, as if they had been besieged by a victorious enemy.

On the 26th of April, 1777, governor Tryon, with a party of British troops landed between Fairfield and Norwich, in Connecticut, where he destroyed a considerable magazine at Danbury, and burnt a great part of the town. In his retreat, he was attacked by generals Arnold, Wooster, and Sullivan; and after a desperate battle, in which the Americans behaved with great bravery, Tryon effected his retreat, with the loss of between two and three hundred men killed, wounded or prisoners. Some other excursions of the same nature took place. Much property was destroyed, and many gallant men lost their lives, but no decisive action happened. General Prescott, and his aid de camp, were seized in their quarters on Rhode-Island, and carried off by colonel Barton, in nearly the same manner, as Lee had been by the British.

It was the plan of the British cabinet, to attack the united states in two different quarters. Burgoyne, with an army from Canada, was to invade them on the rear, while Howe, with the principal body of forces, was to engage them in front. The former, at first, made some progress, crossed Lake George, and encamped upon the Hudson river, near Saratoga. He expected that he would have been reinforced at this place, by sir Henry Clinton from New-York; but the latter found his junction impracticable. Burgoyne himself was surrounded in his entrenchments by an army

of American militia three times more numerous than his own. Some severe actions ensued; and on the 17th of October 1777, he was forced to surrender his whole army prisoners. Generals Lincoln, Arnold, and Gates, commanded, on this memorable occasion, the forces of the united states. The British troops who were captured; amounted to five thousand seven hundred and ninety men. The terms of the convention were more favourable than their desperate situation gave them a title to claim. By these, they were to have been transported back to Britain; but they concealed or destroyed a great part of their military stores. Many of the common men behaved with such insolence to the officers, appointed to conduct them to their cantonments, that it was found necessary to make a few severe examples. Various circumstances produced a dispute between congress and the British general, which ended in the detention of the whole body as prisoners of war. The news of this disaster was received in Britain with the utmost consternation.

In the mean time, the main body of the British forces, under general Howe, had embarked at New-York, sailed up the Chesapeake, and landed at the head of Elk river. Philadelphia was the place of their destination. On the 11th of September, general Washington gave them battle, on the heights of Brandywine. He was driven from his ground, with the loss of about twelve hundred men, killed, wounded, or taken prisoners. The British lost about half that number. It was not till the 26th of September, that Howe, at the head of his army, was able to enter Philadelphia. The next business of this commander was, to clear the passage of the Delaware. He attacked the fortifications of Red-Bank, and Mud-Island. His troops were at first repulsed with considerable loss; nor was it till about the 16th of November, that the works on Mud-Island were finally evacuated by the Americans.

On the 4th of October, general Washington attacked, by surprise, a party of the British army, at Germantown, within six miles of Philadelphia. The engagement began at three o'clock in the morning. The Americans were repulsed with the loss of six hundred killed or wounded, and about four hundred prisoners. The British had about five hundred killed, wounded, or prisoners.

While the English commander was employed in clearing the passage of the Delaware, general Washington took a strong possession at Whitemarsh, about ten miles from Philadelphia. He had, after the defeat and surrender of Burgoyne, received considerable reinforcements from the northern army: so that he had not, in any preceding period of the campaign, been in any equal capacity for a general engagement. On the 4th of December, sir William Howe, with almost his whole army, marched out of Philadelphia, with an apparent design to attack the American camp. Next morning, he appeared on Chestnut-hill, in front of, and about three miles distant from the right wing of the Americans. On the day following, he changed his ground, and moved to the right. After some other movements, the British army, on the ninth of December, fled off by two or three different routes for Philadelphia. A plan had been formed by the American general, for attacking that city, in the absence of the royal army. The return of sir William Howe put an end to this project. Soon after general Washington, with the main body of his troops, retired to winter quarters, at Valley-Forge, sixteen miles from Philadelphia, having posted general Smallwood, with a considerable force, at Wilmington, about twenty-seven miles below the city. These positions were preferred to more distant and comfortable quarters, for the sake of giving extensive protection to the country adjacent to Philadelphia. The American army might have been traced by the blood of their feet, in marching without shoes or stockings, over the hard-frozen ground, between Whitemarsh and Valley-Forge. Some hundreds of them were without blankets. In this condition, they were, at the end of December, to sit down in a forest, and build huts for shelter.

On the 8th of May, '78, sir Henry Clinton arrived at Philadelphia, as successor, in

the chief command, to Sir William Howe. The latter soon after set sail for England. His departure was solemnized by a magnificent entertainment, including fireworks. This was called the *Mischianza*. The Duke of Marlborough, or any other of the greatest conquerors, whom England has produced, never had thought of such a singular example of ostentation. The conduct of this commander was exceedingly blamed, both for neglect of duty, and for peculation. From the former, he was vindicated at the bar of the house of commons, by the evidence of some of his principal officers, who better deserved credit with the exasperated public, than his accuser, Mr. Joseph Galloway.

In November, 1775, congress had authorized the capture of vessels laden with stores, or reinforcements for their enemies. In March, 1776, they gave a general permission to the inhabitants of the United States, to fit out armed vessels for cruising on the enemy, and it has been computed, that, within nine months after this permission was given; the British loss in captures, besides transports, and government store ships, exceeded a million sterling. The Americans found no difficulty in selling their prizes. The ports of France were open to them, both in Europe, and the West-Indies. The privateers of this country found access also to the ports of Spain, but not so readily or universally as to those of France. The British took many American vessels, but they were generally of inferior value. Some, that were freighted with provisions, proved a seasonable relief to their West-India islands, which otherwise would have suffered severely from the want of those supplies; that, before the war, had been chiefly obtained from this continent. In 1777, the number of American privateers increased. They were received in the harbours of France with additional marks of respect. The British ambassador, at Versailles, complained of this conduct; and orders were issued by Louis XVI. for their immediately quitting the ports of that kingdom. The order was evaded in various ways.

Soon after the news of the capture of Burgoyne and his army reached Europe, the court of France concluded a treaty of alliance and another of commerce with the united states. The war had been begun on the part of the latter, without any concert with foreign powers. But, in a short time, this resource was found to be necessary; and in 1776, Mr. Silas Deane sailed for France, to solicit the friendship of that country, and to obtain military stores. From this slender beginning, the connexion continued to make advances; and Dr. Franklin, and Mr. Arthur Lee, were joined in commission with Mr. Deane, to solicit the protection of France. On the 6th of February, 1778, the two treaties, which had been framed on very liberal terms, were subscribed. An opening was left for Britain to close the war when she pleased, with all the advantages in future commerce, that France had secured for herself. This wise moderation made the establishment of American independence, the common cause of all the commercial powers of Europe. The question was now reduced to this point, whether the trade of the united states should, by their subjection, be again engrossed by Britain; or, by the establishment of American independence, be laid open upon equal terms to all the world? The intelligence of this alliance was received in America with the utmost exultation. It was soon known to the British ministry, though not formally communicated by the French ambassador, at London, for five weeks after. Eleven days only after the treaty had been signed, lord North brought into the British house of commons, a project for conciliation between the united states and Britain. It consisted of two bills. The one was "a bill for declaring the intention of Great Britain, concerning the exercise of the right of imposing taxes within his majesty's colonies, provinces, and plantations in North-America;" and the other, "a bill to enable his majesty to appoint commissioners, with sufficient powers to treat, consult and agree, upon the means of quieting the disorders now subsisting in certain colonies, plantations, and provinces of North-America." These bills were hur-

ried through both houses of parliament, and before they had passed into acts, were copied and sent across the Atlantic, to general Howe, and his brother, the admiral. On their arrival in America, they were sent by a flag of truce to congress, at York-town. There is not a more striking contrast of magnanimity and of meanness, than what was here exhibited, by the American congress on the one side, and the British parliament on the other. As soon as it had been known in the cabinet of St. James's, that a treaty was concluded between France and the united states, the minister patched up two bills, which, if they had originated in a sense of justice, ought to have been presented to the colonies three years before. Their production, at this juncture, plainly discovered that they were derived not from any principle of honour or humanity, but from fear. The sequel of this measure, on the part of Britain, corresponded with such an outset. Not contented with sending a copy of the two bills to congress, at York-town, the British agents attempted clandestinely, to disseminate copies of them. To their utter mortification, congress, with a just confidence in the good sense of their constituents, ordered the whole to be printed. A committee was appointed to report upon the bills; and the report, brought in next day, was, for the rejection of the proffered terms of accommodation. They considered them as "the sequel of that insidious plan, which, from the days of the stamp-act, down to the present time, had involved this country in contention and bloodshed." They declared, that any man or body of men, who should presume to make any separate or partial convention with the British commissioners, ought to be treated as open enemies of the United States. They farther recommended, as a preliminary to any treaty, that Britain should either withdraw her fleets and armies, or else make a positive acknowledgment of American independence.

The bills were speedily followed by royal commissioners, deputed to solicit their acceptance. They attempted to open a negotiation on the subject; and on the 9th of June, 1778, they requested general Washington to grant a passport for their secretary, Dr. Ferguson, a Scots professor, with a letter from them to congress. Their desire was refused. They next addressed a letter "to Mr. Henry Laurens, the president, and the other members of congress." They transmitted a copy of their commission, and of the acts of parliament on which it was founded. The proposals were delusive and equivocal. They had already been rejected; as the plan was wholly founded on the idea of the states returning to their allegiance to Britain. They were not likely to meet with a more favourable reception, at the second application, than they had received at the first; for, before the arrival of the commissioners, intelligence was received from France of the treaty of alliance between the court of Versailles and America. The shallow artifice of Britain was now completely exposed, and the real motives of her abrupt anxiety for a peace. It is much to the honour of congress that these insidious propositions had been, from the very outset, rejected. At that time, they had not, for upwards of a year, received from their envoys at Paris any information whatever. One packet had, indeed, arrived, but upon examining the contents, it was discovered, that all the letters had been taken out in France, and *blank paper put in their stead!* The repeated offer of these conciliatory propositions, on the part of England, originated from a firm belief, in that country, that the congress was supported only by a faction, and that the great body of the people were hostile to independence, and disposed to return to their former allegiance. To the last hour of the contest, this absurd hope was fondly fostered by the English nation.

On the 11th of July, the commissioners sent a second letter to congress, to which no answer was given. Governor Johnstone, one of their number, also wrote private letters, on this topic, to several individuals. One of them, addressed to Robert Morris, Esq. contained the following, among other strange expressions. "In all such transactions there is risk; and I think, that whoever ventures, should be *secured*; at the same

time that *honour* and *emolument* should naturally follow the fortune of those who have steered the vessel in the storm, and brought her safely to port. I think *Washington* and *the president*, have a right to every favour that grateful nations can bestow." This was sufficiently forward, but the matter did not rest here. Johnstone gave notice to Mr. Joseph Reed, that ten thousand pounds sterling, and any office in the colonies, in the gift of the king of England, should be at his service, in case he exerted his abilities to promote the re-union of the two countries. These letters and proposals were laid before congress; and they consequently forbade any intercourse to be held with Johnstone. A copy of their declaration to this effect, subscribed by the president, was sent by a flag to the commissioners, at New York, where they resided. Johnstone attempted to deny his offer of a bribe, in which denial he was believed by nobody.

The commissioners next published a manifesto, which they addressed to the Americans in general. It ran somewhat in the stile of the late *famous* proclamation by the duke of Brunswick, inscribed to the people of France. They attempted to distribute it, by flags of truce. The congress, on the 30th of October, published a reply to this performance. In this, they declared, that if their enemies should persist in their present career of barbarity, such exemplary vengeance should be taken, as would deter others from a like conduct. Thus ended the last effort, on the side of Britain, to recover her colonies by negotiation. The concessions came too late. The commissioners themselves had personally a most disagreeable business. From congress, and the republican part of the people, they met, at first, with contempt and jealousy, and, in the end with reproach and detestation. At New-York, the whole stile of their proceedings was, to the last degree, unpopular; the loyalists were at no trouble in disguising their sentiments; and these unfortunat representatives of George III. were openly insulted in the streets.

We shall now return to the narrative of military transactions, during the year 1778. After the termination of the preceding campaign, the British army, as we have already observed, retired to winter quarters in Philadelphia, and the American army to Valley Forge. The former were well lodged, well clothed, and well fed; while the latter, protected from the extremities of the weather only by slight huts, endured every hardship that nakedness and hunger could inflict. There were frequent predatory excursions from the British head quarters at Philadelphia; many skirmishes happened, and many lives were lost. But the country was as far as ever from being conquered. One half of it was covered with woods, and, consequently, impenetrable to cavalry. The roads were too deep, during winter, to bear the carriage of artillery, while almost every fence was lined with riflemen. Much blame has been cast on sir William Howe, by his countrymen, for neglecting his duty. A survey of the country, of its numerous and deep rivers, its morasses, its inaccessible forests, must convince an impartial spectator, that the reduction of any considerable part of the continent was a work of the utmost difficulty.

In one of their excursions, a British detachment separated into two bodies, and marched, the one for Warren, the other for the head of Kickemuet river. They destroyed about seventy flat-bottomed boats, and burned a quantity of pitch, tar, and plank. At Warren they set fire to the meeting-house, and seven dwelling houses. At Bristol, they burned the church, and twenty-two dwelling houses. Several other houses were plundered, and women were stripped of their gold rings, handkerchiefs, and other articles of dress. This was at the very time, when the bills of conciliation were offered to congress from the British parliament. On the 9th of July, 1788, a French squadron, of twelve ships of the line, arrived from Toulon at the entrance of the Delaware. They were commanded by the count d'Estaing, the same officer, who, by advices from Paris, has lately lost his head. On an apprehension of a visit of this kind, orders had been sent from Britain, for the evacuation of Philadelphia.

On the 18th of June, the royal army passed over the Delaware into New Jersey. General Washington had foreseen their design, and made dispositions to harass them on their march. It was thought imprudent to hazard a regular attack; but general Lee, who had been lately exchanged, was entrusted with the command of an advanced corps and was ordered to make a partial attack, unless there should be powerful reasons to the contrary. This attack he declined, and a misunderstanding took place between him and the commander in chief, which ended, not long after, in the trial of general Lee, by a court martial, and in his suspension for a year from any command in the American army. The British were at last attacked, and worsted. Their loss, including prisoners, was about three hundred and fifty; and that of the Americans, about two hundred and fifty. The day of the battle was so remarkably hot, that some Americans, and fifty-nine of the enemy, were found dead upon the field, without any marks of violence on their bodies. The British reached the neighbourhood of Sandy-hook, without the loss of their baggage, as the American general declined all farther pursuit, and soon after drew off his troops to the borders of North-river. Immediately on the departure of the British troops, congress returned to Philadelphia, after an absence of nine months, and, in a short time, gave audience to monsieur Gerard, a minister plenipotentiary from the court of France.

The British fleet and army had scarcely completed their removal from the Delaware and Philadelphia, to the harbour and city of New-York, when the French fleet, before mentioned, arrived at the mouth of the Delaware. Disappointed of his object, the French admiral proceeded to Sandy-hook, where he appeared on the 11th of July. Preparations were made by lord Howe, to give him a vigorous reception. The fleet came to anchor, and lay without the hook for eleven days. They were superior in point of force to that of lord Howe: but it was found impossible to make an attack; as the large ships, on account of their draught of water, could not be carried over the bar. While the British fleet were thus blockaded, about twenty vessels, under English colours, were taken by the French, of whose situation without the hook, they were unapprised. On the 22d of June, the French fleet, by the advice of general Washington, sailed for Newport in Rhode Island. By their departure, the British had a second escape; for had d'Estaign remained where he was, but a few days longer, a squadron under admiral Byron most have fallen into his hands. This officer had been sent from Britain to relieve Lord Howe, who solicited to be recalled, and was destined to reinforce that fleet already on the coast of America. His ships had met with very bad weather, and were separated in different storms. They now arrived, scattered, broken, and otherwise damaged. Within eight days after the departure of the French fleet, the Renown, the Raisable, the Centurion, and the Cornwall, arrived singly at Sandy-hook.

The British had been in possession of Rhode-Island ever since December 1776. A joint attack against it was projected by general Sullivan with the American land forces, and d'Estaign with the French fleet. The royal troops on the islands, amounted to about six thousand, those of Sullivan, to about ten thousand. Lord Howe followed the French admiral, and came within sight of Rhode Island, on the day after the French admiral entered the harbour of Newport. He had on board sir Henry Clinton with four thousand troops. The British vessels exceeded their enemies in point of number, but were inferior in weight of metal. On the appearance of lord Howe the French admiral put out to sea, with his whole fleet, in order to engage him. A tempest prevented the conflict, and partly dispersed the two squadrons. Some partial encounters succeeded, between single vessels, but no ship, on either side, was lost or taken. The British returned to New York, and d'Estaign, on the 20th of August, to Rhode Island. But on the 22d, he sailed for Boston. His abandoning Sullivan to his fate on Rhode Island, gave the highest offence to the Americans; whose forces, with

some difficulty, and after a warm engagement, between the advanced parties of each army, accomplished a retreat.

Sir Henry Clinton returned to New-York, with the British fleet, but he, at the same time, directed general Grey to proceed to Bedford, and the neighbourhood, where several American privateers resorted. Grey destroyed about seventy sail of shipping, besides small craft, and vessels on the stocks. He also burnt magazines, warehouses, and dwelling houses, to the value of about ninety thousand dollars. The troops next went to Martha's Vineyard, where they demanded and received the arms of the militia, the public money, three hundred oxen, and two thousand sheep. About the same time, captain Ferguson made a similar excursion to Egg-Harbour; and captain Baylor, with a regiment of American light dragoons, was surprised in a barn near Taapan. The party who attacked them were commanded by general Grey, who acquired the appellation of "General no flint," from his practice of ordering his men to take the flints out of their muskets, that they might be restricted to the use of the bayonet. Of an hundred and four American privateers, sixty-seven were killed, wounded, or taken prisoners. Several were killed, while begging for mercy. The prisoners were indebted for their lives, to the humanity of a British captain, who, in disobedience to the orders of his superior officer, gave quarters to a whole troop. The circumstances of barbarity, which attended this affair, excited an uncommon degree of resentment in the united states.

In the summer of 1778, general Robert Howe, an officer in the American service, undertook an expedition against East Florida. With two thousand continental troops and militia, he proceeded as far as St. Mary's river. On his approach, the British destroyed Tonym, and retreated towards St. Augustine. One-fourth part of the Americans perished by the inclemency of the season.

Hitherto the conquest of the united states had been attempted from the north to the south. In the close of 1778, the system underwent a very material change, and the southern states became the principal scene of British operations: Georgia was one of the weakest states in the union; it likewise abounded in provisions; and hence it was marked out as the first object of warfare. Lieutenant-colonel Campbell, with about two thousand land forces, embarked for Savannah, under convoy of some ships of war. In about three weeks, they reached the place of their destination, and accomplished a landing near the mouth of the river Savannah: They were opposed with inferior numbers, but in an advantageous situation, by general Robert Howe. He was attacked on the rear, by sir James Baird, while Campbell pressed him in front. Thirty eight officers, and four hundred and fifteen rank and file, were taken prisoners. The town of Savannah, the capital of Georgia, with the fort, its ammunition and stores, forty-eight pieces of cannon, twenty-three mortars, the shipping in the river, and a large quantity of provisions, fell into the hands of the conquerors. Campbell discovered abilities no less adapted to govern than to conquer. He did more, in a few days, and with a small number of men, towards restoring the British government, than all the general officers who had preceded him in the projected conquest. He at once extirpated military opposition, and subverted, for some time, every trace of a republican government. Georgia was the only state in the union, in which, after the declaration of independence, a legislative body was convened under the sanction of Britain. The success of colonel Campbell, in reconciling the minds of the citizens of Georgia to their former government, arose principally from his prudence and moderation. The chief command in Georgia was soon after assumed by general Prevost, who arrived from St. Augustine with a reinforcement of British troops.

On the 7th of March, this year, the Randolph, an American frigate of thirty-six guns, and three hundred and five men, having sailed on a cruise from Charleston, fell in with the Yarmouth of sixty-four guns, and by mistake engaged her in the night.

In about a quarter of an hour, the Randolph blew up. Four men only were saved, upon a piece of her wreck. They had subsisted four days on rain water, sucked from a piece of blanket. On the fifth day they were taken up.

During the year 1779, the war continued to languish. In the states to the north of Carolina, the British attempted little more than some piratical expeditions, for the sake of destroying a country, which they despaired to conquer. On the tenth of May, sir George Collyer, and general Mathews, made a descent on Virginia. They seized Portsmouth, and burned the remains of the town of Norfolk. They committed very great ravages in the neighbouring country. At Portsmouth, three thousand hog-heads of tobacco were taken, and at Suffolk, every house was burnt, except the church, and one dwelling house. Above an hundred and thirty vessels were destroyed or taken. Before the end of the month, the royal troops returned to New-York. About five weeks after, a second expedition was projected against the coast of Connecticut. Governor Tryon and general Garth were employed on this business, with two thousand six hundred land forces. They disembarked at East-Haven. The commanders published an address to the inhabitants, which would have been altogether worthy of Zingis, or Timur. This performance stated to the people, "that the existence of a single house on their defenceless coast, ought to be a constant reproof of their ingratitude. That they who lay so much in the British power, afforded a striking monument of their mercy, and therefore ought to set the example of returning to their allegiance." One of these addresses was sent by a flag of truce to colonel Whiting, of the militia, near the town of Fairfield. He was allowed an hour to answer it; but had scarcely ended the perusal, when Fairfield was in flames. Newhaven also was plundered, with circumstances of the most wanton cruelty. The inhabitants were stripped of their whole moveable property. The harbour and water-side were covered with feathers, which the military had discharged from beds that they had ripped open. The British, in this excursion, also burnt East-Haven, and the town of Norwalk. At this last place, they burned two houses of public worship, eighty dwelling-houses eighty-seven barns, twenty-two stores, seventeen shops, and four mills. Tryon had the effrontery to publish a vindication of these outrages. On the 15th of July, general Wayne surprised Stoney-Point, on the North-River. In the attack, eighty or ninety Americans were killed or wounded. Of the British garrison, sixty-three were killed, and five hundred and forty three taken prisoners. Fifteen pieces of cannon, and a considerable quantity of military stores, fell into the hands of the conquerors. The cannon and stores were removed, the works destroyed, and the post evacuated. Sir Henry Clinton resumed possession of Stoney Point, on the third day after it had been captured, and he placed in it a strong garrison. On the 19th of July the British garrison, at Powles-Hook, opposite to New-York, was surprised, and stormed by major Lee, with about three hundred and fifty Americans. Thirty of the royal troops were killed, and an hundred and sixty made prisoners. Agreeable to his orders, major Lee made an instant retreat, without waiting to destroy the barracks or artillery.

On the 16th of June, colonel Maclean, with six hundred and fifty men, from Halifax, landed on the banks of Penobscot river, in the eastern confines of New-England. They began to construct a fort, in a well chosen situation. The town of Boston became alarmed. Eighteen armed vessels, besides transports, were prepared with the utmost expedition. A body of land forces were embarked. On the 25th of July, they appeared off Penobscot. Maclean was summoned to surrender, which he refused. A cannonading began, which lasted a fortnight. The besiegers had prepared for an assault, when sir George Collyer, with a man of war of sixty four guns, and five frigates, appeared in view. The Americans fled up the river. The soldiers and

sailors escaped by land, through the woods. But their fleet was almost entirely destroyed.

A serious attempt was made on the part of Britain, to recover the Carolinas and the unsubdued part of Georgia. After the reduction of Savannah, as already related, a great part of the province submitted peaceably to the royal forces. They endeavoured to strengthen themselves by assistance from the back settlers of that part of the country. A number were accordingly embodied, and set out to join the royal army. Their march commenced with such a scene of plunder, that the other inhabitants of the country found it requisite to collect in a body, to the amount of three hundred, and, under the command of colonel Pickens, attacked and routed them. Forty with their leader, were killed. General Ash, with fifteen hundred Americans, was, on the third of May, surprised in his camp by lieutenant colonel Prevost, at the head of nine hundred men. One hundred and fifty Americans were slain, one hundred and sixty-two made prisoners, and many others drowned in attempting to cross the Savannah. General Prevost soon after attempted to penetrate to Charleston in South-Carolina. After surmounting many difficulties, he came within sight of it. The superior forces of the province compelled him to retreat. His troops plundered all before them; and added, by their rapacity, to the detestation of the British cause.

Little more was performed, till, on the first of September, count d'Estaing, with twenty sail of the line, two fifty gun ships, and eleven frigates, appeared on the coast of Georgia. His arrival was unexpected. The Experiment, an English ship, of fifty guns, with three frigates, fell into his hands. General Lincoln, with his army, immediately marched for Savannah. The British were diligent in preparing for their defence. On the 4th of October, the combined forces of France in America opened their batteries. On a report from the engineers, that regular approaches would require a considerable time for the reduction of the garrison, it was determined to hazard an assault. The besiegers were repulsed, with the loss of between eight and nine hundred men killed or wounded. The militia of the American army, for the most part, dispersed; and the French commander, re-imbarking his troops and artillery, left the continent. The visit of this fleet, though unsuccessful in its main object, was of service to the united states. It disconcerted the measures of the British commanders. But it occasioned the evacuation of Rhode Island; an object of regret rather than exultation to the Americans. Six thousand British troops had, for two years and eight months, been stationed on that spot, where they were not of more service to the royal cause, than could have been performed by two frigates cruising in the neighbouring sea. Thus ended the southern campaign of 1779. The British were once more confined to their original limits in Savannah.

It may here be asked, by what means the Americans had been able to support the expenses of this long and bloody contest, or what resources they could oppose to the wealth, and public credit of Britain? This will be explained by a short statement of facts. When congress first proposed to raise an army, they likewise emitted bills of credit representing specie. In June, and July, 1775, they emitted these bills to the amount of three millions of dollars. They pledged the public faith of the colonies, that these bills should be redeemed by annual payments, the first of which was to begin, on or before the last of November, 1779. It is evident, that the American legislators had no dread of the contest being prolonged, so much as it was, or they would have seen it needless to assign so early a term of payment. In November, 1775, three additional millions of dollars, in bills, were issued, the first term of payment for which was, on or before the last day of November, 1783. In this way the congress continued to emit paper money, till it amounted to twenty millions of dollars, and it supported its credit perfectly for eighteen months. We have not room to enter into a particu-

lar detail on this subject. It is sufficient to say, that the credit of the bills began by degrees to decline. The quantity of bills increased, and their value, at the same time, decreased. In 1777, the depreciation was about two or three dollars in bills, for one of hard money. In 1778, it was, as five or six for one; in 1779, as twenty-seven or twenty-eight for one; in the beginning of 1780, as sixty for one; but soon after it rose to an hundred and fifty for one; and at last, it came to several hundreds for one. Sixty dollars in bills have been given for a dram of whisky. By this time, above two hundred millions of dollars had been issued in this way, besides immense quantities of paper by the states individually. At the same time, great quantities of this kind of paper were forged by the British at New-York; for it was one of their favourite ideas, that a bankruptcy of the American government would put an end to its existence.

In 1779, a new set of bills were issued by congress; but they answered very little purpose. Yet paper of no intrinsic value had, during five campaigns, supplied all the uses of gold and silver. Many who were disaffected to the new system, now refused to take the bills in payment. Laws were made declaring them to be a legal tender. This ill-judged and ruinous measure, opened a wide field for all sorts of speculation and villainy; and produced, on the morals of the people at large, consequences more destructive than the ravages perpetrated by the British marauders. As the most serious part of the contest was over by 1779, a succession of expedients floated American credit through its "sea of troubles;" and its inconveniences were forgiven, as every honest man in the country became daily more convinced that no sacrifice could be reckoned extravagant, which was to free himself and his posterity from the fangs of British tyranny. We now proceed with the narrative of military transactions.

As soon as it was known at New-York, that the combined army had been repulsed from before Savannah, and that the French fleet had left the American coast, general Clinton embarked for Georgia, with four flank battalions, twelve regiments, a detachment of artillery and cavalry. The army after a dangerous voyage, arrived on the 26th of December 1779, at the place of their destination, and soon after sailed for the siege of Charleston, in South Carolina. They landed within thirty miles of that place. It was the 12th of March, before the British batteries were opened. Several skirmishes happened. The place was defended by general Lincoln. By the eleventh of May, his garrison was reduced to two thousand five hundred men. These were to defend extensive lines against nine thousand troops, the flower of the British army; and who were supported by a considerable naval force. On the 12th of that month, a capitulation was signed. The loss on both sides, during the siege, was almost equal. Of the British, seventy six were killed, and an hundred and eighty-nine wounded. Of the Americans, eighty-nine were killed, and an hundred and forty wounded. Above four hundred pieces of artillery were surrendered. The continental troops and sailors were to keep their baggage, and remain prisoners. The militia were dismissed on their parole, and the inhabitants were considered as in the same situation. The whole number was about five thousand. The British commanders immediately assumed the tone of conquest. They detached two thousand men towards North Carolina. Lieutenant colonel Tarleton surprised a party of three hundred Americans, at Wachaws. Five out of six of them were either killed or desperately wounded. After the vanquished had laid down their arms, the British troops continued to massacre: *Tarleton's quarters* became a proverbial expression.

In June, 1780, Clinton embarked for New-York, leaving lord Cornwallis commander in chief. Various attempts were made to raise the inhabitants of the country in favour of the royal arms, but without much success. Several desperate skirmishes were fought. In one of these, colonel Sumpter, with six hundred Americans

destroyed the prince of Wales's regiment. It was reduced from two hundred and seventy eight, to nine. The first battle of importance was fought at Camden. General Gates collected about four thousand men, of whom three-fourths were only militia; Cornwallis had about half that number. Gates was advancing in the night, to take post about eight miles from Camden. The English general had marched, at the same time, from that place, to attack the Americans in their camp. Thus the two armies met by accident in the dark, and they instantly began the engagement. It was morning before the attack became general. The Virginia militia were charged with bayonets by the British infantry. They were seized with a panic, threw down their arms, and fled. Part of the militia of North Carolina followed their example. The continentals behaved with courage and steadiness worthy of their experience in war. They had made a considerable number of prisoners, and gained the advantage over their enemies. Deserted by the rest of the army, and overpowered by numbers, they were driven from the field. The resistance made by each corps may be estimated by the number of wounded. Two hundred and ninety wounded American prisoners were carried into Camden. Of these, two hundred and six were continentals, eighty two militia of North Carolina, and *two* of the Virginian militia. The American artillery, and most of the baggage, were lost. The number of the slain was not exactly known, as the whole army was utterly broken and dispersed. Baron de Kalb, a German, second in command, was mortally wounded. Immediately after this defeat, a body of Americans, under general Sumter, were surprised, and totally defeated by Tarleton. The remains of the Americans suffered extremely in their retreat. Several men were to be seen flying with but one arm, and some without any. General Gates himself retired to Hillsborough. There was no army in the field to resist the forces of lord Cornwallis; but the season, and the consequent bad health of his soldiers, prevented him from pursuing his victory. This proves that the Americans ought, from the first, to have acted on the defensive. Their strength would have been preserved entire till the ensuing winter. This caution might have averted from the southern states a long train of calamities, which succeeded the memorable but fatal battle of Camden.

Cornwallis affected to consider South Carolina as a conquered country, and himself as exercising the authority of its lawful sovereign. He therefore gave orders "that all the inhabitants of the province, who had submitted, and who had taken part in this revolt, should be punished with the greatest rigour; that they should be imprisoned, and *their whole property taken from them or destroyed.*" Admitting the full extent of guilt in such persons, what right had the military despot to reduce their wives and children to want and wretchedness? He also gave peremptory directions, "that every militia man, who had borne arms with the British, and afterwards joined the Americans, should be *put to death.*" At Augusta, at Camden, and elsewhere, several prisoners were hanged, in consequence of these orders. This severity was far from advancing the royal cause; it served only to extinguish, in every bosom, the last spark of prejudice in favour of England.

Great numbers of the prisoners who had been taken at Charlestown, and admitted to their parole, were required to exchange it for the protection of British subjects. They refused and were in consequence taken prisoners, and sent off to St. Augustine. It was in vain that general Moultrie remonstrated against this breach of the terms of capitulation. The answer was, that the measure had been "adopted from motives of policy." On the 16th of September, just a month after the battle of Camden, Cornwallis issued a proclamation for sequestrating the estates of the active friends of independence. This opened a wide door for all sorts of robbery and plunder. Many submitted, and took an oath of allegiance. Many preferred confiscation, exile, or a prison; and even many women were thrown into the most loathsome confinement.

The latter were, in general, ardently attached to the American cause; and, in the most trying situations, they embraced every method to kindle, in the bosoms of their countrymen, that generous enthusiasm, that superiority to the dread of danger and of death, which the sex are so capable of inspiring. This transient gleam of success in South Carolina, filled the British ministry with vain hopes of an immediate and complete reduction of at least the southern states. Major Ferguson, a British partisan, of distinguished valour and activity, had endeavoured to raise a corps of loyalists in the back settlements of South Carolina. On the 7th of October, 1780, he was attacked at the head of a body of troops, on the summit of King's Mountain, by a thousand horse, from the west side of the Alleghany mountains. The Americans were commanded by colonel Campbell of Virginia, colonels M'Dowell, Cleveland, Shelby, and Sevier of North Carolina, and colonels Lacy, Hawthorn, and Hill, of South Carolina. The contest was very obstinate. Ferguson opposed the assailants with fixed bayonets, and forced them to retire behind some trees and rocks, from whence they renewed their fire in every direction. The British commander at last fell. His party surrendered. Eight hundred were made prisoners. Two hundred and twenty five had been previously killed or wounded. This battle was a counterpoise to the affair of Camden. It came just in time to revive the drooping spirits of the Americans: It gave a mortal blow to the project of arming the American friends of the old government in its service. Ten of the prisoners, who came under that description, were hanged by the conquerors. This was vindicated on a double ground; as a retaliation for the Americans who had been executed in Carolina and Georgia; and as the individuals themselves had committed various acts of felony, for which their lives were forfeited by law. The party who gained this very seasonable advantage, were entirely volunteers. In embodying themselves and in forcing their way through the wilderness, to meet the enemy, they had undergone a series of hardships which might have broken the perseverance of a Roman legion. On the 12th of November, major Wemyss, at the head of a party of British infantry, and dragoons, was defeated and taken prisoner by general Sumter. In the pocket of this *gallant* officer, there was found a list of houses which he had burnt, and of others which he designed to burn. Yet while the English soldiers were incessantly committing outrages in this country, that would have deformed the annals of a Goth or a Tartar, many candid and humane people in Britain, from mere ignorance of the facts; believed that the weight of treachery and barbarity rested on the scale of the united states. The sequel of the year 1780, produced no remarkable event in the southern part of the continent. We shall now give a short sketch of the military transactions of that year, in the northern part of it.

As the army at New-York had been weakened by the expedition to Charleston, nothing offensive was attempted till the 16th of June. An incursion was then made into the Jerseys by lieutenant-general Knyphausen, at the head of five thousand men. They landed at Elizabethtown, and proceeded to a settlement called the Connecticut Farms. Mr. James Caldwell, a Presbyterian clergyman, had been extremely active in animating the militia of that country to resistance. In his absence, the enemy came to his house. His wife was shot dead by a musket levelled at her, through the window of a room, in which she was sitting with her children. Her body, at the desire of an officer among the loyalists, was removed; and then the house and every thing in it was reduced to ashes. Twelve other dwelling-houses, and a Presbyterian meeting house, were also consumed. At Springfield, the British were opposed by general Maxwell and colonel Dayton, with a party of Militia. They halted and returned to Elizabethtown. A reinforcement from New-York here joined them; and the whole body again advanced towards Springfield. The Americans were driven by superior numbers from a bridge in front of the town. They retired to a neighbouring range of hills, in expectation of being attacked. Instead of this, the victors set fire to the

town, and about fifty dwelling-houses were reduced to ashes. They then retreated to New-York. It is difficult to divine what could have been the purpose of such expeditions. Every one of them served, more than an hundred stamp acts, to alienate the affections of America from her late sovereign. Had the colonies even been actually subdued in this war, the seeds of disruption were too universally disseminated, ever to have been destroyed, and fifteen or twenty years at farthest, must have produced a second revolt. In the interim, a large standing force must constantly have been kept on foot, at an expense of perhaps more than double the whole revenue, that could have been extracted from the country.

There was, by this time, the utmost difficulty in keeping the American army together. A great part of them were in the greatest want of clothing and other necessaries. Many people had become tired of the war, and the patriotic ardour which blazed out with so much fury in the commencement of the struggle, had found leisure to cool. The loss of Charleston, and the advantages gained by Cornwallis, in Carolina, were, in one respect, of disservice to the royal cause. The country at large was perfectly determined never more to return under the government of Britain; and these disastrous events rekindled, in its primitive violence, the flame of public spirit. When the congress could neither command money nor credit for the subsistence of their armies, some citizens of Philadelphia formed an association to secure supplies of the necessary articles for the suffering soldiers. Three hundred thousand dollars were in a few days, subscribed, and converted into a bank, the chief design of which was for this humane purpose. The advantages of this institution were great. The Americans were assured that Louis the sixteenth was, during this year, to send a powerful armament to their aid. Every exertion was therefore made to place the continental army on a footing to co-operate with their allies. On the 14th of July, 1780, this armament arrived at Rhode-Island. It consisted of seven ships, of the line, five frigates, five lesser armed vessels, and a fleet of transports, with six thousand land forces on board, commanded by count de Rochambeau. Possession of the forts and batteries on Rhode-Island was immediately given to the French, who put them into a respectable state of defence. The island was soon after threatened with an attack from sir Henry Clinton, and admiral Arbuthnot. The project was found to be impracticable, but the French troops and ships of war were effectually blocked up at Rhode-Island. The Americans were much disappointed by this event. In the mean time, a dangerous plot was discovered in the American army. Benedict Arnold, who had been esteemed one of the best officers in the continental troops, entered into a correspondence with sir Henry Clinton, for the delivery of West Point to the British forces. This place has been called the Gibraltar of North America. It was reckoned the most proper situation for commanding the navigation of the North River. Ridges of rocks rising one behind another, made it incapable of being invested by less than twenty thousand men. The plan of Arnold was to make such a disposition of his garrison, that sir Henry Clinton should surprise the place, and force a surrender. Arnold, under a pretence that the old fortifications were in a state of decay, had actually demolished a great part of them; which had excited some suspicion. Major Andre, adjutant general of the British army, was employed as negociator in this infamous transaction. In returning from a final conference with Arnold, he was on the 23d of September, detected in disguise, within the American lines. A variety of papers were found upon him, which ascertained, beyond the possibility of a quibble, the completeness of his guilt. He was inconsiderately permitted to send a letter to Arnold, by the officer to whom he was first brought. Thus Arnold escaped. So great was the confusion of this man, that, in coming from his house, he locked his wife into the room in which he left her; he seized a barge with ten or twelve men, and made them row him to New York, on the pretence of settling a cartel. When he

came along side of a British ship of war, he delivered up as prisoners, the crew of the barge, who thus ignorantly had assisted him to save his life. No profession is free from peccantry. There was much altercation before it could be determined that Andre ought to be hanged as a spy. The prisoner attempted to prove that he did not come under that description; and from a person in his unfortunate situation, such sophistry was pardonable. But had he possessed sentiments of honour suitable to his rank in the British service, he never would have interfered in so ignominious a project. Clinton interposed in his favour, but in vain. Had the three men who apprehended Andre, or any other persons of inferior rank, been found in a situation like his within the British lines, they would have been hung without farther ceremony, and the story would have been forgot within twenty-four hours. The high military rank of this British spy seems to have staggered the judgement even of a republican army. His sentence was pronounced with some hesitation, and executed amid the unfeigned tears of the American forces. Had Arnold himself been taken, it was generally thought that Andre, in opposition to evident justice, would have been forgiven. We have been the more particular upon this painful subject, because the royal army, and the whole British nation make a great clamour about the barbarity of conducting to the gibbet this adjutant general; and because even the historians of America have in this instance, but faintly defended her conduct. It is puerile to oppose the pang of sensibility to the necessities of inexorable justice.

Arnold was created a brigadier-general in the British army. He published a proposal for raising a corps of deserters from the continental troops; but nobody joined him. These mean offers, on the part of Britain, corresponded with the forgery of American paper money, and the modest proposals of George Johnstone for the purchase of "*Washington and the president.*"

Mr. Henry Laurens, who had been formerly president of Congress, had been deputed by that body to solicit a loan for their service in Holland, and also to negotiate a treaty between that country, and America. On the 3d of September, 1780, Mr. Laurens was taken by the Vestal frigate. Among his papers, there was found a plan of a treaty of commerce between the two nations. In consequence, the court of London somewhat abruptly declared war against the Dutch. In the commerce of Holland, the English nation saw before them a rich harvest of spoil; and they were sufficiently acquainted with the views of the stadtholder*, to fear nothing from the military force of Holland. Mr. Laurens was committed to the Tower; and the island of St. Eustatia was taken from the Dutch, with an immense plunder.

On the 1st of January, 1782, a mutiny broke out in the Pennsylvania line. The soldiers in that part of the continental army were most of them Irishmen. They had performed their duty to satisfaction, and the present discontentment was the mere offspring of misery and despair. Clinton sent two persons from New-York, who made the most bountiful offers to those who would join him. He recommended that they would move behind the South River, where a corps of British troops would be ready for their protection. His emissaries were instantly arrested by the soldiers. The differences between the congress and them were adjusted; and the British envoys were hanged. A purse of an hundred guineas was offered to the common men, as a reward for their fidelity. The proposal was refused; a behavior, that, in so destitute a situation, did them the highest honour. The greatest necessity, by this time, pervaded the whole military department. The paper of congress had entirely lost its credit; and, without the command of a proper circulating medium, to support a numerous army was utterly impossible. The king of France about this time, gave the united states a subsidy of six millions of livres, and became their security for ten millions

* Vide Vol. 1. p. 423.

more, advanced for them in the United Netherlands. A more regular system of finance was about this time adopted; and the arrangement of the supplies of the army and of the accounts was entrusted to mr. Robert Morris; to whom the government stood highly indebted for his judgment, economy, and sometimes for the interference of his personal credit.

On the 5th of January, 1781, Arnold with sixteen hundred British troops under his command, landed, about fifteen miles below Richmond in Virginia. They marched into that town, where they burned large quantities of tobacco, rum, sail-cloth, and other merchandize. A variety of similar devastations were committed by these banditti (for what other name can we give them?) in different parts of the state.

The marquis de la Fayette was detached by general Washington, with twelve hundred men to stop the ravages of Arnold. The French fleet, with fifteen hundred men on board, also sailed from Rhode-Island for the Chesapeak. The fleets of France and England met, and fought a drawn battle. But the French were forced to return to Rhode Island, without affecting the object of their destination. On the 25th of March, 1781, general Philips, with two thousand men, arrived in the Chesapeak from New-York, to join Arnold. They formed a junction, defeated several parties of militia, and laid waste all before them. At Petersburg, they were opposed by baron Steuben, with a small force. He was forced to retreat; and here the British officers burned four thousand hogheads of tobacco. The triumphal entry of Alaric or of Atilla into ancient Rome, was not marked by circumstances of more wanton barbarity. At Chesterfield, the court house, a range of barracks, and three hundred barrels of flour, were burnt. On the same day, Arnold himself captured two ships, and ten small vessels, loaded with tobacco, cordage, flour, &c. A great number of vessels were burnt. Above two thousand hogheads of tobacco were taken or destroyed. At Manchester, the English troops destroyed twelve hundred hogheads of tobacco; and, at Warwic, the ships on the stocks, and in the river, with a large range of rope walks. They also burned, at the same place, five hundred barrels of flour, with a number of warehouses, and tan-houses. In the course of three weeks an immense quantity of property was destroyed. On the return of these troops to Petersburg, Philips died. On his death bed he presumed to complain of American inhumanity; because the continentals did not suspend some firing, for the sake of suffering him to expire in peace. A short letter from him, on this subject, has been printed.

On the 16th of August, 1780, the defeated army of general Gates rendezvoused at Hillsborough. In the end of the year, they advanced to Charlottetown, where general Greene assumed the chief command. The extensive submission of the militia of South Carolina to the royal forces, had ultimately operated against the royal interest. The British had a post at Ninety-Six, for thirteen months, and, during this time, the country was filled with rapine, violence, and murder. Applications were daily made for redress; and they were always unsuccessful. Greene dispatched general Morgan to take post in this district; and several persons immediately resumed their arms, and acted in concert with the continental troops. Cornwallis had been preparing for an expedition into North Carolina; but as he could not, with safety, leave Morgan in his rear, he detached Tarleton, with about eleven hundred men, and two field pieces, to attack him. Morgan was inferior, in point of numbers. They met, on the 17th of January, 1781, at a place called the Cowpens. Tarleton began the attack with fatigued troops, before they were properly formed, and before the reserve had taken its ground. The first line of the Americans, commanded by colonel Pickens, was broken by the impetuosity of the charge. The second line was likewise compelled to retreat. At this crisis, lieutenant-colonel Washington, with a party of horse, repulsed about forty British dragoons, who were cutting down the fugitives. At the same

time, the American infantry rallied and charged the enemy with fixed bayonets. They seized two field pieces; and two hundred and fifty British cavalry, *who had not been engaged*, fled with precipitation. It is here evident that Tarleton must have neglected his duty. Had these two hundred and fifty horse been brought up to support the infantry after the rout of the second line, we may suppose that the Americans must have been completely defeated. Above three hundred of the British were killed or wounded, and above six hundred prisoners were taken. Eight hundred muskets, two field pieces, thirty-five baggage waggons, and an hundred dragoon horses, fell into the hands of the conquerors. The Americans had only twelve men killed, and sixty wounded.

Cornwallis had been joined by general Leslie, with two thousand men. On hearing of the defeat of Tarleton, he determined to pursue Morgan, who had set out with his prisoners for Virginia. In this retreat and pursuit both armies underwent excessive hardships. About the end of January, the British reached Catawba river, during the evening of the same day on which the Americans had crossed it. Before next morning a heavy rain had made the stream impassable. If the river had risen but a few hours sooner than it did, Morgan, with his whole detachment, and his five hundred prisoners, must have been taken. It is no wonder, that in this march the British moved with greater rapidity than the Americans. The latter were not only destitute of almost all necessaries, but by walking barefoot over frozen ground, their feet were so gashed, that their steps were marked with blood. To all these hardships they submitted without the desertion of a single man. Cornwallis crossed the Catawba river, and continued his pursuit. The Americans crossed the Yadkin, and secured their boats on the north side of it. The British were close in their rear; but the swelling of the river, from the late rains, made their crossing impossible. They were obliged to pass the stream, at a place called the Upper fords. By this time the two divisions of the American army, under Greene and Morgan, had formed a junction at Guilford court-house. They were still too feeble for resistance, and, with much difficulty, they escaped into Virginia. Greene soon after returned with a considerable reinforcement, into North Carolina. On the 15th of March, 1781, the two armies met at Guilford court-house. The Americans consisted of four thousand four hundred men, the British of two thousand four hundred. Of the former, more than one half were only militia. After an obstinate battle, the Americans were driven from the field, with the loss of about four hundred men killed or wounded. That of the British was not much inferior. They lost several of their best officers; and, four days after this *victory*, they began a retreat. They halted at Wilmington, in North Carolina, for three weeks, and then proceeded for Petersburg in Virginia. Greene, with his troops, returned into South Carolina. On the 25th of April, he fought a battle at Camden, with lord Rawdon; many lives were lost on both sides. Greene was forced to retire; but, in the month of May following, Rawdon found it prudent to quit his post, and retreat nearer to Charleston. Several other obstinate engagements took place, the most important of which was at the Eutaw springs. In this action, the British lost above eleven hundred men, and the Americans, who had the honour and advantage of victory, more than five hundred. By the close of the campaign of 1781, the British were gradually forced to retire into Charleston. In this struggle, it was admitted that lord Rawdon displayed considerable talents. But Greene, who, with an ill clothed, half-starved, and half-disciplined army, had overcome his antagonist, acquired a degree of fame which can only perish with the last tradition of the history of the American revolution.

We now return to the progress of lord Cornwallis. On the 25th of April, the same day on which Rawdon gained the second battle of Camden; he began his march from Wilmington for Virginia. As the country is intersected by deep rivers, two

boats were mounted on carriages, and taken with his army. With little opposition, the British, on the 20th of May, arrived at Petersburg, the place which had been fixed upon for the rendezvous of the royal forces. The troops which had been under the command of general Philips, were joined with those of Cornwallis. A reinforcement of fifteen hundred men had recently arrived from New-York; so that his lordship was now at the head of a very formidable army. He soon received an account of the victory of Camden, and that three British regiments had sailed for Charleston. This news divested him of anxiety for the situation of lord Rawdon.

The defence of Virginia was chiefly entrusted to the marquis de la Fayette. He proceeded from the Head of Elk River, to Richmond. He arrived there on the day before Cornwallis reached Manchester, on the opposite side of James River. Richmond was at that time filled with almost all the military stores in the state of Virginia, Cornwallis was vastly superior in numbers to the Americans. Fayette had only a thousand regulars, two thousand militia, and sixty dragoons. The English commander advanced from Petersburg to James River, which he crossed at Westtown. Thence he marched through Hanover county, and crossed Pamunkey River. Fayette followed his motions, but at a guarded distance. The British were greatly superior in cavalry. The Stables and pastures of Virginia supplied them with good horses; and they traversed the country with facility, in all directions. Two distant expeditions were therefore undertaken. In one of these, Tarleton dispersed the assembly of the state, which was then sitting at Charlotteville. He seized seven of its members, who had not made their escape, and destroyed a great quantity of stores at or near the town. The other expedition was committed to lieutenant-colonel Simcoe, the same officer whose recent movements on the frontiers of Canada, have excited such general attention in the united states. His object was to destroy the military stores at Point of Fork. The greater part of them had been removed. In these marches and counter-marches, immense quantities of private property were destroyed. Fayette displayed extraordinary abilities. He was joined at Racoon Ford by general Wayne with eight hundred Pennsylvanians. The military stores of the state had been removed from Richmond to Albermarle court-house. Cornwallis set out for that place, in order to destroy them. By a vigorous exertion, Fayette placed himself between Cornwallis and Albermarle court-house. The English general did not choose to attack him; and retreated to Williamsburg. From thence he retired to Yorktown and Gloucester Point, two places that will be long memorable in the annals of America. Cornwallis fortified these posts. He was at the head of about seven thousand men. Few inhabitants of the state joined him; and of the very small number who did so, almost the whole were natives of Europe. It was very rare even to purchase safety by submission. Some Virginians joined the American army; but the majority were contented with keeping themselves beyond the reach of the royal forces.

The summer went over without any decisive event in Virginia. It was expected, by the British, that their fleet in the West-Indies would have joined them; and that they should then proceed with augmented vigour in their military operations. On the 30th of August, 1781, count de Grasse, with twenty-eight sail of French men of war, entered the Chesapeake; and intelligence likewise arrived in Virginia, that the French and American armies, which had been stationed in the northern states, were advancing to that part of the continent. De Grasse blocked up York River, with three large ships, and some frigates, and moored the principal part of his fleet in Lynhaven Bay. Three thousand two hundred French land forces were disembarked from on board this fleet, and united with the continentals under Fayette. The whole body took post at Williamsburg. Cornwallis had intended to attack them; but he received letters from Clinton at New-York, that he would exert himself to the utmost, to reinforce the royal army in the Chesapeake; and that admiral Digby was

hourly expected on the coast. His lordship, therefore, relinquished his design. He might, at this time, have accomplished a retreat into South-Carolina; and Tarleton, in his memoirs of the war, says, that he recommended this measure.

Admiral Greaves, with twenty ships of the line, made an effort to relieve Cornwallis. De Grasse went to the mouth of the Chesapeake to meet him, and an indecisive action was fought. Greaves wanted to renew it; but in the mean time, de Grasse had been reinforced by eight sail of the line from Rhode-Island. To protect the arrival of this squadron, had been his chief object in quitting his former station; and as his force was now superior to that of the English fleet, admiral Greaves set sail, and de Grasse returned into the Chesapeake. These events happened in the beginning of September.

It had been the design of general Washington to distinguish the campaign of 1781, by the siege of New-York. He was to be supported in this enterprise, by Rochambeau, commander of the French forces in Rhode-Island, with whom it had been concerted. The siege was to be undertaken in conjunction with a French fleet, which was expected to arrive on the coast of America, in the month of August. It was agreed, that, for this effect, the French troops should quit their former quarters, and move towards the North River. Letters were addressed by general Washington to the executive officers of New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New-Jersey, requiring them to have their quotas of troops ready on a week's warning. In conformity with this plan, the French troops, in June, marched from Rhode-Island; and, early in July, they joined the American army. General Washington advanced with his forces to the vicinity of Kingsbridge; and the British, about the same time, retired with almost the whole of their troops to York-Island. The American commander expected to have commenced operations against New-York in July. Flat-bottomed boats, sufficient for transporting five thousand men, were built near Albany, and brought down Hudson's river to the vicinity of the American quarters. Ovens were erected opposite to Staten-Island, for the use of the French troops. But the states which had been solicited to send forward their proportions of men, did not correspond with the anxiety of general Washington. On the 2d of August, his American troops were but by a small body more numerous than when they left their winter quarters.

Chance has always a great share in the fate of military events. It is doubtful, whether, if the states had furnished their supplies at the time desired, their alacrity would have been of advantage to the public service. By commencing a siege of New-York, general Washington would have engaged in a very arduous task. His difficulties must have been augmented by the arrival of three thousand Germans, who came in the interim from Europe, to reinforce the garrison. In the middle of August, he received intelligence that de Grasse, with his French fleet, had been destined for the Chesapeake; and this circumstance at once inverted the whole plan of the campaign. He saw that the capture of Cornwallis would be an enterprise more easily within his reach, and be of infinite consequence to the cause of America.

The appearance of a design to attack New-York was still kept up. In the mean time, the allied army crossed the North-river, and passed on by the way of Philadelphia to Yorktown. An accident favoured the deception. General Washington, while the attack of New York was seriously intended, had sent off a letter detailing the particulars; and this letter fell into the hands of sir Henry Clinton. He therefore readily believed that every movement towards Virginia was a feint for diverting his attention from the defence of New-York. At Chester, the American general first heard of the actual arrival of de Grasse, at the Chesapeake. He reached Williamsburg, on the 14th of September. The distance from Kingsbridge to that place was about five hundred miles. Three weeks had been spent on the march. The combined forces proceeded on their way to Yorktown, partly by land, and partly down

the Chesapeake. The whole, including a body of Virginia militia, under general Nelson, amounted to sixteen thousand five hundred men. They rendezvoused at Williamsburg on the 25th of September. About this time, lord Cornwallis received a letter from Clinton, who informed him of the arrival of admiral Digby; and that he himself was to embark with five thousand men, who would probably sail about the 5th of October. On the night after the receipt of this intelligence, Cornwallis quitted his outward position, and retired to one somewhat more remote.

The works erected for the security of Yorktown, on the right, were redoubts and batteries, with a line of stockade in the rear. A marshy ravine lay in front of the right, over which was placed a large redoubt. The morass extended along the centre, which was defended by a line of stockade and by batteries. On the left of the centre was a hornwork, with a ditch, a row of fraize, and an abbatis. Two redoubts were advanced before the left. The combined forces advanced and took possession of the ground from which the British had retired. On the ninth and tenth of October, the French and Americans opened their batteries of heavy cannon, howitzers, and mortars. Their shells reached the ships in the harbour; and the Charon, of forty-four guns, and another vessel, were burnt. The two redoubts, advanced on the left, impeded the progress of the assailants; and they were ordered to be stormed. The reduction of one redoubt was committed to the Americans. Their troops marched to the assault with unloaded arms. Having passed the abbatis and palisades, they rushed in on all sides, and carried the redoubt in a few minutes, with the loss of eight killed, and twenty-eight wounded. Lieutenant-colonel Laurens personally took the commanding officer prisoner. About five of the British were killed; and the rest were taken prisoners. The assailants had been directed to put the men in the redoubts to the sword, in revenge for a massacre of the same kind, recently committed by the royal forces at New London. But colonel Hamilton, who conducted the enterprise, informed the marquis de la Fayette, that they felt themselves incapable of such barbarity, and had spared every man who ceased to resist. The French attacked the other of these redoubts, and with equal success. The batteries of the besiegers were now covered with near an hundred pieces of heavy ordnance, and those of the British were so damaged that they could scarcely show a single gun. Cornwallis, therefore, wrote a letter to gen. Washington, requesting a cessation of arms for twenty-four hours; and, on the 19th of October, the ports of York and Gloucester were surrendered by capitulation. The land forces were to be prisoners of war to congress; and the naval force was given up to France. The soldiers were to be kept prisoners in Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, and to receive the same rations that were allowed to the American army. General Lincoln, who had been taken prisoner at Charleston, about eighteen months before, was appointed to receive the submission of the royal army at Yorktown. The Bonetta sloop of war was suffered to pass unexamined to New-York, upon the promise of lord Cornwallis to be responsible for the number of persons who might be carried off in it. The meaning of this article was, that the loyalists and Americans of all descriptions, in the British army, might escape the punishment to which they were destined. General Washington expressly refused to grant any stipulation in their favour; and in Britain the most feverish anxiety was felt for their situation. One of the sons of George the third was on board the fleet of admiral Digby; and Edmund Burke, with his wonted volubility, predicted, in the English house of commons, that the first sight which would meet the eye of the young prince, on the coast of Virginia, would be the bodies of hundreds of his father's faithful subjects hanging on trees along the shore. Nothing of all this happened. The collusive article above mentioned prevented such a tragical consummation of victory.

The forces employed in this siege consisted of seven thousand French, five thousand five hundred continentals, and above four thousand militia. Of the combined army,

about three hundred were killed or wounded; of the British about five hundred. The prisoners were more than seven thousand; but of these only three thousand eight hundred were capable of bearing arms. This affair may be considered as the closing scene of the continental war in North America. When the British troops came out of their lines, Tarleton was mounted on a horse which he had taken from its owner some time before. The proprietor met him, and obliged him to alight.

The troops under Cornwallis had spread waste and ruin over the face of all the country, for four hundred miles on the sea-coast, and for two hundred miles to the westward. Their marches from Charleston to Camden, from Camden to the river Dan, from the Dan through Carolina to Wilmington, from Wilmington to Petersburg, and from Petersburg through many parts of Virginia, till they finally settled in Yorktown, made a route of more than eleven hundred miles. To whatever quarter their baleful progress was turned, military ferocity exhibited its utmost horror. The capture of this band of freebooters inspired very general joy. So little restraint was, however, put upon private sentiments, that when the news first arrived at Philadelphia, the partisans of Britain, in this city, made no scruple of laying bets that the intelligence was false. In England, the fate of Cornwallis was heard by many with exultation. The public discontents in that country had reached an alarming height; and, if the war had been protracted for three or four additional campaigns, a national bankruptcy, and its necessary consequence, a revolution, must have been the merited sequel of such efforts.

While the combined armies were advancing to the siege of Yorktown, general Arnold conducted an expedition against New-London, in Connecticut, the native country of that accomplished character. He landed on the 6th of September, and attacked fort Griswold. This place was taken by storm. The Americans had not more than six or seven men killed, when the British entered their lines; but a wanton butchery was carried on, after resistance had ceased. A British officer, on coming into the fort, enquired who commanded? Colonel Ledyard answered, "I did, but you do now;" and presented his sword. He was instantly run through the body. Between thirty and forty were wounded, and about forty were carried off as prisoners. The conquerors had been exasperated by an obstinate resistance. Forty eight of them were killed, and an hundred and forty-five wounded; but no circumstance of this kind can excuse or even palliate the atrocity of their conduct. Sixty dwelling-houses, and eighty four stores were reduced to ashes. The whole damages, committed by the British, during these infamous expeditions, was estimated, after the peace, at twelve hundred thousand dollars. Proceedings of this nature tended only to exasperate the minds of the people, without promoting, in the smallest degree, the scheme of subjection. Even Cornwallis, when no enemy in Virginia durst offer him battle, was yet as far as ever from conquest. The unbounded extent of the continent presented numberless opportunities of retreat or flight. In the thickly-peopled countries of Europe, this is impossible. The inhabitants are, in some measure, chained to the spot; and must submit to those who are masters of the field. In America, the case was reversed. The conqueror gained nothing but the ground on which he encamped; whilst the people, if disaffected, removed to any distance which they judged proper. This was one of the chief reasons why all the British victories over the Americans ended in disappointment; while the people of Britain, ignorant of this mode of defence, discharged their vexation in whole libraries of abuse against Howe and Burgoyne.

On the 31st of December, 1791, Mr. Henry Laurens was released from his long confinement in the tower of London. He had been committed there, on the 6th of October, 1780, after his capture by the Vestal frigate. The charge against him was, "Suspicion of high treason." The orders to the lieutenant of the tower were very

strict. He was to be kept in close confinement; prohibited the use of pen and ink; and no letter was to be suffered either to be sent from him, or brought to him. Mr. Laurens was afflicted with the gout, and other infirmities. In this situation, he was shut up in two small rooms, which together formed an area of twenty feet square. A warder was his constant companion, both by day and night; and lest, after all these precautions, he should attempt an escape, a sentinel, with a fixed bayonet, was placed under his window. He had no friend with whom he could converse; nor any means, a pencil excepted, of correspondence. Such was the respectful treatment bestowed by the court of London upon an infirm gentleman, at the age of fifty-five, and whose crime was, that he had presided in an assembly containing the representatives of thirteen republics. After remaining for a month in this condition, Mr. Laurens was permitted to walk out on limited ground; but a warder, *with a sword in his hand*, followed close behind him. At the end of this time, he was accidentally met by lord George Gordon, who was, at the same time, and for much better reasons, a prisoner in the tower. His lordship asked Mr. Laurens to walk with him. The offer was declined, and Mr. Laurens immediately returned to his apartment. He had been prohibited to speak to any person. Yet this involuntary trespass of orders was caught at by Gore, the keeper; and though the attending warder exculpated him from all blame, Gore locked him up for thirty-seven days. At the end of that time, he offered to permit Mr. Laurens to walk out; but this permission, as coming from him, was refused. After two months and an half, general Vernon, a superior officer in the same place, hearing of what had past, ordered that he should be allowed to walk out; and the proposal was accepted. All this parade may be considered as the very dregs of revenge. In this melancholy situation, Mr. Laurens must have been fully supported by his conscious superiority to the miserable automatons of tyranny who surrounded him.

When president of congress, Britain had attempted to purchase the services of this gentleman. The plan was, at this juncture, renewed; with menaces of additional severity, in case of refusal. The offer was treated with contempt; and his youngest son was refused permission to see him. He was even denied leave to draw a bill upon a person in London who was indebted to him. His eldest son, about this time; arrived at Paris, as a minister from congress, and the father was requested to desire the son to withdraw from his mission. At the end of a year's imprisonment, Mr. Laurens was required to pay ninety-seven pounds ten shillings sterling*, to the warders who attended him. This he refused. There were many other circumstances of extreme meanness and barbarity, in the treatment of Mr. Laurens, on which we have been the more particular, on account of the high rank of the prisoner, and the impossibility of this severity being of any kind of service to the royal cause. The news of the capture of Cornwallis inspired the court of London with a sense of shame, or at least of fear. Lieutenant-colonel Laurens was the officer appointed by general Washington to digest the terms of capitulation. Cornwallis was constable of the tower; a finecure of a thousand pounds sterling, or above four thousand four hundred dollars per annum. His lordship thus became prisoner to the son of his own prisoner. Mr. Laurens was freely discharged; though general Burgoyne had formerly been offered, by congress, in exchange for him, and refused.

After the capture of Cornwallis, general Washington, with the greater part of his army, returned to the neighbourhood of New-York. The British troops kept within their lines, which he was not in a condition to force. Greene was likewise master of South-Carolina, Charleston excepted. Some trifling skirmishes happened; but about three months after the news of the surrender of Cornwallis reached

* Above four hundred and thirty dollars.

England it was determined to abandon the war; and arrangements were accordingly made for withdrawing the royal forces from Georgia and South-Carolina. In May, 1782, Sir. Guy Carleton, who had been invested with the chief command at New-York, dispatched a letter to general Washington, informing him, of the amicable disposition of the parliament and people of England. He likewise requested a passport for his secretary, Mr. Morgan, to pay a visit to congress. This desire was refused. It was suspected that there was a design of making a separate negotiation with America; and congress declared, as formerly, that this idea was inadmissible. On the 30th of November, 1782, provisional articles of peace, between Britain and America, were signed at Paris, by Dr. Franklin and the other American commissioners on the one part, and those of Britain on the other part. The independence of the united states was acknowledged in its fullest extent. Very ample boundaries were allowed to them, and an unlimited right of fishing on the banks of Newfoundland. The loyalists were to be recommended by congress to the favour of the states; but no positive stipulation was made in their behalf. This was indeed impracticable. Yet when the articles were soon after discussed in the British parliament, the earl of Carlisle declared, that, for this omission, the English ministry deserved to be damned both in this world and the next. It was loudly reprobated also, because an immense tract of territory, which never had been the property of the united states, or within their boundaries, was ceded to them. This country extended on both sides of the Ohio, quite to the eastern bank of the Mississippi; and contained above twenty Indian tribes, including those ancient allies of Britain, the Six Nations. The pusillanimity, treachery, and stupidity of the British commissioners, were illustrated with all the fervour of interested eloquence. The answer to this clamour, might be comprised in a single word, viz. *necessity*.

On the 25th of November, 1783, New-York was evacuated by the troops of George the third; and general Washington made a public entry into that city. He soon after proceeded to Annapolis, where the congress were then sitting, and resigned his commission. On his way thither, he delivered to the comptroller of the public treasury in Philadelphia, an account of the expenditure of all the public money which he had ever received. The whole sum, which, in the course of the war, had gone through his hands, amounted only to fourteen thousand four hundred and seventy-nine pounds, eighteen shillings and nine-pence sterling. On the 23d of December, general Washington asked leave of congress to resign his command. His resignation was accepted by that assembly, in those warm terms of esteem and gratitude for his past services, which they so highly deserved.

This war cost the English nation above one hundred and thirty-nine millions of pounds sterling. This is the nominal sum. But if we include the compound interest of the annual expenses, to the end of the war, and the value of the shipping and lives that were lost, the total damage was not less, in 1783, than two hundred millions. Ten per cent is not an unusual profit upon a capital; and, by this way of reckoning, Britain was poorer, by twenty millions sterling per annum, at the close of the contest, than she would have been, if it never had been undertaken. The ostensible cause of its commencement was to enforce payment of a duty of three pence per pound upon the consumption of tea in North America. Supposing that this war cost England an hundred and thirty-nine thousand lives, the people of that country are at present paying for the execution of their fellow subjects, in this wise quarrel, at the rate of one thousand pounds per head. America lost eighty thousand lives in this war, besides those of the loyalists engaged on the part of Britain.

No part of the conduct of the royal army inspired more lively resentment than their treatment of American prisoners. It would be unjust not to observe, that the behaviour of sir Guy Carleton was, in this respect, distinguished for humanity, with

the exception of perhaps a few instances. The treatment of American prisoners at New-York, Philadelphia, and Charleston, was remarkably barbarous. By the report of Mr. Boudinot, commissary general of prisoners, and from the evidence produced by him, it appeared to the American board of war, on the 1st of December, 1771, that the general allowance to prisoners, "did not exceed four ounces of meat per day, and often so damaged as not to be eatable, that it had been a common practice with the British, on a prisoner's being first captured, to keep him three, four or five days without a morsel of meat, and then to tempt him to enlist, to save his life; that there were numerous instances of prisoners of war having perished in the agonies of hunger." The treatment of the American sailors was altogether shocking. They, as well as many other Americans, of all classes, were crowded on board of prison-ships, where the joint ravages of filth, of famine, and of contagious distempers, swept them off by hundreds. It has been asserted, on as good evidence as the nature of the subject will admit, that in the last six years of the war, eleven thousand persons died on board the Jersey, a British prison-ship, stationed in East-River, near New-York. For some time after the war ended, heaps of their bones lay whitening in the sun on the shores of Long-Island.

During this tedious and bloody contest, the friendship of the Indians became an object of considerable importance to both parties. In a competition for their alliance, Britain had many advantages. Along the whole north and south-western frontier, the native tribes were jealous of the new settlers and viewed the incessant progress of their plantations with suspicion and terror. This made them prompt to enter into hostilities against the united states. The business of the continent, with these people, had been chiefly carried on by agents appointed and paid by the king of Britain; and these persons very generally employed their influence in supporting that side of the question. The French had been expelled from Canada by the British but thirteen years before, and this conquest naturally inspired the savages with a high idea of the valour and resources of the victors. Congress, besides, could not afford to squander among them presents with equal profusion as the British government. For all these reasons, a majority of the Indians, in almost every period of the war, took part with Britain against the united states. John Stuart, a British agent among the Creeks and Cherokees, formed a scheme for turning them loose on the back settlements of the Carolinas and Georgia. The capture of Moses Kirkland, who was on his way to general Gage, discovered the particulars. At the time, when the attack was made on Sullivan's Island, the Cherokees began their massacres. The southern States dispatched considerable forces into their country. Their villages and cornfields were burnt and destroyed. Above five hundred of them, for want of provisions, fled to West Florida, where they were subsisted at the expense of the British government. They were terrified at this vigorous exertion of vengeance. They sued for peace, and they obtained it; nor did they, for some years after, renew their hostilities. The case was different in the middle and southern states. The resistance of the savages there was more obstinate. The proximity of Canada augmented the force of British influence. On numerous occasions, these barbarians were excited and instructed by the refugees; and in this mode of warfare, colonel John Butler, a Connecticut loyalist, was distinguished by superior activity.

This man, on the 1st of July, 1778, attacked Wyoming, a new settlement on the eastern branch of the Susquehannah. His party consisted of two hundred refugees, and nine hundred Indians. One of the forts, that had been constructed for the safety of the inhabitants, being very weak, surrendered at the first summons. Another was required to yield. Its governor, colonel Zebulon Butler, cousin to John Butler, demanded a conference, at a bridge without the fort. This was agreed to; and this commander, most of his officers, and the whole garrison, a few individuals except-

ed, marched out to the conference. The enemy did not appear at the bridge, and the garrison, with a degree of credulity which must be ascribed to infatuation, advanced in search of them, till, about three miles from the fort, they fell into an ambuscade. Out of four hundred and seventeen, who had marched out of the fort, about three hundred and sixty were slain. No quarters were given. The fort was again summoned, and surrendered. The garrison, consisting of thirty men, with two hundred women, was permitted to cross the Susquehannah, and retreat through Northampton county. Some of these women were delivered of children in the woods, and many suffered for want of provisions. Several of the other scattered settlers had previously retired. The whole settlement was utterly destroyed. A very exaggerated account of this catastrophe was published in Doddsley's Annual Register, for 1779. It has since been transcribed into several other publications; and, among the rest, into Gordon's History of the American Revolution. The present narrative of this massacre, has been abridged from Dr. Ramsay's work.

In November, 1779, a party of Indians, and refugees, with about *fifty regulars*, entered Cherry-Valley in the state of New-York. They killed and scalped above forty people, many of whom were women and children. The Americans, on their part, were not tardy in avenging such acts of cruelty. Several excursions into the Indian country were successfully executed. That of general Sullivan, into the territory of the Six Nations, appears to have been the most important. The towns, the orchards, and the cornfields of the savages were laid waste; and, as colonel Dayton, an officer who was on the expedition, observed in the last session of congress, these nations have ever since been considered as a *subdued people*. It is not worth while to give a further detail of these expeditions. We shall only observe, that in 1781, the Cherokees having violated the peace, were chastised with the most rapid and remarkable success, by general Pickens. In the course of fourteen days, he burned above thirteen towns and villages, killed more than forty Indians, and took many prisoners. He did not lose one man, and only two of his party were wounded. They did not expend three rounds of ammunition; and yet only three Indians escaped, after having been once seen. The cause of royalty gained nothing by the introduction of such an execrable alliance to support it. This, indeed, was the only circumstance wanting to fill up the measure of American indignation.

We have in the preceding pages, traced the progress of American independence, from the first period of its existence, till it rose into maturity. The tempest of external hostility had exhausted its terrors; and the fabric of political freedom remained unshaken. Yet many dangers were still to be encountered, and many difficulties were still to be surmounted, before the future happiness of America could be affirmed to rest on a durable foundation.

On the return of peace, one of the first objects that claimed the attention of government, was the discharge of the debts that had been contracted in support of the war. We have already seen that the first class of paper money, issued by congress, had been reduced to a state next to annihilation. Of the debts that still remained due, the most urgent were the arrears of pay to the army. The hardships of the soldiers had been extreme. A great part of them had devoted the flower of their days to the service of America. They had sacrificed their time, their property, and their domestic happiness, to the cause of their country. Congress were sufficiently disposed to satisfy every claim of the army; but they were in want of the resources requisite for that end. These resources rested with the individual states, and their citizens, exhausted by a long series of exertions and of sufferings, were not in a situation to make further advances.

In 1778, congress, by the recommendation of the commander in chief, had resolved, that after the end of the war, half-pay, during life, should be granted to the

officers. This resolution had produced its advantages. It assured that important class of citizens, that when their services became no longer requisite in the field, they would not return to private stations, without a reasonable competence. Yet this determination excited the disgust of many citizens. It exhibited one part of the community in the light of pensioners to government, and to the officers themselves, it was less acceptable than if it had been consolidated into an active capital.

But congress soon found themselves unable to accomplish this resolution. Their command of money depended on the pleasure of the individual states. Their resolutions and requisitions had no longer the force of laws; and, at the close of an honourable and successful war, they had nothing to bestow upon their troops, but promises of payment. The situation of these brave men was distressing; and, while their minds remained in this irritation of suspense, a letter was circulated among them, tending to exasperate their feelings. The writer of this performance, who has never been certainly known, contrasted, in striking language, the pressure of military sufferings with the mockery of congressional compensation. He advised the troops, therefore, to do justice to themselves, while they had arms in their hands, and were united; and warned them not to neglect an opportunity, which might never return. This dangerous performance was published about the 10th of March, 1783. General Washington, the next day, convened an assembly of his officers, and represented to them the disgraceful consequences of such a step. It is almost needless to add, that the idea was rejected with universal abhorrence. A resolution was unanimously adopted, by which the assembly declared, "that no circumstances of distress should induce a conduct that might tend to sully the reputation and glory they had acquired, and that the army continued to have an unshaken confidence in the justice of congress, and their country."

Soon after these events, congress, on the 22d of March, 1783, completed a resolution that had been for some time pending. It was, that the officers of the army, who preferred a gross sum to an annuity, should be entitled to receive to the amount of five years full pay, in money, or securities at six per cent. instead of the half-pay for life, which had been previously promised to them.

To avoid the inconveniencies arising from the dismissal of so great a body of soldiers, all at one time, furloughs were freely granted to individuals; and after their dismissal, they were not enjoined to return. By this arrangement, a large proportion of an unpaid army was disbanded without tumult. The privates became good farmers, labourers, or tradesmen. As soldiers had been easily and speedily formed, in 1775, out of farmers and mechanics, so, with equal facility, the same individuals resumed their former occupations. One only exception appeared to this general disposition. About eighty of the Pennsylvania levies, in defiance of their officers, on the 20th of June, 1783, arrived at Philadelphia, to seek redress from the executive council of state. At this city they were joined by some other troops, and the whole body, to the amount of three hundred, surrounded the state house, in which the congress, and the executive council of Pennsylvania, were then sitting. They placed guards at every door; and sent in a written message, requiring a compliance with their demands in twenty minutes. After some time, they retired, and congress removed to Princeton. This trifling affair ended without bloodshed. Six of the mutineers were tried, and condemned to punishment; but they were pardoned. With great exertions, the superintendent of finance advanced to the army four months pay, in part of the arrears of several years.

The resolution, with respect to the commutation for the American officers, became a topic of censure with many people. The state legislatures had, at different times, made them donations of money, of clothing, and of lands, which were supposed to be an adequate reward for their services. Besides, it gave offence, that, while the offi-

different states in a very exhausted condition. Added to this, at the return of peace, they had imported from Britain, goods to an immense amount. British adventurers, flattered by the hopes of great profits in the American market, exported their merchandise incautiously and on low terms. Importers thus overstocked, found it impossible to dispose of their goods, or, if they sold, were paid in a depreciated paper, in which they could make no remittance. From these sources arose bankruptcies without number,

The eastern states sustained another misfortune in the check given to their fisheries. The nations of Europe, from a desire to share in the American fisheries, endeavoured by bounties to their own subjects, and by high duties, or prohibitions, directed against other nations, to discourage them from pursuing this trade. The bounty on whale-oil, formerly allowed to the Americans, while subjects of Britain, was now withdrawn, and the sale of their fish restrained or prohibited in the West-India islands. They also forfeited the privilege that they had formerly enjoyed, of navigating the Mediterranean in safety, from the corsairs of Algiers. Without any naval force to restrain these pirates, and unable to insure their vessels, at the extravagant premiums demanded, they were compelled to resign this profitable branch of trade.

To these evils, in most of the states, were added such as naturally result from a fluctuating paper medium. At the commencement and in the progress of the war, the emissions of bills of credit by congress, had rendered essential service. It was indeed a measure of necessity, as specie could not have been had in sufficient quantity to support an army. Guided by this light, many of the state legislatures passed acts for the emission of paper bills of credit, and for making them a tender in payment of debts. This ruinous step had a most unhappy effect. It violated the rights of property, and sanctioned injustice and fraud, with the countenance of law.

It increased the evil which it was intended to remedy. The French army, an illicit trade with the Spanish islands, and with the British garrison at New-York, for some time before the treaty of peace, had introduced considerable sums of specie into the country. These had been remitted in payment for British manufactures, and what little remained in circulation, the paper money issued by the states, contributed to banish from the country.

Under circumstances so distressing; and amidst evils so numerous, the citizens suffered and complained, but knew not how to improve their situation. In Massachusetts, where specie was scarce, where private debts were numerous, and where the taxes, laid to discharge their state and federal engagements, were heavy, the discontents rose to such a height as to produce, in December, 1786, an alarming insurrection. The insurgents began by publicly burning a tax bill. They proceeded to stop the courts of justice, and suspend the collection of debts. A body of troops were immediately raised, under the command of gen. Lincoln. He received orders from the governor and council, to suppress the insurrection; but he was ordered to act on the defensive, rather than to hazard an engagement. While gen. Lincoln was advancing, the insurgents determined to strengthen themselves by getting possession of the military stores, deposited in the federal magazine at Springfield. This place was under the care of gen. Sheppard, who was stationed there with a single company of men. The post was slightly fortified; and had a few cannon for its protection. The rioters, to the number of about two thousand, appeared before it, with the view of taking it by force. General Sheppard was resolved to defend it to the last extremity. As the insurgents approached, he ordered the cannon to be loaded with ball, and fired over their heads. They continued to advance, and the general ordered the pieces to be loaded with grape shot, and directed at them. The first discharge killed four, and wounded several. Their confusion and retreat rendered a second discharge unnece-

sary. A consciousness of their being engaged in a bad cause, and of supporting that cause by unlawful means, a want of confidence in their leaders, and the want of system in their plans, and of discipline in their corps, were the probable causes of their dastardly conduct. On the arrival of general Lincoln, all resistance ceased. The deluded men abandoned their project, and stole back to their homes. Their leaders, Shays, Parsons, and others, fled into Canada. The firm and prudent conduct of general Lincoln soon restored tranquillity. Many of the insurgents were afterwards tried for treason, and convicted; but the lenity of the legislature saved them from capital punishment.

In Pennsylvania, whose citizens were large creditors of the united states, the resolution was adopted to fund the debt of the state, itself, and her proportion of the federal debt. Her resources were great. Though she collected a considerable revenue by indirect taxation, yet she was still obliged to raise a large sum by excise and direct taxes. Hence great discontents were excited among the people. In some parts of the state, the peace of the commonwealth was in danger. The prudence of the government, and the firm conduct of the civil authority, preserved public order.

For the payment of the interest on the funded debt, Pennsylvania emitted bills of credit; but they were not made a tender in any case, except to the state, in payment of the revenue. No paper could be better secured; yet it depreciated in value. This was the effect of the influence of party, the rage of speculation, and the remittances to Britain in payment for her manufactures.

In Maryland, there was an attempt made to issue paper money, by the house of representatives, but the senate opposed the measure. The contest between the two branches of the legislature grew warm, but terminated by an appeal to the people, who coincided in sentiments with the senate. Virginia and Massachusetts had the happiness to escape the mischiefs of an emission of paper; but New Hampshire, New-York, New Jersey, and the three most southern states, issued bills of credit under various modifications; and suffered, in various degrees, the ills that result from this misguided policy.

In the state of Rhode-Island, the emission of paper money was made on improper principles, and attended by disastrous effects. A cry was raised in favour of paper money, because of the alleged scarcity of specie. The merchants, and men of most information, opposed the measure strenuously, but to no purpose. An act was passed for the emission of one hundred thousand pounds in bills. Paper was made a tender in all cases whatever; and if a creditor should refuse accepting it in payment of his debt, the debtor was authorized to deposit it in the hands of a justice of the peace, giving six months notice of the same, in the public papers; in which term, if the creditors did not appear and receive these bills, the debt, by the act, was discharged. The consequences of the act were, that business stagnated and credit was at an end. What little hard money remained in the state, was locked up, and kept from circulation. Confusion prevailed in the state; while abroad, the politics of the legislature were execrated as dishonourable and ruinous.

While the credit and the prospects of the united states were thus depreciating, their interest was no less affected by the hostile and selfish policy of foreign powers.

To the British nation nothing could be more mortifying, after a long and calamitous contest, in which she had expended millions of treasure and sacrificed thousands of lives, than to be thus compelled entirely to relinquish the object, on account of which she had commenced hostilities. Her armies were defeated by a militia; two of them were forced to surrender prisoners of war, and the whole of her military force finally obliged to evacuate the county. These were, to her, disgraces that she could never contemplate with patience; and to the Americans, victories, for the obtaining of which she could never forgive them.

Hence, instead of pursuing those conciliatory measures, which might have obliterated, from the mind, of Americans, the remembrance of those wrongs which they had sustained—instead of establishing a commercial intercourse upon generous and liberal principles which might have been equally advantageous to the inhabitants of both countries, the politics adopted by the British cabinet appear to have been uniformly directed to suppress the rising power of the American nation; to render their credit suspicious, and throw every obstacle in the way of their extending commerce.

In pursuance of this selfish system, various measures, equally repugnant to justice and humanity, were then adopted, and have hitherto been uniformly pursued.

The piratical states of Algiers, who have so long harassed the nations of Europe with impunity, were excited to capture our vessels and to enslave our citizens. The western ports, contrary to the most solemn treaty, have been hitherto detained; by which, America has, for a number of years, been involved in a destructive war with the Indians.

In the British parliament, there appears, immediately after the peace, to have been several individuals disposed to treat with the Americans on terms of just and liberal policy. They would have wished to eradicate all animosities, by introducing such commercial regulations as had reciprocity for their basis, and which, if adopted, might have been equally advantageous to both countries. A bill for renewing the long-suspended intercourse with America was accordingly introduced into the house of commons. By this it was proposed, that “in order to evince the disposition of Britain to be on terms of the most perfect amity with the united states, and of a like disposition, with respect to the said states, towards Britain, the ships and vessels of the united states should be admitted into all the ports of Britain, on the same terms as those of the most favoured nations; and that goods and merchandizes on board of such ships, being the produce of the united states, should only be liable to the same duties as would have been demanded on the same goods and merchandize if shipped in British vessels, and navigated according to law.”

The bill also proposed, that the ships of the united states should have full liberty to trade with the British West Indies, to carry thither their merchandize, and to bring from thence the produce of the islands; and that they should only be subject to the same duties as were paid by British vessels in like cases.

Aware of the excellent market for British manufactures, which would have been opened, in the united states, on the passing of this bill, the merchants exerted their utmost influence to forward the measure. They were undoubtedly the best judges of what commercial regulations would have been most conducive to their own interest; and as none could have been devised more favourable to the Americans, it may be safely asserted, that, had the bill passed into a law, the consequences would have been highly advantageous to the inhabitants of both countries.

The bill, however, was too enlarged in its object for the narrow policy of the day. Private interest and general resentment, combined to defeat it, and, unfortunately, the combination was too successful.

At the time when the bill was before the house, it was urged by Mr. Eden, (now lord Auckland), that, “although reciprocity was said to be the basis, on which the bill was founded, he could see no reciprocity in it. Britain was to give every thing, and receive nothing. She had already given to the Americans, peace, trade, independence, territory, and public faith, without having obtained one single stipulation in her favour; and now, she was about to give them exclusive privileges, both in Britain and the West Indies, which they (the Americans) could not recompense by any favours that they could possibly grant in their ports. He added, that if the bill should pass, there was reason to fear, that the Americans would soon engross a very large part of the carrying-trade; a circumstance which must materially operate

to the prejudice of British commerce, and by which the nation would lose a most valuable nursery for seamen.

When the same bill was again brought before the house, Mr. Eden gave it a second opposition. He alledged, that the American independence would naturally produce great convulsions with respect to the commerce of Britain. The emigration of manufacturers, and the loss of seamen, were some of the many evils to be apprehended. "But, why," said he, "by precipitate measures, should we accelerate those evils, which it is our duty, if possible, to avert? If we design to encourage the commerce of the united states, to the prejudice of our loyal colonies, that measure will be most effectually accomplished by the bill now before the house." Instead, therefore, of the bill then under discussion, he proposed "to repeal the prohibitory acts, and to authorise the king in council, for a limited time, or until a treaty should be concluded, to make such farther regulations, and to issue occasionally such farther instructions, as might be found necessary." This plan was, in the end, adopted.

As this act was merely experimental, it was only to continue in force for a few months. It was however, renewed from time to time, till the year 1788, when the parliament, supposing that they had collected sufficient *data*, on this subject, from five years experience, passed an act which is said to contain the whole of the present law, respecting the intercourse between the British colonies and the united states. With regard to Britain, the prohibitory acts being repealed, the citizens of America were at liberty to trade on the same footing as the subjects or citizens of other independent powers. But with respect to the West-Indies, it was enacted, that no goods or commodities, the growth of the united states, except lumber, cattle, rice, bread, and some other articles of the same kind, particularly mentioned*, should be imported from any part of the united states into the British West-India islands, under the penalty of forfeiting ship and cargo. And even these articles, of which they so often stand greatly in want, were only to be brought by British subjects, in ships, their own property, and navigated by crews, two-thirds of whom must also be subjects of Britain. By this act, the same goods and commodities may be exported from the West-Indies to the united states, as are lawful to be exported to other foreign countries; but under the same restrictions, as are mentioned in the preceding article. Thus, the American shipping are completely prohibited from entering any of the British islands, to convey to them the means of subsistence; and to take, in exchange, those articles which might be ranked among superfluities†.

This selfish system, so injurious to the commercial interest of the united states, and so repugnant to those principles of sound policy, which it would have been most advantageous to Britain to have adopted, grew, as we have already observed, from the orders of the king in council, and was afterwards finally confirmed, by the parliament, in the year 1788. The motives which influenced the ministry to adopt it, were,

First. The hope of fostering their remaining American colonies, at the expense of the united states. This, it was thought, might be effectually done, by securing to them the advantages of the West-India market. It was contended, that, by proper encouragement, the provinces of St. John's, Newfoundland, and Nova Scotia, might fully supply the West India islands with lumber, and that, with some occasional aid from Britain, a sufficiency of grain might be furnished from Canada. The event

* See Reeve's law of shipping, page 352.

† To this system of prohibition, there is but one trifling exception, viz. the privilege of going to Turks Island for salt. But even here the terms of intercourse are degrading to the American merchant: as, he must send his vessel in ballast, and carry off nothing but salt, under a penalty of one hundred pounds.

however, sufficiently indicated, that these suppositions were ill founded. In the year 1787, that part of the order which had prohibited the importation of provisions and lumber into the British provinces was repealed. Accordingly, in the year 1790, eighty thousand bushels of grain, forty thousand barrels of bread and flour, and a vast quantity of lumber, were imported into these places; "an irrefragable proof," says a late intelligent historian*, "that Canada had no surplus of grain or lumber, beyond her own consumption; or, undoubtedly the Canadian market would have been referred to in preference to that of the united states. And thus," continues the same author, "vanish all the golden dreams and delusive promises of a sufficient supply from Canada and Nova Scotia to answer the wants of the West Indies; and the predictions of planters and merchants have been verified by the experience of years."

Second. The weak government of the united states, likewise operated as a plausible reason for procrastinating a commercial treaty; and, no doubt, was one inducement with the British ministry to embarrass our trade, and treat our nation with contempt. They might argue, that the general government possessed, indeed, the power of making peace and war; but had not the means to provide for the latter, nor to secure the former. It could make treaties; but could not carry them into effect. The essential and operative powers of government, resided in the individual states; and it was easy to foresee that these would not harmonize in their policy. Nor was this conclusion erroneous.

It may, however, be observed, that, if the British government had adopted a more generous procedure with respect to America, it is probable, that the defects of our former imperfect system of government would not have been so soon discovered, nor the proper remedies so speedily applied. Their injurious restrictions have, therefore, been ultimately the means, under a wise and beneficent Providence, of procuring to the united states the most essential advantage; as they were among the most effectual causes in bringing about the constitution which we now enjoy: a constitution, which, whilst it conveys no power to the magistrate, except what he ought to possess for the common good, vests him with sufficient authority to ensure obedience to the laws.

From the operation of the general causes that we have before mentioned, from the embarrassments occasioned by imprudent importation of foreign manufactures, by the ill-judged measures of most of the states, but chiefly by the unfriendly conduct of Britain, the united states, were reduced to the lowest state of political degradation. Their commerce declined, their credit was lost, arts and manufactures decayed and real property depreciated to as low a state, comparatively, as ever continental money had been. Under circumstances so embarrassing, the people became discontented. Those who had been adverse to the revolution, affected to triumph at the fulfilment of predictions which they had before made of the melancholy effects that would result from it.

Patriotism herself began to despair of the happy consequences which she had so fondly anticipated. But inquiry and consideration soon showed the causes, and pointed to the remedy of those evils which harassed the united states. The evils were various, the remedy was one, namely, an efficient federal government. The articles of confederation had served to keep the states united during the war; and the feebleness of the general government was not perceived. But on the return, of peace, when various interests, and local politics began to divide the several states, the defects in the articles of confederation were seen to be the root of the evils that deluged the united states. These defects were many and palpable. The powers which had been surrendered by the states were vested in one body; but they were by no means adequate to the wants of the united states. Congress had no authority

* History of West Indies, by Bryan Edwards, Esq. of Jamaica, page 400.

to regulate commerce; they could raise troops and build a navy, but they could levy no taxes to support the expense of them. They could pass resolutions, but had not the power of carrying them into effect. They had not the power even of putting the militia on an uniform footing throughout the united states, or of calling them forth to suppress insurrections, or to repel invasions. They had no proper courts of justice to carry treaties with foreign powers into effect, or to interpret justly their own acts; but the most radical defect was, that, by these articles, the authority of congress operated on states, and not on individuals. Feeling the pressure of so many political embarrassments, and knowing by what means they could be removed, the next step with the American people was, to give efficacy to these means. Accordingly, in the year 1785, a motion was brought forward in the house of delegates of Virginia, by Mr. Madison, to appoint commissioners, who, in concurrence with commissioners to be appointed by other states, should meet and form a system of commercial regulations, which were to be recommended for adoption to the state legislatures. This plan succeeded in part. Commissioners were appointed by several states, and met at Annapolis in the summer of 1786; but when they began their consultations, on the measures most proper to be taken, they found that the states were not generally represented, and that the authority, given by such as were, fell far short of the objects to be accomplished. They agreed, therefore, to request of congress to recommend to the different states, to send deputies to a general convention, to be held at Philadelphia, in the following year, for the purpose of devising such a form of government as would best promote the welfare and happiness of their constituents.

Agreeably to this request, congress recommended to the legislatures of the several states, a general convention, to meet at Philadelphia, in May following. At the time and place assigned, the convention met. Every state was here represented, except that of Rhode Island. General Washington was elected president. During four months, they devoted themselves assiduously to their important task; and, after comparing the various excellencies of the different governments that have existed, and endeavouring to reconcile the interfering interests of the several states, they determined to recommend the plan, which has since, by unanimous adoption, become "the constitution of the united states."

This plan they recommended to the consideration of a convention, to be called in each state, expressly for the purpose of adopting or rejecting it.

Thus submitted to the examination, and recommended to the acceptance of the American people, the plan provoked discussion. In opposition to the plan thus recommended, were ranged those who held places of high honour or profit under the state governments, and who possessed a degree of influence in the state legislatures, which their talents and information would not probably command under the general government. Others opposed it from a jealousy of their liberty, and a respect to state sovereignty, which they believed would be too much restricted by the provisions in the constitution offered to their choice. On the other hand appeared whole orders of people, who regarded it as the only means of establishing the general union, peace, and happiness. The public creditors formed a strong phalanx in support of the plan. The hope of lucrative and honourable offices influenced many others to espouse the federal cause. But it rested for its chief support on the yeomanry of the country, and their support secured its adoption. The greatest proportion of the men of talents, information, property, and independence, united their exertions in its favour. While this plan was under the consideration of the states, the newspapers were filled with speculations both for and against it. Its merits and demerits were examined and exposed. Among the various publications which appeared on the subject, the most distinguished were a series of letters addressed to the citizens of New York, under the

signature of Publius. They have been translated into French and circulated through several parts of Europe.

The plan of government recommended by the general convention, being now submitted to the people of the united states, they pursued the means, at the same time recommended, of obtaining the general opinion in regard to its adoption. The state of Delaware was the first in calling a convention; where the new constitution was unanimously approved.

Soon afterwards the convention of Pennsylvania met. Here a formidable opposition appeared. The members, from the remotest counties of the state, opposed, while those from the city, and the counties on this side of the Alleghany mountain, were friendly to it. After a contest for several weeks, the final question was taken, when two-thirds of the members voted for its adoption. The minority published their reasons of dissent. This step exasperated the rage of party, and was, in fact, one, among other causes, which produced some disturbances in the western counties of Pennsylvania. In Massachusetts the debates were conducted with more temper than they had been in Pennsylvania. On taking the question, the majority of delegates appeared to be in favour of adoption; upon which the minority declared, that as the constitution had been adopted by the major part of the convention, they would hereafter be among its most zealous supporters. When the convention of New-Hampshire met, it was found, that a number of the members had come, with express instructions from their constituents, to reject the constitution. This step had the effect to preclude any investigation of the principles and tendency of the constitution proposed to their choice. From this circumstance and from an apprehension of danger in taking the sense of the convention, at that time on the subject, an adjournment, for some months, was agreed to. Before the period of the next meeting, the sentiments of the people changed, and the convention adopted the constitution by a respectable majority.

In New-York the new constitution had a powerful opposition to encounter. The governor and many of the leading officers of the government, were its enemies. In the western counties of the state, where governor Clinton's credit was most considerable, the general opinion was adverse to the proposed form of government. The city of New-York, and most of the adjoining counties were friendly to it. The debates of the convention of New-York continued for several months. During this time, the states of Virginia and New-Hampshire adopted the constitution; which augmented the number of states to ten. This changed the ground wholly. The general government could now be organized and carried into operation without the aid of New-York. This circumstance offered a new source of argument, to the federalists; by means of which, added to those which they had before urged; they secured a majority in favour of the new constitution.

The convention of North Carolina met, and, without much deliberation, rejected it by a large majority. But, after the constitution had been adopted by eleven states, North Carolina began to think more favourably of the new government. In consequence of this, another convention was called, which adopted it by a larger majority than had before voted against it.

The legislature of Rhode-Island chose to refer the matter to the public at large, who were to take the question of adoption in town-meetings. According to this plan, the people generally met in their towns, a majority of which determined to reject the constitution. In those where there was most information, the people met and resolved not to consider the constitution in this way. They insisted that it could not regularly be taken under consideration, except by a state convention. Accordingly,

in the year 1790, one was called, which agreed to accept the new form of general government*.

By the constitution, the new congress should have met on the first of December, 1788, but circumstances prevented their forming a quorum to do business before the third of March, 1789. Here began a new era in the united states. The articles of confederation, and the old congress, now expired without a struggle, and the new constitution, with its more ample powers, and more perfect organization, rose, like the sun, after a tedious season of darkness and storms, to enlighten and bless the citizens of the united states.

Whatever difference of sentiment there might have been in regard to the principles and structure of the new government, there appeared but one sentiment in regard to the man, who should first sit at the helm of its administration. When the votes of the electors were opened by the senate of the united states, it appeared that George Washington was unanimously elected president, and John Adams, by a majority of votes, vice-president.

The government being now organized, began to put itself in motion. Congress having chosen their officers, and settled their modes of procedure, commenced their deliberations.

As the constitution of 1787, has been frequently printed, and is of considerable length, it would be alike inconvenient and unnecessary to republish it here; but we shall lay before the reader a comprehensive and concise epitome of the chief articles whereof it consists.

The legislative authority is vested in a congress of the united states; which is composed of a senate and house of representatives. The latter must be chosen every second year, by the electors in each state. A representative must be twenty-five years of age and have been for seven years a citizen of the united states. He must, when elected, be an inhabitant of the state for which he is chosen. Representatives and direct taxes are apportioned, among the states of the union, according to their respective numbers. These numbers are determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a number of years, and excluding Indians, who are not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The representatives are not to exceed one for every thirty thousand of the people; but each state shall have at least one representative, though its population may fall short of thirty thousand. The number of representatives has been augmented, since the first meeting of congress under the new constitution, in 1789. By an act of the second congress, dated the 14th of April, 1792; the number of representatives has, in con-

* The following exhibits, at one view, the order, time, &c. in which the several states ratified the federal constitution.

Delaware, - -	December, - 3,	1787,	unanimously.	
Pennsylvania, - -	December, - 13,		46 to 23	major. 23
New-Jersey, - - -	December, - 19,			unanimously.
Georgia, - - -	January - - - 2,	1788,		unanimously,
Connecticut, - - -	January - - - 9,		128 to 40	88
Massachusetts, - -	February - - - 6,		187 to 168	19
Maryland, - - -	April - - - 28,		63 to 12	51
South-Carolina, -	May - - - 23,		149 to 73	76
New-Hampshire, -	June - - - 21,		57 to 46	11
Virginia, - - -	June - - - 25,		89 to 79	10
New-York, - - -	July - - - 26,		30 to 25	5
North-Carolina, -	November - - 27,	1789,	193 to 75	118
Rhode-Island, -	May - - - 29,	1790,	by a majority of	2
Vermont, - - -	January - - 10,	1791,	by a great majority.	
Kentucky, - - -	June - - - 1,	1792,		

sequence of the census of 1791, been fixed at one for every thirty-three thousand people; and in the twenty-third section of that act, the numbers for the third congress, which met on the 2d of December, 1793, is ascertained, as follows, viz.

New-Hampshire,	-	-	-	4
Massachusetts,	-	-	-	14
Rhode-Island,	-	-	-	2
Connecticut,	-	-	-	7
Vermont,	-	-	-	2
New-York,	-	-	-	10
New-Jersey,	-	-	-	5
Pennsylvania,	-	-	-	13
Delaware,	-	-	-	1
Maryland,	-	-	-	8
Virginia,	-	-	-	19
Kentucky,	-	-	-	2
North-Carolina,	-	-	-	10
South-Carolina,	-	-	-	6
Georgia,	-	-	-	2

105.

The senate is composed of two members from each state, by the legislature of which they are chosen, for six years. There is thus a material distinction between their mode of election, and that of the representatives. They are not elected by the people, nor in proportion to the number of the people; and they continue in office for thrice the time of the representatives. The senate, when first assembled, was divided, by lot, into three classes. The seats of the first class were vacated at the end of the second year, those of the second, at the end of the fourth year, and those of the third, at the end of the sixth year; so that one-third is chosen every second year. A senator must be thirty years of age. He must have been for nine years a citizen; and, when elected, he must be an inhabitant of the state for which he is chosen.

The vice-president of the united states presides in the senate; but he has no vote, unless the senators are equally divided. The senate exclusively try all impeachments. No person shall be convicted, but by concurrence of two-thirds of the members. If the president of the united states shall be tried for his public conduct, he comes before this body. The congress shall assemble, at least once in every year, on the first Monday in December; unless they shall appoint a different day. Neither house, during the session of congress, shall, unless by mutual consent, adjourn for more than three days, or to any other place than that where they are, for the time, assembled. The members of both houses receive a compensation for their attendance, which is ascertained by law, and paid from the treasury of the federal government. This, at present, is fixed to six dollars per day, during their session, exclusive of their travelling expenses.

No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office, created, or whereof the emoluments have been increased, *during such time*. No person holding an office under the united states, can, while he holds it, be a member of congress. Bills for raising a revenue, must always originate in the house of representatives. The senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills. Every bill, after passing both houses, must, before it becomes a law, be laid before the president for his ratification. If disapproved of by him, he shall return it, with his objections. Both houses shall then re-consider it, and if it is

approved by two-thirds of the members in each house, it shall, notwithstanding the disapprobation of the president, become a law. If he does not return a bill within ten days, it becomes a law, unless congress, by an interim adjournment, prevent him from sending it to them.

The congress are empowered to lay and collect taxes, to pay the debts, and to provide for the defence and general welfare of the united states; to regulate commerce, to coin money, to fix the standard of weights and measures, to establish post-offices and post-roads, to constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court, to define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the seas, and offences against the law of nations; to declare, war, grant letters of marque, and make rules for captures by sea and land. They are authorized to raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use, shall be granted, for a longer term than two years. They may provide and maintain a navy, and make rules for the regulation and government of the land and naval forces. They may call forth the militia to execute the laws, to suppress insurrections, and repel invasions. They are to provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the united states; but the respective states are to appoint the officers, and to have authority for training the militia according to the rules prescribed by congress. They are to exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatever, over such district, not exceeding ten miles square, as may, by the cession of particular states, and the acceptance of congress, become the seat of government for the united states. They have the like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the state in which they are situated, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock yards, and other needful buildings, and to make all laws for the carrying into execution the before mentioned powers, and all other powers vested in the federal government, or in any department or officer thereof.

No bill of attainder, or *ex post facto* law, shall be passed. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state. No preference shall be given, by any regulation of commerce or revenue, to the ports of one state over those of another. No vessel bound to or from one state, shall be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another. No title of nobility shall be granted by the united states. No person, holding any office of trust or profit under them, shall, without their consent, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king or foreign state. No individual state shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederacy, grant letters of marque and reprisal, coin money, emit bills of credit, make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts, pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility. No state shall, without consent of congress, lay any imposts, or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any state, on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the united states; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of congress. No state shall, without the consent of congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger, as will not admit of delay.

The executive power is vested in a president. He holds his office for four years. A vice-president is chosen for the same term. They are elected as follows. The electors of each state meet, in the usual way, and vote by ballot for two persons. It is required that of these two, the one shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves. In every state, a list is made out of the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each. This list is certified and transmitted to the president of the senate. In presence of the senate, the lists are opened, and the votes are counted.

The person who has the greatest number of votes, is declared president, providing that the votes in his favour form a majority of the whole number of electors. If two persons have such a majority, and there be an equal number of votes in favour of each, the house of representatives shall immediately choose by ballot, one of them, for president. If no person has a majority, then, from the five, who are highest on the list, the house of representatives choose the president. But in this choice, the votes are taken by the states, each state having one vote. A majority of all the states is necessary to the choice. The president is commander in the chief of the army and navy of the united states. He has power to grant reprieves and pardons, for offences against the united states, unless in cases of impeachment. He has power to make treaties, with the advice and concurrence of two-thirds of the senators, who are present. With their advice and consent, he nominates ambassadors, public ministers, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the united states, whose appointments are not by the constitution otherwise provided for. He is authorised to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the senate, by granting commissions, which shall be vacated at the end of their next session. He may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them; he receives ambassadors and other public ministers. The president, vice-president, and all civil officers of the united states, are to be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of treason, bribery or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

The judicial power of the united states is vested in a supreme court, and in such inferior courts as congress may establish. The judges of both hold their offices during good behaviour. The judicial power extends to all cases in law and equity, to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, to all cases of admiralty and marine jurisdiction; to disputes in which the united states shall be a party, and between two or more different states, between a state, and citizens of another state; and between a state or its citizens, and foreign states, citizens or subjects.

In cases affecting ambassadors, public ministers, or consuls, and those, in which a state is a party, the supreme court have original jurisdiction. In other cases, they have a jurisdiction by appeal. Crimes, unless in cases of impeachment, are tried by jury. The trial is held within the state where the crime was committed. The citizens of each state are entitled to all the privileges of citizens in the several states. All debts contracted or engagements entered into, before the adoption of the constitution, are valid as before.

The congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several states, shall call a convention, for proposing amendments. These shall be valid, as part of the constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several states. Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion. The right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed. The right of trial by jury shall be preserved. These are some of the principal outlines of this constitution.

Since the establishment of the new constitution, the united states have been happily distinguished, by affording few materials for history. Some particular circumstances, that happened a short time previous to this event, may deserve a slight recapitulation. In 1787, Mr. Thomas Barclay, as agent for the united states, concluded a treaty of peace and commerce with the emperor of Morocco. In June, 1788, general Sevier, with a party of light horse and infantry, surpris'd a number of Cherokees and killed above twenty. Several were also drowned in attempting to escape. In September following, it was mentioned in the news papers, that the Oneida, and Onondaga Indians had transferred all their lands to the state of New-York, excepting certain tracts for themselves. They were to receive a sum of money, and a spe-

cified quantity of goods; and the former tribe were to be paid five hundred dollars annually, the latter six hundred. Emigrations to this country from Ireland had, for some years past, been extremely numerous. It was computed that ten or twelve thousand persons had, in a single season, come into the port of Philadelphia. Many of these were indented servants, who, being unable to pay their passage engaged themselves with the masters of vessels bound for America, to serve in this country, during a certain term of years. In 1788, however, the administration of Ireland determined to put an end to this commerce. On the 26th and 28th of May, two mariners were tried for the offence of enticing manufacturers to leave the kingdom. The persons who were brought in evidence against them had been reduced to necessity for want of employment at home, and wished to leave their native country only to prevent themselves from starving. The defendants were neither convicted, nor even accused, of any greater offence. Yet in virtue of a most oppressive act of parliament, they were condemned each to one year's imprisonment, and to pay a fine of five hundred pounds. These trials put an end, or very nearly so, to the practice of indenting emigrants from Ireland.

The murders by the Indians, on the back settlements, still continued; and, in January, 1789, gen. Sevier attacked and defeated a party of Creeks and Cherokees at the foot of the Apalachian mountains. An hundred and forty five of the savages were killed. The Americans lost only five men. The massacre of families on the frontier plantations, followed by reprisals of this nature, constitute since the peace of 1783, almost the whole military annals of America. The transactions are, in themselves, of no lasting importance; but they deserve some notice, in a work of this kind, as tending to mark the general situation of a great part of the north and south-western territory.

Congress held their first session under the new constitution; at New-York, on the 4th of March, 1783. They proceeded to make various regulations on the subject of restoring the public credit of the united states, and other objects of political economy. On the 29th of September, they adjourned to the 4th of January, 1790, when they met a second time at New-York. Their session continued so long as till the 12th of August following. In that month, a treaty of peace and friendship was solemnly ratified between the united states and the Creek nation. This ceremony took place at New-York, between the president, on the one part, and some chiefs of the Indians on the other. On the 30th of September, in the same year, general Harmar, with three hundred and twenty federal troops and eleven hundred and thirty-three militia gave battle to the Miami Indians by whom he was defeated. The American army lost an hundred and eighty three men killed, and thirty one wounded. About an hundred or upwards of the Indians were slain. The Miami village, containing three hundred log-houses or wigwams, with twenty thousand bushels of corn, was destroyed. Congress met, this year, on the 6th of December, and rose on the 3d of March following.

During the summer of 1791, general Scott surprised the Wabash towns. He killed about thirty Indians, took fifty prisoners, and brought with him two hundred horses loaded with peltry and other articles of plunder. The Americans lost only three men. On the 24th of October, 1791, congress commenced their third session. The president, as usual, opened the session by a speech to both houses. He began by remarking the abundance of the preceding harvest, the progressive state of agriculture, manufactures, commerce and navigation, and the general and happy effects which had been produced by the revival of public and private confidence, to which the constitution and laws of the united states had so eminently contributed. He adverted to the rapid subscriptions for the bank of the united states, which completed, in a single day, the sum allowed to be subscribed. He mentioned the plan laid down for conciliating the friendship of the savages; the basis of which was a strict ad-

herence to the dictates of justice and humanity. The act for laying a duty on distilled spirits, had been, he said, attended with some difficulty, from the want of experience in the federal government, to make the proper arrangements; and in some parts of the union, there had been a misconception of its provisions; but he entertained no doubt that the discontent produced from it would be removed by a proper explanation of the law. The president next observed, that, agreeably to several acts on that subject, a district of ten miles square, for the permanent seat of the government of the united states had been fixed upon, and announced by proclamation; that the district comprehended lands on both sides of the Patowmac, and the towns of Alexandria and Georgetown; that a city had accordingly been laid out, and that there was every reason to expect a due progress in the buildings. He also informed the two houses, that the census of the inhabitants of the united states, had been almost completed, and afforded the pleasing assurance that the present population bordered on four millions of persons. He concluded by recommending to their particular attention, the supporting of the militia on an effective plan; the administration of the post-office; extension and improvement of the post-roads, the necessity for a public mint; an uniformity of weights and measures; and a provision for the sale of the vacant lands of the united states.

The hopes entertained of being able to accommodate the disputes with the Indians were not altogether well founded. On the 4th of November, 1791, general St. Clair, with the army of the united states, was attacked by surprise, about day-break, fifteen miles from the Miami village. After a contest of four hours, the Indians were every where victorious, and the Americans accomplished a retreat with the loss of forty-six officers and six hundred privates, their whole baggage, and eight pieces of artillery. It was afterwards said, that twelve hundred Canadians, disguised like Indians, fought in this battle.

On the 8th of May, 1792, the congress adjourned till the first Monday of November thereafter. During the summer there was no remarkable or important event. A series of massacres, were, as formerly, committed on the frontiers. On the 6th of November, 1792, the president opened the session of congress, by a speech. The greater part of it respected the unfortunate endeavours to terminate the Indian hostilities. The president farther observed, that considerable loans had been obtained for the service of the united states, at Antwerp, and at Amsterdam, on very reasonable terms, which afforded a pleasing evidence of the increasing credit of the new government. On the 2d of March, 1793, the congress adjourned. On the 8th of April following, the Embuscade, a French frigate of forty guns, commanded by captain Bompard, arrived at Charleston in South Carolina from Rochfort in France. She brought citizen Genet, as minister plenipotentiary from the executive council of France to the president and congress of the united states. On the 22d of April, the president published a proclamation enjoining a strict neutrality on the part of the citizens of the united states in the present contest between the maritime powers; and warning those who should venture to infringe it, that they would be prosecuted with severity. Several addresses were presented to the president, thanking him, in warm terms, for this mark of his attention to the public tranquility, and to the preservation of the neutrality of America. Many persons were, however offended at this measure, as they conceived that there was in it some deficiency of respect and gratitude to the republic of France, a nation to whom the united states were highly indebted for their independence. Citizen Genet, on the 17th of May, arrived at Philadelphia. The conduct of this ambassador is entirely unexampled in the history of civilized nations. It was not till the day, upon which the proclamation of the president was published, forbidding the American citizens to violate the neutrality, that the government first heard of his arrival. They were then informed, but only by the medium of the news-

papers, that citizen Genet was appointed minister plenipotentiary from France to the united states, and that he had landed; a fortnight before that time, at Charleston. By the same channel, they soon after learned that he had sent on to Philadelphia, the frigate in which he came, and would himself perform his journey by land. His landing at one of the most distant ports of the union from the places both of his departure and destination, was calculated to excite some surprise; but his behaviour after his arrival, was much more extraordinary. The American executive at Philadelphia, were soon informed that he had engaged in occupations very different from the ostensible objects of his mission. Instead of coming forward to present himself and his credentials to the president, and obtain admission in his diplomatic capacity, he had commenced an active career at Charleston. He undertook to authorize the fitting out and arming of vessels in that port. He enlisted men, both foreigners and citizens. He gave them commissions to cruise and commit hostilities against the vessels of England and other nations at war with France indeed, but who were, at the same time, in peace with the united states. These vessels had actually begun to take and bring into American ports, the ships of those nations. The consuls of France held courts of admiralty, tried and condemned them, and authorized their sale, as legal prizes. All these proceedings went on under the auspices of citizen Genet in direct contradiction to the state of peace then existing and declared to exist in the president's proclamation and which the president was bound to preserve, till the constitutional authority had declared it broken. These proceedings, as might have been foreseen and expected, became instantly the objects of complaint and remonstrance from the British minister at Philadelphia. Mr. Hammond had, previous to the 15th of May, 1793, presented several memorials on this head. In one of these memorials, it was stated, that arms and military accoutrements were then buying up by a French agent in the united states, with an intention of exporting them to France. To this the American government replied, that the citizens had always been free to make, sell, and export arms; that it was the constant occupation and livelihood of some of them, and that to suppress their professions, because a war subsisted in foreign countries, could scarcely be expected. It was unjust in principle, and impossible in practice. But that the Americans had received a fair warning by the late proclamation. If any such cargo fell into the hands of a foreign power, on its way to the ports of another nation, with whom the former was at war, no redress or protection could be expected from the government of the united states.

Another complaint was relative to the British ship *Grange*, which had been captured by the *Embascade* within the Delaware. The American government were of opinion, that this capture was clearly within their jurisdiction. Mr. Randolph, the attorney-general of the united states made a statement of the grounds of this determination, and this statement, with a copy of the memorials made by Mr. Hammond, the British envoy was transmitted by Mr. Jefferson, then American secretary of state, to M. Ternant, minister plenipotentiary of France, at Philadelphia. The letter enclosing them was dated the 15th of May, 1793, just two days before citizen Genet made his appearance in this city. Even at this time, therefore, the seeds of future controversy had been completely planted. On his arrival at Philadelphia, the new French ambassador was welcomed by the great body of the people, with every demonstration of joy. A few days after his arrival, he had a conference with Mr. Jefferson. He requested leave to explain and vindicate his conduct in a letter on the subject; and concluded by observing, that if the president should finally decide against his right of arming privateers, he must submit; for that assuredly, his instructions were to do what was agreeable to the American government. On the 27th of May, he sent a letter to Mr. Jefferson, on the complaints preferred by the British minister. As to his own conduct at Charleston, he speaks of it in

“It is certain that several vessels have been armed at Charleston; that they have received from me commissions of the republic, agreeably to the forms I have had the honour to communicate to you, and that these vessels, dispatched to sea with great celerity, have made many prizes, have condemned to inaction, by the terror which they have spread among the English, almost all the sailors and vessels of that nation which were in the ports of the united states, and by their success, have very sensibly raised the freight of American vessels.”—He adds, “the vessels armed at Charleston belong to French houses; they are commanded and manned by French citizens, or by Americans, who, at the moment they entered the service of France, in order to defend their brothers and friends, knew only the treaties and the laws of the united states.” The last part of this sentence glanced at the proclamation of the president, prohibiting such engagements by American citizens. He subjoins, that before the delivery of the letters of marque to the French privateers, he had submitted this question to the governor of South Carolina; that his opinion coincided with his own; and that the vessels put to sea, in spite of all the intrigues which the partizans of England put in action to oppose them. As to the ship *Grange*, citizen Genet said, that tho’ of considerable value, he had, in deference to the opinion of the attorney general, caused her to be given up. This letter produced an answer from Mr. Jefferson, and a reply from citizen Genet. The president persisted in denying the right of the French ambassador to fit out armed vessels. The latter continued to defend it. Genet possessed plausible talents. He was a complete master of the English language; and he had acquired, almost in an instant, a prodigious ascendancy over the minds of the public. At the same time the proclamation of the president for the preservation of neutral rights, was regarded as pusillanimous, if not illegal, by those ardent spirits, whose zeal for the liberties of mankind, overpowered all considerations arising from the miseries and the danger in which a war would infallibly involve their country. In reality, this ambassador became for some months, almost the sole topic of conversation. This tide of popular applause undoubtedly emboldened him to adopt a stile, which he would not otherwise have assumed.

In this situation of affairs it is not wonderful, that mutual misunderstandings multiplied. On the 1st of June, 1793, the French minister addressed a letter to Mr. Jefferson, wherein he complained that Gideon Henfield, and John Singletary, two officers in the service of the French republic, had been arrested on board of the citizen Genet, a French privateer, in the Delaware, and committed to prison. In reply, he was informed that Henfield was in custody of the civil magistrate, over whom the executive had no controul and that he would have a fair trial by a jury of his countrymen. An opinion by the attorney-general, was enclosed. In this it was stated, that Henfield was punishable on various grounds. He had, as far as in him lay, violated the treaties of peace between Spain, England, Holland, and America. The attorney-general farther questioned the right of citizen Genet to interfere in this transaction. The case of Singletary came under the same description. Henfield was some time after tried at Philadelphia. The attention of the citizens was excited to the utmost height. An immense croud surrounded the court house during the day of the trial. The jury acquitted Henfield. On the 14th of June, the French minister lodged another complaint with the secretary of state. The ship *William*, and the brig *Active*, prizes to the citizen Genet, were, with their cargoes, put up to sale, in the port of Philadelphia. A deputy marshal of the court of admiralty of the united states attended the sale, and informed the bidders, that it was not valid. The Republican, a French privateer, had been fitted out at New York for the express purpose of cruising against the enemies of the republic. She was detained by the governor of that state, who appointed a detachment of militia to take possession of her. These pro-

ceedings were represented by the minister of France, as injurious to the friendship that subsisted between the two nations. With regard to the detention of the privateer, Mr. Jefferson, by a letter of the 17th of June, informed him, that the president had ordered prosecutions to be commenced against all persons concerned in the adventure, whether aliens or citizens. In the first instance, of Henfield and Singletary, he had been desirous to involve as few individuals as possible in the censure of the law. But the second offence was committed after a full knowledge of what had been done in the first, and hence indicated a disposition to go on in contradiction to the laws. It was therefore determined to enforce their full rigour. To support his principles, Mr. Jefferson quoted Vattel and Wolf. Another French prize, the Catharine of Halifax, was soon after stopt at New-York, and gave rise to fresh complaints. A new source of discontent arose. Genet wanted money from the treasury of the united states, in part payment of their debt to France. The demand was made with some abruptness, and it was not found convenient for the American government to comply with it. On the 23d of June, Mr. Jefferson gave notice to citizen Genet, that a privateer, fitted out in the state of Georgia, for the British service, had been arrested by the governor, in consequence of the general orders of the president. Genet, in answer, adverted to several cases, where, in his opinion, the same vigilance had not been observed. Mr. Jefferson replied, that, with one exception, the Swallow, an English letter of marque, at New-York, the observation did not apply; and as to this case, it should be submitted to the president. Genet fitted out the Little Democrat, as a French privateer, and intimated, on the 9th of July, to Mr. Jefferson that she was to receive a commission from him, for the service of the republic. Several other matters of disgust and controversy arose, till at last, the president determined to refer the question to persons learned in the laws. In the mean time, to act with impartiality between the British and French ministers, he resolved, that nine French vessels, either privateers fitted out in the united states, or prizes made by such privateers, and which were specified to citizen Genet in a letter from Mr. Jefferson, dated the 12th of July, should be detained. One of these vessels was the little Democrat, which, without any regard to this injunction, went immediately out of the Delaware on a cruise. On the 4th of August, Genet intimated to the American secretary, that certain aristocratical citizens of St. Domingo, lately arrived in the united states, were preparing for a military expedition against that island. The preparations were to be made within the state of Maryland; and the governor of that state received from the American executive, the necessary orders to prevent it.

In the beginning of August, there happened, off the coast of North America, a desperate action between the Ambuscade, and the Boston, an English frigate, in which the latter was worsted. About this time a party of militia were sent down to fort Mifflin, by the governor of Pennsylvania, to prevent privateers of different nations from violating the laws of neutrality. Genet having gone to New York, a report was soon after spread, that he had threatened to appeal from the president to the people, on the points in agitation between them. This story gave occasion to much newspaper controversy. On the 13th of August, Genet, in a letter to the president, dated from New-York, solicited, in strong terms, a vindication from having said so personally to him. In reply, Mr. Jefferson, by a letter of the 16th of August, gave him to understand, that the president declined to interfere in the dispute. This augmented the suspicion that the charge was true. Such a state of diplomatic hostility could not be expected to hold out long, without coming to a crisis. Accordingly, on the 16th of August, Mr. Jefferson addressed to Mr. Morris, the American ambassador in France, a long letter, soliciting from the republic a recall of their minister. A copy of this letter was, at the same time, transmitted to Genet himself. After so full a detail, as has been already given of the proceedings of this gentleman, it seems needless to enlarge farther on the grounds of his recall. The yellow fever,

which broke out soon after at Philadelphia, put a temporary suspension to the correspondence of the ministers, while the general attention was engrossed by that great calamity. On the 10th of October, the president withdrew his protection from citizen Duplaine as vice-consul for the republic of France, in the port of Boston. The cause assigned was, his "having under the colour and protection of the said office, committed sundry encroachments and infractions on the laws of the land; and particularly, having caused a vessel to be rescued, with an armed force, out of the custody of an officer of justice." Genet remonstrated in warm terms. He requested that citizen Duplaine might be examined by the legislature of Massachusetts. He observed, that the attorney-general for the district of Boston, had made three efforts to procure a bill, to be found at the court, against the vice-consul, and that three times a *virtuous* jury threw out his complaint; and Duplaine was finally acquitted in the most honourable manner. This desire was refused. On the 14th of November, Genet requested Mr. Randolph, attorney general for the united states, to prosecute, at the ensuing federal court, Mr. Jay, the chief justice, and Mr. King, a senator of the united states. The charge against them was, they had certified to the public, in a newspaper, that Genet had declared his intention to appeal from the president to the people. The proposal was declined, of which the minister made loud complaints. The report was soon after traced up to its source. The gentleman, with whom it finally rested, gave an explanation that took away its force, and left, on messrs. Jay and King, an imputation of temerity at least.

On the 2d of December, 1793, the third congress of the united states commenced their first session. The president, in his speech to both houses, expressed a grateful sense of the confidence that he enjoyed in being again chosen to that office. He recited the precautions that had been taken to avoid a rupture with any of the powers at war; and for conciliating the dispositions of the Indians. On the 5th of December he sent a message to the house of the representatives, which stated that although the representative and executive bodies of the French nation had generally manifested a friendly disposition to the united states, yet the person unfortunately appointed their minister plenipotentiary, had breathed nothing of the friendly spirit of the nation which sent him. His proceedings had uniformly tended "to involve us in war abroad, and discord and anarchy at home." He hoped that the French government would not long suffer the united states to remain exposed to the *allion* of a person, who had so little respected the mutual dispositions of the two countries*.

In the end of November, the British privateers began to capture American vessels in the West-Indies. The pretence was, that they were loaded with French property. The seizures were, in many cases, accompanied with the meanest rapacity and the most savage barbarity. Many insults, and even outrages, had, in the summer of 1793, been committed on the American flag, in the West-Indies, by British ships of war; but these former aggressions bore no proportion to that tempest of piracy, which, at this time, suddenly-burst on the commerce of the united states. In the course of a few months, some hundreds of American merchantmen were seized, and, with their cargoes, confiscated; for the most part, on pretences utterly frivolous and false, and with circumstances which made a mockery of decency and of justice.

About the 11th of December, intelligence was likewise received at Philadelphia,

* On the 20th of January, 1794, the president sent a message to the house of representatives respecting the French minister. His conduct had been unequivocally disapproved; his recall was promised and soon after arrived. Citizen Genet had been connected with the Brissotine party; and the humane feelings of the reader will be gratified by hearing that he chose to remain in this country. He had been sufficiently zealous to serve the republic, and, in one of his letters, printed by order of congress, he mentions, that the privateers, fitted out by his directions, had taken more than fifty English vessels.

from Lisbon, that in the beginning of October, several Algerine corsairs had passed the straits of the Mediterranean, and captured a considerable number of American ships in the Western Ocean. In July, 1785, these barbarians had made prizes of two vessels on the Atlantic, belonging to the united states, and the survivors of their crews are still in captivity. But since the period, the gut of Gibraltar had been constantly blockaded up by the Portuguese, who were at war with the Algerines. The occasion of the present attack on our commerce, from that quarter, has never yet been fully understood; but the following causes are generally admitted as having given rise to it. Since the commencement of the unfortunate war, which, at present, spreads desolation and bankruptcy over so great a part of Europe, American ships, because they were neutral, obtained the preference in the carrying trade to those of England. They were not liable to be seized by French privateers, which were, in every part of the ocean, spreading extensive and terrible ravages. American shipping could therefore, unmolested, transport the commodities of any one country to another. This advantage gave our vessels a decided preference, and an American shipmaster frequently received twenty *per cent.* more for the same freight, than would be given to the captain of an English vessel. This humiliating distinction alarmed the pride and jealousy of the English nation. Divested of the carrying-trade, the naval despotism of England would shrink into a shadow. Though the Americans, for some time past, have been making rapid strides towards her expulsion from this branch of navigation, yet England could hardly venture, at this critical juncture, upon adding a second republic to the catalogue of her enemies. But there was a different way of attaining the same purpose. A truce was suddenly negotiated between the day of Algiers and the court of Portugal. From the nature of the business, explicit evidence cannot be produced; that this truce was expressly made by the intervention of England, in order that the corsairs might be turned loose upon the American commerce; but that this had been the real motive and origin of the transaction, was, at once, believed all over the continent, and has, in the end, been hardly, if at all, denied by the warmest partizans of Britain. The pirates, when the Portuguese fleet quitted the straits, instantly rushed through them, and captured several American vessels, the crews of which, to the amount of about an hundred and twenty persons, are, at this time, slaves in Algiers. That this truce did not originate in any very earnest endeavours on the part of the court of Lisbon is evident, since the queen of Portugal has long since been dissatisfied with the terms of it; and her fleet has, for several months past, again blockaded the entrance of the Mediterranean. This previous explanation became necessary, for rendering intelligible the subsequent debates of congress. A great part of the members proceeded upon a conviction that the truce with Portugal, and the consequent hostilities against America, were the result of English gold, and English jealousy. Indeed, the conduct of that nation, both in the West Indies, and in Canada, hath so very much resembled that of the Algerines, that their political reputation can gain or lose but little by the supposition, whether true or false.

On the 3d of January, 1794, Mr. Madison laid on the table of the house of representatives, seven resolutions. As the basis on which they were founded, this gentleman held out a report which had been given to the house, a few days before, by Mr. Jefferson, previous to his resignation as secretary of state. This report respected the situation of American commerce, with regard to foreign countries, as to privileges and restrictions. The first of these resolutions, which have since attracted such universal attention, was for imposing an additional duty of *per cent. ad valorem*, on the importation of a great variety of manufactures from nations *having no commercial treaty with the united states*. The second was for laying an additional duty of *per ton*, on the shipping of such states. We have not room to detail the whole of the resolutions, of

which these two were the most important; for on them rested the strength of the subsequent discussion. The design of these resolutions was very easily discovered. Britain had, ever since the end of the war, declined entering into any commercial treaty with the united states. She had afforded many other causes of complaint, and the real object of this measure was to compel her to come to some terms of accommodation, or to proscribe her manufactures and shipping almost entirely from the American market. The substance of the business was, in a future day, briefly, but emphatically stated by Mr. Clark, of New-Jersey. He observed, that we might say to the British; "You have not restored the negroes whom you stole at the end of the war. You have not given up the western posts. You have turned loose the Indians and Algerines. You incessantly rob our ships on the high seas; or confiscate them after a burlesque trial in your West-India harbours. You are not to commit such ravages with impunity. We shall have nothing to do with your manufactures or with yourselves."

Mr. Madison introduced his resolutions, by observing, that the experience of several years had proved the present commercial system of America to be far from producing the end proposed by it. The united states enjoyed, by nature, the most advantageous situation of perhaps any country in the world for supporting an independent trade. We ought to contract our commercial connexions with those foreign nations, who treated us unfavourably, and extend them with those, by whom we were kindly used. In a struggle of this sort, we must possess very great advantages over every country with which we trade. Our exports consist of necessaries of life, or of raw materials for manufactures supported in Europe. On the other hand, a great part of our imports consists of luxuries, which we can want; but the manufacturers of Europe cannot want us. A day was named for taking the report of Mr. Jefferson into consideration. On the 13th of January, the subject was resumed, and the debates which it occasioned were continued, with intervals, for some weeks. The discussion had at least one beneficial effect, that of a large addition to the general stock of commercial information. As it is quite impossible to give, in this place, an analysis of the arguments employed on each side, we shall very briefly state a few select facts which appear to be interesting, and which are not commonly known.

Mr. Madison presented a comparative view of the American and foreign tonnage, employed in the respective branches of American commerce, in 1790. They stood thus:

Spain, as	-	-	-	1	to	5
Portugal,	-	-	-	1	to	6
The United Netherlands,				1	to	15
Denmark,	-	-	-	1	to	12
France,	-	-	-	1	to	5
Britain,	-	-	-	5	to	1

Another account of the present actual tonnage, but liable to some objections, was as follows:

Spain,	-	-	-	1	to	16
Portugal,	-	-	-	1	to	17
United Netherlands,	-	-	-	1	to	26
Denmark,	-	-	-	1	to	15
Russia,	-	-	-	1	to	14
France,	-	-	-	1	to	between 4 and 5
Britain, nearly as				3	to	1

By this last estimate, the entire trade between Britain and America employs two hundred and twenty-two thousand tons. Of this, Britain had one hundred and fifty-six thousand tons, and nine thousand three hundred and sixty seamen, and America sixty-six thousand tons, and three thousand six hundred and ninety seamen. The united states consume British manufactures to double the value of what Britain takes from us, and quadruple the amount of what she consumes. One half of her imports from America are exported again, by her, to other nations of Europe. These customers, if British vessels were proscribed, would come to this country for themselves, or employ American bottoms. By an authentic document, it appeared, that in 1790, the manufactured articles, imported into the united states, amounted to fifteen millions two hundred and five thousand, six hundred and thirty eight dollars, and ninety-seven cents. Of these, we received from or through the medium of Britain, to the value of thirteen millions, nine hundred and sixty five thousand, four hundred and sixty-four dollars and ninety five cents. France consumes a greater quantity of our produce than Britain. Yet the manufactures imported in 1790, from France, amounted to no more than one hundred and fifty-five thousand one hundred and thirty-six dollars and sixty three cents. Thus, though France was a better customer than Britain to the united states, yet our imports from the former were only equal to one ninetieth part of those from the latter. This was one of the improper circumstances which the new regulations were to correct. To give a fuller view of our foreign commerce Mr. Madison stated the balances with the several nations of Europe, and their dominions, as follow :

	Dollars.
Spain, - - -	1,670,797 in favour of the united states.
Portugal, - - -	1,687,699 ditto.
United Netherlands, - - -	791,118 ditto.
Sweden, - - -	32,965 ditto.
France, - - -	2,630,387 ditto.
Denmark, - - -	126,949 against the united states.
Britain, - - -	5,922,012 ditto.

Mr. Madison specified a great number of very arbitrary and oppressive prohibitions and restrictions to which American products are subjected in the British market. Wheat and flour, for example, are prohibited, till the price has risen to six shillings and three pence sterling per bushel. In France, these staple articles are permitted at the trifling duty of one-eighth *per cent.* Many other commodities are in a like situation. Gratitude requires that we should make some discrimination in return, to favour French manufactures.

The encouragement of our carrying-business is, in a high degree, interesting to every one of the united states. This will appear from the following facts. It is to be observed that Britain; which at present possesses so great a part of it, has been within an hundred years, from 1689 to 1789, at war during forty-two years, with other nations of Europe, which is about three years out of seven. This very considerably raises the rate of freight in her shipping.

	Dollars,
The whole annual exports of the united states may be stated at	25,000,000
Britain carries two-fifths of these in value, that is to say, -	10,000,000
Freight and insurance on this, in times of peace, about twenty two and one-half per cent. -	2,250,000
The same charges in war are very various, according to the circumstances of the war ; we may say, however, fifty-five per cent.	5,500,000

Dollars.

The difference between freight and insurance, in peace and war, then,
is annually - - - - - 3,250,000

Taxed on our agriculture by British wars, during their continuance, and by our dependence on British bottoms.

In every term of seven years, therefore, America pays three times three millions two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. This, upon an average, is annually and constantly one million three hundred and ninety thousand eight hundred and fifty seven dollars more than she would pay, if her own shipping were competent to the transportation of her own productions. Besides, many bulky articles cannot bear the expense of a war freight, so that their total loss is to be added to that before estimated.

In 1791, the tobacco exported to Britain, was sixty seven thousand two hundred and eighty six hogsheads. The return for another year states the quantity at fifty two thousand five hundred and five hogsheads. From the revenue returns of Britain, it appears, that the annual home consumption of this article was about nine thousand six hundred hogsheads. Thus, five sixths of the quantity imported into Britain were again exported to other nations. If British navigation were laid aside by us, these nations would export it for themselves, in their own vessels, or in those of the united states.

Of rice, the medium quantity imported by Britain from this country, in 1792, was two hundred and ninety-four thousand eight hundred and ninety weight. Of this quantity more than one-half is re-exported.

The total quantity of tobacco, annually exported from America, is about an hundred thousand hogsheads. Of these, France consumes about twenty-five thousand, which is not much less than three times the quantity used in Britain.

Of the flour and grain exported to Britain, there is not more than one-fourth part consumed in the country. The rest is re-exported; and chiefly to France. Mr. Madison was of opinion, that in the actual consumption of our products, France exceeded Britain by near a million of dollars per annum.

He went into a summary of the annual losses sustained by this country from the injustice and restless ambition of England. After illustrating the various topics of expense, he read the following account of damages received annually by America.

	Dollars.
Indian war, - - - - -	1,000,000
The loss of the fur-trade, - - - - -	200,000
Dependence on British bottoms, by which the insurance, as above stated, was, upon an average, raised annually, - - - - -	1,390,000
New articles for the year 1793. Algerine depredations, - - - - -	600,000
Insurance raised by ditto, - - - - -	200,000
British depredations in the West-Indies, - - - - -	150,000
N. B. These piracies were continued, for a long time after, and have since been estimated from two to four millions of dollars.	
Consequent detriment to our trade, - - - - -	400,000
	<hr/>
Total loss, in 1793, by Britain.	3,940,000

Mr. Ames opposed the resolutions of Mr. Madison. He thought that the shipping of America was already increasing with sufficient rapidity. To counteract the effect of the British navigation-act, we had laid on British vessels, a higher tonnage than ours pay in their ports. What is more effectual, we have imposed ten *per cent.* on the duties, when the dutied articles are borne in foreign bottoms. We have also made

the coasting trade a monopoly to our own vessels. To prove the great importance of these regulations, and the rapid augmentation of American shipping, Mr. Ames read the following statement.

Tonnage.	Tons.	Excess of
American, 1789,	297,468	American
Foreign,	265,116	tonnage.
		32,352
American, 1790,	347,663	
Foreign,	258,916	
		88,747
American, 1791,	363,810	
Foreign,	240,799	
		123,011
American, 1792,	415,330	
Foreign,	244,263	
		171,067

It was expected that the prohibition of the American market would have a ruinous effect on English manufactures, and so force the court of London to give us our own terms. To this position, Mr. Ames could not agree. In 1792, Britain exported manufactures to the value of eighteen millions three hundred and ten thousand pounds sterling. Of these America did not take a sixth-part. Her British imports are less than three millions sterling. He judged that this defalcation could not have any decisive consequences on the public measures of England.

Mr. Jeremiah Wadsworth opposed the resolutions on a different ground. There were law suits at present depending before the British courts of admiralty, at the instance of American merchants, to recover the property seized by British privateers. He was convinced, that if the resolutions were adopted, the merchants never would recover a farthing from the British judges, of the immense sums claimed, which were said to be one million of dollars; consequently these merchants would be ruined. The resolutions would drive a great proportion of our shipping out of employment; but this he did not consider as a misfortune, for *there is a much greater proportion of the mercantile capital of America engaged in that business, than can be for the advantage of the country.*

Mr. Scott put the question in a very plain light, as to the inconvenience that America would suffer from the want of British manufactures. The United States contain at least four millions and a half of people: Upon an average their bedding and clothing is at least ten dollars per head annually, or in whole, forty-five millions of dollars. Where do all these manufactures come from? Suppose that British imports were two millions sterling, and one half of them in clothing, the amount was but four millions and five hundred thousand dollars, or one-tenth part of the annual consumption. There is no danger that we should be at a loss, on this account.

After a discussion of several weeks, the first resolution was carried in a committee of the whole house, by a small majority. In the mean time, the danger from British depredations augmented with such rapidity, that the whole business was laid aside to make room for a more prompt motion. This was partly grounded on additional instructions, that had been given by the British ministry at St. James's, on the 6th of November, 1793. They were kept secret for a considerable time, and did not appear in the Philadelphia newspapers, till the 7th of March, 1794. The tenor of them was, that the commanders of British ships of war and privateers "should stop and detain all ships laden with goods, the produce of any colony belonging to France, or carrying any provisions or other supplies to any such colony, and should bring the same to legal adjudication in the British courts of admiralty." These instructions were instantly followed

by the seizure of an immense number of American vessels. It was generally thought, that they had been for a long time reserved from publication, even while the British cruisers acted upon their authority, lest the united states might take the alarm, and keep their ships within their own harbours. Several memorials on these piracies having been presented to congress, Mr. Dayton, on the 27th of March, 1794 moved two resolutions in the house of representatives. They were in these words. "Resolved that provision ought to be made by law, for the *sequestration* of all the debts due from the citizens of the united states to the subjects of the king of great Britain."

"Resolved that provision ought, in a like manner, to be made for securing the payment of all such debts into the treasury of the united states, there to be held as a pledge for the indemnification of such of the citizens of the united states, as shall have suffered from the ships of war, privateers, or from any person or description of persons acting under the commission or authority of the British king, in contravention of the laws of nations, and in violation of the rights of neutrality."

Many objections were made, not only to the expediency, but the *morality* of this scheme. By the resolutions of Mr. Madison, fifty or an hundred thousand manufacturers would perhaps have been cast idle; but by the present resolutions, six or eight millions sterling would at once have been abstracted from the commercial capital of Britain. This might have been a fatal stroke to that country; but the opposition proved so strong, that it was dropt; and an expedient, in the middle course between this, and the resolutions of Mr. Madison, was proposed in its stead.

About the 25th of March there arrived in Philadelphia, a copy of a new set of instructions to commanders of ships of war, published by the king of Britain. The orders of the 6th of November were, with peculiar meanness, kept from the knowledge of the British nation, till intelligence came to London, that in consequence of these orders, the American shipping in the West Indies had been seized by the British privateers. Had this treatment been restricted to a few smuggling vessels it would have caused no alarm; but a general attack on the property of the united states filled the merchants of London with great and well founded consternation. They expected nothing but a general confiscation of British debts in the united states, with an immediate declaration of war. A meeting was instantly held, by gentlemen concerned in the American trade, and a deputation waited on one of the secretaries of state. They represented the orders of the 6th of November, 1793. in their genuine colours of rashness and atrocity. They received an assurance from the ministry, that these orders should be revoked, in so far as the united states were entitled to complain of them; and the second set of instructions, dated the 8th of January, 1794, were accordingly issued. About the end of March, a letter was received at Boston, from a mercantile house in London, with a copy of this paper inclosed. It was dispatched by an express to Philadelphia, where a copy of the same orders had arrived a few days before. It was then loudly asserted, that the new orders had absolutely repealed the former instructions; and Mr. Dayton having, just about this time, made his proposal for sequestrating British property, it was, as above observed, reprobated with great violence. Much was said about the justice and magnanimity of Britain. It was affirmed, that the former orders must have been issued from inadvertency, and an immediate and complete indemnification for all the depredations in the West-Indies was spoken of as a certain event. The extreme exultation betrayed, at this juncture, was both pusillanimous and absurd. It was mean to exult in receiving as a favour, what America was entitled to demand as a *right*. It was absurd to say, that there was any favour granted; for never was the attention of mankind more completely burlesqued, than by these additional instructions. On a second and sober perusal, they were found to be of nearly the same purport with their predecessors of the 6th of November. They had, indeed, a single variation, which afforded no fertile field for panegyric or gratitude.

If an American vessel was acquitted in a British court of admiralty, she was to be dismissed, *subject only to charges*. By this regulation it was supposed, that the king of England had a right to seize and detain any foreign vessel for whatever time his cruisers thought fit, and so much longer, as till they were paid for the expenses of that very seizure, which their own judges declared to be *unwarrantable!* Every day brought an account of fresh piracies; and so little were circumstances mended by these new instructions, that on the 12th of May thereafter, Mr. Smith, of South Carolina, who was a zealous friend to moderate measures, declared in the house of representatives, that even then, the second orders had produced no alteration for the better.

In the mean time, various measures had been adopted for the safety of the country. A bill to provide a naval armament against the Algerines, passed on the 10th of March, in the house of representatives. It was to consist of four ships, of forty four guns each, and two of thirty-six guns. The sum estimated for the expense of this squadron was six hundred thousand dollars. A wide difference of opinion prevailed in the house, upon this measure. It was opposed by the greater part of the gentlemen, who had espoused the resolutions of Mr. Madison. The yeas were 50; nays 39. The bill went through the senate, and the building of the frigates has since been begun.

On the 25th of March, a motion passed in the house of representatives for an embargo during thirty days, on all shipping bound to any foreign port. On the 26th, it was assented to by the senate, and, on the same day, signed by the president. It was received by the public at large with universal satisfaction.

On the 31st of March, the house resolved that an additional corps of eight hundred artillery-men should be raised for garrisoning the fortifications that may be erected for the defence of the sea-coasts. Also, that the president should be empowered to call on the executives of the several states, to take effectual measures for organizing eighty thousand effective militia, officers included. A bill to this purpose went through both houses, and was signed on the 9th of May by the president.

On the 17th of April, a continuation of the embargo was agreed to by the house of representatives, till the 25th of May following. The resolution passed the senate and was signed by the president next day.

On the 21st of April a resolution passed the house of representatives, "that from and after the first of November next, all commercial intercourse should be prohibited between the united states and the subjects of Britain, or the citizens or subjects of any other nation, as far as respects articles of the growth or manufacture of Britain or Ireland." This resolution was intended as a substitute for the proposed sequestration of British debts; and it must have had a ruinous effect upon the mercantile credit of Britain. In less than a year of hostilities against the republic of France, one half of the foreign commerce of England had been destroyed, and bankruptcies had taken place to the extent of twenty or thirty millions sterling. The trade with America, which had formerly composed only one *sixth* part of the British commerce, may now be safely rated at one-third, or at least one-fourth part of it. A bill, in consequence of the above resolution, was brought in; and on the 25th of April, it was finally carried in the house of representatives; but it was, on the 28th, rejected by the senate. On the 30th, a resolution was brought forward for indemnifying the citizens of the united states, who had suffered by British depredations in the West-Indies. The mover, Mr. Goodhue, had opposed all the modes of indemnification proposed at the expense of Britain. His motion was for that time withdrawn. On the 15th of May, it was again brought forward, and by a majority of fifty-seven against thirty-one, it was referred to the committee of the whole house, to whom were likewise referred certain propositions for the sequestration of British debts.

On the 8th of May, a motion was made and negatived in the senate, for suspending the fourth article of the treaty of peace with Britain. This article respects the pay-

ment of debts due to British subjects. On the 12th of May, a motion was made in the house of representatives, that the embargo should continue till the 20th of June; but it was negatived by a majority of seventy-three against thirteen. The embargo was therefore suffered to expire on the 25th current. As one reason for taking it off, Mr. Wadsworth remarked, that a million of bushels of salt were still wanted to complete the supply of the united states, for the present season; and that they would cost a million of dollars dearer, unless the embargo was removed. On this occasion, a letter and memorial were read in congress, which had been transmitted from Charleston. The memorial was subscribed by forty-eight merchants and others, inhabitants of Charleston, who had suffered by British depredations. The subscribers complained much of the slowness and timidity of congress in avenging such an accumulation of insults and outrages. They stated, that

	Dollars.
Their own vessels and cargoes, actually condemned, amounted to	226,403
Ditto detained	188,975
Ditto liable to loss under the instructions of the British cabinet	307,735
	<hr/>
Total:	723,113

It was stated by another member, that there had been condemned nineteen vessels belonging to the port of Salem, which, with their cargoes, were valued at two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. From these two particular instances, the reader will easily judge, that the total amount of damages must have extended to several millions of dollars. It has since been understood, that the embargo was removed exactly in time to save the British West-Indies from a famine. The price of flour had been raised to an excessive height; and every appearance indicated an approaching dearth. On the same day that this question was decided in the house of representatives, the citizens of Boston held a very numerous meeting. By a great majority, they "resolved, as the sense of the inhabitants, that the general embargo, imposed by the legislature of the united states, on the navigation and commerce within the same, is a measure founded in the highest policy and wisdom." They, likewise, "unanimously resolved, that the inhabitants of Boston will cordially acquiesce in the continuance of the embargo, until, in the opinion of Congress, the objects contemplated by that measure shall be fully accomplished." These resolutions were transmitted to Philadelphia by express, and read in Congress on the 15th of May. A copy, subscribed by the town-clerk, was sent not only to the members from Massachusetts, but also to Mr. Madison, colonel Parker, and Mr. Giles, representatives from Virginia. The singularity of this procedure, deserves an explanation. It had been expected and foretold, that the eastern or New England states would be more forward in measures of redress and defiance than any other part of the federal union. But, when proposals of this nature came to be debated in congress, the strength of opposition to them lay in the members from that quarter; and, which had not been looked for, the southern members were almost unanimous on the other side. It was sometimes hinted in congress, that the conduct of the eastern representatives was not universally approved of by their constituents; and the circumstance above-mentioned tends to confirm the suspicion. On the 19th of May, a memorial, requesting a farther continuation of the embargo, was presented from the town of Salem. On this day also, a memoria was read from the house of representatives of the territory south-west of the Ohio. They stated the hardships which the inhabitants of that country had suffered from the Cherokees. The massacre of two hundred people, and the loss of two thousand horses worth an hundred dollars each, formed a part of the catalogue of their disasters. They solicited a more ef-

fectual system of defence. A bill on this subject was ordered to be brought in. Among the taxes newly proposed, there was one for an additional duty of three cents per bushel upon salt. It was this day rejected; but in the course of the debate, a member, from the western counties of Pennsylvania, having opposed this tax, as oppressive to his constituents, Mr. Clark, of New-Jersey, made some curious observations on their aversion to supporting a share of the public burdens. He said, that it was beyond his comprehension, for what sort of tax the gentleman was prepared to vote; or, indeed, what sort of taxes the western settlers of Pennsylvania pay. "We lay a duty on sugar: They make sugar for themselves. We lay a tax on tobacco: They tell us, that every family is to raise and manufacture it for themselves. We lay an excise on distilleries: They refuse to pay this tax; and, in fact, they do not pay it. We tax wines; but, we are told, that these people are poor. They cannot, therefore, afford to drink wine, on which the tax is very heavy; for, that duty is paid only by the rich. We tax the importation of foreign fineries; such as silk; but, silk also is not the dress of poor people: so that, here again, the constituents of the gentleman get off. We are going to tax the importation of foreign coals; but, they have plenty of their own; and, so far from paying a tax on them, are cutting a canal to bring them down to Philadelphia; which will drive out the importation of foreign coals; and so destroy the tax altogether. Under these circumstances, Mr. Clark was solicitous to learn, what taxes the back settlers paid? for, as far as he could understand, they paid none! and, their representative would do well to inform the house, on *what they were willing to pay a tax?* Was government to be burdened with them, and derive no compensation? Was it a sufficient reason for exempting a district from public burdens, to say, that the people are poor? Are taxes to be paid exclusively by the rich?"

On the 20th of May, a message was received by the house of representatives from the president. He stated that there had been some danger of hostilities against the territories of Spain in the neighbourhood of the united states. Some papers, including a correspondence with the governor of Kentucky, accompanied the message, and were read to the house. The tone of the governor indicated, that he would make no vigorous exertions to prevent the expulsion of the Spaniards from the banks of the Mississippi. He spoke of them as a perfidious and worthless people, who were constantly exciting the savages to murder the settlers on the new lands. That the accusation is just, there can be no question. The same practice is embraced and almost avowed by the English government in Canada, though we are said to be at peace with both these nations. On an impartial examination, it will be found, that the guilt and infamy of this practice exceeds, by a considerable degree, that of any other species of crimes recorded in history. It is worse than even the African slave-trade; because, though the latter has cost millions of lives, yet plunder, not assassination, is the object of pursuit; whereas, a plan for exciting the Indians to butcher the people of the united states, can arise only from a genuine thirst for human blood.

About this period of the session, a variety of new taxes came in order of discussion, and the debates on this subject were long and obstinate. It is foreign to our design to give a detail of the proceedings on this head; but a few particulars, which serve to mark the general state of the continent, may be interesting. An excise on snuff and tobacco met with a steady opposition. It was urged, that the tax would serve only to put an end to the manufacture of tobacco, at least in all the southern states, where it grows common; because the consumers would content themselves with using it in its natural state. It was therefore at last struck out. The excise on snuff is referred to the oath of the manufacturer; so that there seems a considerable danger of this tax producing perjury. A duty of two cents per pound was projected on refined sugar. On the 23d of May, Mr. Mulenberg, speaker of the house of representatives, opposed this excise, in strong terms. He complimented the committee of ways and means, for

their ingenuity in having discovered this source of revenue, which had escaped the government of England, a country where almost every thing is under an excise. The manufacture is, in America, only in its infant state; though even already a quantity can be made more than sufficient for the consumption of the united states. Last year, however, two hundred thousand pounds of refined sugar were imported; for the price of raw sugars had become so high, that some houses did not work at all, and others worked for only eight or nine months in the year. He affirmed that this duty would absolutely extirpate the manufacture; because England allows a drawback of twenty-six shillings sterling per hundred weight, on the exportation of her refined sugar, which would enable the dealers of that country to undersell those of America, unless a much larger duty was laid upon the importation of foreign refined sugar, than he had yet heard mentioned. Instead of this tax, he proposed one upon raw sugar. By the last returns, which he had seen, twenty-five millions of pounds were annually imported into the united states. Between four and five millions were exported. Thus the actual home-consumption was about twenty millions of pounds. Half a cent per pound, of additional duty, would yield an hundred thousand dollars. No branch of manufacture would be destroyed; and the tax would produce more than had been proposed by the committee of ways and means; from both the tax on manufactured tobacco, and on refined sugar. Mr. Fitzsimons replied, that raw sugar is an article of consumption among the poor, and by far too high already. It had formerly been six pence currency per pound. It was then twelve-pence. The duty of two cents per pound on refined sugar was carried. Another motion was made on the same day, with this debate on the sugar excise, for putting an end to all commercial intercourse between the British West Indies, and the united states, till satisfactory assurances should be given by the government of Britain to the president, of their intention to make full compensation for the ravages committed on American commerce, since the 8th of June, 1793. The resolution was rejected by a majority of forty-six against twenty-four.

On the 28th of May, commodore Gillon made a motion for a renewal of the embargo. One of his reasons for this proposal was, that intelligence had just then been received of the condemnation of a large quantity of American property, which had been seized, some time ago, by British privateers. Hopes had been entertained, that it would be released in consequence of the orders of the 8th of January last. He referred to the sentiments of the people of South Carolina. He said, that without supplies of provisions from this country, the British could not subsist themselves in the West-Indies. The merchants had applied to congress, and had found no relief. They could not ensure their property; and hence they would, perhaps, in defence of it, *arm their vessels*. They had a right to do so; and congress could not prevent it. If they were then met by British cruisers, they would, of course, defend themselves, and would, probably, be captured. The treatment which they might meet with, as in the case of captain Barney, would possibly compell America to make a demand for them. "The British refuse," said the member. "And *the very necessity of a just arming*, which you can form no law to prevent, brings you into a war." The motion of Mr. Gillon was negatived.

The 6th of June was distinguished by one of the most animated and interesting debates, that occurred during this busy session. A short retrospect becomes necessary to explain the cause of it. On the 30th of January, 1793, the president transmitted to the house of representatives, the copy of a letter from Constant Freeman, agent for the war department, in Georgia, relative to the Creek Indians. This letter stated, that the White-bird-tailed king, with eight Creeks, when hunting, fell in with four white people, whom they treated with hospitality. Soon after this, these whites went away, but three of them perfidiously fired on the Indians, and killed two of their

number. The murderers boasted of their exploit. The chief and some of the Indians came to complain, to one of the out posts. Every method was taken to appease them; but the consequences were doubtful. The chief of the Indians who were thus treacherously attacked, had always been a friend to the whites. He had discountenanced the robberies and murders committed by some of his countrymen, which aggravated the guilt and danger of this assassination. The message was referred to a committee. They brought in a report; another was also laid before the house, from a committee to whom had been referred the memorial from the representatives of the people on the south-west of the Ohio. On the 16th of May, the house resolved itself into a committee on these two reports. Two resolutions were agreed to for authorizing the president to take effectual measures for the safety of the south western frontier. A bill was accordingly, on the 20th of May, brought in, and, after some discussion, it was, on the 29th of that month, passed, by a majority of forty-nine against twenty-two. On the 6th of June, this bill was returned from the senate with an amendment, which gave occasion to the debate above referred to. The senate struck out the three first sections. By these, the president was authorized to call out, from time to time, as occasion might require, any number of militia, not exceeding, in the whole, ten thousand men; from the states of Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Virginia, or the territory south-west of the river Ohio, when he thought them necessary for offensive operations against the Creeks and Cherokees. Instead of these ten thousand militia, the senate substituted a regiment of eleven hundred and forty non-commissioned officers and privates. They were to be raised, for a term of three years, by the president, with a bounty of twenty dollars *per man*.

Mr. Giles expressed the utmost surprize at such a proposal. First, it had been projected to raise a standing army of fifteen thousand men, then twenty-five thousand, then ten thousand, and now, when all these schemes had been disappointed, this regiment of eleven hundred and forty men has appeared. In this remark, Mr. Giles made an allusion to various transactions in congress, during the present session, of which the brevity of this sketch prevents us from giving a detail. Proteus, he said, never assumed a greater number of shapes than this attempt for a standing army had done. His jealousy of the senate was highly excited by such a steady adherence to an idea so extremely offensive. The people of the united states did not wish to be trode down by a standing continental army. Colonel M'Dowell said, that he had lived long on the frontiers; and he knew, from repeated experiments, that the regular troops were, in this kind of service, almost wholly useless. The militia of the frontiers, who knew the country, and whose habits of life made them perfectly acquainted with the character of the enemy whom they had to encounter, were the only proper forces to oppose the Indians with success. But why government should burden itself with an useless expense, or the people with a kind of defence which they disliked, he did not know. No part of the union, perhaps, had behaved so prudently and pacifically, towards the Indians, as the citizens of the south-western frontier. Yet Indian treaties were constantly broken by the savages themselves. He made a distinction among these tribes. The Choctaws and Chickesaws are, and always have been friends to the white people, and ready to fight for them. The Creeks and Cherokees are otherwise, and do not exceed seven or eight thousand men. Mr. Ames objected, that when an exasperated militia went out, the first man with a red skin, whom they met, would be shot. Presently you discover that you have been shooting an Indian of a friendly nation, while, in the mean time, this whole nation rises and attacks you. The continental troops, as being less exasperated, were less apt to fall into mistakes of this kind. He did not think that there were too many Indians on the frontier, any more than too many wild beasts. The one might, by skilful management, be rendered as harmless as the other. The united states have one Indian war on hand already, which is enough at a time. Mr.

Gillon could not see the use of a standing army in South-Carolina, where every thing was quiet. The expedition against the Spanish settlements* had been suppressed. Mr. Madison said that there was something in this business which struck him as very strange. It was proposed to raise a *new* corps, at a bounty of twenty dollars for each recruit. The present army wanted more than the whole number of this corps to fill up its deficiencies; and yet the senate had rejected the proposal for completing them. Thus we are to be at the expense of supporting the skeleton of an army. Was it not better to fill up the old corps than to put ourselves to the charge and inconvenience of raising a new one?

Mr. Carnes went over the whole ground of the question. The only use that continental troops can be of, is to defend posts; and it has been found, by the experience of several years, that posts do more mischief than service. They are established at a distance of fifteen or twenty miles from each other. The Indian parties slip in between them; and the frontier settlers, depending on the protection of the regulars, are not, as they otherwise would be, on their guard against the savages. The consequence is, that they are frequently murdered, while the only service performed by the continentals, turns out to be, that when the militia pursue the Indians, they are prevented by the former from crossing what is called the line. That is the whole service which they have performed in Georgia. In short, against the Creeks they are good for nothing.

The house disagreed to the amendment of the senate, by a majority of forty-two against twenty six of which they sent notice to the other house. The senate insisted on their own amendments. A conference was held, but without effect. The house of representatives adhered to their disagreement. The senate, by a final message on the 9th of June, persisted in their proposal of a regiment of eleven hundred and forty men, to protect a frontier of at least a thousand miles in extent. In conclusion the bill was lost. On the same day, Congress adjourned till the first Monday of November next.

A short time before the rising of this body, a report was transmitted from the assistant secretary of the treasury respecting the present amount of exports from the united states. We insert a summary of the value of exports from each state, and of the value exported to different countries. Such tables are among the most curious and important institutions of commercial policy.

Value of goods, wares and merchandize exported from each state, from the 1st October, 1792, to the 30th September, 1793.

New Hampshire	198,197
Massachusetts	3,676,412
Rhode-Island	616,416
Connecticut	770,239
New-York	2,934,370
New-Jersey	54,176
Pennsylvania	6,958,736
Delaware	71,242
Maryland	3,687,119
Virginia,	2,984,317
North Carolina,	363,307
South Carolina,	3,195,874
Georgia,	501,383
	<hr/>
	Total 26,011,788

Note.—Sundry returns from small ports, not received.

* The member alluded to a plan, which was said to have been concerted, for an attack on the

THE [illegible] OF [illegible]

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A summary of the value and destination of the exports of the United States, within the same time agreeable to the forgoing abstract.

	Dollars.
To the dominions of Ruffia	5,769
— the dominions of Sweden	310,427
— the dominions of Denmark	870,508
— the dominions of the united Netherlands	3,169,536
— the dominions of Britain	8,431,239
— the Imperial ports of the Auftrian Netherlands and Germany	1,013,347
— Hamburg, Bremen, and other Hanse Towns	792,537
— the dominions of France	7,950,491
— the dominions of Spain	2,237,950
— the dominions of Portugal	997,590
— the Italian ports	220,688
— Morocco	2,094
— the East Indies, generally	253,131
— Africa generally,	251,343
— the West-Indies generally	399,559
— the north-west coast of America	1,586
— Uncertain	4,083
Total.	26,011,788

The following is an account of some of the chief articles that composed the exports of the united states, for the period above mentioned.

Pot ashes,	tons,	4,359
Pearl ashes,	tons,	1,807
Shoes,	pairs,	15,102
Beer, porter, & cider,	gallons,	137,631
Cotton,	bags,	2,438
Coffee,	hogheads,	3,895
	tierces,	1,915
	barrels,	10,175
	bags,	8,789
	pounds,	10,764,546
Cocoa,	pounds,	133,675
Flaxseed,	casks,	51,708
Oil of whale,	gallons,	512,780
Oil of Spermaceti,	gallons,	140,056
Whale-bone,	pounds,	202,620
Wheat,	bushels,	1,440,575
Indian corn,	bushels,	1,233,768
Ginteng,	pounds,	71,550
	packages,	188
Indigo,	casks,	462
	pounds,	690,989
Sheep,		12,064

Spaniards on the south west frontier. On the 7th of December 1793, col. Stephen Drayton had, on a charge of this kind, been apprehended at Charleston. On the 10th of the same month he published a complaint respecting the alleged illegality of his arrestment. As the matter came to nothing, no particular detail of it has been given in this work.

Tar,	barrels,	67,961
Rice,	tierces,	134 611
Flour,	barrels,	1,074,639
Hams and bacon,	pounds,	521,483
Tobacco,	hogsheads,	59,987
Timber,	tons,	21,848
Shingles,		80,813,357

On the 14th of March, 1794, the president signed an act, past in congress, making appropriations for defraying the expenditures of the civil list of the united states during the present year. This article comprehends the salaries of the president, vice-president, and supreme judges of the united states: the compensation to the members of the senate and house of representatives, and their officers and clerks; the three secretaries of the treasury department, the department of state, and the war department, with their clerks and officers; pensions granted by the late government to officers or their widows and children, and a multitude of incidents and items of various kinds. The whole sum is only five hundred and twenty-one thousand four hundred and forty-seven dollars and twenty-four cents. Of this money, twenty-five thousand dollars are paid to the president, and five thousand to the vice-president. The session of congress is computed to last for six months; and the compensation of the one hundred and thirty-four members, of whom the two houses consist, at six dollars per day, amounts to one hundred and forty-six thousand, seven hundred and thirty dollars. The speaker of the house of representatives is not comprehended in this number of members. He receives twelve dollars per day; which amounts, in six months, to two thousand one hundred and ninety dollars, so that his salary, for the time which it continues, is, next to that of the vice-president, the largest in the federal government. Twenty-five thousand dollars are likewise stated, for the supposed extra expenses of the two houses, in travelling to and from the place where their session is held. The whole personal compensation of congress, including the last article, is stated at one hundred and seventy-three thousand, nine hundred and twenty dollars. When we divide this sum by one hundred and eighty-three, the highest number of days in six months, we find that the daily personal expenses of congress to the people of America, is nine hundred and fifty dollars, with an overplus, on the whole sum, of seventy dollars. The following circumstances must be adverted to. A member is only paid for the days on which he actually attends the house, or, when arrived at the place of meeting, while he is prevented by indisposition from attending; but in the days paid for, Sundays are included. Mr. Benson, from South Carolina, having been prevented, by want of health, from appearing in his place, during the last session, in the house of representatives; happened to arrive in congress, on the 9th of June 1794, the very day on which they rose. He was, by law, entitled to his travelling expenses; but he refused to accept them. Precedents of this kind deserve to be recorded. Some rigid economists of public money will perhaps be reconciled to the expenditures of the federal government, by learning on what scale the expenses of some other nations are conducted. In 1785, the royal family of England cost that country six hundred and sixty thousand pounds sterling, or something more than two millions nine hundred and thirty thousand dollars. This was exclusive of the salaries, which were also paid out of the civil list, to ministers of state, ambassadors, judges, and other public officers of actual utility to the business of the nation*.

* Vide History of the British Revenue, by sir John Sinclair, Vol. II. Appendix, No. I.

The act for the support of the military establishment, is dated the 21st of March, 1794.

	Dollars.	Cents.
The sum allotted was,	1,629,936	1
By a subsequent act, dated the 9th of June, there is a farther appropriation of,	1,292,137	38
This goes entirely to the current military establishment, excepting,	5,193	69
	1,286,943	69
Total expense of the military establishment of the united states, by land and sea, for the year 1794,	2,916,879	70
An act, dated the 2d of April, 1794, was likewise past, for the erecting and repairing of national arsenals and magazines. The sums appropriated by this act were,	421,865	
	3,338,744	70

Of the last sum, the greater part is not for expenses of a temporary nature, and cannot, therefore, be stated to the current charges of the present year.

An act was past, this session, that does honour to the legislature of this country. The sum of twenty-four thousand four hundred and twenty-four dollars is assigned to M. de la Fayette, being the pay of a major-general during the time that he was in the service of the united states. By another act, passed on the 22d of March, 1794, all citizens of the united states, or foreigners residing in this country, are forbidden, under severe penalties, from being concerned in the fitting out of any vessel for carrying on the slave-trade to or from any foreign country. Any ship, suspected of being intended for that trade, is liable to be seized, and detained till the master or owner shall give sufficient security, that none of the natives of Africa, or any other foreign country, shall be taken on board of it, to be transported or sold as slaves, for nine months thereafter.

We shall now give a short account of the nature and progress of the present disputes between the government of Britain and that of the united states.

Although a peace had been formerly ratified between England and the united states, yet there remained, on the part of both countries, numerous causes of complaint, and dispute. This subject was never fully laid before the world, till congress, during their last session, published the recent correspondence respecting it, between Mr. Jefferson and the present British envoy, Mr. Hammond. In their letters, the reciprocal complaints are stated with candour, perspicuity, and completeness; and a large body of illustrations and authorities are brought forward, on each side, in the form of an appendix, to support their respective arguments. From this mass of materials, a short narrative has been extracted for the present publication, as it becomes requisite for comprehending the origin of the controversy depending between the two powers. The subject is, in itself, highly interesting, because it will, possibly, terminate in an open rupture, and in the total expulsion of the English from the continent of America. We shall begin this recapitulation by enumerating the principal infractions of the treaty of peace, which have been alledged against Britain by the federal government.

By the seventh article of this treaty, it was stipulated that "his Britannic majesty should, with all convenient speed, and without causing any destruction, or carrying away any negroes, or other property of the American inhabitants, withdraw all his armies, garrisons and fleets from the said united states, and from every post, place, and harbour within the same."

This clause has been professedly broken in every particular. The British garrisons continue, to this day, at Michillimackinack, on lake Michigan; Detroit, on the freight of lakes Erie and Huron; Niagara and Oswego, on lake Ontario; Oswegatchie, on the river St. Laurence; Point Au-fer, and Dutchman's Point, on lake Champlaine. The British officers exercise a jurisdiction over the country and inhabitants in the vicinity of these forts. An imaginary line was, by the treaty, drawn through the middle of certain rivers and lakes, which were established as a boundary between the two nations. The British officers likewise prohibit citizens of the united states from navigating these rivers and lakes, even on the federal side of the line. By these proceedings, the Americans have been almost entirely debarred from the-commerce of furs with the Indian tribes to the northward. This trade is of some importance for its value, which Mr. Madison* estimates at two hundred thousand dollars *per annum*; but it is of vastly greater consequence, in a secondary point of view. It would serve as a means of cultivating a friendly correspondence with these Indians. The establishment of this intercourse would save the expense of war with the savages, to which they have been constantly excited by the British in Canada. These wars have cost the federal government annually from ten to thirteen hundred thousand dollars. They have been attended with the loss or destruction of much property, and some thousands of lives. Among these, are a great number of women and children massacred on the farms of the north-western frontier, with every possible circumstance of barbarity. The perpetrators of these murders have been regularly and plentifully supplied with guns, ammunition, and scalping knives, by the British garrisons. This conduct neither is nor can be denied, because the savages, by their local situation, can acquire no military supplies from any other quarter. In the treaty of peace, there was an accidental ambiguity. A river St. Croix is mentioned as a boundary; but there are found to be two rivers of that name, and it has proved uncertain which of them was referred to. Applications have been made on this head, to Britain, but no definitive explanation has yet been given. Between the actual charges, and the waste of lives, the united states lose at least two millions of dollars in value *per annum*, by the breach of the seventh article of the treaty. On the other hand, England secures to herself a fur-trade worth two hundred thousand dollars annually, at an expense, in additional garrisons, at least equal to that sum, and perhaps much greater.

The other principal object of dissatisfaction, on the part of the Americans, is relative to the exportation of negroes, in contradiction to the clause above quoted. When the British prepared to leave New-York, there began a large embarkation of negroes, who had fled from their masters, inhabitants of the united states. Remonstrances, on this point, were made to sir Guy Carleton, the British commander in that city. In a letter to general Washington, dated the 12th of May, 1783, he endeavoured to vindicate himself from blame on this account. He said, that he had ordered gentlemen to inspect the negroes on board of the fleet bound to Nova-Scotia, and had obliged those to disembark who were found to be the property of American citizens. But he subjoined, that many slaves had been declared *free* by his predecessors before his own arrival; over these, he neither possessed, nor could assume any controul. He considered them as at liberty to go to any part of the world, which they thought proper. He was unwilling to suppose that the British ministry could stipulate by any treaty, to make themselves guilty of a notorious breach of public faith to people of any colour. He considered restoration, where inseparable from a violation of that faith, as, in itself, utterly impracticable. He had till then, kept an accurate register of the names of such negroes as were suffered to embark, with those of the masters to whom they had formerly belonged, and of such other circumstances as served to denote their value; that

* Supra Vol. II. page 302.

the business might be adjusted by compensation, if that was really the intention and meaning of the treaty. He added, that had the negroes been refused leave to sail, they would, in spite of every precaution to prevent it, have found various methods of quitting the continent. Sir Guy Carleton concluded, by saying, that he knew of no better expedient for preventing abuse, and the carrying away of negroes, or other American property, than that already suggested by himself, which was the nomination of American commissioners to inspect the future embarkations; and he was glad to hear that his proposal had been accepted.

This language appeared very candid; but, in reality, it amounted to nothing. From the account of the commissioners, it cannot be discovered, that their presence or interposition prevented the departure of so much as a single negro. Sir Guy Carleton issued blank certificates to persons under him, attesting that the bearer had resorted to the British lines, in consequence of the proclamation of sir William Howe and sir Henry Clinton, late commanders in chief; and that he was at liberty to go to Nova-Scotia, or wherever else he might think proper. These certificates were, it seems, filled up to all sorts of negroes; so that the business of the American inspectors was reduced to a matter of form; and on the day of the final evacuation, when a great number of negroes were taken away, even that form was neglected. From the arrival of the American commissioners, till that time, near three thousand of these people were publicly permitted to embark, by the avowed orders of the commander in chief, and in spite of the remonstrances of the commissioners against it. A very great number were besides carried off in private vessels, if not by the express permission of sir Guy Carleton, yet certainly without opposition from him. These private ships the commissioners were not suffered to inspect. Other property was likewise carried off, and no examination whatever was permitted. The British did not finally evacuate New-York, till the 25th of November, 1783. During their stay, the commander continued to exercise the same jurisdiction in the city of New-York, on Long-Island, and Staten Island, as his predecessors had assumed at any period of the war. He regulated the commerce of the port. He leased and received the rents of a number of houses in the city of New-York. They had been formerly appropriated by his predecessors in office, as belonging to persons without the British lines. When possession was demanded by their proper owners, he, for the most part, refused to restore such houses. He apprehended several American citizens, whom he tried by courts-martial. His excellency submitted to still more humble exertions of his authority. He condescended to protect colonel James de Lancy, an officer in the royal service, in the possession of a horse that had been stolen from a person in Dutchess county. It was not possible to ascertain the exact number of negroes carried off; but they most likely amounted to at least six thousand. We may reasonably suppose them to have been worth, upon an average, not less than two hundred dollars each, which extends all together to twelve hundred thousand dollars.

We shall now give a concise abstract of the complaints of England against the united states, as they are detailed in a letter from Mr. Hammond to Mr. Jefferson, dated the 5th of March 1792.

Immediately after the ratification of the definitive treaty of peace, the congress, by a proclamation, announcing that event, and a resolve dated the 14th of January 1784, required and enjoined all bodies of magistracy, legislative, executive, and judiciary, to carry into effect the definitive articles, and every clause and sentence thereof. They recommended to the legislatures of the respective states, to provide for the restitution of all estates, rights, and properties confiscated, belonging to real British subjects, and of estates, rights, and properties of persons resident in districts in possession of the British troops, between the 30th of November 1782, and 14th of January 1784, who had not borne arms against the united states; and that persons of any other description should

have liberty to go to any part of the united states, there to remain twelve months, unmolested in their endeavours to obtain the restitution of their estates, rights, and properties confiscated. It was also *recommended* to the several states, to reconsider and revise all laws regarding the premises, and to render them consistent with justice and that spirit of conciliation, which, on the return of the blessings of peace, should universally prevail. It was likewise *recommended*, that the estates, rights, and properties of the last mentioned persons, should be restored to them, they refunding the *bona fide* price which had been paid on the purchase of any of the said lands, rights, and properties, since the confiscation.

Very little attention was paid to these recommendations. Mr. Adams, American ambassador at the court of London, made, in the mean time, requisitions respecting the posts and territories ceded by the peace. He received, on the 20th of February, 1786, a refusal. The alledged excuse was the non-performance of the treaty on the part of the united states. Upon this, congress, in April 1787, transmitted a circular letter to the governors of the respective states. In that letter they *recommended* to the different legislatures to repeal such acts, or parts of acts, as were repugnant to the treaty of peace, and that the courts of law should be directed and required to decide all causes and questions according to the true meaning of the same. The congress farther declared, that they had deliberately examined the facts urged by Britain, as infractions of the treaty of peace, on the part of America; and they regretted, that, in some of the states, too little attention appeared to have been paid to the public faith pledged by the treaty. These recommendations met with no respect. In many of the states, British subjects, when attempting to obtain restitution of their estates and property, upon payment of the price to purchasers, were treated with indignity. They were sometimes menaced, exposed to personal danger, and imprisoned. Laws were, in several places, past, delaying the investigation of just claims, and abridging the demands of British merchants. Local regulations, in respect to the tender of property, in discharge of just debts, prevailed to such an extent, as amounted to a prohibition of suits. Paper money, emitted by particular states, was made, at its nominal value, legal tender and payment for all debts; for the recovery of which, actions were commenced at a time when money of that description was greatly depreciated. Creditors, in some of the states, were exposed to the necessity of taking real or personal property, at a valuation made by a partial, prejudiced, or interested neighbourhood. In other states, the courts determined, that a subject of Britain, residing within the dominions of that country, at and after the declaration of independence, was not competent to acquire or hold real property within the united states. In many of the state courts, decisions took place, reducing the amount of British debts. Some of those courts refused to take cognizance of suits raised for the recovery of such debts. In virtue of the treaty of peace, it was understood, and expected, that several laws would have been repealed which had been made by individual states, *during the time of the war*, and which were contradictory of the fourth and fifth articles of the treaty of peace. By the fourth article, it was agreed that creditors on either side should meet with no lawful impediment to the recovery of the full value, in sterling money, of all *bona fide* debts theretofore contracted. The fifth article stipulated, that all persons who had interests in confiscated lands, either by debts, marriage settlements, or otherwise, should meet with no lawful impediment in the prosecution of their just rights.

Now, it is to be observed, that before such articles could be fulfilled, it was requisite for the individual states to repeal many laws which stood in the most direct contradiction to these stipulations. By laws passed during the war, the respective legislatures of the united states leased, sequestrated, confiscated, and sold, the landed property of loyalists. The proceeds were applied to the redemption of certificates and bills of

credit, or towards defraying the expences of the war. Many individuals were attainted by name; others were banished forever from their country, and if found within the state, were declared felons without benefit of clergy. In some states, the laws forfeited the rights and estates of married women, of widows, of minors, and of persons who had died within the territories held by the British. Persons who adhered to the crown, were required to surrender themselves, by an appointed day, to stand their trial for *high treason*. If they did not appear, they were subjected to the forfeitures annexed to that crime. In the state of New-York, a power was vested in the courts, to prefer bills of indictment against persons *alive or dead*, who had gone over to the king. Mr. Hammond adds, that, upon notice or neglect to appear and traverse the indictment, or, upon trial and conviction, the persons, *whether in full life or deceased*, were found guilty and their estates forfeited.

These laws and decisions present a general idea of the spirit of the times and of the individual states. If the people at large had been disposed to comply with the terms of the peace, such laws must, under some stipulated exceptions, have been repealed. This repeal did not take place. There was no provision, by any local law, or general regulation, to support persons in their endeavours to recover confiscated property: Some of the states; it is true, soon after the peace, passed acts in conformity to the treaty. Some states have, in certain instances, passed laws for restoring lands which had been forfeited: Acts of pardon and oblivion were also to be found in the statute books of some of the states; but in general, every thing of this nature was fettered with numerous qualifications, exceptions, and restraints, insomuch that practical restitution was hardly possible: Thus the terms of the peace were violated by the non-repeal of laws passed in the time of war, and which were framed for the express purposes of hostility and of vengeance. Or, if a reversal of them took place, Mr. Hammond complains, that it was rather in name than in fact.

But there was a much more serious charge against the individual states: for even after the peace had been ratified, many laws were passed, *in contravention to the terms of it*. These laws Mr. Hammond divided into three classes. 1. Such as related to the estates of the loyalists: 2. Such as respected their persons: And 3. Such as obstructed the recovery of debts due to the subjects of the British crown. As to the first article, at the conclusion of the definitive treaty, many of the confiscated estates were undisposed of. But, for many years subsequent to the peace, the different legislatures passed acts for selling such confiscated property, as had remained unfold; for selling over again, such lands as had been already disposed of, and to which no title had been given; with other regulations of the same nature. Under the second head, several acts were passed subsequent to the peace, prohibiting the return of loyalists into the country, and, when they had already come into it, subjecting them to imprisonment, unless they instantly departed, upon receiving notice for that purpose. In some states, the ceremony of notice was dispensed with; and the parties, if found in the country, were by some laws liable to imprisonment, by some to confiscation, and by others to death: These acts passed under an allegation, that an expulsion of such aliens was necessary for the peace and good order of government. But this circumstance ought to have been considered before the peace was made, as it is easy to see; that such pretences might be multiplied without end. It would be doing an act of injustice to this country, to give a partial statement of the charges, which have been advanced against our citizens. After such a scene of anarchy, and of bloodshed, it was impossible that the claims and complaints upon each side, could be adequately satisfied. This was a task beyond the utmost efforts of wisdom, or integrity. The third article of complaint, respected laws passed in America, since the peace, concerning the recovery of debts, due to British merchants. A multitude of laws, Mr. Hammond asserted, had been enacted for diminishing these debts; and, for delaying their payment, a thousand modes of evasion

had been adopted. To this general accusation, he mentions, as an honourable exception, the state of Massachusetts. Justice had there been liberally dispensed; and where the contract bore interest, or the custom of trade justified the charge, *the full interest had been allowed to British creditors, notwithstanding the intervention of war.* It is true, that a particular regulation of the state warranted the deduction of that portion of the interest on British debts, which accumulated during the war. But the courts of law adhered to the plain terms of the treaty of peace. In other states the demands of British merchants met with a different reception. Courts of justice were authorized to direct, and admit the reduction of interest; and provisions were made for refusing it altogether, for a specified number of years. Under the direction of many of the courts, juries invariably abated interest on British debts, for *seven years and a half.* The laws of America prohibited, during the time of the war, the remittance of money to Britain. The person who made such a remittance would have been severely punished. The American debtor, therefore, alledged that it would be unjust to make him suffer for his obedience to the laws, or to make him answerable for the interest of a sum, while the government of his country, restrained him from paying the principal. In Georgia, there was advanced by the highest judicial authority, a very marked opinion. The legislature of the state had passed no act confirming the treaty of peace. Hence it was inferred, that this part of the union was still in a *state of war with Britain*, from which it followed that no attention was due to the claims of British debts. In Virginia, where very large sums were owing to Britain, the progress of payment has been extremely slow. A considerable number of debts, from the smallness of the sum can only be recovered in the county courts; and, according to Mr. Hammond, the few attempts made in Virginia, to recover debts in courts of that class, have *universally failed.* In some others of the southern states, he alledged, that there does not exist a single instance, where a British debt has been recovered in their courts, though so many years have elapsed, since the establishment of peace.

From these details, which, in the original correspondence, are extended to a great length, Mr. Hammond infers, that the treaty of peace has been broken by the united states in a multitude of particulars, and that Britain has infinitely more reason to be dissatisfied with America, than this country has to complain of Britain. That country has disbursed to the loyalists, four millions sterling*, as a partial compensation for the losses which they have sustained by the violation of the terms of peace, on the part of America. In American courts of law, British creditors have in general, met with unfurmoutable difficulties. In British courts, the citizens of the United States have experienced, without exception, the same distribution of justice as British subjects themselves.

For these reasons, the king of Britain has thought himself justified in suspending the delivery of the western posts.

To this letter, Mr. Jefferson made a reply of considerable length, in which he examines and endeavours to refute the arguments adduced by the British ambassador. The situation of the Americans was, he says, without example. They were excluded from all commerce, even with neutral nations. They had neither arms nor money, nor the means of obtaining them from abroad. They were therefore obliged to avail themselves of such resources as were to be found at home. Britain did not consider it as an ordinary war, but a rebellion. She did not conduct it by the rules of war established in the law of nations, but according to her own acts of parliament, made from time to time, to suit circumstances. She would not admit the title of Americans to the strict rights of ordinary war. General Gage told the world that *his prisoners were destined to the cord.* That this prescription would have been applied with the utmost

* Sir John Sinclair, in his history of the public Revenue of the British empire, states this expense at three millions and a half sterling.

prodigality, there can be no question, if success had justified the prudence of the measure. It would be easy to vindicate America, by proving that legislative warfare began with the British parliament. When they levelled at persons, or property, it was against entire towns or countries, without discrimination of cause or conduct. But the Americans did not confound the innocent with the guilty. They paid a careful attention to every case. As a specimen of British lenity, Mr. Jefferson appeals to a variety of acts of parliament, framed in reference to the American revolution. By one of these, the naval officers of Britain are authorised to compel American mariners to serve on board of British ships of war; and such mariners are declared to be, to all intents and purposes, as much in the royal service, as if they had entered voluntarily. By this act, an American prisoner might have been forced to shoot his father, to avoid death in his own person as a mutineer. After such conduct, on her side, England was not entitled to claim from America, the *liberalities* of war; yet the confiscation of property was not universal, and that of debts was less so. As to the restitution of property to the loyalists, and the permission for those people to return into his country, in search of it, Mr. Jefferson gives a full and satisfactory answer. He says that the American ambassadors never made any *positive* stipulation to this effect. It was plainly understood and expressed, by the fifth article of the treaty of peace, which refers to this subject, that the practicability of this clause was very doubtful. In other parts of the treaty, it is expressly agreed, that such things *shall be done*; but in this article, the style at once alters. The congress are engaged, *that they shall earnestly recommend*, because it was expressly understood, by all parties, concerned, that it was beyond the power of congress to *enforce* the performance of such a condition. It was impossible that the negociators, on either side, should have been ignorant of the difference between promising to do a thing, and barely promising to recommend the doing of it. The evidence, produced by Mr. Jefferson, removes all hesitation with regard to this point; and as it is of the utmost consequence to the public character of America, that such foul imputations should be eradicated, it is worth while to give a specimen of the language and ideas of the negociators themselves. When the British commissioners pressed for restitution to the refugees, they were answered by the American envoys at Paris, that it was unreasonable to restore property to them, unless these persons would reimburse the property of American citizens which they had destroyed; and it was further observed, that were congress to recommend such a restoration to the legislatures of the different states, the proposal would be rejected. Mr. Oswald, the chief commissioner in that business, on the part of Britain, was likewise informed, that the estates had, in many instances, passed by legal titles through several hands, so that their restoration was in itself almost altogether impossible. If such a proposal was transmitted from Paris to congress, that body would send it to the several legislatures, where twelve or fifteen months would be spent upon debate, without the smallest chance of its being carried at last. In the mean time, Britain must carry on the war six or nine months longer for the desperate chance of this compensation to the refugees, while every month of the war would cost her, in one way or other, a sum sufficient to satisfy them. Mr. Adams reminded Mr. Oswald of the massacre of Wyoming, and of the prison-ships and churches at New-York, in which the garrison of Fort Washington were famished, that they might be induced to enlist in refugee corps. He also desired Mr. Oswald to recollect "the burning of cities, and the theft of plate, negroes, and tobacco." Dr. Franklin placed this question in a very plain light. The first principle of the treaty was equality and reciprocity. The doctor applied this rule to the case of the refugees. He put the case, that a draper had sold a piece of cloth upon credit. He then sends a servant to bring it back by force from the purchaser. He next brings his action for the price of the cloth. A court of law would oblige him to give back the cloth itself, before he could be entitled to the price. The doctor then stated

the quantities of goods that had been carried away from Boston, Philadelphia, and other places. His own library, in Philadelphia, formed one article in the catalogue of plunder. General Gage agreed with the inhabitants of Boston, that they should surrender their arms, and upon this condition, he promised to let them depart with their effects. The arms were delivered; the promise was broken, and the goods were finally carried off in large quantities to Halifax. These particulars are extracted from the journal of Mr. Adams. Dr. Franklin was equally determined upon this point. He assured Mr. Oswald, that if a reconciliation was intended, no mention ought to be made of the refugees. They had wantonly burned farm-houses, villages, and towns; and if compensation for them was demanded, the united states would certainly exhibit against them an account of the ravages which they had committed. He produced from congress a resolution dated the 10th of September, 1782; wherein their secretary of foreign affairs was directed to obtain, as speedily as possible; authentic returns of the slaves and other property carried off or destroyed in the course of the war; and in the mean time their ministers at Paris were informed, that congress considered the great loss of property as an insuperable bar against the proposed restitution. Doctor Franklin transmitted a copy of this resolution to Mr. Oswald, inclosed in a letter which contains the following paragraph: "The enormities not only committed by these people, and under the direction of British generals, but those committed by the British troops themselves, will form a record that must render the British name odious in America to the latest generation. In that authentic record (viz. the report of the secretary to congress) will be found the burning of the fine towns of Charleston, near Boston, of Falmouth, just before winter; when the sick, the aged, the women, and children were driven to seek shelter where they could hardly find it; of Norfolk, in the midst of winter; of New-London, of Esopus, &c. &c. besides near an hundred and fifty miles of well-settled country laid waste, every house and barn burnt, and many hundreds of farmers, with their wives and children, butchered and scalped."

The detail sufficiently ascertains the sense of the negociators, on each side, with regard to *restitution*. Mr. Oswald accepted the recommendation from congress; merely as better than nothing, and that he might have something to oppose to the clamours of the refugees. He might likewise think it a circumstance of present relief at least, that the question of the indemnification should be kept out of sight, till time and events could by degrees open it upon the nation. Mr. Jefferson likewise quoted the speeches of several members in parliament, who universally considered the matter as he, at this time, represented it. Mr. Oswald had been told by the American ambassadors, that all the states would refuse to comply with this recommendation; yet only one state gave an absolute refusal. In reply to the payment of four millions sterling, by the British nation to the refugees, Mr. Jefferson suspected that there were some single states of the union, to which that sum would not have been an indemnification for the losses of property sustained even *contrary to the laws of war*. He likewise affirmed that the money given to the refugees was very unaccountably bestowed. Considerable sums were distributed to persons whose debts far exceeded their possessions, and who, by the most faithful administration of their property in America, could pay but a few shillings in the pound to their creditors. Mr. Jefferson next proceeded to examine the article of debts; and he recapitulated, in the first place, the immense property carried off, by general Carleton; from New-York, after the peace had been signed. He likewise specified a number of circumstances to show, that though, by the articles of that treaty, the British were to deliver the western posts with all convenient speed, yet that they never had any serious design of delivering them at all. It was in consequence of the negroes being taken away, that the state of Virginia laid obstructions on the payment of British debts. If the western posts had been given up

in terms of the treaty, the fur trade would have supplied a resource for the discharge of debts to Britain. Mr. Jefferson next examines three obstacles opposed to the satisfaction of the British creditors. The first of these was the delay of payment; but this was absolutely unavoidable from the ruinous state of the country. By the nature of the commerce between the united states and Britain, the former were always in debt to the latter. When peace permitted those American farmers, who had been driven from their plantations, to return home, their lands were naked and desolate, and immediate payment was impracticable. In 1783, there was a conference, on this subject between the American minister, at London, and the chairman of the British American merchants. On this occasion, the latter declared, that on the part of the creditors, there would not be a moment's hesitation to accept payment by annual instalments for seven years; and Mr. Jefferson quotes an act of the state of South Carolina, by which payment of debts was suspended for only nine months. They were then to be discharged by four annual instalments. He quotes several other laws to the same purpose. Most of them required the debtor to give security, in the mean time, to his creditor; and in every case, they provided complete indemnification for the delay, by payment of the intervening interest. One circumstance among others, prevented the speedy discharge of American debts. The British government, by prohibitory duties, excluded from their own ports several of the most valuable articles of American production.

A second obstacle to the payment of British debts was said to be, that the debtor who delivered his property to his creditor, was relieved from personal imprisonment. This rule Mr. Jefferson vindicates on the obvious arguments of humanity and justice. A third complaint was, that paper money was permitted to be a legal tender for the payment of goods sold in execution. To this Mr. Jefferson answers, that to produce hard money was, on many occasions, utterly impossible. As to the assertion, that British debts had not been recovered, several letters were produced from lawyers of eminence in New-York, Maryland, Virginia, North, and South Carolina, which proved; that the substantial accusation was altogether untrue and unfounded, and that British merchants recovered their debts with as much facility as any other class of people. In Georgia, no instance had occurred of a recovery by a British merchant, against an American debtor. But this was not ascribed to any relaxation in the course of justice. The parties had universally made an amicable settlement of their transactions.

We have been the more explicit upon this subject, because, though it is of the greatest importance, it has hitherto been very imperfectly understood, both in Britain and America. The last letter from Mr. Jefferson appears to have contained arguments of unanswerable weight; for though a reply was requested by him, the business has been suffered to rest for upwards of two years, without a further explanation.

On the 8th of June, 1798, the British government, in consequence of their hostilities with France, published additional instructions to the commanders of their ships of war, for the stoppage of neutral vessels, freighted with provisions, and bound to any port in that republic. Ships attempting to enter any French port, blockaded by the British navy, were to be condemned, with their cargoes, of whatever articles they consisted. To this last clause there was a limited exception in favour of Denmark, and of Sweden. This exception was considered as arising from a dread of the maritime force of these two nations. If justice had been consulted in the case, American vessels were certainly as well entitled to a free navigation, as those of any other country. This measure produced a diplomatic discussion, both at London and Philadelphia; it is needless to say, with what success, as we have already stated the subsequent progress of the British additional instructions.

A speech appeared in the American papers, last spring, ascribed to lord Dorchester, the British governor-general in Canada; and said to have been addressed by him to several Indian nations. In this speech his lordship informed the savages, whom he entitled his *dear children*, that he should not be surpris'd, if, in the course of the present year, England and America were at war. In addition to this intelligence, the president of the united states received notice, in May last, that governor Simcoe had gone to the foot of the rapids of the Miami, followed by three companies of a British regiment, in order to build a fort there. From this circumstance, and the speech of Dorchester, a rupture with Britain was univ'ersally expected in this country. On the 20th of May, 1794, Mr. Randolph addressed a letter on this subject to the British ambassador; and in this letter he pronounced the expedition of Simcoe to be *hostility itself*. A correspondence of some length ensued, and Mr. Hammond at once declared himself willing to admit the authenticity of the speech ascribed to his lordship. The business, though alarming for the moment, will, most likely, terminate in peace.

On the 26th of May last, the marquis of Lansdowne read a copy of this performance in the British house of peers. Lord Grenville, in reply, denied any knowledge of it. Lansdowne moved, that a copy of Dorchester's instructions should be laid before the house. To this proposal Grenville refused his assent; and the only probable reason for such a refusal, was, that his previous acquaintance with the contents of this speech must have been thereby discovered. Lord Stanhope said, that Grenville had admitted the possible authenticity of such a paper. The ministerial benches, all in one voice, answered, No! Lord Stanhope repeated his assertion, and subjoined, that Grenville, as a necessary consequence, had admitted *the possibility of a war with America*. Grenville closed the conversation, by observing, that as this assertion fell *only* from lord Stanhope, it required no answer. There is little doubt, however, on this side of the Atlantic, that the affirmation of lord Stanhope was perfectly well founded. The admission of Mr. Hammond, fixes, were other evidence wanting, the authenticity of the speech; and, if there had not been some idea of war, the expedition of governor Simcoe cannot be explained. In the house of commons, on the same day, Mr. Dundas, secretary of state, denied, in the strongest terms, all knowledge of such a production. There is not the least reason to believe what he said; for, as Mr. Fox justly observed, Dorchester is not a person who would hazard such a conduct, without proper authority. We have been more particular, in the detail of this debate, than it may, at first sight, seem to deserve, because its contents are of the most auspicious aspect for the peace of America. From the tone of the English ministers, we learn, that a rupture with the united states, is regarded, in that country, with universal reprobation. By a subsequent account, we are informed, that the authenticity of the speech of Dorchester, has been at last admitted, by the British ministry, though they still pretend to deny all previous acquaintance with its contents. They, appear however, to have relinquish'd their hostile intentions; and the recent and signal successes of the French arms in Flanders, will certainly confirm the pacific temper of the British nation.

In April last, Mr. John Jay, chief judge of the united states, who had been one of the American plenipotentiaries, at the peace of Paris, was appointed by the president, as an envoy extraordinary to the court of London. This nomination was urg'd, in congress, as one argument for deferring any violent measures against Britain. After a short passage he arrived in England, and has met with a polite reception.

For some time past, the Indians, on the back settlements, have been extremely troublesome; and a war with the six nations, among others, is daily expected. We formerly* mentioned, that the Onondago Indians had sold their territory, with a

small reservation, to the state of New-York; and were to receive for it an annual gratuity of five hundred dollars. Intelligence has been received, that this tribe, a few individuals excepted, has quitted its ancient territories, and retired within the British line. It is understood that this emigration has been excited by the government of Canada.

It has already* been observed, that the inhabitants of the western counties of Pennsylvania have contributed but little to the general amount of expenses for supporting the federal government. The excise law, respecting distilled spirits, hath, since it was first pressed, been a subject of particular discontent in that quarter. The counties of Alleghany, Washington, Fayette, and Westmoreland, distinguished themselves by an early and ardent opposition to the system. The people in this part of the union had originally acceded with some reluctance, to the new constitution; and hitherto it appears that part of them have not become reconciled to it. Washington county has been remarkable for a more obstinate repugnance to the establishment of an excise than the others. The flame of discontent seems there to have been constantly kept alive. At length it has burst into action; and a recital of the particulars, becomes a painful but requisite addition to this part of our work.

At first the public dissatisfaction was vented in general complaints. Certain persons entered into private associations to forbear compliance with the law: The excise officers received some marks of contempt and rudeness. On the 27th of July, 1792, a meeting of the inhabitants was had at a place called Redstone, Old-Fort. It was there concerted that a county committee should be convened in each of the four counties before named. On the 23d of August, 1791, the committee for the county of Washington assembled. They passed some angry resolutions which were published in the Pittsburg Gazette. They censured the law in the strongest terms. They declared, that any person accepting an office under congress for the execution of it, should be considered as unfriendly to the interest of the country. They recommended to the citizens of Washington county to refuse all correspondence or intercourse with excise officers. They likewise published some severe reflexions on the federal government, with regard to various other political points. A second meeting took place on the 7th of September, 1791, at Pittsburg, in Alleghany county. The members consisted of delegates from the four western counties. They entered into numerous resolutions, not only respecting the excise law, but likewise as to what they termed the exorbitant salaries of office, the institution of a national bank, the unreasonable interest of the public debt, and the want of discrimination between original holders and transferees. A representation to congress was drawn up, with a remonstrance to the legislature of Pennsylvania. These papers, and an account of the rest of their proceedings, were inserted in the Pittsburg Gazette, and afterwards presented to the respective bodies to whom they were addressed. On the 6th of September, 1791, Robert Johnston, collector of the revenue for the counties of Alleghany and Washington, was seized at a place on Pigeon Creek, in Washington county, by a party of men armed and in disguise. They tarred and feathered him, cut off his hair, seized his horse, and left him in that situation to travel on foot for a considerable distance. The case was brought before the district court of Pennsylvania. The deputy-marshal of the state was directed to serve the offenders with process. On his arrival at Pittsburg, for that purpose, he found it dangerous to proceed. He therefore sent the papers to the parties concerned, by a private messenger, under cover. This man was seized, whipped, tarred and feathered. He was robbed of his horse and money. He was blindfolded and tied in the woods; in which condition he remained, without relief, for five hours. A collector of the revenue for Westmoreland and Fayette counties, was

likewise, about the same time, grossly abused. In October, 1791, a poor man who was disordered in his mind, and a stranger in that part of the country, imagined himself to be a collector of the revenue, or some way concerned in the business. He accordingly commenced enquiries respecting the distillers, who had entered their stills, and gave out that he was to travel through the united states, and make a report upon the subject. A party in disguise dragged him from his bed to a smith's forge at the distance of five miles. They next stripped off and burnt his clothes. The lunatic himself was tarred, feathered, scared and wounded, in several places, with a hot iron; and about day-light, in the following morning, he was dismissed naked. Two witnesses, who were to have given evidence on this case in a court of justice, were made prisoners and carried off. One Roseberry having remarked in conversation, that a people, who did not obey the laws of government, could not reasonably expect its protection, he was tarred and feathered. In the session of congress, which commenced in October 1791, the law, that had been the cause of so much mischief, was revised, and the duty was reduced to a very moderate rate. Other alterations were made in favour of the manufacture of distilled spirits. Opposition, in consequence, subsided in every part of the continent, except the four western counties of Pennsylvania.

An important point in the scheme of resistance, was to prevent the establishment of officers for collecting the revenue. In this respect the inhabitants of the western counties were successful. They intimidated every person who was disposed to let a house for that purpose, by menacing him with the loss of his property and his life. After much effort, the inspector of the revenue obtained leave to open an office of inspection for the county of Washington, in the house of captain William Faulkner. This took place in August, 1792; but captain Faulkner was not long after encountered by a number of people; who drew a knife, and threatened to tar, feather, and scalp him, and to reduce his house and property to ashes, unless he promised to prevent the further use of his house for an office. He was obliged to come under this engagement, and the inspector gave up his proceedings.

On the 21st of August, 1792, there was another meeting of sundry inhabitants of the western counties, held at Pittsburgh. They entered into a number of violent resolutions. The president, on the 15th of September following, published a proclamation, exhorting the parties concerned, to desist from their disorderly proceedings. Prosecutions were commenced against the above mentioned rioters; and the attorney-general attended a circuit court held at Yorktown in October; but a mistake having happened with respect to the persons indicted, who were discovered not to have been guilty, the prosecutions were laid aside.

In the mean time various expedients were adopted to lessen the unpopularity of the law in the western counties. One of these was to purchase the spirits for the use of the continental army, from manufacturers who paid the duty. Some prosecutions were commenced against offenders, and, where it could not be done with safety, some seizures were made. In April, 1793, a party of men armed, and, as usual, disguised, broke, during the night, into the house of a collector of revenue, in Fayette county. He was not at home, but they threatened and abused his family. Warrants for apprehending some of the rioters were issued, and delivered to the sheriff of the county, who has since been indicted for refusing to execute them. In June, 1793, the inspector of the revenue was burnt in effigy in Alleghany county, at a public meeting. On the night of the 22d of November following, a party of men broke into the house of the collector of Fayette, for whom they had searched in April. After some resistance, the officer was compelled to surrender his commission and his books. Yet, in spite of these outrages, the law appeared, about the end of 1793, to be gaining ground. Some of the principal distillers, who had formerly refused to pay the tax,

began to comply with the law; and others discovered a disposition to have done so if they dared. This growing temper seems to have exasperated the bitterness of opposition. One of the distillers who complied, had his barn burnt; and another, James Kiddoe, was visited by a party, who broke into his still-house, and had very near set it on fire. In May and June, new violences were committed. Kiddoe had parts of his grist-mill carried away. The still of William Cochran, another complying distiller, was destroyed, his grist-mill extremely injured, and the saw taken from his saw-mill. A note in writing was left for him, requiring him to publish in the Pittsburg Gazette, an account of his losses. In June, an attempt was made to open offices in Westmoreland and Washington, for the annual entries of stills. In the former county, it was kept open, with some difficulty, to the end of the month. But in Washington county it was sooner suppressed. On the night of the 6th of June, twelve persons, armed and painted black, broke into the house of John Lynn, where the office was kept. They cut off his hair, and tarred and feathered him. They made him swear never to disclose their names, and never again to suffer an excise-office in his house; and left him naked and tied to a tree. Some days after, he received a second visit; part of his house was pulled down; and he was forced to fly the country.

In the last session of congress, a bill was brought in for amending the excise law; and it passed on the 5th of June 1764. Process issued against a number of distillers in Fayette and Alleghany. In July, indictments were found in a circuit court held at Philadelphia, against two of the rioters, concerned, in November 1793, in the attack upon the house of a collector in Fayette county. The marshal of the district went in person to serve these processes. On the 15th of July, he was beset, on the road, in Alleghany county, by between thirty and forty armed men. They fired upon him, but without effect. On the 16th of July, about an hundred persons, armed, made an attack on the house of the inspector of the revenue, near Pittsburg. After some time, they went off. The inspector applied, by letter, to the judges, generals of militia, and sheriff of the county, for protection. He was informed, in answer, that protection was impracticable. He was, however, joined by eleven men from the garrison of Fort Pitt, and one of his friends, major Abraham Kirkpatrick. He withdrew to a place of concealment, and the others undertook the defence of the house. A firing ensued. There was killed James Macfarlane, a major in the militia, and who is said to have been the ringleader of the rioters. Several others were wounded, as were three of the party who defended the house. At last, the assailants set fire to the adjacent buildings, eight in number. Major Kirkpatrick and his party were then forced to surrender; and the house was burnt to the ground. The marshal, with col. Presley Neville, and several others, were taken going to the house. All the prisoners made their escape, excepting the two first, who were detained till about one o'clock next morning, at an imminent hazard of their lives.

Next day, a deputation was sent by the rioters, to Pittsburg, to require that the marshal and the inspector should resign their offices. Instead of this, they fled; and as it was known, that the usual routes to Philadelphia were beset, they began a voyage down the Ohio, on the night of the 19th of July. On the 25th of the same month, the mail between Pittsburg and Philadelphia was intercepted by two men, who broke it open, and took away most of the letters, to discover the sentiments of the writers. Several persons, in consequence of discoveries made in this way, have been forced to quit the country. A meeting has since been held, of delegates, from the four western counties of Pennsylvania, and from Ohio county, in Virginia. They entered into resolutions, in which they reprobated the taking of citizens for trial out of their vicinage—recommended the appointment of a committee to draft a remonstrance to congress, praying a repeal of the excise law, and that a less odious tax might be substituted in its stead, which the people of those counties will cheerfully pay—and

finally engaged to exert themselves in support of the municipal laws of the several states, and especially in preventing any violence or outrage against the property or person of any individual.

Thus affairs remain at present. The president of the united states has issued a requisition for drafts from the militia of Pennsylvania, New-Jersey, Maryland and Virginia, to hold themselves in readiness against the first of September, as a last resource, to enforce, if necessary, the execution of the laws. Mean while, commissioners from Pennsylvania, and from the united states, have been dispatched to treat with the insurgents. The event remains in the womb of time. That the dreadful alternative, of fellow citizens embruing their hands in each others blood, may be avoided, in some honourable mode, is our wish, and that of every good citizen of the union.

V E R M O N T.

SITUATION AND EXTENT,

	Miles.	
Length.	160	} between { $42^{\circ} 44$ and 45° north latitude, $1^{\circ} 43$ and $3^{\circ} 36$ east longitude, from Philadelphia.
Breadth on the south line,	40	
on the north line,	96	
Containing 10,237 square miles, and 6,552,000 acres.		

BOUNDARIES.] VERMONT is bounded, south, by the north line of Massachusetts, and a line continued west from the northwest corner of Massachusetts, in the south line of the town of Pownal; to the southwest corner of that town; on the west by a line in the west lines of the towns of Pownal, Bennington, Shaftsbury, Arlington, Sanguate, Rupert, Pawlett, Wells, and Poultney, to the river which empties into the East Bay, thence down the deepest channel of that river to East Bay which is an arm of Lake Champlain; thence along the deepest channel of South Bay, and Lake Champlain, to the west of the islands called Four Brothers, the Grand Isle, and Isle a Motte, to latitude 45. On the north, by a line drawn on the 45th degree of latitude, from Lake Champlain on the west, to Connecticut river on the east. The west bank of Connecticut river is the eastern boundary.

This state has the states of New-Hampshire, on the east, Massachusetts, on the south, New-York, on the west, and the province of Quebec, on the north.

DIVISIONS.] Vermont is at present divided into the following counties.

	Counties.	Shire towns.		Counties.	Shire towns.	
On the west.	{	Bennington,	{	Windham,	New Fane,	
		Rutland,		Manchester,	Windfor,	{ Windfor and
		Addison,		Rutland,	{	Woodstock,
		Chittenden,		Middlebury,	Orange,	Newbury.
		Burlington,				
			On the east.			

The following counties have been formed on the northern part of the counties of Chittenden and Orange: Franklin, on the west, Orleans, in the middle, Caledonia and Essex, on the east; but they are not to be organized until the year 1796.

These counties are divided into two hundred and nineteen towns. The towns are incorporated and organized much in the same manner as the towns in Massachusetts and Connecticut. In each of the towns granted by the governor of New-Hampshire, while this territory was under the jurisdiction of that province, in number one hundred and fourteen, there is a reserve of one right of land, in fee, usually containing three hundred and thirty acres, for the first settled minister in such town; one right as a glebe, for the church of England; one right to the society in Britain for the propagation of the gospel in foreign parts; and one right for the support of a school in the town. In the remaining towns granted by the state of Vermont, there is one right for the use of an university; one for the use of schools in each town; one for the use of county grammar schools, and one for the support of the gospel.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] Lake Champlain, more than half of which lies within the state of Vermont, from Whitehall, formerly Skeensborough at the southern extremity, including South Bay, to latitude 45, is one hundred miles in length. It is about twelve miles in breadth in the widest place*. Lake Memphramagog lies partly in the state of Vermont, and partly in the province of Quebec, the line crossing it about seven miles from the southern extremity. This lake communicates with the St. Lawrence, by the river St. Francois. There are numerous small lakes and ponds of less note, some of the principal of which are, Willoughby's Lake, in Greensborough, Leicester Pond or Lake, in the town of Salisbury, remarkable for the depth and transparency of its waters, and for a large species of trout which it produces, some of which have been found to weigh above nineteen pounds, Lake Bombazon, in Castleton, and a large pond in the town of Wells.

Few countries are better watered than the state of Vermont. Numerous perennial fountains rise on almost every farm. In this state is the height of land, between Connecticut, Hudson and St. Lawrence. Streams descend from the mountains in various directions, and form numerous small rivers, which fertilize the lands through which they pass, and furnish abundant conveniences for mills and founderies. The river Connecticut lies wholly within the state of New-Hampshire, the western bank being the eastern boundary of Vermont; but from its present importance to the commerce of this state, and the prospect of opening an inland navigation from Hartford, in Connecticut to Barret, in Vermont, more than one hundred miles from the south line of this state, merits to be noticed in this place. This river has its source in the highlands which divide the waters falling southward into the Atlantic, from those which fall into the St. Lawrence, about fifty miles north of latitude 45. From its source, or rather that of its north-western branch, to latitude 45, it is the boundary between the united states and the British dominions in America. For about one hundred and twenty miles from its rise, its course is about S. W. by S. thence its general course is nearly south, until, passing through Massachusetts and Connecticut, it empties itself into the sound, between Saybrook and Lime. Its length, from its source to the sea, including all its turnings, is nearly four hundred miles, and it crosses more than four parallels of latitude. Loaded boats ascend from Hartford, in Connecticut, to the foot of the fifteen mile rapid, five miles above Newbury, about two hundred and twenty miles from the sea. In this course, the navigation is interrupted by the rapids at Hadley; Miller's Falls, at or near Northfield; Bellow's Falls, between Rockingham in Vermont, and Watpole in Newhampshire; Queechy Falls, a little below the mouth

* The state of New-York has, by an act of legislation, established a company for the purpose of opening an inland navigation, by the Hudson, from Lansingburg to fort Edward, and from fort Edward to Wood Creek and Lake Champlain. The work is now in forwardness, and, when completed, will open to Vermont a water communication with Lansingburg, Albany, and New-York. The whole of this inland navigation will be three hundred and seventy miles, from latitude 45 to New-York.

of the river of that name, and White-river Falls; four and a half miles below Dartmouth College. Companies have been formed by the several states of Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, and Vermont, for the purpose of removing these obstructions, by means of locks; some of which are nearly completed. The perpendicular height of Bellows's Falls, reckoning from the foot to the upper bar, the distance of about one hundred rods, is forty feet. From this bar, the river descends with considerable rapidity, and several breaks, to the head of the greet reef, where it is divided by an island rock, rising above every flood, with a few scattered shrubs on its top. The waters pass this rock in two channels, with great rapidity, and at the instant of their junction, are precipitated through a narrow channel into the basin below. They rush down this narrow precipice with amazing violence, and have excavated the rock and earth below to an unknown depth. Large masts, in floating down, sometimes lodge across the narrow channel, and are instantly rent asunder by the force of the current. Every log, and even mast of the greatest length which comes over the falls, plunges at once into the abyss below. After disappearing some seconds, it rises on end, nearly perpendicular out of the water, the end which descended first rising last, with such violence as to throw one fourth of its length out of the water.

The falls of Queechy, are but a slight obstruction. The falls, or rapids of White river, are about half a mile in length, and twenty feet perpendicular height.

The smaller river which falls into Connecticut river, on the east, are,

	Rises in	Empties at
The Pocomptic or } Deerfield river, }	Somerset,	Deerfield in Massachusetts,
Wantastic or } West river }	{ Bromley and } Mount Holly }	Brattleborough.
Saxton's river,	Londonderry,	Westminster.
Williams's river,	Andover,	Rockingham.
Black river,	Saltash,	Springfield.
Queechy river,	Killington,	Hartland.
White river,	Killington,	Hartford.
Ompompanoosock;	Tonbridge, and Vershire,	Norwich.
Wait's river,	Orange,	Bradford.
Wells' river,	Grafton,	Newbury.
Pasumpsick,	Westmore,	Barnet.
Mulhegan,	Lewis,	Brunswick.

On the north, and falling into Lake Memphramagog, are,

	Rises in	Empties at
The Clyde,	Navy,	Derby.
Bortan,	Westmore,	Salem.
Black river,	Greensborough,	Duncansborough.

On the west, and falling into lake Champlain, are.

	Rises in	Empties at
Missisquoi,	Kellyvale,	Highgate.
La Moelle,	Greensborough,	Milton.
Winauski, or } Onion river, }	Cabot,	Between { Colchester and } Burlington.

La Platte,	Rises in	Empties at
Lewis creek,	Starksborough,	Shelburne.
River a Lotris, or	Bristol,	Ferrisburg.
Otter creek, }	Bromley,	Ferrisburg.
Poultney river,	Tinmouth,	Ea ft Bay.
Mettowee or }	Dorset,	{ Lake Champlain, by
Pawlett river, }		{ Woodcreek.

On all these rivers, from six to eight miles from the lake, are very considerable falls to the feet of which they are navigable for the largest boats.

Falling into the Hudson, are,

	Rises in	Empties at
The Battenkill,	Bromley,	Saratoga.
Hofack, north branch,	Woodford,	
south branch, }	Enters Pownal from	} Schaticoack.
	Massachusetts,	

The rivers and lakes abound with various kinds of fish. Shad are taken in Connecticut river, as high as Bellow's Falls, over which they never pass. Salmon are caught in the spring, the whole length of Connecticut river, and in most of its tributary streams. A small species of salmon is taken in Lake Champlain, the Winouki, La Moelle, and Missiscoui, but in none of the southern rivers. Perch, pike, pickerel, maskinungas, a very large species of pickerel, pout, mullet, and a fish called lake bass, are found in great plenty. All streams abound with salmon trout.

SPRINGS.] Besides the numerous springs of fresh water, there are some chalybeate springs. There is a spring in Orwel, near Mount Independence, and another in Bridport, which produce the Epsom salts.

MOUNTAINS AND FACE } OF THE COUNTRY. } Vermont is divided, from north to south, by a high chain of mountains. The chain, has, from the evergreens with which it is covered in many places, obtained the name of Green mountain, from which the name of VERMONT is derived to the state. The southern extremity is called West Rock, a huge precipice about three miles from Newhaven, in Connecticut; thence the mountain ranges northward, rising in height, as it advances through Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Vermont. Towards Lake Memphramagog it spreads into a high plain country, exceedingly fertile, and passes into the province of Quebec. After having formed the rapids of St. Francois, it collects into a high range of mountains, which terminate near the St. Laurence. In the state of Connecticut, it is mostly a high range, assuming, at a distance, the appearance of a very considerable mountain. It is, however, mostly cultivated, and furnishes many very fine grazing towns. It produces more beef, butter, and cheese, than any other parts of the state; and no where is there a greater appearance of thrift among the farmers, than in several of these towns. In Massachusetts, the range is higher and more rugged, but has very considerable settlements throughout. From Massachusetts line, more than eighty miles to the north, the western verge of the Green-mountain is from twenty to thirty miles on a straight line from Connecticut river. Almost the whole of this country is formed with mountains ranging parallel with the course of Connecticut river. The west range, which continues unbroken, with few exceptions, nearly through the state, is, in general, much the highest. On the east they decrease gradually to the meadows, and sometimes to the edge of the river. These last are intersected by the rivers which run into the Connecticut, in a direction nearly from the northwest to the south east. The vallies,

or rather glens which separate these ranges, are generally narrow, and mostly covered with hemlock, fir, and spruce, from which the lengthy moss, depending on almost every branch, not only bespeaks them to be of a very venerable antiquity, but is no unequivocal indication of the cold humidity of the air, and barrenness of the soil.

About one hundred miles from Massachusetts line, between the waters of White river and Winouski, or Onion river, there passes off to the northeast, a range of high lands, frequently rising into very elevated mountains. This runs parallel with Connecticut river; the height being from ten to fifteen miles distant as far as the north line of the state. The western range continues northward, sometimes falling below the clouds, sometimes rising above them. Between these two ranges, extending from twenty to thirty miles in breadth, is a beautiful champaign country, second in fertility; perhaps, to none in Vermont.

The most remarkable mountains in the state are, Mount Anthony, between Bennington and Pownal, Stratton Mountain, Danby Mountain, Kellington Peaks, Kingston Mountain, Camel's Rump, Mansfield Mountain, a very high mountain between Kelly-vale and Belvidere, and Ascutna, between Windsor and Weathersfield. On the west of the Green mountains, there is one, and, in some places, two or three ranges of smaller mountains, though frequently interrupted. These extend as far as the north line of the county of Putland: from that to the latitude of forty-five degrees, one hundred miles in length, and from twenty to thirty miles in breadth, between Lake Champlain and the Green mountain, is a fine tract of land, abounding with only moderate hills. Through this whole extent, few, even moderate tracts, can be found unfit for cultivation.

CLIMATE.] During the winter in Vermont, the sky is mostly serene, a keen air, and the ground, from about the middle of December to the latter part of March is covered with snow; and on the high lands, among the mountains, frequently to the depth of four or five feet. It is found, however, that the severity of the winter is sensibly moderated and the quantity of snow diminished as the settlement and cultivation of the country have advanced. As there is little frost in the earth, on the dissolution of the snows, vegetation generally advances in the spring, with great rapidity.

SOIL AND PRODUCTION.] There are a great variety of soils in Vermont; loam, sand, gravel, clay, marl, slate, and these variously intermixed. The country in general even the hilly and mountainous part, is not rocky. On the west side of the Green mountain, and in many places on Connecticut river, is raised a great quantity of wheat, of an excellent quality, particularly on the marly lands bordering on Lake Champlain. On the mountainous part, to the east, winter wheat does not, in general, succeed until the lands have been some time cultivated. But summer wheat thrives well, as do, very generally, barley, oats, peas, flax, and all kinds of edible roots which are cultivated in the neighbouring states. The warmer soils, and the lands along the rivers, produce good Indian corn. The state affords the best pasturage, particularly the higher lands and already sends considerable quantities of fine beef to market.

MINES, MINERALS AND FOSSILS.] Iron mines abound on the west side of the Mountain. The first iron mine in this state was opened in Tinmouth, in the year 1785; since which others have been discovered and worked in Shaftsbury, Rutland, Shoreham, Monkton, and Milton. Several have been found, which have not yet been worked. A lead mine has lately been discovered in Sunderland. The veins in a rock of white flint. The ore is very rich, but the mine has not been opened sufficiently to discover the quantity. In Shewsbury, in the county of Rutland, is found a mine of that species of iron ore called pyrites; the same in quality, though not in appearance, with what are called brass lumps, from which copperas, or green vitriol, is extracted. It is so highly sulphureous, that a piece, thrown into the fire, will blaze like a

brimstone match. From this ore, small quantities of copperas have been made, merely for experiment. There is in the town of Rutland, a vein of very fine pipe-clay, which has been wrought into crucibles, that prove very durable. This may hereafter furnish a material for a valuable manufacture of white earthen-ware. Numerous quarries of marble, white, grey, and variegated, are found in almost every town from Bennington to the Missisquoi. A quarry has lately been opened in Bennington, which, in fineness and beauty and variety of its clouds, may vie with the best imported marble.

[TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] The trade from this state is principally to Hartford, Boston and New-York. Some little trade is carried on with the province of Quebec. The remittances to Quebec are mostly made in lumber, such as boards, plank, square timber and staves, by Lake Champlain and the St. Laurence. The articles of export to Hartford, Boston, and New-York, are horses, beef, pork, butter, cheese, wheat, wheat-flour, iron, nails, pot and pearl ashes. Of the two last articles, one thousand tons were made in the state in the year 1791.

There are several distilleries for corn spirits in this state. At Middlebury is a porter brewery on a pretty large scale. The iron manufactory is carried on to a considerable extent. In the county of Bennington are three forges and a furnace. In the county of Rutland are fourteen forges, three furnaces, and a slitting mill. In the counties of Addison and Chittenden are five forges: In common seasons, large quantities of maple sugar are manufactured for home consumption. Most families manufacture, in their houses, the greater part of their common clothing, from flax and wool raised on their own farms, of an excellent quality.

[ANIMALS.] The domestic animals are horses and black cattle; to the breed of which, great attention has been paid of late; jacks, mules and a very fine breed of sheep, which thrive no where better perhaps than in Vermont. The indigenous quadrupeds are the moose-deer, common deer, bears, wolves, cats of the mountain, wild cats, black cats, foxes, a species of hare which are white in winter, several kinds of squirrels, martins, the mink, otters, and beavers; although the latter are perhaps hardly to be found in the state at present. Here is also to be found the porcupine or hedge hog. It has been confidently asserted, that this animal has the power of shooting his quills at a considerable distance, to the no small danger of his pursuers. This however is a mere fiction. The quills of this animal are slightly inserted. They have a very sharp and fine barbed point. When attacked, instead of standing in his defence, he lies on his belly, and draws himself into the shape of a ball, and, by means of stiff bristles with which his body is thinly covered, erects his quills in every direction. If a dog, or other creature ventures to attack him in this position, the head and mouth are instantly filled with the quills, and, indeed, every part which comes in contact with their points. These quills, by reason of their fine, barbed points, are extracted with difficulty, and if left to themselves, soon make their way through any of the fleshy parts. It is however frequently killed with a short club, without the least danger. Its weight is from twelve to twenty pounds.

[POPULATION, RELIGION, AND CHARACTER.] The number of people in Vermont, according to the census taken in the year 1790, was eighty-five thousand five hundred and eighty-nine. Since that time the increase of population has been very great. The inhabitants of Vermont consist principally of emigrants from Massachusetts and Connecticut, and their descendants. There have been some from Rhode Island, New-Hampshire, New-York, and New-Jersey. Two towns in Orange county, are mostly peopled from Scotland. The manners of the people are the same as those of the countries, from whence they emigrated. The body of the people are congregationalists. The other denominations are baptists, episcopalian, and quakers. Like all new settlers, they are industrious and enterprising.

[MILITARY STRENGTH.] There are on the militia rolls nineteen thousand five

hundred men. These are formed into four divisions, consisting of eight brigades and twenty-two regiments.

LEARNING AND LITERATURE.] In a new country, like Vermont, few have leisure to attend to the arts and sciences beyond the present occasions of life. The higher branches of learning are therefore very little taught in this state. Numbers however, are educated in the seminaries of the neighbouring states. In October, 1791, the legislature of the state passed an act for establishing an university at Burlington, on Lake Champlain, in a delightful situation, on the south side of the Winouski, or Onion river, and appointed ten trustees. The sum of six thousand pounds was secured by donation, part of which is to be applied to the erecting of buildings, and part settled as a fund for the support of the institution. There have been reserved in the several grants made by this state about thirty-three thousand acres of land, for the use of the university. This, in a few years, will become a very valuable fund. There is, in every town granted by the state, consisting of about one hundred, a right of land, containing about three hundred and thirty acres, on an average, reserved for the use of county gram mar schools; and in every town through the state, there is a right for the support of town-schools. In no country is common schooling more attended to. A family of children, who could not read, write, and understand common arithmetic, would be looked upon as little better than savages. The provision, in this respect, is certainly worthy of imitation. The inhabitants of each town are empowered by law to divide it into as many districts as shall be found convenient, to appoint one or more persons in each district, who, with the selectmen of the town, form a board of trust for the schools of that town; and are empowered to lease all lands and loan monies that belong to the town for the use of schools, and to prosecute or defend any suit or matter relating to their trust. The inhabitants of each district have likewise a power to appoint a committee of one or more persons, to raise by tax, on the rateable estates of the inhabitants of the district, one-half of the sum which they may find necessary for building a school house and supporting a school. The remainder of the money is to be raised by subscription, or, if voted by two-thirds of the inhabitants, by a tax in like manner. By these means, every class of citizens may have access to the common schools.

CURIOSITIES.] In the town of Clarendon, on the side of a mountain, is a remarkable cave. The entrance is through a marble rock, and it is about the size of a hog's head. It descends, making an angle of about twenty degrees with the horizon, thirty-one and a half feet and then opens into a large room, twenty-nine and a half feet in length, twelve and a half in breadth, and eighteen feet in height. Near the extreme end of this room is a narrow perpendicular descent into another room of an oval shape, twenty feet the longest, and fourteen feet the shortest diameter, and twenty feet in height.

In the year 1782, when this cavern was first discovered, there were numerous stalactites descending from the roof of the upper cavern. Some of these were four inches in diameter, and reached from the roof to the floor. The whole have since, by the wantonness of visitors, been broken down. There are, on the sides of the cavern, many incrustations, which evidently appear to have been formed by petrification. The matter of these incrustations, and the stalactites, is calcareous spar, or marble of the same quality as the rock from which the matter of their formation issued, and more or less indurated. These incrustations and stalactites appear to be formed by waters dripping or exuding from the rock, and which, in their passage through the strata of marble, have been elaborated and prepared for the production of new marble, much in the same manner as water is elaborated and prepared in passing through the stems and boughs of plants for the production of new shoots, &c.

There is another cave on a mountain in Dorset. It is an excavation in a solid marble rock. The entrance, which is a perpendicular ledge, twenty feet in height, is

about twelve feet broad, and as many in height. Within, it descends about twenty-five degrees, is twenty-five feet in breadth, twenty feet in height, and one hundred and fifty feet in length. At the farther extremity, two narrow passages run off to an unknown distance into the mountain, in very few places affording room for persons to stand erect. There are, in this cavern, no stalactites, nor, indeed, any proper petrifications. There is found, however, in several places, a white, friable, calcareous earth, that appears to be formed by water which percolates through the incumbent strata, and which, from the descent of the cavern and the rise of the rock above, is, within thirty feet of the entrance, one hundred and fifty feet in thickness.

In the south part of Manchester, in a hill a little west of the Batten kill, is a deep stratum of friable calcareous earth, of the whiteness of chalk. This earth, with a little burning, produces lime of a good quality. A lump, taken fresh from the stratum, and carefully broken with the hand, exhibits, in perfect shape, innumerable muscle shells, scallops, &c. intermixed with sticks, leaves, and other substances. The whole are, however, so perfectly macerated and assimilated, as to form one uniform mass; what was once vegetable matter, not being distinguishable, except to the eye, on being opened as-mentioned above, from the matter of the shells.

On the South Hero (Grand Isle) in lake Champlain, about twelve feet from the present high water mark, is a large quarry of fine building stone, of greyish blue marble, which, on being split horizontally, appears to be wholly formed by the petrification of small scallops, a species of shell frequently to be met with in the neighbourhood of the lake, intermixed with the common earth of the shore, which is of a marly nature.

Between Burlington and Colchester, the Winouski has worn a bed through a solid rock of lime stone, which, in some time of remote antiquity, must have formed at this place a prodigious cataract. The chasm is between seventy and eighty feet in depth at low water; and, in one place, seventy feet from rock to rock, where a wooden bridge is thrown across.

On the same river, at Bolton, is a chasm formed in the same manner. It is somewhat wider, and the rock is at least one hundred and thirty feet in height. From one side several large rocks have fallen across the river, in such a manner as to form a natural bridge at low water, but in a situation to be an object of curiosity only. Several other rivers exhibit similar instances.

A remarkable change was made in Poultney river, in the year 1783. This river empties into East Bay, which communicates with Lake Champlain, at Whitehall, (formerly Skeensborough.) A little above its junction with East Bay, a ridge of land crosses in a northerly direction, the river running a northwesterly course, on meeting the ridge, turned suddenly to the northeast, and, keeping that course about half a mile, then turning westerly, passed the ridge over a very high ledge of rocks. For several years the river had gradually worn away the bank on the side of the ridge just in the bend where the river turned to the northeast. In May, 1783, during a remarkable freshet, the river, at this place, broke the ridge, and, meeting no rock, it wore a channel sixty feet deep nearly to a level with the stream below, leaving the former channel and falls dry. The channel of the river, for a considerable way above this place, was lowered to a great depth, so that the low meadow lands, along the river, which before were overflowed with every freshet, have now become a dry plain. The earth thrown out of this prodigious chasm, filled East Bay for several miles, where it had been navigable for vessels of forty tons burden, so that a canoe could with difficulty pass at low water, and even obstructed the navigation at Fiddler's Elbow, a narrow place near the entrance from Whitehall to South Bay. These obstructions (both at the narrows and in East Bay) have since been mostly removed by the force of the current. Similar alterations appear to have been made in

other rivers. Connecticut river has lowered its channel from 80 to 100 feet perpendicular, thro' the whole length of this state. From the various steps, ranged one above another, and which must, at various times, have formed the bank of the river, the alterations appear not to have been made at once, nor in continuance thro' the whole length of the river, but at remote and unequal periods. These changes appear, in some instances, to have been occasioned by the river suddenly shifting its channel, as was the case of the river at Fairhaven, mentioned above; in some instances, by a gradual attrition of the rocks, which, in some remote period of antiquity, formed numerous cataracts. On the plain where Dartmouth college stands, which is nearly 100 feet above the present bed of the river, logs of timber have been dug up at the depth of twenty five and thirty feet below the surface. This is about the depth of the river at present in the highest freshets, and of what is called the made or meadow lands on the river, and both are formed in the same manner with alternate strata of clay, sand, and gravel. Some of the earth, which has in a lapse of time been scooped out of the immense chasm, has doubtless been carried into the sea; while large quantities have served to fill the numerous lakes, of larger or smaller dimensions, through which the river once made its way. In Burlington, on the Winouski, a little above the chasm worn in the rocks, as mentioned above, is a large bow of intervalle land. On a part of this, which now lies considerably higher than the river, a well was dug by the owner, a Mr. Lane, in the summer of 1786. Through the whole depth of the well, which was fifty feet, the earth was composed of a fine river sand: twenty-five feet below the surface, were dug up a large number of frogs in a torpid state, which were found bedded in the earth like small stones. After being exposed a short time to the air, they discovered signs of life and soon were able to leap about: They did not, however, continue long, but presently became languid, and died. This was probably owing to their being at once exposed to the burning heat of a summer's sun, without water. They might unquestionably have recovered the usual vigour of their species, had more attention been paid to them. These frogs must have been buried in the spot where they were found, by some extraordinary inundation of the river, while in that state of torpor in which they always pass the winter in those climates, and have continued in that situation for centuries. Forty-nine feet below the surface, in the same well, was found a log of timber. But these matters belong rather to natural history than to geography.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Vermont is a representative democracy. To the constitution is prefixed a bill of rights, which is declared to be a part of the constitution. By this bill it is asserted, that all men are born equally free and independent, and have certain inherent unalienable rights, among which are, the rights of enjoying and defending life and liberty, of acquiring and possessing property, of pursuing and obtaining happiness and safety; that no person ought to be holden as a slave, servant, or apprentice, unless by consent, after the age of twenty-one years, if a male or of eighteen years, if a female; that all men have a right to worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences and understanding; that no man can be justly abridged or deprived of any civil rights, as a citizen, on account of his religious sentiments, or peculiar mode of religious worship; that all power is originally inherent in the people; that government ought to be instituted for the common benefit of the people, nation, or community; that the community has an indubitable right to reform or alter the government; that every member of society has a right to the protection of life, liberty, and property; and is bound to contribute his proportion of the expense of government, and yield his personal services when necessary; that no man can be compelled to give evidence against himself; that trials by jury ought to be held sacred; that the freedom of the press ought not to be restrained; that the people have a right to bear arms; and that no standing army shall

be maintained in time of peace. By the constitution, the supreme legislative power is vested in a house of representatives, the members of which are annually chosen by the freemen, on the first Tuesday of September, and meet on the second Thursday of October following. Each inhabited town in the state has a right to send one representative and, in the year 1793, the whole number of representatives was one hundred and thirty. The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, lieutenant governor, and twelve counsellors, chosen annually by the freemen. They have an advisory, but no other power in making laws, except, that if the house of representatives reject their proposals of amendment to any law to be passed, the governor and council have the power to suspend its operation, until the next session of the legislature. The qualifications for a freeman are that a person shall be twenty-one years of age, of a good moral character, have resided one whole year in the state, and take an oath that he will give his vote, so as he shall, in his conscience, think will most conduce to the good of the state. Each member, before he takes his seat, must take an oath of allegiance to the state, and an oath not to propose or consent to any bill, vote, or resolution, which shall tend to abridge the rights of the people as declared by the constitution; but no religious test is required. Courts of common pleas are established in each county. There is one supreme court for the whole state which has cognizance of all matters, civil and criminal. This court has an appellate jurisdiction in civil, and original jurisdiction, in criminal causes, and has further the powers of a court of chancery. The judges of these courts, justices of peace, and judges of probate, are annually appointed by the governor, council, and house of assembly. Every seventh year, beginning with 1792, thirteen persons, none of whom are to be of the council or assembly, are to be chosen by the freemen, and called the council of censors, whose duty it is to enquire whether the constitution has been preserved inviolate, whether the powers of government, in the several departments, have been properly exercised, taxes justly and equally laid and collected, public monies rightly disposed of, and the laws duly executed. For these purposes they have power to send for persons, papers, &c. to pass public censure; to order impeachments, and to recommend the repeal of all laws which they shall deem unconstitutional. These powers they possess for one year after their election. They may propose amendments to the constitution, and call a convention to determine on such amendments.

HISTORY.] The fourth part of the territory of Vermont was formerly claimed by Massachusetts. As early as the year 1718, that government had granted forty-nine thousand acres, comprehending part of the present towns Brattleborough, Fulton, and Putney, as an equivalent to the colony of Connecticut, for some lands which had been granted by Massachusetts within the limits of the Connecticut charter. In the year 1725, the government of Massachusetts erected a fort in the town of Brattleborough. Around this fort were begun the first settlements within the present limits of Vermont. On a final settlement of a dispute between Massachusetts and New-Hampshire, the present jurisdictional line between Vermont and Massachusetts, was run and established, in the year 1741. From that time until the year 1794, this territory was considered as lying within the jurisdiction of New-Hampshire. During this period, numerous grants were made, and after the year 1760, some considerable settlements were begun under the authority of that province. In the year 1764, by order of the king of Britain, this territory was annexed to the province of New-York. The government of that province pretended to claim the right of soil, as well as jurisdiction, and held the grants formerly made under New-Hampshire to be void. This occasioned a long series of altercation between the settlers and claimants under New-Hampshire and the government of New-York, and which, at the commencement of the revolution, terminated in the establishment of a separate jurisdiction in the present state of Vermont. A particular detail of this controversy,

would be unentertaining. It is sufficient to observe, that on the 17th day of October, 1790, the dispute was finally compromised, by commissioners appointed by the states of New-York and Vermont; and the claims of New-York, both to jurisdiction and property, extinguished in consideration of the sum of thirty thousand dollars to be paid by the state of Vermont to that of New-York: and on the 4th of March, 1791, Vermont was admitted a member of the federal union. In the late war, between Britain and the united states, the inhabitants of this territory took a very early and active part. Immediately on the news of the battle of Lexington, a company of volunteers, under the late general Ethan Allen, attacked and took the British garrison of Crown-Point and Ticonderoga. A regiment was commissioned by congress and continued in service under the command of the late col. Warner. Other troops were raised and constantly kept in service by the convention of the New-Hampshire grants, and afterwards by the state of Vermont. The spirit of these troops, and the militia of the grants, in the battle of Hubbardton and Bennington, in the year 1777, and the assistance which they afforded in the capture of Burgoyne, are well known to the public. General Burgoyne, in a letter to the British ministry, written at Saratoga, makes the following observation: "The inhabitants of the New Hampshire grants, a territory unpeopled and almost unknown in the last war, now pour forth by thousands, and hang like dark clouds on my left."

NEW - HAMPSHIRE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length,	168	} between {	42° 41' and 45° 11' N. lat.
Greatest breadth,	90		2° 41' and 4° 29' E. lon. from Philad.

Containing 9491 square miles.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS state is bounded; on the east, by the district of Maine, and the Atlantic ocean; on the west, by the eastern bank of Connecticut river, which divides it from Vermont; on the north, by the province of Lower Canada; and on the south, by Massachusetts. The shape of New-Hampshire is nearly that of a right angled triangle. The district of Maine and the sea form its base, the Massachusetts line its perpendicular, and Connecticut river its hypotenuse. The length of the hypotenuse is one hundred and sixty eight miles. The greatest breadth, measured from the entrance of Passataqua harbour, to the mouth of West river, which falls into Connecticut river, opposite Chesterfield, is ninety miles. From thence northwards, it diminishes, by degrees, to about eighteen miles in breadth, which is the length of the northern boundary line, that separates this state from Lower Canada. The divisions of this province have presented an object of obstinate contention to some of the persons who had received grants of land from the kings of England. Their disputes produced a variety of surveys, which were likewise requisite for the determination of the divisional line between the provinces of Quebec and New-Hampshire. According to the latest surveys, the superficial area of this state was found to be nine thousand four hundred and ninety-one square miles, or six millions seventy-four thousand two hundred and forty acres. It is supposed that a deduction may be made, for water, of at least an hundred thousand acres.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] This state is divided into five counties, and subdivided into two hundred and fourteen townships, and locations, which are commonly about six miles square. The counties are as follow, with the number of inhabitants in each subjoined, from the general census taken in the year 1790.

Counties.	Inhabitants.	Chief towns.
Rockingham,	43,169	{ Portsmouth. Exeter. Concord.
Strafford,	23,601	{ Dover. Durham.
Hillsborough,	28,772	{ Amherst. Keen.
Cheshire,	32,871	{ Charlestown.
Grafton,	13,472	{ Haverhill. Plymouth.
Total number of inhabitants, 141,885		

CLIMATE.] In general, the air of the state is pure and salubrious. During the winter months, the wind blows most frequently from the northwest. This wind is very dry, cold, and bracing. "That the coldness of our northwest winds is owing to the great lakes, is a vulgar error," says Dr. Belknap,* "often retailed by geographical writers, and adopted by unthinking people. All the great lakes lie westward of the northwest point, and some of them southward of west. It is more natural to suppose, that the immense wilderness, but especially the mountains, when covered with snow, give a keenness to the air, as a cake of ice to a quantity of liquor in which it floats; and that this air, put in motion, conveys its cold as far as it extends."†

North east storms are commonly the most violent and of longest duration; and in these always occur the greatest falls of snow; after which the wind generally changes to the north-west, and blows briskly for a day or two, driving the snow into heaps. In the forests, however, as the wind has less power, the snow lies level, from two to four feet in depth throughout the winter season. On the mountains, the snow falls earlier, and continues later than on the lower grounds. On those elevated summits, the winds also have greater force, driving the snow into the long and deep gullies of the mountains, where it is so consolidated, as not to be easily dissolved by the vernal sun. On the south side of the mountains, snow may be seen as late as the middle of May, and, on the summits, till the month of July.

The deepest snows fall in February, and the weather is then the most severely cold; but the lowest depression of the thermometer is generally followed by wet and mild weather. In 1771, the snow did not fall till the end of January; but, in 1786, it was very deep in the beginning of December. Early snows are considered as beneficial to the soil, and the cultivation of vegetables, during the ensuing summer; for the ground, by being covered with a large body of snow, is kept warm, and the frost is prevented from penetrating to any great depth. The soil, when not covered with an early snow, but left exposed to the piercing influence of severe frost, is generally frozen to the depth of three feet or more.

* To this intelligent writer we are almost wholly indebted for the account of the state we are now describing.

† History of New-Hampshire, vol. iii. p. 17.

The farmers begin to house their cattle about the middle of November. By the beginning of May, the grass is sufficiently grown for them to live abroad; good farmers do not permit them to feed till the twenty-first of May, but scarcity of fodder obliges the less wealthy husbandman to turn them out to pasture sooner.

The winter of 1779-80 was remarkably dry, without rain or thaw, and as severely cold as any within the memory of the oldest inhabitants. It was called the Canada winter, from its similarity to the extreme and dry cold of that climate. In the month of January, there is sometimes a thaw, and a severe frost after it. The rains which fall, at these seasons, often freeze, and the trees are sometimes so incruusted with ice, that the smaller branches break with the weight. Light frosts have been known in every month of the year, except July. In the month of June, the green Indian corn is sometimes nipped, but it generally recovers and sprouts again.

During the spring months, there is generally a land breeze in the morning, and a sea breeze in the evening; the heat of summer also is frequently abated by refreshing breezes from the sea; but these do not reach more than twenty or thirty miles into the country. The northeast storms penetrate sixty or seventy miles from the sea, but their violence is abated at that distance.

In the latter part of June, and during the whole of July and August, the weather is very hot, and in August the heat is accompanied with a disagreeable dampness. Thunder is frequent in the summer months; it is sometimes heard in spring and autumn, but rarely, in the winter, though in snow-storms, the air is often highly electrified, and flashes are sometimes seen. Thunder showers in the summer, are often accompanied with hail, which proves destructive to the fields of grain; and this hail has sometimes been seen to remain, rolled into heaps, till the succeeding day; but it commonly melts soon after falling.

In spring, it is usual to burn the trees, which, during the preceding year, have been felled upon the new plantations. If the season be dry, the flames spread in the woods, and a large extent of the forest is sometimes on fire at once. Fences and buildings have been often destroyed, by these raging conflagrations. There is a singular method of extinguishing such a fire. As it is impossible to remove the trees and bushes fast enough to stop the flames by depriving them of fuel, a fire is kindled in the direction in which the conflagration spreads with most fury. They drive the flames of the lesser fire towards those of the greater, and when these meet, the conflagration is sometimes extinguished for want of materials. The idea of extinguishing one fire by means of another, is somewhat paradoxical. The operation requires many hands, much resolution, and dexterity; and does not always succeed. Even in swamps, a fire has penetrated for some feet under ground, and consumed the roots of trees. When it has raged to this degree, nothing but a heavy rain can extinguish the flames.

The aurora borealis was first remarked in New-Hampshire in the year 1719. It is said to be more frequent now than formerly.

SEA COAST.] The whole extent of the coast of this state is only about eighteen miles. The shore is mostly a sandy beach, within which are salt marshes, intersected by creeks. There are several coves for fishing vessels; but the only harbour for ships, is the entrance of Piscataqua, where the shore is rocky. Some ledges and points of rocks are situated to the southward of the harbour; yet there is no remarkable head land on the sea coast of this state. In the town of Hampton, there are two bluffs, elevated above the level of the beach, which are called the great and little bear's heads.

MOUNTAINS.] Monadnock lies in the south west parts of this state. The elevation of this mountain above the level of the sea, as measured in the year 1780, is three thousand two hundred and fifty four feet. Its summit is a naked rock, and on its sides are some marks of the explosion of subterraneous fire. In West river mountain, appearances of a similar kind are still more visible. About the year 1730, the garrison

of fort Dummer, four miles distant, were alarmed with frequent explosions of fire and smoke. The like appearances have been observed since.

The white mountains are the highest and most remarkable in New-Hampshire, or even in New-England. From the earliest settlement of the country, they have attracted universal attention. In clear weather, they are discovered before any other land, by vessels approaching the eastern coast; but, by reason of their white appearance, are frequently mistaken for clouds. They are visible on the land, at the distance of eighty miles, on the south and south-east sides; they appear higher, when viewed from the north east, and it is said, that they are seen from the neighbourhood of Chamble and Quebec. Some writers, who have attempted to give an account of these mountains, have ascribed their whiteness to shining rocks, or a kind of white moss; and the highest summit has been deemed inaccessible, on account of the extreme cold, which threatens to freeze the traveller, even in the midst of Summer.

The white mountains are the most elevated part of a ridge, which extends N. E. and S. W. to an immense distance. The area of their base is an irregular figure, the whole circuit of which is not less than sixty miles. The number of summits within this area, cannot, at present, be ascertained, the country around them being a thick wilderness. The greatest number which can be seen at once, is at Dartmouth, on the N. W. side, where seven summits appear at one view, of which four are bald. Of these, the three highest are the most distant, being on the eastern side of the cluster; one of these is the mountain which makes so majestic an appearance along the shore of the eastern counties of Massachusetts. It has lately been distinguished by the name of *Mount Washington*.

What stores the bowels of these mountains contain, time must unfold; all searches for subterraneous treasures, having hitherto proved fruitless. The most certain riches which they yield, are the freshets, which bring down the soil, to the intervals below, and form a fine mould; producing, by the aid of cultivation, corn and herbage, in the most luxuriant plenty.

Dr. Belknap informs us, that in July 1784, some gentlemen visited these mountains. They computed the height of the highest of them, at about five thousand five hundred feet from the level of the valley below, and ten thousand from the level of the sea. Subsequent observations and calculations render it probable, that the height exceeds 10,000 feet, of perpendicular altitude, above the level of the ocean.

Of the Connecticut river, we have already given a description, in our account of Vermont.

Amariscoggin river takes its rise near the dividing line between New-Hampshire and the district of Maine. There are several small ponds, together with lake Umbagog which flow into this river. From lake Umbagog the course of the river is in a southern direction, almost parallel to Connecticut river, and distant from it about twenty-five miles, but it is deeper, wider and more rapid. After Amariscoggin begins to take an easterly direction, it soon leaves the state of New-Hampshire, and crosses the line into the district of Maine. There, having watered a great extent of country, where new settlements are rapidly increasing, it forms a junction with Kennebeck, and flows into the sea at Sagadahoc.

The head of Saco river, is in the White mountains, at the western pass, commonly called the Notch; near which also rises the Lower Ammonoosuck, which runs westerly into Connecticut river. Saco takes a southerly direction down the mountain. A large branch of it, called Ellis river, rises at the eastern pass of the mountains, where also originates Peabody river, a branch of Amariscoggin. New river, which first appeared during a long rain, in October 1775, falls into Ellis river, near its source. It bore down many rocks and trees, forming a scene of ruin for a long course. It has ever since been

a constant stream; and where it falls into Ellis river, presents to view a noble cascade, of about one hundred feet perpendicular.

Pascataqua takes its rise from a pond in the north-east corner of the town of Wakefield, and its general course, towards the sea, runs S. S. E. for about forty miles. It divides New-Hampshire from York county in Massachusetts, and is called Salmon-fall river, from its head to the lower falls at Berwick; where it assumes the name of Newichawonnock, which it bears till it meets with Cochecho river, which comes from Dover, when both run together in one channel, to Hilton's point, where the western branch meets it. From this junction to the sea, the river is so rapid that it never freezes; the distance is seven miles, and the course generally from S. to S. E.

Merrimack river is formed by the confluence of Pemigewasset and Winnipiseogee rivers. The banks of this river, in some places, are very steep and rugged, and in its long descent from the mountain, there are many falls. It runs about ninety miles, first in a south-easterly, then in an easterly direction, and falls into the sea at Newburyport.

[LAKES.] The largest lake in this state, is known by the name of Winnipiseogee. It is about twenty-two or twenty-four miles in length; its breadth is unequal; but no where exceeds eight miles. Some very long necks of land project into it, and it contains several islands. From the circumjacent mountains, many streams issue, which discharge their waters into this lake; and between the mountains and the lake, are several ponds which communicate with it. In the winter, it is frozen about three months, and affords a convenient passage for numerous sleighs and teams from the neighbouring towns.

Umbagog is the next lake in size, and is situated in the northern extremity of the state. No complete description can be given of it, for no other survey has been made, than what was necessary in the year 1789, for extending the divisional line between New-Hampshire, and the district of Maine.

Besides these two lakes, there are also, the Great Ossipy, Squam, and Sunapee lakes, together with smaller ponds, which are numerous in different parts of the state.

[FORESTS.] Silence reigns through an American forest. In a calm day, no sound is heard, but the purling of a stream, or perhaps the chirping of a squirrel, or the squalling of a jay. Singing birds avoid the centre of the woods, where all is sublimity and solitude. Of trees, perhaps the most stately is the mast pine, which often rises to the height of one hundred and fifty, and sometimes of two hundred feet. It is as straight as an arrow, and has no branches, unless very near the top. Its diameter, at the base, is from twenty to forty inches. Interspersed among the mast pines, are the common forest trees of various kinds. Their height is generally from forty to eighty feet. In swamps, and near rivers, there is sometimes a thick growth of underwood. Amidst these wild scenes, trees may sometimes be seen growing upon a naked rock. Their roots either penetrate some of its crevices, or spread over its surface, and shoot into the ground. When a tree is contiguous to a small rock, its bark will frequently inclose and cover it. Moss is thickest on the north sides of the trees; by this mark, the savages know their course in cloudy weather. Many of our hunters have thus learned to travel without a compass.

It is difficult to give, by any description, an exact idea of an American forest. The country is of great extent, in the varieties of climate and of soil, vegetation assumes an endless diversity of forms. Yet this subject, like almost every other part of the history of the new world, has been strangely misrepresented by the writers of Europe. To believe their performances, one must imagine, that almost every tree, in the forests of America, grows from four to seven or eight feet in diameter, and from sixty to an hundred and twenty feet in height. In fact, a very large proportion of American trees are of the common size of those in the old world, and there are still to be seen in England, the remains of several very ancient oaks, of a much greater magnitude

than any trees which we remember to have heard of in America. Some of these, indeed rise to a larger bulk than is usual in Europe. A cherry tree has grown to about two feet in diameter, and twenty-five or thirty feet in height; and we have not met with any of this species in the old world that approached to such a size; but, in general, the difference in this respect is only trifling. In America, vegetation is more vigorous than in the British Islands; and a tree has acquired in this country a greater magnitude in twenty years than it can generally reach in England during forty.

The forests of America contain a prodigious variety of trees. To describe every particular species, presents a task hitherto beyond the limits of human knowledge. The woods of New Hampshire have, as it may readily be supposed, most kinds common over the rest of the continent; so that one description will, in a great measure, serve for the whole. We shall give a short abridgement of the observations made on this branch of the natural history of New-Hampshire by Dr. Belknap, interspersed with some additional remarks. It is desirable that every other province of the united states were illustrated by the labours of an historian, equally intelligent and instructive.

Besides the elm of Europe, which has been transplanted from the continent, there are two other varieties, the white, and the red. The sassafras affords a valuable ingredient for beer, and for medicinal purposes; and a tea which is well known in the united states. There are numerous kinds of wild cherry. The wood of the largest is very highly esteemed for cabinet work. It is a firm texture, a smooth grain, and a beautiful colour between red and yellow. The basswood, or lime tree, is sometimes sawed into boards. The locust tree is excellent fuel. Of the birch, there are four species; the white, the black, the red or yellow, and the alder. Of oak there are in this state four species; the black, the red, the shrub, and the chestnut, or newfound oak. Of the red oak, there are three varieties. One of them the swamp oak, is more elastic than any other oak wood. Splinters of this tree have been substituted for whalebone. Of the walnut, there are three kinds in New Hampshire; the white or round nut hickory, the shagbark, and the oil, or butter nut*. Of this last tree, the bark supplies an extract, which is found to be an excellent cathartic. The chestnut is chiefly used for fences, in which way prodigious quantities of this timber are employed over a great part of the continent. The wood is strait, coarse grained, easily split, and bids defiance to all kinds of weather. Of the beech, there are three varieties, the white, the red, and the black. The hornbeam is a small but tough tree, and used chiefly for levers, handspikes, and stakes. The buttonwood is chiefly used for windlasses, wheels, and blocks. Of the pine, there are seven sorts, the white, or mast pine, the yellow pine." says Dr. Belknap, is undoubtedly the prince of the American forest, in size, age, majesty of appearance." He adds, that more trees of this species have been produced in New-Hampshire, and the eastern counties of Massachusetts, than in all the rest of America. Of cedar, there are in New Hampshire, two kinds; the white, and red. The white cedar is a very different wood, from a tree known by the same name in the southern states. To this long catalogue, we must add, the white willow, the swamp willow, the poplar, or aspen, the black poplar, or balsam tree, two species of ash, and three of maple. The ash is distinguished into the white and the black, and this last kind has two subdivisions, or varieties, the red and yellow. The varieties of the maple are the white, the red and the black or SUGAR MAPLE. Of grapes there are two kinds, the black grape, and the fox grape: We shall close this article by adding the names of some of the wild fruits, common in the woods of New-Hampshire, viz. the black current, the wild

* It is to be observed, that the round walnut, common in Pennsylvania, is hardly known in New-England. The walnut of New-England comprehends the three species of wood mentioned in the text, which are known in Pennsylvania, by their particular names, with this difference, that the Pennsylvanians usually call the second species the shellbark.

gooseberry, many varieties of the whortlebury, also, the cranberry, the raspberry, the brambleberry, the running blackberry, the up-right blackberry, the strawberry, the bayberry, the hazlenut, and two kinds of ground nuts. To these we subjoin the celebrated root, ginseng, so much esteemed by the Chinese, and which grows in great plenty, in the western part of this state. Its sale has been injured by the loose and careless manner in which it has been packed, and by the superabundant exportation.

[HIGH ROADS AND MANNER OF TRAVELLING.] In laying out roads, and lines of townships, it is usual for the surveyor to make a large measure, of which, however, there is no certain standard. The manner of making a new road through a wilderness, is this. First, a surveyor and his party, with the compass and chain explore the country, and, where they find the land suitable, the trees are spotted, by cutting out a piece of the bark, and, at the end of every mile, the number is marked on the nearest tree. Then follow the axemen, who clear away the bushes and fell the trees, in a space of three rods wide, cutting them as near as possible to the ground, that the stumps may not impede travelling. In waste land the trees thus felled, or others which are proper, are formed into caufeways and bridges. Rocks are either turned out of the road, or split by gunpowder.

As the earth is open to the sun, many wet places are dried and brooks contracted; and as the land is gradually cleared, the smaller streams disappear. For crossing small streams, the beaver dams are found very safe and convenient. There are about three or four feet broad at the top, which is on a level with the water above, and is always firm and solid. New roads, therefore, are frequently laid out, so as to save expense, by taking advantage of the labour of that useful animal. High winds frequently blow down large trees by the roots, or break them off above ground. These trees often prove a great obstruction to new roads. A single horse may find his way over or round them; but if a team is to pass, the obstruction must be removed by the axe. For this reason, the driver of a team is always provided with one.

In a journey through New-Hampshire, the traveller is sometimes, from the distance between houses, forced to lodge in the woods. In this case, he soon raises a hut with his hatchet. Before the open side of the hut, he makes a large fire, and wraps himself in a blanket, with his feet towards it. He is in no danger from wild beasts, as they never approach a fire. People accustomed to the woods, do not always give themselves the trouble of building a hut, but lie wrapt in their blanket by a fire; or, in foul weather, spread their blanket on sticks, and lie under it.

[SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND DOMESTIC ANIMALS.] The best lands in this state are situated on each side of the creeks and rivers; and are called intervale lands. This soil is annually overflowed by the waters of the rivers, which in their course, bring down from the mountains, a rich slime, and deposit it there. These lands are not so good for pasture as the high grounds of a proper quality, but they produce all kinds of grain in plenty. The vallies between the hills are esteemed fertile: the swamps, when drained, consist of a deep, rich, mellow soil. The rocky, moist land, is proper for grazing; and the wide-spreading hills, of moderate elevation, are warm, rich, and fertile.

On the sea coast, and in some places of the interior country, the lands are sandy; but may be turned to advantage in common pasturage.

In the uncultivated parts of the state, the soil is distinguished by the various kinds of wood which grow upon it. The white oak land is hard and stony.

Pitch pine land is dry and sandy; by ploughing, it may be made to produce rye and Indian corn; but its strength is soon exhausted, and it requires to lie fallow.

In the eastern part of the state, spruce and hemlock, indicate a thin, cold, unkindly soil. But in the western part, the spruce and hemlock, with a mixture of birch, announce a moist soil, which is excellent for grass.

Beech and maple lands are a warm, rich, loamy soil. Red oak, and white birch are

signs of strong land; and generally the strength of land is judged of by the bulk of its timber. A very considerable part of this state is yet covered with woods.

The mode of clearing and cultivating new lands has been much improved within the last thirty years. Forty years ago it was thought impossible to raise Indian corn without the plough and the hoe. The mode of planting it among the burnt logs hath since become universal in the new plantations. It is now accounted more profitable for a young man to go upon new lands than to remain on the old. In the early part of life, the labour of every day, spent in subduing the wilderness, lays a foundation for future profit. Except the mode of subduing new land there has been no improvement made in the art of husbandry. The season of vegetation is short and is almost wholly employed in preparing, planting and tilling the land, in cutting and housing fodder, and gathering in the crops. Indeed so sudden is the succession of labours, that upon any irregularity in the weather, they run into one another; and, if hands are scarce, one cannot be completed before the other suffers from delay. Thus hay is often spoiled for want of being cut in season.

Very little use is made of any manure, except dung; though marle may be had in many places with or without digging. The mixing of different strata, is never attended to. Dung is seldom suffered to remain in a heap over the summer, but is taken, at the return of every spring, from the barn, and either spread over the field and ploughed in, or laid in heaps, and put into the holes where corn and potatoes are planted.

Apples and pears are the fruits chiefly cultivated in this province. The former produce excellent cyder. No good husbandman thinks his farm complete without an orchard. Apricots are scarcely known and peaches thrive not in New-Hampshire. They require a warmer climate.

Gardens, in the country towns are chiefly left to the management of women, the men contenting themselves with fencing and digging them; and it must be said to the honor of the female sex, that the scanty portion of earth committed to their care is often made productive of no small benefit to their families.

Agriculture is the chief business of the people of New-Hampshire. Every tree that is cut down in the forest, opens to the sun a new spot of earth adapted to cultivation. It is difficult to conceive what quantities may be produced of beef, pork, mutton, poultry, wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, pulse, butter, and cheese. Flax, hemp and hops, may be cultivated to great advantage. The first neat cattle were imported from Europe, into New-Hampshire about the year 1633. They were large and of a Danish breed. As the country becomes more and more cleared, the stock of pasture increases, and hence the number of the cattle is incessantly multiplied. This remark applies to each of the united states, as well as to New-Hampshire. From the upper parts of this state, great herds of fat cattle are driven to the Boston market, from whence some part of the beef is exported fresh to Nova Scotia, and the rest is salted for the East and West Indies. The horse is but little used for draught, and is not in the proportion of more than one to twenty of the neat cattle. Asses have been introduced but lately. Sheep are accounted the most profitable stock, which can be raised on a farm. Goats are not much propagated, but swine are extremely numerous. They are frequently fattened upon Indian corn. The pork of North America is much superior to that of Europe. Domestic poultry of all kinds are raised in great abundance and perfection in New-Hampshire.

METHOD OF MANUFACTURING } In this and several others of the united states,
MAPLE SUGAR } excellent sugar is extracted from the sap of the
maple tree. To obtain it, an incision is made by two scores, an inch and an half, or two inches deep, and from six to eight inches long in the form of the letter V. This tapping causes the tree to bleed very freely, and in two or three years kills it; but, if

care be taken to tap the tree by making a small circular incision, and stopping it with a plug, when the season is past, the bark will cover the wound, and the tree may last for many years. From the lower part of the incision, the sap is conducted by a small stick into a trough of wood capable of containing two or three gallons. Larger troughs or vats, are placed in a central situation, to serve as reservoirs for the sap when collected.

The season for tapping the trees is in March; and the sap will not run but in a clear day, succeeding a frosty night. A full-grown tree will then yield from two to three gallons each day. The persons employed in the business visit each tree and collecting the sap in buckets, remove it to the larger troughs; or, if the ground be very extensive it is put into barrels, which are drawn on sleds to the place appointed for boiling. Broad kettles, when set in brick or stone with the fire confined under the bottom; answer best, as there is then no danger of burning the sugar. As the sap evaporates, the kettles are filled up, the boiling is continued and the liquor is skimmed till it becomes a thick syrup. In this state, it may rest for a week.

The next operation is granulating, which may be done on a cloudy day, when no sap can be collected. But if there be a succession of fair weather, the trees will discharge so fast, that the collection must be attended to by day, and the boiling by night. When the syrup is to be granulated, the boiling is repeated. The kettle is then not more than half filled, to prevent waste. To check the too sudden rising of the liquor, a small piece of clean butter, or tallow, is occasionally thrown in. To know when it will granulate, a little of it is taken out and cooled; and when it appears to be in this state the whole is poured into a cooler. After the grain is formed, it is hung in bags to drain. A small quantity of quick lime, put into the liquor, as is usual in the West Indies, would promote and improve the granulation.

In every stage of the work, much neatness is required. The sap must be strained through a flannel sieve, before the first boiling to clear it of chips, leaves, and other adventitious substances; and, before the second boiling, it must undergo another straining. The sugar thus obtained, is by some of the best workmen, rendered as white as the finest muscovado. The drainings of the sugar are used as molasses. A very palatable and refreshing beer is made by boiling down the sap to a quarter part, and fermenting it with yeast; a wholesome liquor is obtained from the decoction of spruce in the sap. Vinegar also is made by boiling down the sap to the air.

The sugar thus extracted from the maple, is clear gain to the husbandman, as it is made at a time of the year when no field labour can be done. The ground is then covered with snow. One man and a boy have collected a sufficiency of sap for five hundred pounds of sugar, and a man, with two boys, for seven hundred. The boiling is often performed by women. The maple trees are found in many parts of the country; but they abound most in the lands between the White mountains and Connecticut river. The wood answers very well for the use of carpenters.

WILD ANIMALS] To write a regular history of the wild animals of North America, would be foreign to the plan of this work, and exceed its limits. But under the present article, we shall present a short view of such as are to be met with in New-Hampshire.

The seal, the bear, the wolf, the otter, the martin, the wild cat, the red and grey fox, the racoon, the weasel, the ermine, the hare, the rabbit, the mole, and the black rat, are too well known in both the old and the new worlds, to require a particular description. They are all said by Dr. Belknap, to be found in New-Hampshire. The beaver has now become scarce; but the vestiges of his labours are numerous. His skill in constructing dams, is known to every reader, and has been more often described than perhaps any other part of American zoology. Deer were formerly very numerous, but are now seldom seen. The moose is a very large animal. His flesh is

of a coarser grain than beef but sweet and tender. His hide makes good leather. He also is becoming scarce. The black, the red, the striped, and the flying squirrels, the shrew mouse, the ground mouse, and the field mouse, are likewise to be found in New-Hampshire. The skunk is distinguished by "the diabolical scent," as Buffon calls it, which he ejects, when pursued or in danger. He is about a foot and a half long, of a moderate height and size, and after it grows dark, is found stealing into the farm-yards, where he kills the poultry. The wolverene is said to be exactly the same with the badger of Europe. The woodchuck is about the size of the skunk. He feeds on pulse, the tops of clover, and some other vegetables. In October, he retires to his burrow, where he continues in a torpid state for six months. The musquash, and the mink are amphibious animals. The former builds a cabin of sticks and mud in a shallow pond; the latter burrows in the earth, by the sides of rivers. The musquash is remarkable for an oil bag affording a perfume, and the mink is valued for its fur. The hedge-hog or porcupine, urchin or urchon, for he has all this variety of names, appears to be a different animal from any which has been described as belonging to the old hemisphere. The catamount is said to be the most formidable to hunters of any animal in the American forest. One of them was killed some years ago in New-Hampshire. The entire length of his head, body, and tail, was about nine feet; the circumference of his body two feet and an half. He is carnivorous, and has been known to carry off a child.

Of birds, Dr. Belknap has enumerated about one hundred and twenty different kinds that are seen in New-Hampshire. Of these, by far the greater part are extremely well known.

POPULATION.] Chastellux, in his account of North America, remarks, that in one of his journeys he fell in with a party of men from New-Hampshire, and that they were the tallest and most robust persons whom he had seen on the continent. The climate, though rigorous, is very healthy, at least to the natives, which is evident from the rapid advance of population. In 1767, the number of inhabitants in this state, according to an estimate made at that time, amounted only to fifty-two thousand seven hundred. In 1775, to eighty-two thousand two hundred. By the census of 1790, they were found to be one hundred and forty-one thousand eight hundred and eighty-five; and, as four years have since elapsed, the state may be supposed, at this time, to contain at least an hundred and sixty thousand people. In 1790, it had only an hundred and fifty-eight slaves, a proportion too diminutive to deserve any attention. Dr. Belknap, on reasonable evidence, computes, that within less than the last nineteen years, the total number of inhabitants has actually doubled, though seven of these nineteen were years of war. Various causes have contributed to this uncommon advance of population in the state of New-Hampshire. One of these has been the abundance of vacant land, and the consequent emigration from other parts of New-England to this territory. The climate, as we have noticed above, is very salubrious. Dr. Belknap has collected a number of remarkable examples of longevity.

MANNERS AND CHARACTER.] Intrepidity in danger, and patience under fatigue, may be classed among the hereditary qualities of the inhabitants of New-Hampshire. In travelling, in hunting, in cutting timber, in making roads, and other employments in the forest, they become familiar with hardships. They frequently reside in the woods, for days, and weeks together, in all seasons of the year. A hut, composed of poles and bark, serves them for shelter; and on the open side of it, a large fire defends them from the severity of the weather. Those who begin a new settlement, live in a stile not less simple. They erect a square building of poles, notched at the end, to keep them fast together. The crevices are plastered with clay, or the stiffest earth which can be had, mixed with moss or straw. The roof is either bark or split boards. Many of these first essays in housekeeping are to be met with in the new plantations, which

serve to lodge whole families till their industry can supply materials for more regular and comfortable houses. Their children are early accustomed to coarse food and hard lodging; and to be without shoes in all seasons of the year, is scarcely accounted a want. Land being easily obtained, and labour of every kind familiar, there is great encouragement to population. A good husbandman, by the savings of a few years, can purchase new lands enough to give his eldest sons a settlement; and assist them in clearing a lot, and building a hut. The homestead is generally given to the youngest son, who provides for his parents, when age or infirmity disables them from labour. An unmarried man, at the age of thirty, is rarely to be found in the country towns of this state. The women are grand-mothers at forty, and it is by no means uncommon for a mother and daughter to have each, at the same time, a child at the breast. A father, son, and grandson frequently work together in the same field.

The people of New-Hampshire, in general, are industrious, and allow themselves very little time for diversions. At military musters, at judicial courts, at the raising of houses; at the launching of ships, at the ordination of ministers, which are seasons of public concourse, the young people amuse themselves with dancing. In some towns they have a practice, at christmas, of shooting geese for wagers; and, on many other occasions, the diversion of firing at marks is very common, and has an excellent effect in forming young men to a dextrous use of arms. The time of gathering Indian corn is always a season of festivity. The ears are gathered and brought home by day, and in the evening a company of neighbours join in husking them, and conclude with a supper and a dance.

The women spin and weave their own flax and wool; and, their families are clad in cloth of their own making. The inhabitants of Londonderry, an Irish settlement, and the towns which are composed of emigrants from it, enter largely into the manufacture of linen cloth and thread, and even make great quantities for sale.

EDUCATION AND STATE OF LITERATURE.] The old laws of New-Hampshire required, that every town of one hundred families, should keep a grammar school. The preceptor was obliged to teach reading, writing, arithmetic, and the learned languages. Sometimes, when the town was able, it has been directed to support two schools, one of which for the learned languages, was, by way of distinction, termed a grammar school. During the war with Britain, these schools were much neglected. In the year 1781, an academy was founded at Exeter, by the hon. John Phillips, L. L. D. for the education of youth, by the name of "Phillips's Exeter Academy, and several others have since been established in different parts of the state. The college of Dartmouth was founded in the year 1769. It is situated on the western border of this state, within half a mile of the river Connecticut. It has been of considerable advantage to the new and neighbouring state of Vermont; and is, at present, in a flourishing condition. In 1790, the under graduates were about an hundred and fifty, and their number has increased. They are under the inspection of a president, who is likewise a professor of history. Besides him, there is a professor of natural history and mathematics, and a third who is professor of languages. There are likewise two tutors. A grammar school, containing about sixty scholars, is annexed to the college.

This seminary possesses an immense landed property, extending to eighty thousand acres. Of these, twelve hundred lie contiguous to the college, and are capable of the best improvement. Twelve thousand are situated in Vermont. The revenues arising from these lands are at present but an hundred and forty pounds currency. In less than sixty years, it is probable that New-Hampshire and Vermont will be as populous as England, or very near it. The value of these lands will then rise in proportion. At five shillings sterling per acre, which will; by that time, have become a very moderate rent, these lands will then produce twenty thousand pounds sterling per annum. Such a prodigious revenue, if divided between twenty or thirty professors, may injure if

not ruin the college of Dartmouth, as far as regards every purpose of public utility. The very same cause, an enormous augmentation of their incomes, has reduced the English universities of Oxford and Cambridge to be an object of disgust and derision to every friend of learning. The reader will find this subject very fully explained by Dr. Adam Smith in his enquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations, and by Mr. Viceimus Knox, in his essays. It is the duty, therefore, of the legislature of New-Hampshire, to guard against the absurdity of bestowing upon a professor, so immense a regular salary, as to place him beyond the necessity of attending, in the strictest manner, to the duties of his office.

[RELIGION.] There is no point of government in which the united states more effectually display their superiority to the constitutions of Europe, than by the liberal establishment of an universal right of conscience. By the constitution of New-Hampshire, it is expressly provided, that no subordination of any one sect or denomination to another shall ever be established by law. No person of any one sect shall ever be compelled to pay for supporting the teachers of any other. This order of ecclesiastical affairs will most likely be very lasting.

Besides a few sandemanians, and universalists, the community is divided into five different professions of religion, viz. congregationalists, presbyterians, episcopalian, baptists, and quakers. Of these the congregationalists are the most numerous.

[PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Portsmouth is the largest town in this state. By the census of 1790, it contained six hundred and forty dwelling houses, and four thousand seven hundred and twenty inhabitants. It stands about two miles from the sea, on the south side of Pascataqua river. Its harbour is one of the best in North America, having a sufficient depth of water for ships of any burden:

Exeter is fifteen miles south west of Portsmouth; and its inhabitants, by the census, were seventeen hundred and twenty-two. It is a manufacturing town, situated upon Exeter, or Swamscot river, and the tide rises there twenty one foot. There are several smaller, but thriving towns in the state, such as Concord, Amherst, Dover, Durham, Keen, Charlestown, Haverhill, and Plymouth.

[CURIOSITIES.] There is a rock supposed to weigh sixty or seventy tons, in the township of Durham, situated on a hill, in a position, which appears to be natural. It lies so exactly poised on another rock, as to be easily moved by a very moderate effort.

Fossil shells have been found near Lamprey river, in New market, at the depth of seventeen feet. The shells were of oysters, muscles, and clams intermixed. Clam shells have also been discovered at the depth of twenty feet, in the neighbourhood of Dartmouth college. Fossil trees have been sometimes found.

At about five miles distance from Chester meeting-house, and very near the road leading to Concord, is an eminence called, Rattle-Snake hill. Its base is nearly circular, and about half a mile in diameter. It is very rugged, especially on the southern side, where it is almost perpendicular. The summit is about four hundred feet high. On this side, at the height of ten yards, is an aperture in the rocks, of about five feet high and twenty inches broad; which is the entrance to what is called the Devil's Den, a cavern, containing a variety of apartments, and winding passages, concerning which many frightful stories are told.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] In the western part of New-Hampshire, the produce is carried down Connecticut river to the town of Hartford in the state of Connecticut; on the north east it naturally takes a course down those rivers, which pass through the district of Main; and in the southern parts of the state, a considerable quantity is disposed of in the market of Boston.

The greater part of New Hampshire is, by nature, cut off from any commercial intercourse with Pascataqua, the only port in the state. Lumber being a bulky article must be transported to the most convenient landing. Waggons and sleighs, carrying pot:

or pearl ashes, pork, beef, cheese, flax, and other less bulky commodities--and droves of cattle, sheep and swine--will always be conveyed to those places where the seller can find the most advantageous market. For these reasons, it is impossible for this state to ascertain the total value of its own productions.

Ships, lumber, fish, horses, provisions, flaxseed, pot and pearl ashes may be reckoned the staple commodities of New-Hampshire.

Ship-building has always been a business considerably attended to, both by European traders and merchants of the country; the former were and are able to build much cheaper here than in Europe.

Ships are built in all the towns contiguous to the river Piscataqua, and its branches. Sometimes vessels of an hundred tons upwards, have been built at the distance of one or two miles from the water, and drawn on strong sledges of timber on the snow, by two hundred oxen, and placed on the river so as to float in the spring.

Eight ships were built in the river Piscataqua, in the year 1790; and twenty, in 1791. The cost of building is generally from eleven to twelve dollars per ton for the carpenter's work, and less than one-third more for iron and other work. The number of ships and other vessels belonging to the port of Piscataqua, in 1791, was thirty-three above an hundred tons, and fifty beneath it.

In the cod and scale fishery are employed annually twenty-seven schooners, twenty boats and two hundred and fifty seamen; and in a good season, they take upwards of twenty-five thousand quintals of fish. The whole number of seamen, belonging to New-Hampshire, in the year 1761, was eight hundred.

To assist the mercantile interest of the country, the assembly of this state, in the year 1792, established a bank, by the name of "the bank of New Hampshire," to continue fifty years, under the management of a president and seven directors. The capital stock is sixty thousand dollars in specie, and the stockholders have liberty to increase it to two hundred thousand dollars in any other property.

Considerable quantities of pot and pearl ashes are manufactured in this state, and afford a valuable article of exportation.

In the country towns, tow-cloth is manufactured beyond what is necessary for home consumption, some of which is exported to the southern states.

The manufacture of leather and shoes has not yet exceeded the necessary home consumption.

An attempt has been made to manufacture sail-cloth and some encouragement has been given by the legislature; but the business has not yet arrived to any considerable degree of perfection.

MILITARY FORCE.] The militia of New Hampshire consists of twenty-six thousand two hundred and fifty infantry, a thousand horse, and an artillery corps of three hundred men.

HISTORY.] In the year 1614, captain John Smith, visited the coasts of North America, and ranged the shore from Penobscot to cape Cod. In this route, he discovered the river Piscataqua. On his return to England, he presented a description of the country to Charles I. In 1620, this monarch constituted a council, consisting of forty members for "the planting, ruling, and governing of New England;" for, by this name, the country was distinguished. This patent is the foundation of all the grants made there.

In the year 1621, John Mason, obtained a grant from the council of all the lands from the river Naumkeag, now Salem, round Cape Ann to the river Merrimack; and up each of those rivers to the farthest head thereof; then to cross over from the head of the one to the head of the other, with all the islands within three miles of the coast. This district was called Mariana. The next year, another grant was made to Mason and Gorges jointly, of all the lands between the rivers Merrimack and Sa-

Sagadahock, extending back to the great lakes and river of Canada, and this was called LACONIA.

Under the authority of this grant, Gorges and Mason, in conjunction with several merchants of London, Bristol, Exeter, Plymouth, Shrewsbury, and Dover, who called themselves the company of Laconia, attempted the establishment of a colony and fishery at the river Piscataqua; and in the spring of the following year, sent over David Thompson, a Scotsman, Edward and William Hilton, fishmongers of London, with a number of people, furnished with the proper supplies. These adventurers were in two companies, one of which landed at a place that they called Little Harbour, where they built a house, afterwards named Masonhall, and erected a harbour. The others went farther up the country, where they settled at a place since called Dover. Thompson, who had settled at Little Harbour, removed next spring to an island in the bay of Massachusetts, that still bears his name.

New Hampshire was for many years united under the same government with Massachusetts. They were afterwards separated. In the year 1737, a controversy, which subsisted concerning the division lines between the two provinces was finally and amicably settled.

In the memorable contest with Britain, New Hampshire supported her part with honour, and now reaps the rewards of her efforts with the inestimable blessings of a free and legal government.

DISTRICT OF MAINE.

{ BELONGING TO MASSACHUSETTS. }

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles;			Sq. miles.
Greatest Length	240	} Between	{ 4° and 9° E. Lon. 43° and 47° N. Lat.	} 21,600
Mean Breadth	90			

BOUNDARIES. BOUNDED north, by Lower Canada, from which it is separated by the high lands; east, by the river St. Croix, and a line drawn due north from its source to the said highlands, which divides it from the province of New Brunswick; south, by the Atlantic ocean; west, by New Hampshire. The Old Province of Maine (included in the above limits) is bounded, on the west, by New Hampshire; south by the Atlantic ocean, and north and north-east by the land called in some maps Sagadahock. It was supposed, at the time of its being made a province, to have been 120 miles square; but by a settlement of the line, in 1737, on the part or side adjoining New-Hampshire, the form of the land was reduced from a square to that of a diamond. It contains, according to Douglas, about nine thousand six hundred square miles.

DIVISIONS.] The district of Maine is divided into five counties, viz,

Counties.	No. Inhabitants.	Chief Towns.	Inhabitants.
York	28 821	York	2,900
Cumberland	25,450	Portland lat. 43° 40'	2,240
		Pownalborough	2,055
Lincoln	29,962	Hallowell	1,194
		Waldoborough	1,210
Hancock	9,549	Penobscot	1,048
Washington	2,758	Machias	818
Total	96,540		

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, } The District of Maine, though an elevated tract of
 SOIL AND CLIMATE. } country, cannot be called mountainous. A great proportion of the lands are arable and exceedingly fertile, particularly between Penobscot and Kenebeck rivers. On some parts of the sea coast, the lands are but indifferent; but this defect might easily be remedied, by manuring it with a marine vegetable, called rock weed, which grows on the rocks between high and low water mark, all along the shores. It makes a most excellent manure, and the supply is immense. It generally grows, in this district, on all shores that are washed by the sea; and the breadth of the border is in proportion to the height the tide rises, which, in the eastern part of the district, is nearly thirty feet. It is estimated that there are four thousand acres of this rock-weed on this coast, and that each acre will produce annually twenty loads, making in the whole eighty thousand loads of the best manure, ten loads of which spread upon an acre, are reckoned sufficient for three years. The muscle beds also, which are to be found on the flats, and in coves on various parts of the sea shore, afford a valuable manure. The country has a large proportion of dead swamps, and sunken lands, which are easily drained, and leave a rich, fat soil. The interior country is universally represented as being of an excellent soil, well adapted both for tillage and pasture.—The lands in general are easily cleared, having but little under-brush. The district of Maine may naturally be considered in three divisions. The *first* comprehending the tract lying east of Penobscot river, of about four million five hundred thousand acres; the *second*, and best tract, of about four million acres, lying between Penobscot and Kenebeck rivers; the *third*, first settled and most populous at present, west of Kenebeck river, containing also about four million acres.

The climate does not materially differ from that of New-Hampshire. The weather is more regular in the winter, which usually lasts with severity, from the middle of December, to the last of March; during this time, the ponds and fresh-water rivers are passable on the ice, and sleighing continues uninterrupted by thaws, which are common in the three southern New-England states. Although vegetation, in the spring, commences earlier in these states than in the District of Maine, yet in the latter it is much more rapid. The elevation of the lands in general—the purity of the air, which is rendered sweet and salubrious by the balsamic qualities of many of the forest trees—the limpid streams, both large and small, which abundantly water the district, and the regularity of the weather, all unite to render it one of the healthiest countries in the world.

RIVERS, LAKES, &c.] This district has a sea-coast of about 240 miles, in which distance there is an abundance of safe and commodious harbours; besides which there is a security given to navigation, on some part of the coast, by what is called the *inland passage*. Almost the whole coast N. E. of Portland, is lined with islands, among which vessels may generally anchor with safety.

The country of which we are speaking, is watered by many large and small rivers. The principal are the following, as you proceed from east to west. St. Croix, a short

river, issuing from a large pond in the vicinity of St. John's river, remarkable only for its forming a part of the eastern boundary of the united states. Next is Passamaquaddy river, which, with the Schoodiac from the west, fall by one mouth into Passamaquaddy bay. Opposite Mount-Desert island, which is above fifteen miles long and twelve broad, Union river empties into a large bay. A short distance west, is the noble Penobscot, which rises in two branches from the highlands. Between the source of the west fork, and its junction with the east, is Moosehead lake, thirty or forty miles long and fifteen wide. The eastern branch passes through several smaller lakes. From the Forks, down to Indian Old-Town, situated on an island in this river, is about sixty miles, forty of which the water flows in a still, smooth stream, and in the whole distance there are no falls to interrupt the passing of boats. In this distance, the river widens, and embraces a large number of small islands; and, about half way, receives two considerable tributary streams, one from the east and the other from the west, whose mouths are nearly opposite each other. About sixty rods below Indian Old-Town, are the Great Falls, where is a carrying place of about twenty rods; thence twelve miles to the head of the tide, there are no falls to obstruct boats. Vessels of thirty tons come within a mile of the head of the tide. Thence thirty-five miles to the head of the bay, to the site of old Fort Pownal, the river is remarkably strait, and easily navigated. Passing by Majabagaduse, on the east, seven miles, and Owls head about twenty miles further, on the west, you enter the ocean.

Proceeding westward, over several small creeks, you come to Kenebeck, one of the finest rivers in this country. One branch of it rises in the highlands, a short distance from a branch of the Chaudiere, which empties into the St. Laurence. Another branch rises in Moose-head lake. In its course it receives Sandy river from the west, Sebasticook and several others from the east, and passes to the sea by Cape Small-Point. It is navigable for vessels of one hundred and fifty tons, upwards of forty miles from the sea.

Sheepcut river is navigable twenty or thirty miles, and empties into the ocean a little to the east of Kenebeck. On this river is the important port of Wiscasset, in the township of Pownalborough.

Amariscoggin, now more generally called Androscoggin, properly speaking, is but the main western branch of the Kenebeck. Its sources are north of lake Umbagog; its course southwardly till it approaches near the White mountains, from which it receives Moose and Peabody rivers; and then turns to the east, and then southeast, in which course it passes within two miles of the sea coast, and turning north, runs over Pejepscot, falls into Merry-Meeting Bay, where it forms a junction with the Kenebeck, twenty miles from the sea. Formerly from this bay to the sea, the confluent stream, was called Sagadahock. The lands on this river are very good. Steven's river heads within a mile of Merry-Meeting Bay. A canal, uniting these waters, has lately been opened. Cussen's river is between Freeport and North Yarmouth. Royal river empties itself into the sea in North Yarmouth. Presumcut is fed by Sebago lake, and meets the sea at Falmouth. Nonessuch river passes to the sea through Scarborough. It receives its name from its extraordinary freshets.

Saco is one of the three largest rivers in this district. The principal part of its waters fall from the White mountains. Its course, some distance from its source, is southwardly; it then suddenly bends to the east and crosses into the District of Maine, and then makes a large bend to the northeast, and southwest, embracing the fine township of Fryeburg, in the county of York. Its general course thence to the sea is S. E. Great and little Ossagee rivers fall into it from the west. This river is navigable for ships to Saco falls, about six miles from the sea. Here the river is broken by Indian Island, over which is the post road. A bridge is thrown over each of the branches. A number of mills are erected here, to which logs are floated from forty or fifty miles above; and vessels can come quite to the mills to take in the lumber. Four million feet

of pine boards were annually sawed at these mill's before the war. Biddeford and Pepperill berough lie on the opposite sides of the mouth of this river. Mousom, York, and Cape-Neddock rivers, in the county of York, are short and inconsiderable streams.

We have already mentioned the most considerable lakes, which are known in this District. Lake Sebacoek or Sebago, eighteen miles N. W. of Portland, in extent is equal to two large townships, and is connected with Long-Pond, on the N. W. by Sungo river. The whole extent of these waters is nearly thirty miles N. W. and S. E.

[BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal Bays are Passamaquaddy, Machias, Penobscot, Casco, and Wells. Of these, Penobscot and Casco are the most remarkable. Both are full of islands, some of which are large enough for townships. Long-Island, in the centre of Penobscot Bay, is fifteen miles in length, and from two to three in breadth, and forms an incorporated township, by the name of Islesborough, containing about four hundred inhabitants. On a fine peninsula, on the east side of the bay, the British built a fort, and made a settlement, which is now the shire town in the county of Hancock. The points of Casco Bay are Cape Small-Point, on the east, and Cape Elizabeth, on the west. This bay is about twenty-five miles wide, and fourteen deep, forming a most excellent harbour for vessels of any burden, and interspersed with about three hundred, some say three hundred and sixty islands, some of which are nearly large enough for townships, and all more or less cultivated. Wells' Bay, thirty miles wide, lies between Cape Porpoise and Cape Nedick.

[PRODUCTIONS.] The soil of this country, in general, where it is properly fitted to receive the seed, appears to be very friendly to the growth of wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, hemp, flax, as well as for the production of almost all kinds of culinary roots and plants, and for English grass; and also for Indian corn, especially if the seed be procured from a more northern climate. Hops are the spontaneous growth of this country. It is yet problematical whether apple and other fruit-trees will flourish in the northern and eastern parts of this District. It is said, however, that a century ago, there were good orchards, within the county of Washington, about the bay of Passamaquaddy, which were destroyed after col. Church broke up the French settlements at that place. From some experiments of the present inhabitants, the presumption is rather against the growth of fruit-trees. This country is remarkably good for grass, and large stacks of neat cattle may be fed both summer and winter.

The natural growth of this country consists of white-pine and spruce-trees in large quantities, suitable for masts, boards, and shingles: the white pine is, perhaps, of all others, the most useful and important: no wood will supply its place in building. Maple, beech, white and grey-oak and yellow-birch may be considered as the principal growth of this country. The birch is a large sightly tree, is used for cabinet work, and receives a polish little inferior to mahogany. The outer bark, which consists of a great number of layers, when separated is as smooth and soft as the best writing paper, and in some cases is a tolerable substitute for it. The low lands produce fir. This tree is fit neither for timber nor fuel; but it yields a highly-prized balsam, which is contained in small protuberances, like blisters, under the smooth bark of the tree. The fir is an evergreen, resembling the spruce, but very tapering, and neither tall nor large.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] From the first settlement of Maine, until the year 1774 or 1775, the inhabitants generally followed the lumber trade, to the neglect of agriculture. The former afforded an immediate profit. Large quantities of corn and other grain were annually imported from Boston and other places, without which it was supposed the inhabitants could not have subsisted. But the late war, by rendering these resources precarious, impelled the inhabitants to attend to the cultivation of their lands. They now raise a sufficient quantity for their own consumption; though too many are still more fond of the axe than of the plough. The wool and flax of

the country is very good—hemp has lately been tried with good success. Almost every family manufacture wool and flax into cloth, and make husbandry utensils of every kind for their own use.

EXPORTS.] This country abounds with lumber of various kinds, such as masts, white pine boards, ship timber, and every species of split lumber—manufactured from pine and oak. These are exported from the different ports in immense quantities; as are furs, and dried and pickled fish, particularly salmon.

MINERALS.] Iron ore is found in some parts, and works have been erected for its manufacture.

There is a species of stone in Lebanon, in the county of York, which yields copras and sulphur.

STATE OF LITERATURE.] The erection of a college near Casco Bay is contemplated, and the legislature have proceeded so far in the business as to determine on the principles of such an establishment. Academies in Hallowell, Berwick, Fryeburg, Machias and Portugal have been incorporated by the legislature, and, except the last, endowed with handsome grants of the public lands. And it is but just to observe, that town schools are very generally maintained in most of the towns, and in many of the unincorporated plantations that are able to defray the expense. A spirit of improvement is increasing.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Portland is the capital of the district of Maine. It is situated on a promontory in Casco Bay, and was formerly a part of Falmouth. In July 1786, this part of the town, being most populous and mercantile, and situated on the harbour together with the islands which belong to Falmouth, was incorporated by the name of Portland. It has a most excellent, safe, and capacious harbour, which is seldom or never entirely frozen over. It is near the main ocean, and is easy of access. The inhabitants carry on a considerable foreign trade, build ships, and are largely concerned in the fishery. It is one of the most thriving commercial towns in the commonwealth of Massachusetts. Although three fourths of it were laid in ashes by the British fleet in 1775, it has since been entirely rebuilt, and contains about 2300 inhabitants. Among its public buildings are three churches, two for congregationalists, and one for episcopalians, and a handsome court house.

A light-house has lately been erected on a point of land called Portland head, at the entrance of the harbour. It is a stone edifice, 72 feet high, exclusive of the lantern.

York is 74 miles N. E. from Boston and 9 from Portsmouth. It is divided into two parishes of congregationalists. York river, which is navigable for vessels of 250 tons, 6 or 7 miles from the sea, passes through the town. Over this river, about a mile from the sea, a wooden bridge was built in 1761, 270 feet long, exclusive of the wharves at each end, which reach to the channel, and 25 feet wide.

This town was settled as early as 1634, and was then called Agamenticus, from a remarkable high hill in it, of that name, a noted land-mark for mariners. It is in lat. 44 deg. 16 min.

Hallowell is a very flourishing town, situated in latitude 44 deg. 20 min. at the head of the tide waters on Kenebeck river. That part of Pownalborough, which stands on Sheepcut river, called Wiscasset, is flourishing. Its navigation is greater in proportion to its size and number of inhabitants, than that of any part of Massachusetts. Penobscot, and Machias, are also towns of considerable and increasing importance. Bangor, situated at the head of the tide waters on Penobscot river, latitude 45 deg. it is thought, will, in a few years, become a place of very considerable trade. The other towns of consideration, are Kittery, Wells, Biddeford, Berwick, North Yarmouth, Brunswick, Waldoborough, and Camden.

POPULATION, CHARACTER } For the first of these articles see the table of di-
AND RELIGION: } visions. There are no peculiar features in the char-
acter of the people of this district, to distinguish them from their neighbours in
New-Hampshire and Vermont. Placed in like circumstances, they are, like them, a
brave, hardy, enterprising, industrious, hospitable people. The prevailing religious
denominations are congregationalists and baptists; there are some quakers, a few e-
piscopalians, methodists, and Roman catholics.

INDIANS.] The remains of the Penobscot tribe are the only Indians, who take up
their residence in this district. They consist of about one hundred families, and live
together in regular society at Indian Old-town, which is situated on an island of about
two hundred acres, in Penobscot river, just above the great falls. They are Roman
catholics, and have a priest who resides among them, and administers the ordi-
nances. They have a decent house for public worship, and another building
where they meet to transact the public business of their tribe. In their assemblies, all
things are managed with the greatest order and decorum. The sachems form the le-
gislative and executive authority of the tribe; though the heads of all the families
are invited to be present at their periodical public meetings. The tribe is said to be
increasing, in consequence of an obligation laid, by the sachems, on the young peo-
ple, to marry early.

In a former war, this tribe lost their lands; but at the commencement of the last
one, the provincial congress granted them all the lands from the head of the tide
in Penobscot river, included in lines drawn six miles from the river on each side, i. e.
a tract twelve miles wide, intersected in the middle by the river. They, however,
consider that they have a right to hunt and fish as far as the mouth of the bay of Pe-
nobscot extends. This was their original right, in opposition to any other tribe, and
they now claim it.

CONSTITUTION.] The same as Massachusetts.

HISTORY.] The first attempt to settle this country was made in 1607, on the west
side of Kenebeck, near the sea. No permanent settlement, however, was at that time
effected. It does not appear that any further attempts were made until between the
years 1620 and 1630.

The Dutch formerly had a settlement at the place now called Newcastle, which
was under the jurisdiction of the governor at New-York, then called Manhadoes.
The town was built on a beautiful neck of land, where rows of old cellars are now to
be seen.

In 1625, Sir Ferdinando Gorges obtained a grant from the council of Plymouth,
of the tract of country between the rivers Pascataqua and Sagadahock, or Kenebeck;
and up Kenebeck so far as to form a square of one hundred and twenty miles. It is
supposed that Sir Ferdinando first instituted government in this province.

In 1639, Gorges obtained from the crown a charter of the soil and jurisdiction,
containing as ample powers perhaps as the king of England ever granted to any sub-
ject.

In the same year he appointed a governor and council, and they administered justice
to the settlers until about the year 1647, when, hearing of the death of Gorges, they
supposed their authority ceased, and the people on the spot universally combined and
agreed to be under civil government, and to elect their officers annually.

Government was administered in this form until 1652, when the inhabitants sub-
mitted to the Massachusetts, who, by a new constitution of their charter, which was
given to Roswell and others, in 1628, claimed the soil and jurisdiction of the province
of Maine as far as the middle of Casco Bay. Maine then first took the name of York-
shire; and county courts were held in the manner they were in Massachusetts, and the
towns had liberty to send their deputies to the general court at Boston.

In 1691, by charter from William and Mary, the Province of Main and the large territory eastward, extending to Nova Scotia, was incorporated with Massachusetts Bay; since which it has been governed, and courts held as in other parts of Massachusetts.

The separation of this district from Massachusetts, and its erection into an independent state, have been subjects discussed by the inhabitants in town meeting, by the appointment of the legislature. Such is the rapid settlement and growth, of this country, that the period when this contemplated separation will take place, is probably not far distant.

A history of this district is now in the press, written by James Sullivan, esq. attorney-general of the commonwealth of Massachusetts.

MASSACHUSETTS. (PROPER*)

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Greatest Length 195 } Miles. between [1° 21' and 5° 11' E. lon. from Phil.,] Sq. Miles. 6250
 Greatest Breadth 90 } [41° 13' and 42° 52' N. lat.]

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the north by Vermont and New-Hampshire; on the east by the Atlantic ocean; on the south by that ocean, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; and on the west by New-York.

DIVISIONS.] This state is divided into twelve counties, viz.

Counties.	No. Inb.	Chief Towns.	No. Inb.
Suffolk,]	44875	{ Boston,	18038
† Norfolk.]		{ Dedham.	1659
Essex,	57912	{ Salem,	7921
Middlesex,	42737	{ Newburyport.	4837
		{ Charlestown,	1583
Hampshire,	59681	{ Concord,	1590
		{ Northampton,	1628
Plymouth,	39535	{ Springfield,	1574
		{ Plymouth,	2995
Bristol,	31709	Taunton,	3804
Barnstable,	17354	Barnstable,	2610
Duke's,	3263	Edgartown,	1352
Nantucket,	4620	Sherburne,	4620
Worcester,	56807	Worcester,	2095
Berkshire,	30291	{ Stockbridge,	1336
		{ Great Barrington,	1373

Total number of] inhabitants. 378,787

* The District of Main is a part of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, but is not here included.

† This county was instituted last year.

CLIMATE.] What we have already observed respecting the climate of New-Hampshire, applies, with little variation, to the other New-England states. The longevity of their inhabitants evinces that they possess, upon the whole, a very healthy climate.

North-west, west, south west winds are the most prevalent. East and north-east winds, which are unelastic and disagreeable, are frequent on the sea coasts, at certain seasons of the year, and in particular in April and May. The weather is less variable than in the middle and southern states, and more so than in Canada. The extremes of heat and cold, according to Fahrenheit's thermometer, are from twenty degrees below, to a hundred degrees above 0. The medium is from forty-eight degrees to fifty degrees.

In the states of New-England, winter usually commences, in its severity, about the middle of December, sometimes more early, and sometimes, not till Christmas. Cattle are fed or housed in the northern parts for about six months, from the twentieth of November to the twentieth of May. In the southern parts, the winter is shorter and less severe. There have been frosts in almost every month in the year, though not in the same year; but these are not very injurious.

RIVERS.] Housatonic river rises from several sources in the western part of this state, and flows southerly through Connecticut, into Long island sound. Deerfield river falls into Connecticut river, from the west, between Deerfield and Greenfield. A most excellent and beautiful tract of meadow lies on its bank. Westfield river empties into the Connecticut at West Springfield. Connecticut river passes through this state, and intersects the county of Hampshire. In its course it runs over falls, above Deerfield, and between Northampton and Springfield.

In the eastern part of the state is Merrimack, which we have already in part described. It is navigable for vessels of burden about twenty miles from its mouth, where it is obstructed by the first falls, or rapids, called Mitchell's Eddy, between Bradford and Haverhill. Vast quantities of ship timber, ranging timber, plank, deals, clapboards, shingles, staves and other lumber, are brought down in rafts, so constructed as to pass all the falls in the river except those of Amuskaeg, and Pautucket. In the spring and summer considerable quantities of salmon, shad and alewives are caught, which are either used as bait in the cod fishery, or pickled and shipped to the West-Indies. There are twelve ferries across this river in the country of Essex. The bar across the mouth of this river is a very great incumbrance to the navigation, and is dangerous to strangers.

Nashua, Concord and Shawshen rivers, rise in this state, and run a north-easterly course into the Merrimack. Parker's river takes its rise in Cowley, and after a course of a few miles, passes into the Sound, which separates Plum Island from the main land. It is navigable about two miles from its mouth. Ipswich and Chebeco rivers pass thro' the town of Ipswich into Ipswich bay. Mistick river falls into Boston harbour east of the peninsula of Charlestown. It is navigable three miles, to Medford.

Charles river is a considerable stream, the principal branch of which rises from a pond bordering on Hopkinton. It passes through Holliston, and Bellingham, and divides Medway from Medfield, Wrentham, and Franklin, and thence into Dedham, where, by a curious bend, it forms a peninsula of nine hundred acres of land.

Neposet river originates chiefly from Muddy and Punkapog Ponds, in Stoughton, and Moshapog Pond in Sharon, and after passing over falls sufficient to carry mills, unites with other small streams, and forms a very constant supply of water for the many mills situated on the river below, until it meets the tide in Milton, from whence it is navigable, for vessels of one hundred and fifty tons burden, to the bay, distant about four miles.

Taunton river is made up of several streams which unite in or near the town of Bridgewater. Its course is from N. E. to S. W. till it falls into Narragansett Bay, at

Tiverton, opposite the north end of Rhode Island. It receives a considerable tributary stream at Taunton, from the north west. The head waters of Pautucket and Providence rivers, in Rhode Island, and of Quinnabaug and Shetucket rivers, in Connecticut, are in this state.

There are several remarkable bridges in Massachusetts. Charles river bridge was finished in the year 1787. It is fifteen hundred and three feet in length, and connects Charlestown with Boston. It is built on seventy-five piers, with a drawbridge in the middle for the passage of vessels. Each pier is composed of seven pieces of oak timber, united by a cap-piece, strong braces and girts, and afterwards driven into the bed of the river. They are likewise strengthened by a single pile on each side, driven obliquely to a solid bottom. The piers are connected to each other by large strong pieces, which are covered with four-inch plank. The bridge is forty-three feet in width, and on each side there is a passage six feet broad, raised for the convenience of foot-passengers. There is a gradual rise from each end of this bridge, so that the middle is two feet higher than the extremities. Forty lamps are placed at proper distances from each other to illuminate it, when necessary. Malden bridge, across Mytic river, is another remarkable monument of American ingenuity and industry. It is two thousand four hundred and twenty feet in length, and thirty-two feet broad. It was erected in 1787. Essex bridge, fifteen hundred feet long, was made in 1789. There are several other works of this kind that reflect much honor on the public spirit of the citizens of Massachusetts, particularly a bridge across Merrinack river, in Essex county, of a very ingenious construction, finished in 1792, and another bridge, finished in the fall of 1793, seven thousand one hundred and forty feet in length (including a long causeway) connecting Boston with Cambridge, over Charles river, half a mile above Charles river bridge.

SEA-COAST, CAPES, BAYS, AND ISLANDS.] The most remarkable capes on the coast of this state, are Cape Ann, on the north side of Massachusetts, and Cape Cod on the south. The latter, perhaps, derives its name from the multitudes of cod-fish that are found on its banks. It forms a kind of semi-circle, and comprehends the county of Barnstable. On the outer shore it measures about an hundred and thirty miles, and on the inner about sixty-three. The soil of this peninsula is in general sandy, and barren. In some places the houses are in danger of being swallowed up by the sand, which is often heaved in immense volumes by the action of the wind, and buries the trees that stand in its way up to their very tops. The lands of Cape Cod could not support their inhabitants, who amount to about eighteen thousand. They subsist in part by their fisheries. Immense quantities of fish of various kinds are caught here.

The principal bays on this coast are Ipswich, Boston, or Massachusetts, Plymouth, Cape Cod, and Buzzard's bays. Many islands are scattered along the coast. Plumb island is about nine miles in length; and chiefly consists of heaps of sand, with two or three farms at the south end of it. Nantucket contains about twenty-three thousand acres, including the beach. The island is low and sandy, and has four thousand six hundred and twenty inhabitants. Of these, the greater part are quakers. Their chief employment is in the fisheries. They pursue the whales even around Cape Horn into the great Pacific ocean. Hector St. John Crevecoeur, a fanciful, but intelligent and interesting writer, has occupied four of his letters in a description of this little island and of the manners of its people.

Martha's Vineyard, which lies a little to the westward of Nantucket, is about twenty miles in length and four in breadth. It contains three societies of congregationalists, two of baptists, and three of Indians. This and the neighbouring island, of Chappaquiddick, together with Noman's land, and the Elizabeth Islands, constitute Duke's county, containing between three and four thousand inhabitants, besides about four hundred and forty Indians and mulattoes. Hector St. John says, that Martha's Vine-

yards had, at the time of his writing, which was before the late war, twenty thousand sheep, and two thousand black cattle. There are in Massachusetts bay, about forty islands of various sizes, no more than fifteen of which are of much importance for their size or productions. Castle island lies three miles from Boston, and contains about eighteen acres of land. There are here a governor's house, a magazine, jail, barracks, and workshops. In June 1792, there were, on this island, seventy seven convicts employed in the manufacture of nails.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] After having treated so fully of the climate of New-Hampshire, we have not much to add respecting Massachusetts. In this state are to be found all the varieties of soil; but it is in general better adapted for grazing than for grain. Considerable quantities of wheat-flour are imported. Wheat is cultivated to advantage in the interior parts of the country, but on the sea coast is subject to being blasted. This has been ascribed to the sudden cold and easterly winds after hot weather. They cause a stagnation of the juices of the stalk. Indian corn, rye, oats, barley, buck-wheat, flax and hemp, succeed in general, in Massachusetts. Apples are good, and, for the most part, plenty. Cyder forms the principal beverage. Some excellent cattle are raised here. Butter and cheese are made for exportation. Considerable attention has lately been paid to the breed of sheep. The average produce of good and well cultivated land in Massachusetts has been estimated as follows; forty bushels of Indian corn on an acre, thirty of rye or barley, twenty of wheat, and an hundred of potatoes. The staple commodities of this state are fish, beef, and lumber. The easterly winds are found to extend farther inland than formerly. This, may, with apparent reason, be ascribed to the cutting down of the woods, which interrupted their course. They injure the peach and even the hardy apple.

COMMERCE.] Massachusetts, including Main, possesses more than three times as many tons of shipping as any other of the united states. Upwards of twenty-nine thousand tons are employed in carrying on the fisheries; forty six thousand in the coasting business and above ninety six thousand in trading with almost all parts of the world. This was the state of commerce two years ago. Some alterations have, no doubt, taken place since that period. Pot and pearl ashes, staves, flaxseed and bees-wax, are carried chiefly to Britain, in return for her manufactures. Masts and provisions are sent to the East Indies. Beef, pork, fish, oil, candles, and lumber are exported to the West Indies, and Spain; fruits, vegetables, tar, pitch, molasses, and even ship-timber to Nova-Scotia, and New Brunswick. This evinces, that it must be a long time before these colonies can support themselves, and ascertains the futility of the hopes of Britain, that she could from them derive subsistence for her settlements in the West-Indies. Cabinet-work, saddlery, hats, nails, tow cloth, barley, hops, butter, cheese, and a variety of other articles are carried to the southern states. In 1788, the negro trade was prohibited by law; and there is not a single *slave* in the commonwealth of Massachusetts.

From the 1st of October 1790, to the 31st of September 1791, the exports from this state and the district of Main, to foreign countries, amounted to two millions four hundred and forty-five thousand nine hundred and seventy-five dollars, and fifty three cents. In the year ending upon the 30th September 1793, the sum total of exports had risen to three millions six hundred and seventy six thousand four hundred and twelve dollars.

MANUFACTURES.] There is no state in the union that has made such decisive steps towards supplying itself with manufactures as Massachusetts. A few specimens only can be enumerated. There is at Boston a duck-manufactory, and sixty-eight thousand yards of the best cloth of that kind ever seen in this country have been made there in a single year. At Taunton, Bridgewater, Middleborough, and some other places, nails

have been made in such quantities, as to prevent in a great measure the importation from Britain. There are fourteen paper-mills in this state, and the quantity of paper manufactured is augmenting with rapidity. It is computed that nine thousand dozens of cotton and wool cards are annually made in Massachusetts. At Dedham, in Suffolk county, there is a wire manufactory. There are likewise a variety of oil, chocolate, powder and snuff mills; and a number of iron works, and slitting mills, besides other mills for sawing lumber, grinding grain, and fulling cloth. Of this last article, great quantities are now made in this state.

Besides many other articles of manufacture, there have been distilled in this state, during a single year, one million nine hundred thousand gallons of spiritous liquors. It is added that they yielded to the government a revenue of two hundred and nine thousand dollars.

The manufacture of glass has been lately begun, and is carried on to considerable advantage.

In this state and likewise in Connecticut, great attention has been bestowed on the rearing of the silk-worm; extensive orchards of mulberry trees have been planted. The inhabitants are supplied with silk in abundance, and on moderate terms; and it has even been said that small quantities of the raw commodity are now exported to Europe.

CURIOSITIES.] In the north part of the township of Adams, in Berkshire county, not half a mile from Stamford in Vermont, there is a natural curiosity which merits description. A mill stream has formed a deep channel through a quarry of white marble. The hill, gradually descending towards the south, terminates in a steep precipice, over which the stream appears to have formerly rushed. But finding some natural chasms in the rocks, it has forced for itself a channel downwards, which is, in some places, more than sixty feet deep. Over this channel, where deepest, some of the rocks remain, and form a natural bridge. From the top of this bridge, to the water beneath it, there is a descent of sixty-two feet. In length across the stream, it is about twelve or fifteen feet, and its breadth is about ten feet. A second bridge, or natural arch, has been formed ten or twelve feet nearer to the level of the stream, than the first arch, and partly under it, which is broader than the upper arch, but not so long. It is difficult to give any idea of a production of this kind, that corresponds with the sight of it.

In the county of Essex, the Powow river falls an hundred feet in the distance of fifty rods. In this short passage, are one bloomery, five saw mills, seven grist mills, two linseed oil mills, one fulling mill, and one snuff mill, besides several wheels auxiliary to different labours. The rapid fall of the water, the dams at very short distances crossing the river, the various wheels and mills almost immediately one over another, and the very irregular and grotesque situation of the houses and other buildings on the adjoining grounds, give this place a romantic appearance, and afford, in the whole, one of the most singular views to be found in this country.

MINERALS AND FOSSILS.] Iron ore, in immense quantities, is found in various parts of this state. In the old colony of Plymouth, in particular, several towns have, in consequence of the abundance of iron ore, extensive manufactures of iron. The slitting mills, in this district, are said to slit annually six hundred tons of that metal. One company has lately been formed, which, it is supposed, will manufacture annually five hundred tons of iron.

Copper ore is found at Leverett, in the county of Hampshire, and at Attleborough in the county of Bristol. Several mines of black lead have been discovered in Brimfield, in Hampshire county. *Asbestos*, or incombustible cotton, is found in a quarry of limestone, in the county of Essex. Marble has been discovered in the same neighbourhood. A quarry at Laneshorough affords very good marble.

LITERARY AND CHARITABLE SOCIETIES.] Massachusetts is, in several respects, one of the first states in the union; and is distinguished, among other circumstances, by numerous associations for very laudable purposes. Among these the society for propagating the gospel among the Indians and others, deserves particular applause. The success of this scheme has been satisfactory to its authors. Several thousands of books, of different kinds adapted to the state of the people, have been purchased and distributed. Missionaries have been appointed and supported by this society, to visit the eastern parts of the district of Maine, where the people are generally destitute of the means of religious instruction, and these missionaries spend the summer-months among them.

The Massachusetts charitable society, the Boston episcopal charitable society, and the humane society, likewise deserve honourable notice. The humane society was instituted in 1785, for the purpose of recovering persons apparently dead from drowning, suffocation, strangling or other accidents. This society has erected seven huts on different parts of the coast. They are supplied with wood, straw, cabbins, tinderboxes, blankets &c. for the relief of ship-wrecked seamen. Huts of the same kind have been built on different parts of the coast, by other societies of the same benevolent nature. Such humble, but useful edifices, reflect more honor on their proprietors, than has ever been obtained by a palace, a triumphal arch, or a pyramid.

The American academy of arts and sciences was incorporated in 1780. The title of this society sufficiently announces the purposes for which it was instituted. The Massachusetts medical society was incorporated in 1791. The Massachusetts society for promoting agriculture, in 1792; in consequence of which, the agricultural committee of the academy has been dissolved. At a late meeting of this society, in Boston, a very considerable sum of money was subscribed for establishing a fund to defray the expense of premiums and bounties which may be voted by the society. In 1791, a society was established in this state, called the historical society, the professed design of which is to collect, preserve and communicate materials for a complete history of this country from its first settlement. The society was incorporated in 1794.

A society for the information and advice of emigrants to this country, and a charitable fire society, both for benevolent purposes have also been instituted and incorporated this year—besides others of less importance.

STATE OF LITERATURE.] By the laws of Massachusetts, every town that has fifty householders or upwards, must provide itself with one or more proper teachers of reading, writing, and arithmetic. If the town has two hundred families, there is likewise to be a teacher of the Greek and Latin languages. This law is not so well observed as it ought to be. In Boston there are seven public schools, supported entirely by the town; so that education may be had with hardly any expense. Greek, Latin, English, writing, arithmetic, and geography, are taught; and the masters of these schools have each a salary of six hundred and sixty-six dollars and two thirds per annum, payable quarterly. There are likewise in the state of Massachusetts several academies of reputation. The first college or university, founded in North-America was in consequence of a donation from the rev. Mr. John Harvard, a clergyman, residing in Charlestown, near Boston. He died in 1638, and bequeathed for that end seven hundred and seventy-nine pounds. Cambridge, in which the university is situated, is a pleasant village, three miles west from Boston. It has now, (in 1794,) 169 undergraduates. In this university are taught Hebrew and other oriental languages, Greek, Latin and French, divinity, mathematics, natural philosophy, anatomy, surgery, the theory and practice of physic, chemistry, the principles of the materia medica, logic, metaphysics, ethics, geography, astronomy, and history. The library consisted, in 1791, of upwards of thirteen thousand volumes, and it continues to increase from the interest

of permanent funds, and by casual benefactions. The philosophical apparatus of this university is the most complete of any in the united states. The institution is liberally endowed, and frequently receives donations for the establishment of new professorships.

BANKS.] There are four incorporated banks in this state; viz. the Branch, the Massachusetts, the Union, and the Essex banks. Of these three have been established at Boston, and the fourth at Salem. The Union bank in Boston consists of an hundred thousand shares, of eight dollars each; and the Massachusetts bank, of eight hundred shares, of five hundred dollars each.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Boston is the capital not only of Massachusetts but of New-England. The town lies in lat. 42 degrees 23 minutes north. It is built on a peninsula, of an irregular form, at the bottom of Massachusetts bay. The buildings cover about seven hundred acres. The houses were computed, in 1790, at two thousand three hundred and seventy-six, and the inhabitants at eighteen thousand. Since that time, many new houses have been built, and the number of inhabitants has considerably increased. The principal wharf extends six hundred yards into the sea, and is covered on the north side with large and convenient stores. In Boston, there are seventeen buildings for public worship, nine for congregationalists, three for episcopalians, two for baptists, one for Roman catholics, one for the friends, and one for the universalists. The other public buildings are the state-house, court-house, jail, Faneuil hall, an alms house, a work-house, a bridewell, and a powder magazine. The harbor of Boston is safe, and large enough to contain five hundred ships at anchor in a good depth of water. Yet the entrance is so narrow as scarcely to admit two ships abreast. The town has an excellent market for provisions. It was settled in 1630. During the siege in 1775, great numbers of houses were destroyed by the British troops. Boston is rapidly improving. Its principal manufactures are rum, beer, paper hangings, of which twenty-four thousand pieces are annually made; loaf sugar, cards, sail cloth, ropes, spermaceti and tallow candles, glass, printed books, &c. There are eight sugar houses, and eleven rope walks.

Salem is built on a peninsula, formed by two small inlets of the sea. The trade of the inhabitants is considerable, and they are distinguished by a general plainness and neatness in their dress and furniture. A manufactory of duck and sail-cloth has been for some time established here, and is in a thriving situation.

Newbury-port, Ipswich, Charleston, Cambridge, Concord, Plymouth, Worcester, and a number of other considerable towns, attest the uncommon population of this state. Of Charleston a great part was reduced to ashes on the day of the battle of Breed's hill, by mistake called Bunker's hill. The people of Marblehead subsist chiefly by fisheries; and, as the war put a stop to this business, great numbers of them were reduced to distress, nor has the town been yet able to recover its former degree of prosperity. Worcester is remarkable for having produced some specimens of typographical elegance. Isaiah Thomas, of this town, is reputed one of the best printers in America.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants, in Massachusetts, has been stated, by the census of 1790, at three hundred and seventy-eight thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, which is above sixty persons for every square mile. As this calculation was made about four years ago, we may reasonably add to this number at least sixty thousand. Massachusetts is the most populous region of North-America. Connecticut approaches next to it; but the inhabitants of that state, by the same census, are only in proportion of about fifty persons to a square mile.

The county of Essex, in Massachusetts, contained by the census of 1790, an hundred and thirty-five persons, for every square mile. This fact evinces to what an immense body of people the territories of the united states are capable of supplying subsistence.

No circumstance concerning the new world has excited more surprise in Europe than

the rapid increase of people in North-America. This fact will be best illustrated by a comparison between the proportion of births and deaths in Europe and in this country. Mr. William Barton* has collected a variety of estimates of this kind for particular periods of time, from which we shall select a few specimens.

		Deaths.
At Salem, in 1782 and 1783, the proportion was to	100 births,	49.00
At Hingham in Massachusetts, for fifty-four years, to	100 ditto,	49.50
At Philadelphia, for 1789 and 1790, the bills for the white inhabitants gave to	100 ditto,	49.94
England in general, according to sir William Petty, to	100 ditto,	80.00
Liverpool, for five years,	100 ditto,	112.70
Chester, four years,	100 ditto,	107.42
Northampton,	100 ditto,	123.23
London, twenty-six years,	100 ditto,	124.92

There is a copious collection of estimates of this kind, which ascertain that the number of births is, in proportion to the number of deaths, much greater in North America than in Europe. Mr. Barton has likewise printed comparative tables of the longevity of the inhabitants of Britain and America; and it appears that the advantage is not on the side of the former country. From many surprising examples of persons attaining to an advanced age in the united states, it seems probable that this climate is more favourable to the duration of life than that of Britain.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The active militia of Massachusetts is composed of all able-bodied, white male citizens, from sixteen to forty years of age, excepting officers of government, those who have held commissions, and some other excepted persons. The whole is completely armed and organized, and is formed into nine divisions; each commanded by a major-general, nineteen brigades, consisting of seventy-nine regiments of infantry, eleven battalions of cavalry, and eight battalions of artillery; together forming a well regulated body of fifty thousand infantry, two thousand cavalry, and one thousand five hundred artillery-men, with sixty pieces of field artillery. This active military corps is assembled by companies for discipline, in their respective districts, four times a year; and once a year by regiments or brigades; at which time they are reviewed and inspected.

Besides the military strength above mentioned, which may be considered as the active militia of the state, there are enrolled about twenty five thousand men, from forty to sixty years of age, who are obliged always to keep themselves completely armed: and they are required, under penalty by law, to exhibit their arms once a year to their respective captains, who make returns of them: This last corps is called the alarm-list, and may be properly distinguished as the *corps de reserve* of the commonwealth.

RELIGION.] In this commonwealth, an universal right of conscience is established by the constitution. Every person attends the worship of what sect he thinks proper. The clergy of this state, in general, are supported by a tax on the rateable estate of the inhabitants; those in the seaports, and other large towns, by a tax upon the pews, which amounts to the same thing as a voluntary contribution. A few are supported by the voluntary contributions of their respective congregations.

The citizens of this state consist of seven different denominations, viz. congregationalists, baptists, episcopalians, friends or quakers, presbyterians, universalists, and Roman catholics. The first of these sects is more numerous than all the rest. The baptists are next in point of numbers. The remaining five sects are not in the whole equal to more than one-sixteenth or twentieth part of the inhabitants of the state.

* American Philosophical Transactions, Vol. iii. page 25, et seq.

REVENUE AND TAXES.] The principal sources of revenue are land and poll taxes, and the sales of new lands. Taxes are levied on all males between sixteen and fifty, except such as are exempted by law; on the numbers of acres of improved and unimproved land, on dwelling houses, ware-houses, stores, &c. These are all valued, are subject to taxes at certain rates per cent.

INVENTIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS.] Great improvements have of late been made in several manufacturing machines, by which those kinds of manufacture in which they are employed, have been greatly facilitated in the execution, and fewer hands required. But the most ingenious improvement or invention, and which most deserves notice, is a complete and elegant planetarium, six feet in diameter, constructed by Mr. Joseph Pope, of Boston. This is entirely a work of original genius and assiduous application, as Mr. Pope never saw a machine of the kind till his own was completed. It exhibits a proof of great strength of mind, and does him much honour, both as a philosopher and a mechanic. This machine has been purchased for the university at Cambridge, and is a very useful and ornamental addition to the philosophical apparatus.

CONSTITUTION.] In the preamble to the constitution it is declared, that the end of the institution, maintenance, and administration of government, is to secure the existence of the body politic; to protect it and to furnish the individuals who compose it with the power of enjoying, in safety and tranquillity, their natural rights, and the blessings of life; and that, whenever these great objects are not obtained, the people have a right to alter the government, and to take measures necessary for their safety, prosperity and happiness. It is also declared to be the right, as well as the duty, of all men in society, publicly, and at stated seasons, to worship the Supreme Being; and that no subject should be hurt, molested or restrained in his person, liberty, or estate, for worshipping God in the manner and season most agreeably to the dictates of his own conscience; or for his religious profession or sentiments; providing that he did not disturb the public peace, or obstruct others in their religious worship. Then follows a declaration of rights, containing thirty articles. The most important are in substance as follows.

It was declared, that as the happiness of a people, and the good order and preservation of civil government, depend essentially upon piety, religion and morality; therefore, in order to diffuse them, and to promote public order and happiness, the legislature should be invested with a right to authorize and require the several towns, parishes, and political bodies, or religious societies, to provide, at their own expense, for the institution of public worship, and "for the support and maintenance of public *protestant* teachers of piety, religion, and morality, in all cases where such provision *shall not be made voluntarily.*" The legislature was farther invested with authority to enjoin, upon all the subjects, an attendance to the public teachers, at stated times and seasons, *if there be any, on whose instructions they can conscientiously and conveniently attend.*

It was also enacted, that the several towns, parishes, precincts, and other bodies politic, or religious societies, should, at all times, have the exclusive right of electing their public teachers, and for contracting with them for their support and maintenance. That all monies paid by individuals for the support of public worship, and of the public teachers should, if they required it, be uniformly applied to the support of the public teacher or teachers of their own religious sect or denomination, providing that there were any on whose instructions they attended: otherwise it might be laid towards the support of the teachers or teachers of the parish or precinct in which the said monies should be raised. That every denomination of christians, demeaning themselves peaceably, and as good citizens of the commonwealth, should be equally protected by the law; and that no subordination of any sect or denomination to another, should ever be established.

It was likewise declared, that as all power resided originally in the people, and was

derived from them, the several magistrates and officers of government, vested with authority, whether legislative, executive, or judicial, are their substitutes and agents, and are at all times accountable to them; that no man, or corporation, or association of men, have any other title to obtain advantages, or exclusive privileges, than what arises from the consideration of services rendered to the public; and this title being neither hereditary, nor transmissible to children, or relations by blood; the idea of a man *born* a magistrate, lawgiver, or judge, is absurd and unnatural. Every individual is entitled to protection by the law, and he is in return, bound to obey the laws, and to pay his proportion of the common expence. When the public exigencies require that the property of any individual should be appropriated for particular uses, he shall receive reasonable compensation. No subject shall be arrested, imprisoned, deposed, or deprived of his property, immunities, or privileges, put out of the protection of the law, exiled, or deprived of his life, liberty, or estate, but by the judgment of his peers, or the law of the land. The legislature shall not make any law, subjecting any person to a capital or infamous punishment, without trial by jury, *except for the government of the army or navy*. The liberty of the press is essential to the security of freedom in a state, and it ought not, therefore, to be restrained in the commonwealth. The people have a right to keep, and to bear arms, for the common defence; but as, in time of peace, armies are dangerous to liberty, they ought not to be maintained, without the consent of the legislature; and the military power shall always be held in subordination to the civil authority.

It is likewise declared, that the people have a right, in an orderly manner, to assemble for consulting upon the common good; and for giving *instructions* to their representatives. The freedom of debate, in either house of legislature, cannot be the foundation of any action or complaint in any court or place whatsoever. No impost; upon any pretence whatever, shall be levied, without the consent of the people or their representatives in the legislature. Laws made to punish actions committed before the existence of such laws, are unjust, unless the actions have been declared crimes by preceding laws. No subject ought, in any case, to be declared guilty of treason or felony, by the legislature. Excessive bail or sureties, excessive fines, or cruel and unnatural punishments, are prohibited.

In time of peace, no soldier ought be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner; and in time of war, such quarters ought to be made by the civil magistrate, according to law.

The second part of the instrument contains the frame of government. It enacts, that the department of legislation shall be formed of two branches, a senate, and house of representatives; each of which is to have a negative on the other. This legislative body, is entitled "the general court of Massachusetts." When a bill has passed the senate and house of representatives, it does not become a law till ratified by the governor. But though returned to the two houses from him with a refusal, yet, if two thirds of both agree to its passing, it shall notwithstanding his rejection, become a law. To prevent unnecessary delays in public business, if a bill or resolve is not returned from the governor, within five days after it has been presented to him, it has the force of law. The general court has full authority to erect judicatories, courts of record, and other courts, to make laws and impose taxes; and it is provided that while the public charges of government, or any part of them, are raised by assessment, a valuation of estates shall be taken at least once in every ten years and as much oftener as may be ordered by the general court. The senate consists of forty persons, who are elected annually, on the first Monday of April, by the inhabitants of certain districts into which the commonwealth may, from time to time, be divided for that purpose. The districts are never to be fewer than thirteen, nor is any district to be so large as to elect more than six senators. The general court is to assign

the number of senators to be elected by each district, in which it is to be guided by the proportion of taxes respectively paid by them. The senators are at present chosen in the following proportions:—

The counties of Suffolk and Norfolk elect six, Essex six, Middlesex five, Hampshire four, Plymouth three, Barnstable one, Bristol three, Duke's and Nantucket one, Worcester five, Berkshire two, York two, Cumberland one, and Lincoln one. They are chosen by the male inhabitants, of twenty-one years of age and upwards, having a freehold estate, within the commonwealth, of the annual income of three pounds, or of the value of sixty pounds. An elector is to be entitled to vote in that district where he resides. A senator must possess a freehold estate in the commonwealth, worth at least three hundred pounds, or personal property to the value of six hundred pounds, or of both to the amount when added together, of the latter sum. He must have been an inhabitant of the commonwealth five years, and must, at the time of his election, reside in the district for which he is chosen. Sixteen senators make a quorum. The senate choose their own president, appoint their own officers, and determine the rules of their proceedings. They are final judges of the elections, returns, and qualifications of their own members. The representatives are chosen by the several towns, according to their numbers of rateable polls. For the first one hundred and fifty polls, every corporate town may elect one member, and for every additional two hundred and twenty-five, an additional representative. The house of representatives are authorized to impose fines upon such towns as neglect to return members. The expences of travelling to the general court, and returning home once for every session, and no more shall be paid by the government out of the public treasury. The wages for the attendance of senators and representatives are paid by their own towns, and are at present a dollar and a half per day. A member must have been, for one year at least before his election, an inhabitant of the town that he represents; and must have been seized, for the same time, in his own right, of a freehold worth one hundred pounds, within the town, or any rateable estate, to the value of two hundred pounds. Representatives are chosen by written votes, as the senate also are. The qualifications of an elector are the same for a representative as for a senator. The representatives are chosen annually in the month of May, at least ten days before the last Wednesday in that month. Impeachments for misconduct in office are made by the representatives, and tried by the senate. The judgement can go only to removal from office, and future disqualification. But the party is farther liable to indictment, trial and punishment, in a common court of law. Money bills originate in the house of representatives, but the senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills. Sixty representatives make a quorum for public business. No member of the house of representatives shall be arrested or held to bail, on mesne process, during his going to, attending upon, or returning from the general court.

The supreme executive authority is vested in a governor. He must have been an inhabitant of the commonwealth for seven years preceding the time of his election, and must be seized, in his own right, of a freehold in the state, to the value of one thousand pounds; and shall declare himself to be of the *christian* religion. He is elected by the people annually, on the first Monday of April, in nearly the same way as the members of the two houses. He has a council, consisting of a lieutenant-governor, and nine members, chosen from the senate, by the joint ballot of the senators and representatives. The nine seats of the counsellors are vacated in the senate, and remain so for the year; so that the senate really consists of only thirty members besides the president. Five counsellors make a quorum. With the advice of his council, the governor may convene the general court, and adjourn them to any time that the two houses shall desire: or, in case of their disagreement, as to the proper length of adjournment, he may, with the advice of his council, prorogue them for any time not exceeding ninety days. He may, by and with the advice of his council,

pardon offences, *after conviction*, but not before it. If the prisoner has been convicted by an impeachment before the senate, he cannot grant a pardon. The governor is commander of all the military force of the commonwealth. The officers are thus appointed. The soldiers of twenty-one years of age and upwards, in the respective companies, choose their own captains and subalterns. The captains and subalterns elect the field officers of their own regiments. The brigadiers are elected by the field officers; and, when the election is finished, the officers receive commissions from the governor. The major-generals are appointed by the senate and house of representatives; each house having a negative upon the other. The Lieutenant-governor must be qualified in the same manner, and is to be elected at the same time, and in the same way as the governor himself. He is by his office, a member of the council. In absence of the governor, he is president of the council; but in that capacity he has no vote as a counsellor. All judicial officers, the attorney-general, the solicitor-general, all sheriffs, coroners, and all registers of probate, are appointed by the governor, by and with the consent of his council. Judicial officers, unless where there is a different provision made by this constitution, hold their offices, during good behaviour; yet the governor, by advice of his council, may remove them if he is addressed for that end, by both houses of the legislature. The commission of a justice of the peace becomes void to the term of seven years, from its date, that the people may not suffer from the long continuance in place of any magistrate, who shall fail in discharging the important duties of his office.

[HISTORY.] The New-England states are so inseparably connected, in regard to their history, that it is impossible to compose a narrative respecting any one of them, which does not, in a great measure, comprehend the history of the others. They were planted about the very same period, and by the same sort of people. In the European editions of this work, they have been classed under the general title of New-England. But on a subject so interesting to an American reader, it was necessary to be as complete as possible; and we have therefore treated of them separately. Yet with regard to their history, this method, as we have observed, is impracticable; and since Massachusetts, including the colony of New-Plymouth, annexed to it in 1691, was the original stock from which the other branches of population have, in some degree sprung; and as it still continues to be the most important of these provinces, we shall, in this place, give a concise and general narrative of the settlement and subsequent progress of New-England down to the conclusion of the war, which ended in the year 1763.

As early as the year 1606, James the first had by letters patent erected two companies, with a power to send colonies into those regions, then comprehended under the name of Virginia. The companies contented themselves with sending out some ships to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fish upon their coast. This continued to be the only kind of correspondence between Britain and this part of America, till the year 1620. By that time, the religious dissensions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Archbishop Laud persecuted all sorts of non-conformists with an unrelenting severity. These men, on the other hand, were ready to submit to all the rigour of persecution, rather than give up their religious opinions, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they considered as abuses of most dangerous tendency. There was no quarter of the world into which they were not ready to fly, in order to obtain liberty of conscience. America opened an extensive field. Thither they might transport themselves, and establish whatever sort of religious policy they preferred. With this view, a number of persons purchased a tract of territory, which was within the jurisdiction of what was then called the Plymouth company. They embarked at Plymouth in 1620, and landed at a place

now called Provincetown in the territory of Massachusetts, in the hook of Cape Cod, upon the 11th of November in the same year. At landing, the whole party consisted of but an hundred and one persons. They had suffered severely during their voyage for want of proper provisions. The soil appeared sandy and barren. They dispatched their boat in quest of a more agreeable situation; and on the 31st of December following, they finally settled forty-two miles south-east of Boston, at a place which they called, and which now bears the name of Plymouth. This was the first town founded in New-England. The situation of the adventurers was distressing, and their prospects dismal. They had designed to land at Hudson's river; but the Dutch having as it is believed, bribed the pilot, he carried them much farther to the northward. They were on a dangerous and unknown shore, in the midst of a severe winter. They were surrounded by savages, refused the assistance of the court of England, without a patent, and without a national promise of a peaceable enjoyment of civil or religious liberty. Yet the spirit of enthusiasm supplied them with resources to surmount every form of distress and danger. In March, 1621, three months after their landing at Plymouth, Masassoit an Indian chief, attended by sixty of his countrymen, paid a visit to the new settlers, and entered into an amicable treaty with them. It was stipulated on each side, that they should avoid mutual injuries; that they should restore stolen goods, deliver up offenders, assist each other in justifiable wars, and endeavour to promote a system of peace among their neighbours. The colonies set a laudable example of political integrity. They had, in some of their excursions, discovered ten bushels of Indian corn, which was, to this infant people, an inestimable acquisition. They embraced a future opportunity of enquiring for its owners, to whom they gave a satisfactory price for the grain. Acting on these principles of honour, of humanity, and of wisdom, they reaped the natural consequences of such conduct. Masassoit and his successors adhered, for forty years, with unviolated fidelity, to this alliance. The citizens of the new settlement derived numerous advantages from the friendship of this American monarch; and his name continues to be remembered in New-England with respect and gratitude.

In March, 1624, Mr. Winslow, an agent for the colony, brought over, besides a quantity of clothing, a bull and three heifers. These were the first cattle of that kind ever seen in New-England. At the close of the same year, the plantation of Plymouth consisted of an hundred and eighty persons. They had thirty two dwelling houses, a few cattle and goats, and a tolerable stock of hogs and poultry. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, came over from England. By the close of the year 1630, Salem, Dorchester, Charleston and Boston, were founded. Salem was the first settlement in what is properly termed Massachusetts bay. It was begun in 1629. In spring, 1630, a conspiracy was formed among several tribes of Indians, who began to grow jealous of their new neighbours. The plot was discovered and suppressed without bloodshed. The most formidable obstacles to the prosperity of the new settlements, arose from the rapacity of the patentees, who involved them in frequent disputes, and from the ferocious fanaticism which broke out among themselves. Of this dreadful species of folly, Mr. Hutchinson has collected large details, to which we must refer the reader. Persecution arose, and great numbers of people were driven out of Massachusetts. Rhode-Island owes its existence, as a separate state, entirely to this spirit of persecution; and Connecticut and New-Hampshire, though at first settled by adventurers, independent of Massachusetts, are, in a great measure, to be considered as branches torn from that colony. The despotism of Charles the first, and of his minister Laud, multiplied emigrations. John Hampden, Oliver Cromwell, and some other leaders of the Puritan party, had embarked for North America; but they were denied, by the court, a licence for sailing. Many thousands, however, of dissenters escaped from their insular confinement; and the population of the new colonies advanced with rapidity. A few sketches of their manners, and their laws will

not be unacceptable. A book, printed in New-England, in 1645, describes in lively colours, the sentiments of some of the first settlers of that colony, with regard to toleration, "To authorize an untruth by toleration of the state, is to build a fence against the walls of heaven, to batter God out of his chair. Persecution of true religion, and toleration of false, are the Jannes and Jambres to the kingdom of Christ, whereof the first is by far the worst. He that is willing to tolerate any unsound opinion, that his own may be tolerated, though never so sound, will, for need, hang God's bible at the devil's girdle. It is said that men ought to have liberty of-conscience, and it is persecution to debar them of it. I can rather stand amazed than reply to this; it is an astonishment, that the brains of men should be parboiled in such impious ignorance."*

Rhode-Island was at first planted by some antinomian exiles from Massachusetts on a plan of entire religious liberty. Votaries of every sect met with a hospitable reception. Anabaptists and quakers, the latter of whom first appeared during the civil wars of England, stocked to the new settlement, after having been fined and banished from the old. With respect to the morals of the people, the government of Massachusetts was remarkably severe. A man who struck his wife, or a woman who struck her husband, was liable to a fine of ten pounds. Adultery with a married woman was capital to both parties, though the man was married; and several have suffered death under this law †

Mr. Hutchinson has preserved a variety of curious descriptions which mark the severe manners of these legislatures. Among others, he mentions one person, who, for a very indecent oath, was condemned to stand half an hour, with his tongue in a cleft stick. The drinking of healths and the use of tobacco were forbidden, because the former was, it seems, an idolatrous practice, derived from the libations of Paganism, and the latter not only a waste of time, but a species of intoxication. The mode of dress and cut of the hair were subject to state regulations. Women were forbidden to expose their arms or bosoms to view: it was ordered that their sleeves should reach down to their wrist, and their gowns be closed round their neck. Men were obliged to cut short their hair, that they might not resemble women. Persons not worth two hundred pounds were not allowed to wear gold or silver lace, or silk hoods or scarfs. Offences against these laws were presentable by the grand jury; and those who dressed above their rank, were to be assessed accordingly. Wigs did not become fashionable, till about the time of the revolution in 1688. Many religious scruples were even then entertained, as to the practice of wearing them. The importation of negroes was looked upon with indignation, for a long time after the establishment of the colony; nor is it known at what period they first began to permit this savage traffic.

We have thrown together, in this place, these particulars, as marking more distinctly than any general observations, the peculiar character of the first founders of the colony of New-England, and of the age in which they lived. We now return to a short narrative of their progress, as a political body. In 1640, the English parliament had put an end to the persecution of the puritans. Nothing but violence could have driven the first settlers of New-England from their country, and when that violence ceased, there was no longer an importation of settlers to North-America. It was not then regarded as a requisite asylum, and some of its former benefactors, with the most selfish and absurd policy, attempted to seduce its new inhabitants to return to Europe.

In 1643, Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New-Haven, entered into an alliance offensive and defensive. Under Massachusetts, New-Hampshire was then comprehended, having been taken into its protection two years before. New-Haven hath since been included in Connecticut, as the colony of Plymouth was, in the year 1692,

* Belknap's history of New-Hampshire, vol. 1, p. 88.

† Hutchinson's history, vol. 1, p. 411.

in that of Massachusetts. Main continued independent till 1652. Rhode Island, as a rendezvous for heretics of every description, was refused admittance into this confederacy by Massachusetts. In 1644, disturbances arose between some inhabitants of Main, and a party of the French settlers in Nova Scotia. This quarrel was amicably adjusted by the government of New-England; from which it appears, that though Main was not a member of the alliance of the English colonies, it was at least considered as under their protection. We pass over some domestic quarrels among the Indians, which were composed by the interference of the New-England states. In 1648, Margaret Jones, of Charlestown, was executed as a witch. In 1650, a dispute, of long standing, between the Dutch at New-York, and the colony of New-Haven, was terminated. In 1652 the colony of Main was converted into a county by the name of Yorkshire. In October, 1631, hostilities had broke out in Europe between Holland and England. The colonists of the two nations remained in profound peace for about eighteen months; but in April, 1653, an alarm spread in New-England, that the Dutch governor at Manhadoes*, was soliciting the Indians to massacre the English settlers. The united colonies of Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New-Haven; resolved to raise an army of five hundred men. They requested the protection of Cromwell; and in consequence of their application, an armament from England arrived, about the end of May, 1654, in the harbour of Boston. But a peace with Holland having been concluded on the 5th of April preceding, the expedition against Manhadoes was of course laid aside. Upon this the English commander attacked the French in Penobscot; Saint John's and some other settlements upon that part of the coast of North-America. He dislodged them almost without resistance, and without even a pretence of provocation; for the two nations were at that time in a state of peace. Mr. Hutchinson has, however, informed us, that the English *had good right to the country*. Cromwell refused to give it up again. It was restored by the treaty of Breda. The 20th of September, 1654, was a day of thanksgiving in Massachusetts, for the peace with Holland, and "the *hopeful* establishment of government in England. In 1654, a fruitless expedition was attempted against the Narraganset Indians. In 1655, Mrs. Ann Hibbins was executed for witchcraft. Cromwell, having about this time conquered Ireland, attempted to seduce the New-Englanders to remove to that island, but in vain. When he seized on Jamaica, he renewed his proposal, in favour of that colony. A few persons accepted of his invitation. In 1556, the persecution commenced against the quakers, and continued till about the end of the year 1661. At that time, an order arrived from Charles the second, to put an end to it. Before it came from England, the quakers had been discharged from prison, and sent out of the colony. Upon the restoration of Charles Stuart, the New-Englanders found but little difficulty in reconciling themselves to the crown. In 1664, Manhadoes was reduced, which put an end to the alarms of the New-England colonies from that quarter. In 1699, a persecution was begun against the Anabaptists. Some were imprisoned and banished. Severity augmented the number of converts; and it was in the end found adviseable to cease from further proceedings. About this time, commissioners were dispatched from England to examine into the political conduct of the colonists. They gave much trouble to the country, and left affairs as they found them. A detail of the circumstances could hardly interest a reader of the present age. The people of the province of Main, at the instigation of these commissioners, withdrew themselves from the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, but soon after re-assumed their former situation. At the first settlement of the colony, the Indians had behaved with friendship. As usual in such cases, they gradually became jealous of their new neighbours. Some of the more-distant tribes had committed murders on the colonists, but there had uniformly been preserved a peace with the subjects of Massasoit. This tranquillity came now to an end. When the

* The ancient name of New-York.

English settlers first landed in Massachusetts, they had persuaded some of the sachems to subscribe a paper, in which they acknowledged themselves to be subjects of James the first. By degrees they assumed a jurisdiction over these people, who having at length acquired a proper sense of their situation, became uneasy, and jealous of their neighbours. They had learned the use of fire-arms, in spite of laws prohibiting the sale of guns or ammunition to them. After having been long on the point of a rupture, the two nations came at length to an open war. This happened in 1675. Philip, the son of Masasoit, was considered as the author of this contest, which has been called, after his name, Philip's war. Many desperate engagements were fought. Many examples were exhibited of the most heroic courage, and the most savage cruelty. Philip, on the 12th of August, 1676, was killed; and his death put an end to the war. A great part of the Indians were extirpated. Others, who had been guilty of murders, were executed. Some were sold for slaves to the West Indies.

While the colony was contending for its existence, Gorges and Mason claiming right from some of the original patentees, lodged a complaint in England against the state of Massachusetts, about the extent of the patent line. The province of Maine was confirmed to Gorges and his heirs, both as to soil and government. The people of Massachusetts purchased this right and interest for twelve hundred pounds sterling; a proceeding that gave offence to the crown. Mason likewise obtained a favourable settlement of his boundaries. In 1686, the charter of Massachusetts was dissolved by the crown upon very frivolous pretences. A new administration was appointed, and exorbitant oppressions were multiplied. In 1688, the Indians, upon the frontiers, renewed their hostilities. A variety of prosecutions were commenced against persons disaffected to English despotism. A man, in the spring of 1689, came from Virginia with a printed copy of the declaration of the prince of Orange. For bringing this paper with him, he was imprisoned, and two thousand pounds were refused for bail. A proclamation was published, commanding all people to be in readiness to oppose any force, which the prince of Orange might send into that part of the world. Instead of obeying this injunction, the colony rose in arms, and seized the new governor, who had been appointed by James the second, with about fifty of the most active associates of his administration. The former officers of government were restored to their places. On the 26th of May following, a vessel arrived from that country, with intelligence, that William and Mary had been proclaimed successors to the exiled king. The revolution gave universal satisfaction. In the mean time, the Indians, incited by the French, committed a variety of massacres on the frontiers. In 1690, a fleet was dispatched from New-England, to attack the French settlements at Port-Royal. An attempt was likewise made upon Quebec, but failed. On the 14th of May 1692, a new governor arrived from England, with a charter, by which the united colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts were finally governed till the revolution.

About this time were carried on the shocking persecutions of witches in New-England. Several persons, mostly women, were executed for this imaginary crime. There were instances of children accusing their parents, and others of parents accusing their children. One person refused to plead, and was pressed to death. It is painful to enlarge upon a transaction, that, in every point of view, reflects so much disgrace upon human nature. The phrenzy was too violent to be of long duration. It subsided in the course of a few months, and the persecutors became heartily ashamed of the business. The war between the colonies on the one side, and the French and Indians on the other, continued till the peace of Ryswick, which was proclaimed in Boston upon the 10th of December, 1697. The war with the Indians did not cease for some time after. They were incited by the French to persist in hostilities. During the war of the Spanish succession, the provinces of Massachusetts and New-Hamp-

shire were plunged into fresh hostilities with the French and Indians; but Connecticut and Rhode-Island were covered, by the situation of Massachusetts, from the ravages of this war. The French and Indian war terminated in 1713, by the peace of Utrecht. Mr. Hutchinson observes, that although the inhabitants of the colonies have, in general doubled their numbers in twenty-five years at most, yet the increase of population in Massachusetts and New-Hampshire, advanced in no proportion to that of the rest. In 1713, as the same writer informs us, the inhabitants of Massachusetts did not extend to twice the number, that the several colonies of which it was formed, contained fifty years before. During this period, there was no remarkable emigration to other provinces. Lands were both cheap and plenty. The reason for the inferior increase of inhabitants in New-Hampshire and Massachusetts, must have been the constant state of war to which they were subjected. From the year 1675, when the war with Philip began, to 1713, five or six thousand of the youth of the country had perished by the enemy, or by distempers contracted in the military service. In 1720, a dispute arose between Shute, governor of the province, and the house of assembly. An Indian war broke out. In 1721, the small-pox was introduced into Boston. A physician attempted to practise inoculation, and he met with most violent opposition. He began with his own children and servants. Ignorant people were of opinion, that if any of his patients happened to die, he ought to be prosecuted for murder. Doctor Mather, one of the ministers of Boston, patronized the new plan. He was vilified in pamphlets. His nephew, another clergyman, had been privately inoculated in the house of Dr. Mather, in Boston. A villain, about three o'clock one morning, set fire to the fuzee of a granado shell, filled with combustible materials, and cast it into the window of the chamber where the sick man was lodged. Fortunately the shell did not burst: A scurrilous and menacing paper was fastened to it. The superior advantages of inoculation were demonstrated by the lives which it saved. Doctor Douglas, a physician, who was at the head of its opposers, acknowledged that only one person in fourteen died. The friends of this practice insisted, that not more than one in seventy or eighty of the persons who were inoculated, lost their lives. The Indian war continued for several years. At last, in 1725, a peace was agreed to. A variety of domestic transactions occurred, consisting chiefly of disputes with the governor respecting the privileges of the province. When the war of 1741 broke out with France, it became an object with the people in New-England to reduce the city of Louisbourg, which was accomplished, in 1745. The principal fleet sailed from Nantasket road, the 24th of March and arrived in the bay of Canso upon the 4th of April. The Massachusetts land forces consisted of three thousand two hundred and fifty men, exclusive of commissioned officers. The New-Hampshire forces, three hundred and four men, including officers, arrived four days sooner. Those of Connecticut, five hundred and sixteen men, officers included, did not arrive till the 25th. The troops from Rhode-Island did not come forward till after the place had surrendered. They were only three hundred men. A block-house with eight cannon, was built at Canso. About the 23d of April, some British ships of war likewise arrived. The army landed in Chapeaurouge bay, on the 30th of April. The transports were discovered early in the morning, from the town, which was the first information that the French had of any design against them. An hundred and fifty men, who attempted to oppose the landing of the troops, were repulsed. After a few other engagements, some additional ships of war arrived on the 22d of May. On the 17th of June, the city was delivered up. The siege lasted forty-nine days. The American troops suffered severely by colds and dysenteries. A misunderstanding arose between the British and American officers, but was peaceably terminated. No other action happened of much importance. In 1749, the war was fortunately ended.

The events, of the war of 1755, have been related under a different head, as also

those of the war in 1775, which established the independence of this country. On every occasion, where exertions were required, Massachusetts has sustained a distinguished part in the history of the united states; and deserves, indeed with peculiar justice, to be termed the cradle of American liberty.

An insurrection took place in this state in the year 1786. It was suppressed without much difficulty. The ringleaders were convicted, but pardoned by government.

RHODE-ISLAND, AND PROVIDENCE PLANTATIONS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Sq. Miles,
 Length, 46 } between [3° 11' and 4° E. long.] 1300
 Greatest breadth, 40 } [41° 22' and 42° 2' N. lat.]

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north and east, by the common wealth of Massachusetts; south, by the Atlantic; west, by Connecticut. These limits comprehend what is called Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations.

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] This state is divided into five counties, which are subdivided into thirty townships, as follows :

Countries.	Towns.	Inhab.	Slav.	No. in each Co.
Newport	Newport	6716	223	14,300
	Portsmouth	1560	17	
	New-Shoreham	682	47	
	Jamestown	507	16	
	Middletown	840.	15	
	Tivertown	2453	25	
Providence	Little Compton	1542	23	24,391
	Providence	6380	48	
	Smithfield	3171	5	
	Scituate	2315	6	
	Gloucester	4025	1	
	Cumberland	1964		
	Cranston	1877	10	
	Johnston	1320	3	
	North-Providence	1071	5	
	Foster	2268	4	
Washington	Westerly	2298	10	18,075
	North-Kingston	2907	96	
	South-Kingston	4131	175	
	Charleston	2022	12	
	Exeter	2495	37	
	Richmond	1760	2	
Bristol	Hopkinton	2462	7	3,211
	Bristol	1406	64	
	Warren	1122	22	
Kent	Barrington	683	12	8,848
	Warwick	2403	35	
	East-Greenwich	1824	13	
	West-Greenwich	2054	10	
	Coventry	2477	5	
Total, Five.	Thirty	67877	948	68,325

The number of inhabitants in Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations was in the year,

	<i>Whites.</i>	<i>Blacks.</i>
1730,	15,352	2,633
1748,	29,755	4,373
1761,	35,939	4,697
1774,	54,435	5,243
1783,	48,538	3,361
1790,	67,877	948

BAYS, HARBOURS, AND ISLANDS.] Narraganset Bay lies between the main land, on the east and west. It embosoms many fertile islands, the principal of which are Rhode-Island, Canonnicut, Prudence, Patience, Hope, Dyer's, and Hog islands.

The harbours are Newport, Providence, Wickford, Patuxet, Warren, and Bristol. Rhode-Island, from which the state takes half its name, is thirteen miles in length; its average breadth is about four miles. It is divided into three townships, Newport, Portsmouth, and Middletown. This island, in point of soil, climate, and situation, may be ranked among the finest and most charming in the world. In this most flourishing state, it was called, by travellers, the *Eden* of America. But the change which the ravages of war, and a decrease of business have effected, is great and melancholy. The farming interest suffered far less injury, than the commercial city of Newport, and has nearly recovered its former state. Between thirty and forty thousand sheep are fed on this island, besides neat cattle and horses.

Canonnicut-Island lies west of Rhode-Island, and is eight miles in length, and about one mile in breadth.

Block Island, called by the Indians *Maniffes*, is twenty-one miles S. S. W. from Newport, and is the southernmost land belonging to the state.

Prudence Island is six or seven miles long. It lies north of Canonnicut, and is a part of the township of Portsmouth.

RIVERS.] Providence and Taunton rivers both fall into Narraganset Bay, the former on the west, the latter on the east side of Rhode-Island. Providence river rises partly in Massachusetts, and is navigable as far as Providence, for ships of nine hundred tons, thirty miles from the sea. Taunton river is navigable for small vessels to Taunton. Common tides rise about four feet.

Fall river is small, rising in Freetown and passing through Tivertown. The line between the states of Massachusetts and Rhode-Island, passes Fall river bridge. Patuxet river rises in Mashapog Pond, and, five miles below Providence, empties into Narraganset Bay. Pawtucket river empties into Seekhonck river, four miles N. N. E. from Providence, over which is a bridge, on the post road to Boston, and forty miles from thence. The confluent stream empties into Providence river, about a mile below Waybossett, or the Great Bridge. Naspatucket river falls into the bay about one and an half mile N. W. of Waybossett bridge. Moshassuck river falls into the same bay, three-fourths of a mile north of the bridge. These rivers, united, form Providence river, which, a few miles below the town, receives the name of Narraganset Bay; and affords fine fish, oysters and lobsters in great plenty.

CLIMATE.] Rhode-Island is as healthful a country as any part of North-America. The winter, in the maritime parts of the state, are milder than in the inland country; the air being softened by a sea vapour, which also enriches the soil. The summers are delightful, especially on Rhode Island, where the extreme heats, which prevail in other parts of America, are allayed by cool and refreshing breezes from the sea.

FISH.] In the rivers and bays is plenty of sheeps-head, black-fish, herring, shad, lobsters, oysters and clams; and around the shores of Rhode-Island, besides those al-

ready mentioned, are cod, halibut, mackerel, bass, haddock, &c. &c. to the amount of more than seventy different kinds. Newport furnishes as good a fish market as in the world.

RELIGION.] The baptists are the most numerous of any denomination in the state. These, as well as the other baptists in New-England, are principally upon the calvinistic plan as to doctrines, and independents in regard to church government. There are, however, some who profess the arminian tenets, and are called arminian baptists. Others observe the Jewish or Saturday sabbath, from a persuasion that it was one of the ten commandments, which they plead are all in their nature moral, and were never abrogated in the new testament, and must at least be deemed of equal validity for public worship as any day particularly set apart by Jesus Christ and his apostles. These are called sabbatarians, or seventh-day baptists. There are others who are called separate baptists.

The other religious denominations in Rhode-Island are congregationalists, friends, or quakers, episcopalians, moravians, and Jews. Besides these, there is a considerable number of people who can be reduced to no particular denomination.

LITERATURE.] The literature of this state is confined principally to the towns of Newport and Providence. There are men of learning and abilities scattered through other towns, but they are rare.

At Providence, is Rhode-Island college. The charter for founding this seminary of learning, was granted by the general assembly of the state, by the name of the "Trustees and Fellows of the college or university, in the English colony of Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations," † in 1764, in consequence of the petition of a large number of the most respectable characters in the state. By the charter, the corporation of the college consists of two separate branches, with distinct, separate, and respective powers. The number of trustees is thirty-six, of whom twenty-two are of the denomination called baptists, five of the denomination of friends, five episcopalians, and four congregationalists. The same proportion of the different denominations to continue *in perpetuum*. The number of the fellows (including the president, who is a fellow, *ex officio*) is twelve, of whom eight are baptists, the others chosen indiscriminately from any denomination.

This institution was first founded at Warren, in the county of Bristol, and the first commencement held there in 1769.

In the year 1770, the college was removed to Providence, where a large, elegant building was erected for its accommodation, by the generous donations of individuals, mostly from that town. It is situated on a hill to the east of the town; and while its elevated situation renders it delightful, by commanding an extensive, variegated prospect, it furnishes it with a pure, salubrious air. It is now in a flourishing state, and contains upwards of sixty students. The edifice is of brick, four stories high, 150 feet long, and 46 wide with a projection of 10 feet each side. It has an entry lengthwise, with rooms on each side. There are forty-eight rooms for the accommodation of students, and eight large ones for public uses. The roof is covered with slate.

This institution is under the instruction of a president, a professor of divinity, a professor of natural and experimental philosophy, a professor of mathematicks and astronomy, a professor of natural history, and three tutors. The institution has a library of between two and three thousand volumes, and a valuable philosophical apparatus. Nearly all the funds of the college are at interest in the treasury of the state, and amount to almost two thousand pounds.

† This name to be altered, when any generous benefactor arises, who, by his liberal donation, shall entitle himself to the honor of giving the college a name.

At Newport there is a flourishing academy, under the direction of a rector and tutors, who teach the learned languages, English grammar, geography, &c.

[SOCIETIES.] A marine society was established at Newport in 1752, for the purpose of relieving distressed widows and orphans of maritime brethren, and such of their society as may need assistance.

The Providence Society for promoting the abolition of slavery, for the relief of persons unlawfully held in bondage, and for improving the condition of the African race, commenced in 1789, and was incorporated the year following. It consists of upwards of one hundred and fifty members, part of whom belong to the state of Massachusetts.

[MOUNTAIN.] In the town of Bristol is Mount Hope, or as some call it Mount Haup, which is remarkable only for its having been the seat of King Philip, and the place where he was killed.

[BRIDGES.] The great bridge, in the town of Providence, formerly called Way-bossett, from a high hill of that name, which stood near the west end of the bridge, but which is now removed, and its base built upon, is the chief bridge in the state. It is 160 feet long and 23 feet wide, supported by two wooden trussels, and two stone pillars. It unites the eastern and western parts of the town, and is a place of resort in summer, affording a pleasant prospect of all vessels entering and leaving the harbour. This is not a toll bridge.

The bridge over Patucket falls, is a work of considerable magnitude and much ingenuity.

[SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] The state generally speaking is more adapted for pasture than for grain. It, however, produces corn, rye, barley, oats, and in some parts, wheat sufficient for home consumption, and the various kinds of grasses, fruits, and culinary roots and plants in great abundance, and in good perfection, cider is made for exportation. The northern parts of the state are but thinly inhabited, and are more rocky and barren than the rest. The tract of country lying between South Kingstons and the Connecticut line, called the Narraganset country, is excellent grazing land, and is inhabited by a number of wealthy farmers, who raise some of the finest neat cattle in New-England, weighing from sixteen to eighteen hundred weight. They keep large dairies, and make butter and cheese of the best quality, and in large quantities for exportation. Narraganset has been famed for an excellent breed of pacing horses, remarkable for their speed, and hardiness for enduring the fatigues of a journey, this breed of horses has much depreciated of late, the best mares having been purchased by people from the westward.

[TRADE.] Before the war, the merchants in Rhode-Island imported from Britain, dry goods—from Africa, slaves—from the West-Indies, sugars, coffee and molasses—and from the neighbouring colonies, lumber and provisions. With the bills which they obtained, in Surinam and other Dutch West-India islands, they paid their merchants in England; their sugars they carried to Holland; the slaves from Africa, they carried to the West-Indies, together with the lumber and provisions procured from their neighbours; the rum distilled from the molasses, was carried to Africa to purchase negroes; with their dry goods from England they trafficked with their neighbouring colonies. By this kind of circuitous commerce, they subsisted and grew rich. But the war, and some other events, have had a great, and in most respects, an injurious effect upon the trade of this state. The slave trade, which was a source of wealth to many of the people in Newport and in other parts of the state, has happily been abolished. The legislature have passed a law prohibiting ships from going to Africa for slaves, and selling them in the West-India islands; and the oath of one seaman, belonging to the ship, is sufficient evidence of the fact. The town of Bristol carries on a considerable trade to Africa, the West-Indies, and to different parts of the United States,

But by far the greatest part of the commerce of this state is at present carried on by the inhabitants of the flourishing town of Providence. In June 1791, there were belonging to this port,

		Tons.
11	Ships containing,	3,069
35	Brigs,	4,266
1	Snow,	141
1	Polacre,	101
25	Schooners,	1,320
56	Sloops,	3,047

Total 129 sail, containing 21,941

The present exports from the state are flax-seed, lumber, horses, cattle, beef, pork, fish, poultry, onions, butter, cheese, barley, grain, spirits, and cotton and linen goods. The imports consist of European and East and West-India goods, and log-wood from the bay of Honduras. Upwards of six hundred vessels enter and clear annually at the different ports in this state. The amount of exports from this state to foreign countries, for one year, ending the 30th of September, 1791, was 470,131 dollars 9 cents, and the year following to 698,084 dollars.

MANUFACTURES.] The inhabitants of this state are progressing rapidly in this branch of business. A cotton manufactory has been erected at Providence, which, from present prospects, will answer the expectations of the proprietors. The warps are spun by water, with a machine which is an improvement of Mr. Arkwright's; and strong, smooth, excellent yarn is thus made both for warps and stockings. The filling of the cotton goods is spun with jennies. In these several works, five carding machines are employed, and a calender, constructed after the European manner. — Jeans, fustians, denims, thicksets, velvets, &c. &c. are here manufactured and sent to the southern states. Large quantities of linen and tow cloth are made in different parts of this state for exportation. But the most considerable manufactures in this state are those of iron, such as bar and sheet iron, steel, nail rods and nails, implements of husbandry, stoves, pots, and other household utensils; the iron-work of shipping, anchors, bells, &c. The other manufactures of this state are rum, corn-spirits, chocolate, paper, wool and cotton cards, &c. besides domestic manufactures for family use, which, in this, in common with the other states, amount to a vast sum that cannot be ascertained.

MINERALS, FOSSILS, &c.] Iron is found in great plenty in several parts of the state. The iron-works, on Patuxet river, twelve miles from Providence, are supplied with one from a bed four miles and a half distant, which lies in a valley, through which runs a brook. The brook is turned into a new channel, and the ore pits are cleared of water by a steam engine, constructed and made at the furnace, by and under the direction of the late Joseph Brown, esquire, of Providence, which continues a very useful monument of his mechanical genius. At this ore-bed are a variety of ores, curious stones and ochres.

At Diamond-Hill, in the county of Providence, which is so called from its sparkling and shining appearance, there is a variety of peculiar stones, more curious than useful. Not far from this hill, in the township of Cumberland, is a copper mine, mixed with iron, strongly impregnated with load-stone, of which some large pieces have been found in the neighbourhood. No method has yet been discovered to work it to advantage.

An abundance of lime-stone is found in this state, particularly in the county of Providence, of which large quantities of lime are made and exported. This limestone is of different colours, and is the true marble, both of the white, plain and variegated. It takes a fine polish, and works equal to any in America.

There are several mineral springs in this state; too ne of which, near Providence many people resort to bathe, and, drink the water.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Newport and Providence are the two principal towns in this state. Newport lies in lat. $41^{\circ} 35''$ and $71^{\circ} 12''$ long. west from London. This town was first settled by Wm. Coddington, afterwards governor, and the father of Rhode Island, with seventeen others, in 1639. Its harbour, which is one of the finest in the world; spreads westward before the town. The entrance is easy and safe, and a large fleet may anchor in it, and ride in perfect security. The town lies north and south upon a gradual ascent as you proceed eastward from the water, and exhibits a beautiful view from the harbour, and from the neighbouring hills which lie westward upon the main. West of the town is Goat-Island on which is a fort. Between this island and Rhode-Island is the harbour. Front or Water-street is a mile in length.

Newport contains about one thousand houses, built chiefly of wood. It has nine houses of public worship: three for the baptists, two for the congregationalists, one for episcopalians, one for quakers, one for moravians, and a synagogue for the Jews. The other public buildings are a state-house, and an edifice for the public library. The situation, form and architecture of the state-house give it a pleasing appearance. It stands sufficiently elevated, and a long wharf, and paved parade lead up to it from the harbour.

Newport, formerly a place of great trade, and famed for the beauty of its situation; the salubrity of its climate, and the hospitality and politeness of its inhabitants, and which was the place of resort for invalids from a great distance, now, as has been mentioned, wears the gloomy aspect of decay. Thousands of its inhabitants are almost destitute of employment.

Providence, situated in latitude $41^{\circ} 51''$ on both sides of Providence river, is thirty-five miles from the sea, and thirty N. by W. from Newport. It is the oldest town in this state. Roger Williams and his company were its first settlers, in 1636.

It is divided into two parts, by the river, and connected by the bridge already described: Ships of almost any size sail up and down the channel. A ship of nine hundred and fifty tons, for the East-India trade was lately built in this town, and fitted for sea. In 1764, there were, belonging to the county of Providence, fifty four sail of vessels, containing four thousand three hundred and twenty tons. In 1791, it had one hundred and twenty-nine sail, containing eleven thousand nine hundred and forty-two tons.

The public buildings are, an elegant meeting-house for baptists, eighty feet square, with a lofty and beautiful steeple—a meeting-house for friends, or quakers, two for congregationalists, an episcopal church, a handsome court-house, seventy feet by forty, in which is deposited a library, for the use of the inhabitants of the town and country—a work-house; a market-house, eighty feet long, and forty feet wide, and a brick school-house, in which four schools are kept. The college-edifice we have already mentioned. The houses in this town are generally built of wood, though there are some brick buildings which are large and elegant. At a convenient distance from the town, an hospital, for the small-pox, and other diseases, has been erected. There are two spermaceti works. a number of distilleries, sugar-houses, and other manufactories. Several forts were erected in and near Providence during the late war, which, however, are not kept in repair. This town has an extensive trade with Massachusetts, Connecticut, and part of Vermont; and, from its advantageous situation, promises to be among the largest towns in New-England. It sends four representatives to the general assembly—the other towns in the county send but two.

Bristol is a pleasant, thriving town, about 14 miles N. of Newport, on the main. Part of the town was destroyed by the British, but it has since been rebuilt. It has an episcopal and a congregational church. A number of vessels are owned by the inhabi-

tants, and they carry on a considerable trade to Africa, the West-Indies and to different parts of the United States.

Warren is also a flourishing town—trades to the West-Indies and other places, and builds ships.

Little Compton, called by the Indians *Secomet*, is said to be the best cultivated township in the state, and affords a greater supply of provisions for market, such as meats of the several kinds, butter, cheese, vegetables, &c. than any other township of its size. The inhabitants, who are an industrious and sober people, manufacture linen and tow cloth, flannels, &c of an excellent quality, and in considerable quantities for sale.

East Greenwich and Warwick are noted for making good cider, and formerly raised tobacco for exportation.

INDIANS] There are nearly five hundred Indians in this state, the greater part of whom reside at Charlestown. They are peaceable and well disposed towards government, and speak the English language.

CONSTITUTION.] The constitution of this state is founded on the charter granted by Charles the II. in 1663; and the frame of government was not essentially altered by the revolution. The legislature of the state consists of two branches—a senate or upper house, composed of ten members, besides the governor and deputy governor, called, in the charter, *assistants*—and a house of representatives, composed of deputies from the several towns. The members of the legislature are chosen twice a year; and there are two sessions of this body annually, viz. on the first Wednesday in May, and the last Wednesday in October.

The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, or in his absence, in the deputy governor, who with the assistants, secretary and general treasurer, are chosen annually in May by the suffrages of the people. The governor presides in the upper house, but has only a single voice in enacting laws.

There is one supreme judicial court, composed of five judges, whose jurisdiction extends over the whole state, and who hold two courts annually in each county.

In each county, there is an inferior court of common pleas and general sessions of the peace, held twice a year for the trial of causes not capital, arising within the county, for which an appeal lies to the supreme court.

HISTORY.] This state was first settled from Massachusetts. The emigrants from England who came to Massachusetts, though they did not perfectly agree in religious sentiments, had been tolerably united by their common zeal against the ceremonies of the church of England. But as soon as they were removed from ecclesiastical courts, and possessed of a patent allowing liberty of conscience, they fell into disputes and contentions among themselves. And notwithstanding all their sufferings and complaints in England, excited by the principle of uniformity, the majority here were as fond of this principle, as those from whose persecution they had fled.

The true grounds of religious liberty were not embraced or understood at this time by any sect. While all disclaimed persecution for the sake of conscience, a regard for the public peace, and for the preservation of the church of Christ from infection, together with the obstinacy of the heretics, as each sect stiled its opponents, was urged in justification of the most rigorous intolerance.

Mr. Roger Williams, a minister who came over to New-England in 1631, was charged with holding a variety of errors, and was on that account forced to leave his house, land, wife and children; at Salem, in the dead of winter, and to seek a residence without the limits of Massachusetts. Governor Winthrop advised him to pursue his course to Nehiganset, or Narraganset Bay, which he did, and fixed himself at Secunk, now Rehoboth. But that place being within the bounds of Plymouth colony, Gov. Winslow, in a friendly manner, advised him to remove to the other side of the river, where the lands were not covered by any patent. Accordingly, in

1636, Mr. Williams, and four others, crossed Secuk river, and landed among the Indians, by whom they were hospitably received and thus laid the foundation of a town which, from a sense of God's merciful Providence to him he called Providence. Here he was soon after joined by a number of others and though they were secured from the Indians by the terror of the English, yet they for a considerable time, suffered much from fatigue and want; but they enjoyed liberty of conscience, which has ever since been inviolably maintained in this state.

The unhappy divisions and contentions in Massachusetts still prevailed, and in the year 1636, governor Winthrop strove to exterminate the opinions which he disapproved. Accordingly, a synod was called at Newtown (now Cambridge) on the 29th of August, when eighty erroneous opinions were presented, debated, and condemned; and a court, holden in October following, at the same place, banished a few leading persons accused of these errors, and censured several others, not, it seems, for holding those opinions, but for seditious conduct. The disputes which occasioned this disturbance were about the same points as the five questions debated between the synod and Mr. Cotton, which are thus described by Dr. Mather. "They were about the order of things in our union to our Lord Jesus Christ; about the influence of our faith in the application of his righteousness; about the use of our sanctification in evidencing our justification; and about the consideration of our Lord Jesus Christ by men yet under a covenant of works, briefly, they were about the points whereupon depends the grounds of our assurance of blessedness in a better world.*"

The whole colony of Massachusetts, at this time, was in a violent ferment. The election of civil officers was carried by a party spirit, excited by religious dissensions. Those who were banished by the court, joined by a number of their friends, went in quest of a new settlement, and came to Providence; where they were kindly entertained by Mr. R. Williams; who by the assistance of sir Henry Vane, jun. procured for them, from the Indians, Aquidnick, now Rhode-Island. Here, in 1638, the people, eighteen in number, formed themselves into a body politic, and chose Mr. Coddington their leader, to be their judge or chief magistrate. The same year, the sachems signed the deed or grant of the island. For which *Indian gift*, it is said, they paid very dearly, by being obliged to make repeated purchases of the same land from several claimants.

The other parts of the state were purchased of the natives at several successive periods.

In the year 1643, the people being destitute of a patent or any legal authority, Mr. Williams went to England as an agent, and by the assistance of sir Henry Vane, jun. obtained from the earl of Warwick (then governor and admiral of all the plantations) and his council, 'a free and absolute charter of civil incorporation of Providence Plantations in Narraganset Bay.' This lasted until the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663, by which the incorporation was stiled, 'the English colony of Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations in New-England.' This charter, without any essential alteration, has remained the foundation of their government ever since.

As the original inhabitants of this state were persecuted for the sake of conscience, a most liberal and free toleration was established by them.

In 1630, the colony was filled with inhabitants, and chiefly by the natural increase of the settlers. The number of souls in the state at this time was seventeen thousand nine hundred and thirty-five, of which no more than nine hundred and eighty-five were Indians and sixteen hundred and forty-eight negroes.

In 1738 there were above one hundred sail of vessels belonging to Newport.

The colony of Rhode Island, from its local situation, has ever been less exposed to the incursions of the neighbouring Indians, and of the French from Canada, than

* Magnalia, book 7, p. 17.

their neighbours in Massachusetts and Connecticut. Many of the colonists have, from its first establishment, professed the principles of the quakers, which forbid them to fight. For these reasons the colony has been very little concerned in the old wars with the French and Indians. In the expedition against Port Royal, in 1710, and in the abortive attempt against Canada in 1711, they had some forces. Towards the intended expedition against Canada in 1746, they raised three hundred men, and equipped a fleet of war with one hundred seamen: but in their voyage to Nova-Scotia, they met with misfortunes and returned. Soon after, the design was dropped.

Through the whole of the late war with Great Britain, the inhabitants of this state manifested a patriotic spirit; their troops behaved gallantly, and they are honoured in having produced the second general in the field.*

At the conclusion of the war, when it was proposed to invest congress with power to levy an impost of five per cent. on imports, this state, by its pertinacious resistance, was the principal means of defeating the measure.

The emission of paper money in this state since the peace, was productive of some shocking scenes of fraud and deception and was the chief reason why Rhode Island remained so long obstinate against the adoption of the federal constitution. Its obstinacy was finally overcome by the danger of being subjected to the same duties in the ports of the other states, as aliens, a measure contemplated by congress.

C O N N E C T I C U T.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Length, 100 } between $\left[\begin{array}{l} 41^{\circ} 42' \text{ and } 42^{\circ} 2' \text{ N. lat.} \\ 1^{\circ} 45' \text{ and } 3^{\circ} 40' \text{ E. long.} \end{array} \right.$
 Greatest breadth, 72 }

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north by Massachusetts; east, by Rhode-Island; south, by the sound, which divides it from Long-Island; west, by the state of New-York.

The divisional line between Connecticut and Massachusetts, as settled in 1713, was, according to Dr. Douglas, found to be about seventy-two miles in length. The line dividing Connecticut from Rhode-Island, was settled in 1728, and found to be about forty-five miles. The sea-coast, from the mouth of Paucatuk river, which forms a part of the eastern boundary of Connecticut, in a direct southwesterly line to the mouth of Byram river, is reckoned at about ninety miles. The line between Connecticut and New-York runs from latitude 41° to latitude $42^{\circ} 2'$; seventy-two miles. Connecticut contains, by this calculation, about four thousand six hundred and seventy-four square miles.

But, according to Blodget's map, lately published, the north line of Connecticut is ninety-five miles; and the distance between the mouth of Paucatuk river, and the mouth of Byram river, is one hundred and six miles. The greatest length of this state, it appears, from this map, is about one hundred miles; its greatest breadth, seventy-two; its contents, about five thousand four hundred miles.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] Connecticut is divided into eight counties and about one hundred townships. Each township is a corporation, invested with power to hold lands,

* General Green.

choose their own town officers, to make prudential laws, the penalty of transgression not exceeding twenty shillings, and to choose their own representatives to the general assembly. The townships are generally divided into two or more parishes, in each of which is one or more places for public worship, and school-houses, at convenient distances.

The names of the counties, their chief towns, and population, in 1790, were as follow :—

Counties.	Total No. of Inhab.	No. of Females.	Slaves.	Chief Towns.
Hartford,	38029	18714	203	HARTFORD.
Newhaven,	30830	15258	433	NEWHAVEN.
New-London,	33200	16378	586	New-London, Norwich.
Fairfield,	36250	17541	797	Fairfield, Danbury.
Windham,	28921	14406	184	Windham.
Litchfield,	38755	18909	233	Litchfield.
Middlesex,	18855	9632	221	Middletown, Haddam.
Tolland,	13106	6510	47	Tolland.
Total. Eight.	237946	117448	2764	

RIVERS.] The principal rivers in this state are Connecticut, Housatonic, the Thames, and their branches. Under the heads of New Hampshire and Massachusetts, we have already described Connecticut river, till it enters this state. Soon after it enters the bounds of Connecticut, it passes over Enfield falls, to render which navigable for boats, a company has been instituted, and a sum of money raised by lottery. At Windfor it receives Windfor Ferry river, from the west; which is formed by the junction of Farmington and Poquabock rivers. At Hartford it meets the tide, and thence flows, in a crooked channel, into Long-Island sound. It is from eighty to one hundred rods wide, one hundred and thirty miles from its mouth.

At its mouth is a bar of sand which considerably obstructs the navigation. Ten feet water, at full tides, is found on this bar, and the same depth to Middleton. The distance of the bar from this place, as the river runs, is thirty-six miles. Above Middleton are several shoals, which stretch quite across the river. Only six feet water is found on the shoal at high tide, and here the tide ebbs and flows but about eight inches. About three miles below Middleton, the river is contracted to about forty rods in breadth, by two high mountains. Almost every where else, the banks are low, and spread into fine, extensive meadows. In the spring floods, which generally happen in May, these meadows are covered with water. At Hartford the water sometimes rises twenty feet above the common surface of the river, and having all to pass through the abovementioned strait, it is sometimes two or three weeks before it returns to its usual bed. These floods add nothing to the depth of the water on the bar, at the mouth of the river; this bar lying too far off the sound to be affected by them.

This river is navigable to Hartford, upwards of fifty miles from its mouth; and the produce of the country, for two hundred miles above, is brought thither in boats. The boats which are used in this business are flat-bottomed, long, and narrow, for the convenience of going up stream, and of so light a make as to be portable in carts. They are taken out of the river at three different carrying places, all of which make fifteen miles. The obstructions will, in a few years, it is a probable, be all removed.

Sturgeon, salmon, and shad, are caught in plenty in their season, from the mouth

of the river upwards, excepting sturgeon, which do not ascend the upper falls; besides a variety of small fish, such as pike, carp, perch, &c.

From this river were employed, in 1789, three brigs of one hundred and eighty tons each, in the European trade; and about sixty sail, from sixty to one hundred and fifty tons, in the West-India trade; besides a few fishermen, and forty or fifty coasting vessels.

One branch of the Housatonic* rises in Laneshorough, the other in Windsor, both in Berkshire county, in Massachusetts. It passes through several pleasant towns, and empties into the sound between Stratford and Milford. It is navigable twelve miles to Derby. A bar of shells, at its mouth, obstructs its navigation for large vessels. In this river, between Salisbury and Canaan, is a cataract where the water of the whole river which is one hundred and fifty yards wide, falls about sixty feet perpendicular, in a perfect white sheet, exhibiting a scene exceedingly grand and beautiful.

Naugatuk is a small river, which rises in Torrington, and empties into the Housatonic, at Derby.

The Thames empties into Long-Island sound, at New-London. It is navigable fourteen miles, to Norwich Landing. Here it loses its name, and branches into Shetucket, on the east, and Norwich or Little river on the west. The city of Norwich stands on the tongue of land between these rivers. Little river, about a mile from its mouth, has a remarkable and very romantic cataract. A rock, ten or twelve feet in perpendicular height, extends quite across the channel of the river. Over this, the whole river pitches, in one entire sheet upon a bed of rocks below. Here the river is compressed into a very narrow channel, between two craggy cliffs, one of which towers to a considerable height. The channel descends gradually and is very crooked, and covered with pointed rocks. Upon these, the water swiftly tumbles, foaming with the most violent agitation, fifteen or twenty rods, into a broad basin which spreads before it. At the bottom of the perpendicular falls, the rocks are curiously excavated by the constant pouring of the water. Some of the cavities, which are all of a circular form, are five or six feet deep. The smoothness of the water above its descent—the regularity and beauty of the perpendicular fall—the tremendous roughness of the other, and the craggy, towering cliff which impends the whole, present to the view of the spectator, a scene indescribably delightful and majestic. On this river are some of the finest mill seats in New England, and those immediately below the falls, occupied by Lathrop's mills, are perhaps not exceeded by any in the world. Across the mouth of this river is a broad, commodious bridge, in the form of a wharf, built at a great expense.

Shetucket river, the other branch of the Thames, four miles from its mouth, receives Quinnabogue, which has its source in Brimfield, in Massachusetts; thence passing through Sturbridge and Dudley in Massachusetts, it crosses into Connecticut, and divides Pomfret from Killingly, Canterbury from Plainfield, and Lisbon from Preston, and then mingles with the Shetucket. Shetucket river is formed by the junction of Willamantic and Mount-Hope rivers, which unite between Windham and Lebanon.

Paukatuck, East or North-Haven and Byram rivers, are not considerable enough to merit particular descriptions.

HARBOURS.] The two principal harbours are at New-London and New-Haven. The former opens to the south. From the light house, which stands at the mouth of the harbour to the town, is about three miles; the breadth is three quarters of a mile, and in some places more. The harbour has from five to six fathom water—

* An Indian name, signifying *Over the Mountain*.

clear bottom—tough, ooze, and, as far as one mile above the town, is entirely secure, and commodious for large ships.

New-Haven harbour is greatly inferior to that of New-London. It is a bay which fits up northerly from the Sound, about four miles. Its entrance is about half a mile wide. It has very good anchorage, and two and an half fathom at low water, and three fathom and four feet at common tides.

The whole of the sea coast is indented with harbours, many of which are safe and commodious, but are not sufficiently used, to merit a description.

CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] Connecticut, though subject to the extremes of heat and cold in their seasons, and to frequent sudden changes, is very healthful. The north-west winds, in the winter season, are often extremely severe and piercing, occasioned by the great body of snow which lies concealed from the dissolving influence of the sun, in the immense forests, north and northwest. The clear and serene temperature of the sky, however makes amends for the severity of the weather, and is favourable to health and longevity. Connecticut is generally broken land, made up of mountains, hills and valleys; and is exceedingly well watered. Some small parts of it are thin and barren. It lies in the fifth and sixth northern climates, and has a strong, fertile soil. Its principal productions are Indian corn, rye, wheat in many parts of the state, oats and barley, which are heavy and good, and of late buckwheat—flax in large quantities—some hemp, potatoes of several kinds, pumpkins, turnips, peas, beans, fruits of all kinds which are common to the climate, &c. The soil is well calculated for pasturing and mowing, which enables the farmers to feed large numbers of neat cattle and horses. Actual calculation has evinced that any given quantity of the best mowing land in Connecticut, produces about twice as much clear profit, as the same quantity of the best wheat land in the state of New-York. Many farmers, in the eastern part of the state, have lately found their advantage in raising mules, which are carried from the ports of Norwich and New London, to the West-India islands, and yield a handsome profit. The beef, pork, butter, and cheese of Connecticut are equal to any in the world.

TRADE.] The trade of Connecticut is principally with the West-India islands, and is carried on in vessels from sixty to an hundred and forty tons. The exports consist of horses, mules, oxen, oak staves, hoops, pine boards, oak plank, beans, Indian corn, fish, beef, pork, &c. Horses, live cattle, and lumber, are permitted in the Dutch, Danish, and French ports.

Connecticut has a large number of coasting vessels employed in carrying the produce of the state to other states. To Rhode Island, Massachusetts, and New-Hampshire, they carry pork, wheat, corn, and rye: To North and South Carolina and Georgia, butter, cheese, salted beef, cider, apples, potatoes, hay, &c. and receive in return, rice, indigo, and money. Much of the produce of Connecticut, especially the western parts, is carried to New-York; particularly pot and pearl ash, flax seed, beef, pork, cheese and butter, in large quantities. Most of the produce of Connecticut river, from the parts of Massachusetts, New-Hampshire and Vermont, as well as of Connecticut, which are adjacent, goes to that market. Considerable quantities of the produce of the eastern parts of the state, are sent to Boston and Providence.

The value of the whole exported produce and commodities from this state, before the year 1774, was estimated at about nearly 700,000 dollars annually. In the year ending September 30th 1791, the amount of exports from this state to foreign countries was 710,340 dollars—besides articles carried to different parts of the United States to a great amount. This state owns and employs in the foreign and coasting trade, 32,867 tons of shipping.

MANUFACTURES.] The farmers in Connecticut and their families, are mostly clothed in plain, decent, homespun cloth. Their linens and woollens are manufac-

tured in the family way; and although they are generally of a coarser kind, they are of a stronger texture, and much more durable, than those imported from France and Britain. Many of their cloths are fine and handsome.

A woollen manufactory has been established at Hartford. The legislature of the state have encouraged it, and it bids fair to grow into importance. Mr. Chittendon of New-Haven, has invented a useful machine for bending and cutting card teeth. This machine is put in motion by a manderil twelve inches in length, and one inch in diameter. Connected with the manderil are six parts of the machine; independent of each other; the first introduces a certain length of wire into the chops of the *corone*; the second shuts the chops, and holds fast the wire in the middle until it is finished; the third cuts off the wire; the fourth doubles the tooth in proper form; the fifth makes the last bend; and the sixth delivers the finished tooth from the machine. The manderil is moved by a band wheel, five feet in diameter, turned by a crank. One revolution of the manderil makes one tooth; ten are made in a second, and thirty-six thousand in an hour. With one machine like this, teeth enough might be made to fill cards sufficient for all the manufactories in New-England. In Newhaven are flourishing linen and button manufactories, and a cotton manufactory. In Hartford are glass works, a snuff and powder mill, and iron works; and a slitting mill is now establishing. Iron works are established also at Salisbury, Norwich, and other parts of the state. At Stafford is a furnace, at which are made large quantities of hollow ware, and other ironmongery, sufficient to supply the whole state. Paper is manufactured at Norwich, Hartford, Newhaven, and in Litchfield county. Nails, of every size, are made in almost every town and village in Connecticut; so that considerable quantities are exported to the neighbouring states, and at a better rate than they can be had from Europe. Ironmongery, hats, candles, leather, shoes, and boots, are manufactured in this state. Oil mills, of a new and very ingenious construction, have been erected in several parts of the state. A duck manufactory has been established at Stratford, and it is said succeeds very well.

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] Connecticut is very populous in proportion to its extent. It is laid out in small farms from fifty to three or four hundred acres each, which are held by the farmers in fee simple; and are generally cultivated as well as the nature of the soil will admit. The state is chequered with innumerable roads or highways crossing each other in every direction. A traveller, in any of these roads, even in the most unsettled parts of the state, will seldom pass more than two or three miles, without finding a house or cottage, and a farm under such improvements as to afford the necessaries for the support of a family. The whole state resembles a well-cultivated garden, which, with that degree of industry that is necessary to happiness, produces the necessaries and conveniences of life in great plenty.

In 1756, the number of inhabitants in Connecticut was one hundred and thirty thousand six hundred and eleven. In 1774, there were one hundred and ninety-seven thousand eight hundred and fifty-six souls. In eighteen years, the increase was sixty-seven thousand two hundred and forty-five. From 1774, to 1782, the increase was but eleven thousand two hundred and ninety-four persons. This comparatively small increase of inhabitants may be satisfactorily accounted for from the destruction of the war, and the numerous emigrations to Vermont, the western parts of New-Hampshire, New-York, and the other states.

The inhabitants are almost entirely of an English descent. There are no Dutch, French, or Germans, and very few Scotch or Irish people in any part of the state.

The people of Connecticut are inclined to have their disputes, even those of a trivial kind, settled *according to law*. The prevalence of this litigious spirit, affords employment and support for a numerous body of lawyers. The number of actions entered annually upon the several dockets in the state justifies the above observation.

That party spirit, however, which is the bane of political happiness, has not raged with such violence in this state as in Massachusetts and Rhode-Island. Public proceedings have been conducted, generally, and especially of late, with much calmness and candour. The people are well informed in regard to their rights, and judicious in the methods they adopt to secure them. The state enjoys a great share of political tranquillity.

RELIGION.] All religions that are consistent with the peace of society, are tolerated in Connecticut; and a spirit of liberality and catholicism is increasing. There are very few religious sects in this state. The bulk of the people are congregationalists. Besides these, there are episcopalians and baptists; and formerly there was a society of sandimanians at Newhaven; but they are now reduced to a very small number. The episcopalian churches are respectable, and are under the superintendance of a bishop.

CHIEF TOWNS.] There are a great number of very pleasant towns, both maritime and inland, in Connecticut. It contains five cities, incorporated with extensive jurisdiction in civil causes. Two of these, Hartford and Newhaven, are capitals of the state. The general assembly is holden, at the former, in May, and at the latter, in October, annually.

Hartford (city) is situated at the head of navigation, on the west side of Connecticut river, about fifty miles from its entrance into the sound. Its buildings are, a state-house, two churches for congregationalists, a distillery, besides upwards of three hundred dwelling-houses, a number of which are handsomely built with brick.

The town is divided by a small river, with high, romantic banks. Over this river is a bridge connecting the two divisions of the town. Hartford is advantageously situated for trade, has a very fine back country, enters largely into the manufacturing business; and is a rich, flourishing, commercial town. A bank has lately been established in this city.

Newhaven (city) lies round the head of a bay, which makes up about four miles north from the sound. It covers a part of a large plain, which is circumscribed on three sides by high hills or mountains. Two small rivers bound the city east and west. The town was originally laid out in squares of sixty rods. Many of these squares have been divided by cross streets. Four streets run northwest and southeast; these are crossed by others at right angles. Near the centre of the city is the public square; on and around which are the public buildings, which are, a state-house, college, and chapel, three churches for congregationalists, and one for episcopalians. These are all handsome and commodious buildings. The college, chapel, state-house, and one of the churches, are of brick. The public square is encircled with rows of trees, which render it both convenient and delightful. Its beauty, however, is greatly diminished by the burial-ground, and several of the public buildings, which occupy a considerable part of it.

Many of the streets are ornamented with two rows of trees, one on each side, which give the city a rural appearance. The prospect from the steeple is greatly variegated, and extremely beautiful. There are about five hundred dwelling-houses in the city, principally of wood, and well built; and some of them elegant. The streets are sandy. Within the limits of the city are four thousand souls, It carries on a considerable trade with New-York and the West-India islands, and has several kinds of manufactures, as mentioned before.

New-London (city) stands on the west side of the river Thomas, near its entrance into the sound, in latitude $41^{\circ} 25'$. It has two places for public worship, one for episcopalians, and one for congregationalists, about three hundred dwelling houses, and four thousand six hundred inhabitants. Its harbour is the best in Connecticut. It is defended by fort Trumbull and fort Griswold, the one in New-London, the other in

Groton. A considerable part of the town was burnt by the infamous Benedict Arnold, in 1781. It has since been rebuilt.

Norwich stands at the head of Thames river, fourteen miles north from New-London. It is a commercial city, has a rich and extensive back country, and avails itself of its natural advantages at the head of navigation. Its situation upon a river, which affords a great number of convenient seats for mills and water machines of various kinds, renders it very eligible in a manufacturing view.

The inhabitants manufacture paper of all kinds, stockings, clocks and watches, chaifes, buttons, stone and earthen ware, wire, oil, chocolate, bells, anchors, and all kinds of forge work. The city contains about four hundred and fifty dwelling houses, a court house, two churches for congregationalists, and one for episcopalians, and about three thousand inhabitants. It is in three detached compact divisions; viz. Chelsea, at the landing, the town, and Bean-hill; in the latter division is an academy; and in the town is a school, supported by a donation from Dr. Daniel Lathrop, deceased. The courts of law are held alternately at New-London and Norwich.

Middleton (city) is pleasantly situated on the western bank of Connecticut river, fifteen miles south of Hartford. It is the principal town in Middlesex county—has about three hundred houses—a court-house—one church for congregationalists—one for episcopalians—a naval-office—and carries on a large and increasing trade.

Four miles south of Hartford is Wethersfield, a very pleasant town of between two and three hundred houses, situated on a fine soil, with an elegant brick church for congregationalists. This town is noted for raising onions.

Windfor, Farmington, Litchfield, Milford, Stratford, Fairfield, Guilford, Stamford, Windham, Suffield, and Enfield, are all considerable and very pleasant towns.

CURIOSITIES.] Two miles west of Newhaven is a mountain, on the top of which is a cave, remarkable for having been the residence of generals Whaley and Goffe, two of the judges of Charles I. They arrived at Boston, July 1660, and came to Newhaven the following year. They concealed themselves behind West mountain, three miles from Newhaven. They soon after removed to Milford, where they lived concealed until October, 1664; when they returned to Newhaven, and immediately proceeded to Hadley, where they remained concealed for about ten years, in which time Whaley died, and Goffe soon after fled. In 1665, John Dixwell, esq. another of the king's judges, visited them while at Hadley, and afterwards proceeded to Newhaven, where he lived many years, and was known by the name of John Davis. Here he died, and was buried in the public burying place, where his grave-stone is standing to this day, with this inscription, "J. D. esq. deceased, March 18th, in the eighty-second year of his age, 1688."

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, AND SCHOOLS.] In no part of the world is education of all ranks of people more attended to than in Connecticut. Almost every town is divided into districts, and each district has a public school kept in it a greater or less part of every year. Somewhat more than one-third of the monies arising from a tax of the polls and rateable estate of the inhabitants, is appropriated to the support of schools, in the several towns, for the education of children and youth. The law directs that a grammar school shall be kept in every county town throughout the state.

Academies have been established at Greenfield, Plainfield, Norwich, Windham, and Pomfret; some of which are flourishing.

YALE COLLEGE was founded in 1700, and remained at Killingworth until 1707—then at Saybrook, until 1716, when it was removed and fixed at Newhaven. Among its principal benefactors was governor Yale, in honour of whom, in 1718, it was

named **YALE COLLEGE**. The present college edifice, which is of a brick, was built in 1750, and is one hundred feet long, forty feet wide, three stories high, and contains thirty-two chambers, and sixty-four studies, convenient for the reception of an hundred students. The college-chapel, which is also of brick, was built in 1761, being fifty feet by forty, with a steeple one hundred and twenty-five feet high. In this building is the public library, consisting of about two thousand five hundred volumes; and the philosphical apparatus, which, by a late handsome addition, is now as complete as most others in the united states, and contains the machines necessary for exhibiting experiments in the whole course of experimental philosophy and astronomy.

By an act of the general assembly "for enlarging the powers, and increasing the funds of Yale college;" passed in May, 1792, and accepted by the corporation, the governor, lieutenant-governor, and the six senior assistants in the council of the state, for the time being, are ever hereafter, by virtue of their offices, to be trustees and fellows of the college, in addition to the former corporation. The corporation are empowered to hold estates, continue their succession, make academic laws, elect and constitute all officers of instruction and government, usual in universities, and confer all learned degrees. The immediate executive government is in the hands of the president and tutors. The present officers and instructors of the college are, a president, who is also professor of ecclesiastical history, a professor of divinity and three tutors. The number of students on an average is about one hundred and thirty, divided into four classes. It is worthy of remark, that as many as five-sixths of those who have received their education at this university, were natives of Connecticut.

The funds of this college received a very liberal addition by a grant of the general assembly in the act of 1792, before mentioned—which will enable the corporation to support several new professorships—and to make a handsome addition to the library. From these funds they have just completed a large, commodious brick edifice, for the accommodation of the students.

The course of education, in this university, comprehends the whole circle of literature. The three learned languages are taught, together with so much of the sciences as can be communicated in four years.

About two thousand two hundred have received the honours of this university; of whom upwards of seven hundred and sixty have been ordained to the work of the gospel ministry.

MINERALS AND FOSSILS.] On the bank of Connecticut river, two miles from Middletown, is a lead mine, which was wrought during the war, at the expense of the state, and was productive. It is too expensive to work in time of peace. Copper mines have been discovered and opened in several parts of the state, but have proved unprofitable, and are much neglected. Iron ore abounds in many parts. Talks of various kinds, white, brown, and chocolate-coloured crystals, zink or spelter, a semi-metal, and several other fossils and metals have been found in Connecticut.

MODE OF LEVYING TAXES.] All freeholders in the state are required, by law, to give in lists of their polls and rateable estate*, to persons appointed in the respective towns to receive them, on or before the 20th of August annually. These are valued according to law, arranged in proper order, and sent to the general assembly annually in May.

The sum total of the list of the polls and rateable estate of the inhabitants of Connecticut, as brought into the general assembly in May, 1787, was as follows.

* In Connecticut horses, horned cattle, cultivated and uncultivated land, houses, shipping, all sorts of riding carriages, clocks and watches, silver plate, and money at interest, are rateable estate. All males between sixteen and seventy years of age, unless exempted by law, are subjects of taxation.

CONNECTICUT.

Sum total of the single list,	-	£. 1,484,901 6 4½
Assessments,	- - - -	47,790 2 9
One quarter of the four-folds,	- - - -	1,176 9 4
		<hr/>
Total,		£. 1,533,867 18 5½

On this sum, taxes are levied so much on the pound, according to the sum proposed to be raised.

The ordinary annual expenses of the government before the war, amounted to near four thousand pounds sterling, exclusive of that which was appropriated to the support of schools. The expenses have since increased.

MINERAL SPRING. At Stafford is a medicinal spring, which is said to be a sovereign remedy for scorbutic, cutaneous, and other disorders.

CONSTITUTION AND COURTS OF JUSTICE.] The constitution of Connecticut is founded on their charter, which was granted by Charles II. in 1662, and on a law of the state. Contented with this form of government, the people have not framed a new constitution since the declaration of independence.

Agreeably to this charter, the supreme legislative authority of the state is vested in a governor, lieutenant governor, twelve assistants or counsellors, and the representatives of the people, styled the *General Assembly*. The governor, lieutenant governor, assistants, are annually chosen by the freemen in the month of May. The representatives (their number not to exceed two from each town) are chosen by the freemen twice a year, to attend the two annual sessions, on the second Thursdays of May and October. This assembly has power to erect judicatories, for the trial of causes civil and criminal, and to ordain and establish laws for settling the forms and ceremonies of government. By these laws, the general assembly is divided into two branches, called the upper and lower houses. The upper house is composed of the governor, lieutenant governor and assistants. The lower house, of the representatives of the people. No law can pass without the concurrence of both houses. The judges of the superior court hold their offices during the pleasure of the general assembly. The judges of the county courts, and justices, are annually appointed. Sheriffs are appointed by the governor and council, without limitation of time. The governor is captain general of the militia, the lieutenant governor is lieutenant general. All other military officers are appointed by the assembly, and commissioned by the governor.

The mode of electing the governor, lieutenant governor, assistants, treasurer and secretary, is as follows: The freemen in the several towns meet on the Monday next after the first Thursday in April, annually, and give in their votes for the persons they choose for the said offices respectively, with their names written on a piece of paper, which are received and sealed up by a comitible in open meeting, the votes for each office by themselves, with the name of the town and office written on the outside. These votes, thus sealed, are sent to the general assembly in May, and there counted by a committee from both houses. All freemen are eligible to any office in government. In choosing assistants, twenty persons are nominated, by the vote of each freeman, at the freemen's meeting for choosing representatives in September annually. These votes are sealed up, and sent to the general assembly in October, and are there counted by a committee of both houses, and the twenty persons who have the most votes, stand in nomination; out of which number, the twelve who have the greatest number of votes, given by the freemen at their meeting in April, are, in May, declared assistants in the manner above mentioned: The qualifications of freemen are, quiet and peaceable behaviour—a civil conversation, and freehold estate to the value of forty shillings per annum, or forty pounds personal estate in the list, certified by the selectmen of the town: it is necessary, also, that they take the oath of fidelity to the

state. Their names are enrolled in the town clerk's office; and they continue freemen for life, unless disfranchised by sentence of the superior court, on conviction of misdemeanor.

The courts are as follow: The justices of the peace of whom a number are annually appointed in each town, by the general assembly, have authority to hear and determine civil actions where the demand does not exceed four pounds. If the demand exceeds forty shillings, an appeal to the county court is allowed. They have cognizance of small offences, and may punish by fine not exceeding forty shillings, or whipping not exceeding ten stripes, or sitting in the stocks. There are eight county courts in the state held in the several counties by one judge and four justices of the quorum, who have jurisdiction of all criminal cases arising within their respective counties, where the punishment does not extend to life, limb or banishment. They have original jurisdiction of all civil actions which exceed the jurisdiction of a justice. Either party may appeal to the superior court, if the demand exceed twenty pounds, except on bonds or notes vouched by two witnesses.

There are several courts of probate in each county, consisting of one judge. The peculiar province of this court is the probate of wills, granting administration on intestate's estates, ordering distribution of them, appointing guardians for minors, &c. An appeal lies from any decree of this court to the superior court.

The superior court consists of five judges. It has authority in all criminal cases, extending to life, limb, or banishment, and other high crimes and misdemeanors, to grant divorces, and to hear and determine all civil actions brought by appeal from the county courts or the courts of probate, and to correct the errors of all inferior courts. This is a circuit court, and has two stated sessions in each county annually. The superior and county courts try matters of fact by jury, or without, if the parties will agree.

There is a supreme court of errors, consisting of the lieutenant governor, and the twelve assistants. Their sole business is to determine writs of error, brought on judgments of the superior court where the error complained of appears on the record. They have two stated sessions annually, viz. on the Tuesdays of the weeks preceding the stated sessions of the general assembly.

The county court is a court of chancery empowered to hear and determine cases in equity, where the matter in demand does not exceed one hundred pounds. The superior court has cognizance of all cases where the demand exceeds that sum. Error may be brought from the county, to the superior court, and from the superior court to the supreme court of errors, on judgment in cases of equity as well as of law.

The general assembly only have power to grant pardons and reprieves—to grant commissions of bankruptcy—or protect the persons and estates of unfortunate debtors.

The common law of England, so far as it is applicable to this country, is considered as the common law of the state. The reports of adjudication in the courts of king's bench, common pleas and chancery are read in the courts of this state as authorities; yet the judges do not consider them as conclusively binding, unless founded on solid reasons which will apply in this state, or sanctioned by concurrent adjudications of their own courts.

The feudal system of descents was never adopted in this state. All the real estate of intestates is divided equally among the children, males and females, except that the eldest son has a double portion. And all estates given in tail, must be given to some person then in being or to their immediate issue and shall become fee simple estates to the issue of the first done, in tail. The widow of an intestate is entitled to a third-part of the personal estate forever, and to her dower or third-part of the houses and lands belonging to the intestate at the time of his death, during her life.

HISTORY.] The first grant of Connecticut was made by the Plymouth council, to
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the earl of Warwick, in 1630, and confirmed by the king in council the same year. This grant comprehended "all that part of New England which lies west from Narraganset river, one hundred and twenty miles on the sea coast, from thence, in latitude and breadth aforesaid, to the fourth sea." The year following, the earl assigned this grant to lord Say and Seal, lord Brook, and nine others.

No English settlement was attempted in Connecticut until the year 1663, when a number of Indian traders, having purchased of Zequasson and Natawanut, two principal sachems, a tract of land at the mouth of Little river, in Windfor, built a house and fortified it, and ever after maintained their right to the soil upon the river.

The same year, a little before the arrival of the English, a company of Dutch traders came to Hartford, and built a house, which they called the *Hijse of Good-Hope*, and erected a small fort, in which they planted two cannon. The remains of this settlement are still visible on the bank of Connecticut river. This was the only settlement of the Dutch in Connecticut, in these ancient times. The Dutch, and after them the province of New-York, for a long time, claimed as far east as the western bank of Connecticut river.

In 1634, lord Say and Seal, &c. sent over a small number of men who built a fort at Saybrook, and held a treaty with the Pequot Indians, who, in a formal manner, surrendered to the English their right to Connecticut river and the adjacent country.

In October, 1635, about sixty persons from Newtown, Dorchester, and Watertown, in Massachusetts, came and settled Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windfor, in Connecticut; and the June following the famous Mr. Hooker, and his company, came and settled at Hartford, and was a friend and father to the colony till his death.

The first court held in Connecticut was at Hartford, April 26th, 1636; and the next year was distinguished by the war with the Pequots.

The English obtained the country east of the Dutch settlements, by conquest. The pursuit of the Indians led to an acquaintance with the lands on the sea coast, from Saybrook to Fairfield. It was reported to be a very fine country. This favourable report induced messrs. Eaton and Hopkins, two very respectable London merchants, and Mr. Davenport, a man of distinguished piety and abilities, with their company, who arrived this year (1637) from London, to think of this part of the country as the place of their settlement. Their friends in Massachusetts, sorry to part with so valuable a company, dissuaded them from their purpose. Influenced, however, by the promising prospects which the country afforded, and flattering themselves that they should be out of the jurisdiction of a general governor, with which the country was from time to time threatened, they determined to proceed. Accordingly, in March 1638, with the consent of their friends on Connecticut river, they settled at New Haven, and laid the foundation of a flourishing colony, of which Quinipiak, now New Haven, was the chief town. The first public worship, in this new plantation, was attended on Lord's Day, April 18th 1638, under a large spreading oak. The Rev. Mr. Davenport preached from Matt. iii. 1. on the temptations of the wilderness. Both colonies by voluntary compact, formed themselves into distinct commonwealths, and remained so until their union in 1665.

In 1639, the three towns on Connecticut river, already mentioned, finding themselves without the limits of any jurisdiction, formed themselves into a body politic, and agreed upon articles of civil government. These articles were the foundation of Connecticut charter, which was granted in 1662. The substance of the articles, so far as they respect the holding of assemblies, the time and manner of electing magistrates and other civil offices, (except that in the old confederation, no person was to be chosen governor more than once in two years) and the extent of legislative powers, was transferred into, and established in said charter.

The first settlers in Newhaven had all things common; all purchases were made in

the name and for the use of the whole plantation and the lands were appointed out to each family, according to their number and original stock.

In 1643, articles of confederation between the four New-England colonies were unanimously adopted by the colonies of Newhaven and Connecticut.

The unsettled state of the colony had hitherto prevented their establishing a code of laws. To supply this defect, the general court ordered, "That the judicial laws of God, as they were delivered to Moses, and as they are a fence to the moral, being neither typical nor ceremonial, nor having any reference to Canaan, shall be accounted of moral equity, and generally binding on all offenders, and be a rule to all the courts in this jurisdiction, in their proceedings against offenders, until they be branched out into particulars hereafter."

In consideration of the success and increase of the New-England colonies, and that they had been of *no charge* to the nation, and in prospect of their being in future very serviceable to it, the English parliament, March 10th, 1643, granted them an exemption from all customs, subsidies, and other duties until further order.

In 1644, the Connecticut adventurers purchased of Mr. Fenwick, agent for lords Say and Seal, and lord Brook, their right to the colony of Connecticut, for one thousand six hundred pounds.

The colonies of Connecticut and New-haven, from their first settlement, increased rapidly; tracts of land were purchased of the Indians, and new towns settled from Stamford to Stonington, and far back into the country, when, in 1661, major John Masons agent for the colony, bought of the natives all lands which had not before been purchased by particular towns, and made a public surrender of them to the colony in the presence of the general assembly. Having done these things, the colonists petitioned for a charter from king Charles II. who on the 23d of April, 1662, issued his letters patent under the great seal, ordained that the colony of Connecticut should, forever hereafter, be one body corporate and politic, in fact and in name, confirming to them their ancient grant and purchase, and fixing their boundaries.

The colony of New-haven though unconnected with the colony of Connecticut, was comprehended within the limits of their charter, and as they concluded, within their jurisdiction. But New-haven remonstrated against their claim, and refused to unite with them, until they should hear from England. It was not until the year 1665, when it was believed that the king's commissioners had a design upon the New-England charters that these two colonies formed an union, which has ever since amicably subsisted between them.

In 1672, the laws of the colony were revised, and the general court ordered them to be printed; and also, "that every family should buy one of the law-books—such as pay in silver to have a book for twelve pence, such as pay in wheat, to pay a peck and a half a book; and such as pay peas, to pay two shillings a book, the peas at three shillings the bushel." Perhaps it is owing to this early and universal spread of law-books, that the people of Connecticut are to this day so fond of the law.

Connecticut had but a small proportion of citizens who did not join in opposing the oppressive measures of Britain, and was active and influential, both in the field and in the cabinet, in bringing about the revolution. Her soldiers were applauded by the commander in chief for their bravery and fidelity.

N E W - Y O R K .

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Sq. Miles.
 Length 350 } between { 40° 40' and 45° North latitude*. } 44,000
 Breadth 300 } { 5° W. and 1° 30' East longitude. }

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED southeastwardly, by the Atlantic ocean; east by Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Vermont; north by the 45th degree of latitude, which divides it from Canada; northwestwardly, by the river Iroquois, or St. Lawrence, and the lakes Ontario and Erie; southwest and south, by Pennsylvania and New-Jersey.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] This state is divided into nineteen counties, which by an act of the legislature, passed in March 1788, were subdivided into townships.

Counties.	No Towns.	No Inhab.	Chief Towns.	No Inhab.
New-York	1	33131	New York City	32328
Albany	20	75736	Albany	3498
Suffolk	8	16440	East Hampton	3260
Queens	6	16014	Huntingdon	417
Kings	6	4495	Jamaica	941
Richmond	4	3835	Flat Bush	1603
West Chester	21	24003	Brooklyn	1151
Orange	6	18492	Westfield	2470
Ulster	14	29397	Bedford	2448
Dutchess	12	45266	Goshen	1175
Columbia	8	27732	Orange	3929
Ranffelaer	formed since the census		Kingston	2529
Washington	9	14042	Poughkeepsie	5941
Clinton	4	1614	Fishkill	2584
Montgomery	11	28848	Hudson	4661
Ontario		1075	Kinderhook	
	130	340120	Lansingburgh	2186
			Salem	458
			Plattsburg	
			Canadaque	
			divided, since the census, into 3 counties	
			Total number of inhabitants, according to the census of 1790.	
				1400
New Cu. {			German Flats	
Herkemer	3	14000	Cooperstown	
Otfega		12000	Chenango and Union Town	
Tyogo		7000		
		1792		

These three last mentioned counties have been separated from Montgomery since the census, and have acquired the greater part of their inhabitants subsequent to that period, most of whom emigrated from the New-England states. The county of Herkemer contained, in 1790, according to the census, four thousand seven hundred and

* LONG ISLAND, which makes a part of the state of NEW-YORK, extends to 3° 6' E. longitude, and 40° S. latitude.

twenty-three inhabitants. In two years, this number increased to upwards of fourteen thousand.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] Hudson's river is one of the largest and finest rivers in the united states. It rises in the mountainous country between the lakes Ontario and Champlain. In its course southeasterly, it approaches within six or eight miles of lake George; then, after a short course east, turns southerly, and receives the Secondaga from the S. W. which heads in the neighbourhood of Mohawk river. The course of the river thence to New-York, where it empties into York Bay, is very uniformly south 12° or 15° west. Its whole length is about two hundred and fifty miles. From Albany to Lake George, is sixty five miles. This distance, the river is navigable only for batteaux, and has two portages, occasioned by falls, of half a mile each.

The banks of Hudson's river, especially on the western side, as far as the Highlands extend, are chiefly rocky cliffs. The passage through the Highlands, which is sixteen miles, affords a wild romantic scene. In this narrow pass, on each side of which the mountains tower to a great height, the wind, if there be any, is collected and compressed, and blows continually as through a bellows. Vessels, in passing through it, are often obliged to lower their sails. The bed of this river is deep and smooth to a great distance, through a hilly, rocky country, and even through ridges of some of the highest mountains in the united states. The tide flows a few miles above Albany, which is one hundred and sixty miles from New-York. Flood-tide is just one hour later, as you ascend the river, at the end of every ten miles. At the end of sixty miles, it is high water in the river, and low water in the bay, at its mouth. It is navigable for sloops of eighty tons to Albany, and for ships to Hudson. Ship-navigation to Albany is interrupted by a number of islands, six or eight miles below the city, called the *Overslaught*. It is in contemplation to confine the river to one channel, by which means the channel will be deepened, and the difficulty of approaching Albany with vessels of a large size, be removed. About sixty miles above New-York the water becomes fresh. Vessels do not last many years in this river; and what is very unusual, the bottoms perish first. The river is stored with a variety of fish.

The advantages of this river for carrying on the fur-trade with Canada, by means of the lakes, and its convenience for internal commerce, are singularly great. The produce of the remotest farms is easily and speedily conveyed to a certain and profitable market, and at the lowest expence. The increasing population of the fertile lands upon the northern branches of the Hudson, must annually increase the amazing wealth that is conveyed by its waters to New York. Added to this, the ground has been marked out, the level ascertained, a company incorporated, by the name of, "The President, Directors and company of the Northern Inland Lock Navigation, in the state of New-York," and funds subscribed, for the purpose of cutting a canal from the nearest approximating point of Hudson's river to South Bay, which empties into the south end of Lake Champlain. The distance is eighteen miles. The difference of level and the face of the country are such, as to justify a belief, that the opening of this canal will not be less practicable than useful.

Saranac river passes through Plattsburg into Lake Champlain. It has been explored nearly thirty miles, and there found equal in size to the mouth. In this river is the greatest abundance of fish, such as salmon, bass, pike, pickerel, trout, &c.

Sable river, not far from the Saranac, is scarcely sixty yards wide. On this stream are remarkable falls. The whole descent of the water is about two hundred feet in several pitches, the greatest of which is forty feet perpendicular. At the foot of it the water is unfathomable. A large pine has been seen, in a freshet, to pitch over endwise, and remain several minutes under water. The stream is confined by high rocks on either side, a space of forty feet, and the banks at the falls, are at least as many feet high. In a freshet the flood wood frequently lodges, and in a few minutes, the water

rises to full banks, and then bursts away its obstructions, with a most tremendous crashing. The Big and Little Chazy rivers are in the township of Champlain, which borders on the Canada line. Both are navigable some miles, the former six or seven, affording good mill seats.—Several mills are already erected. The British have a post, and maintain a small garrison at Point-au-Fer, in this township, contrary to the treaty of peace.

The river Boquet passes through the town of Willsborough, in Clinton county; and is navigable for boats about two miles, and is then interrupted by falls, on which are mills.

Black river rises in the high country, near the sources of Canada Creek, which falls into Mohawk river, and takes its course N. W. and then N. E. till it discharges itself into Cataraqua or Iroquois river, not far from Swegauchee. It is said to be navigable for batteaux up to the lower falls, sixty miles, which is distant from the flourishing settlement of Whitestown, twenty-five miles. The whole length of this river is accounted one hundred and twelve miles.

Onondago river rises in the Oneida lake, runs westwardly into Lake Ontario at Oswego. It is boatable from its mouth to the head of the lake, seventy four miles, (except a fall which occasions a portage of twenty yards) thence batteaux go up Wood Creek almost to Fort Stanwix, forty miles; where there is a portage of a mile to Mohawk river. Toward the head waters of this river salmon are caught in great quantities.

Mohawk river rises to the northward of Fort Stanwix, about eight miles from Black river, and runs southwardly twenty miles to the fort; then eastward one hundred and ten miles, into the Hudson. The produce conveyed down this river, is landed at Schenectady, and thence carried by land sixteen miles, over a barren shrub plain, to Albany. Except a portage of about a mile, occasioned by falls, fifty six miles above Schenectady, the river is passable for boats, from Schenectady, nearly or quite to its source. The perpendicular descent of these falls is estimated at forty two feet, in the course of one mile; and it is supposed they might be locked so as to be rendered passable for boats carrying five tons for about fifteen thousand pounds currency. The cohoes, in this river, are a great curiosity. They are three miles from its entrance into the Hudson. The river is about one hundred yards wide—the rock, over which it pours, as over a mill dam, extends almost in a line from one side of the river to the other, and is about thirty feet perpendicular height. Including the descent above the fall is sixty or seventy feet. The rocks below, in some places, are worn many feet deep by the constant friction of the water. The view of this tremendous cataract is diminished by the height of the banks on each side of the river. About a mile below the falls, the river branches and forms a large island; but the two mouths may be seen at the same time from the opposite bank of the Hudson. The branches are fordable at low water, but are dangerous. A company, by the name of “The president, Directors and Company of the Western Inland Navigation in the State of New York,” was incorporated by the legislature of New York, in March 1792, for the purpose of opening a lock navigation from the now navigable part of Hudson’s river, to be extended to Lake Ontario, and to the Seneca Lake. This route has been surveyed, and found practicable, the expense estimated, the funds subscribed, and the work is to be executed with all possible dispatch. The opening of this navigation would be a vast acquisition to the commerce of the state. A shore, of at least one thousand miles in length, would, in consequence of it, be washed by boatable waters, exclusive of all the great lakes, and many millions of acres, of excellent tillage land, rapidly settling, would be accommodated with water communication for conveying their produce to market.

Delaware river rises in Lake Uritayantho, lat. $42^{\circ} 25'$, and takes its course S. W. until it crosses into Pennsylvania, in latitude 42° . Thence southwardly, it divides

New-York from Pennsylvania, until it strikes the northwest corner of New-Jersey, in latitude $41^{\circ} 24'$; and then passes off to sea, through Delaware bay, having New-Jersey on the east side, and Pennsylvania and Delaware on the west.

Susquehannah E. Branch river has its source in lake Otsego. lat. $42^{\circ} 55'$, from which it takes a southwest course. It crosses the line, which divides New-York and Pennsylvania, three times; the last time near Tyoga point, where it receives Tyoga river. Batteaux pass to its source—thence to Mohawk river is but twenty miles, capable of good roads.

Tyoga river rises in the Allegany mountains, in about latitude 42° , runs eastwardly and empties into the Susquehannah at Tyoga point, in latitude $41^{\circ} 57'$. It is boatable about fifty miles.

Seneca rises in the Seneca county, and runs eastwardly, and in its passage receives the waters of the Seneca and Cayuga lakes, (which lie north and south, ten or twelve miles apart, each between thirty and forty miles in length, and about a mile in breadth) and empties into the Onondago river, fourteen miles above the falls, at a place called Three-Rivers. From Three-rivers point to Onondago Lake, up Seneca river, is twelve miles. Within half a mile of this lake a salt spring issues from the ground, the water of which is saltier than that of the ocean. It constantly emits water in sufficient quantity for works of any extent. It is probable the whole country will be supplied with salt from this spring, and at a very cheap rate. This spring is the property of the state. The river is boatable from the lakes downwards.

Chenestee river rises near the source of the Tyoga; runs northwardly by the Chenestee castle and flats, and empties into lake Ontario, eight miles east of Niagara fort. On this river is one set of large falls, not far from its junction with lake Ontario.

The northeast branch of the Allegany river, heads in the Allegany mountains, near the source of the Tyoga, and runs directly west until it is joined by a large branch from the southward, which rises near the west branch of the Susquehannah. Their junction is on the line between Pennsylvania and New-York. From this junction, the river pursues a northwest course, leaving a segment of the river, of about fifty miles in length, in the state of New-York; thence it proceeds in a circuitous southwest direction, until it crosses into Pennsylvania. From thence, to its entrance into the Mississippi, it has already been described.

There are few fish in the rivers; but in the brooks are plenty of trout; and in the lakes, yellow perch, sunfish, salmon, trout, catfish, and a variety of others.

From this account of the rivers, it is easy to conceive of the excellent advantages for conveying produce to market from every part of the state.

The settlements already made in this state, are chiefly upon two narrow oblongs, extending from the city of New-York, east and north. The one east, is Long Island, which is one hundred miles long, and narrow, and surrounded by the sea. The one extending north is about forty miles in breadth, and bisected by the Hudson. Another tier of flourishing settlements extends west of Albany, on the Mohawk river, and to the S. W. of its head waters. Such is the interfection of the whole state, by the branches of the Hudson, the Delaware, Susquehannah, and other rivers which have been mentioned, that there are few places throughout its whole extent, that are more than fifteen or twenty miles from some boatable or navigable stream.

BAYS AND LAKES.] York bay, which is nine miles long and four broad, spreads to the southward before the city of New-York. It is formed by the confluence of the East and Hudson's rivers, and embosoms several small islands, of which Governor's island is the principal. It communicates with the ocean through the *Narrows*, between Staten and Long Islands, which are scarcely two miles wide. The passage up to New-York, from Sandy Hook, the point of land that extends farthest into the sea, is safe, and not above twenty miles in length. The common navigation is between the

east and west banks, in about twenty two feet water, There is a light house at Sandy Hook, on a peninsula from the Jersey shore.

South bay lies twelve or fifteen miles north of the northern bend in Hudson's river. At its north end, it receives Wood Creek from the south, which is navigable several miles, and lined with fine meadows. Soon after it mingles its waters with East bay, which stretches eastward into Vermont. At the junction of these bays, commences another bay or lake, from half a mile to a mile wide, whose banks are steep hills, or cliffs of rocks, generally inaccessible. At Ticonderoga, this bay receives the waters of Lake George from the southwest.

Oneida Lake lies about twenty miles west of Fort Stanwix, and extends westward about thirty miles. Salt Lake is small, and empties into Seneca river soon after its junction with the Onondago about twelve miles from Three-river point. This lake is strongly impregnated with saline particles, which circumstance gave rise to its name. The Indians make their salt from it. Lake Otségo at the head of Susquehannah river, is about nine miles long, and narrow, perhaps not more than a mile wide. The land on the banks of this lake, is very good, and the cultivation of it easy. Caniaderago Lake is nearly as large as Lake Otségo, and six miles west of it.

Chatoque Lake is the source of Conawongo river, which empties into the Allegany: The lower end of it whence the river proceeds, is in latitude $42^{\circ} 10'$; from thence to its head, is about twenty-five miles. From the northwest part of this lake to Lake Erie, is nine miles, and was once a communication used by the French.

On the north side of the mountains in Orange county, is a very valuable tract called the *Drowned Lands*, containing about forty or fifty thousand acres. The waters, which descend from the surrounding hill, being but slowly discharged by the river issuing from it, cover these vast meadows every winter, and render them extremely fertile; but they expose the inhabitants in the vicinity to intermittents. The Wallkill river, which passes through this extensive tract, and empties into Hudson's river, is, in the spring, stored with very large eels in great plenty. The bottom of this river is a broken rock; and it is supposed that for two thousand pounds, the channel might be deepened, so as to let off all the waters from the meadows, and thereby redeem from the floods a large tract of rich land, for grass, hemp, and Indian corn.

ROADS.] The roads in this state have been in general but ill attended to till within the two or three last years. The legislature, convinced of the importance of attending to the matter, and perhaps stumbled by the enterprising and active Pennsylvanians, who are competitors for the trade of the western country, have lately granted very liberal sums, towards improving those roads that traverse the most settled parts of the country, and opening such as lead into the western and northern parts of the state, uniting as far as possible the establishments on the Hudson's river, and the most populous parts of the interior country by the nearest practicable distances. A post regularly rides from Albany to the Genesee river, once a fortnight, through Whites-town, Geneva, Canadaqua, Canawargus and Williamsburgh on the Genesee river. By this establishment, a safe and direct conveyance is opened between the most interior parts of the united states to the west, and the several states in the union.

A grand road, opened through Clinton county, which borders upon Canada, in the year 1790, adds greatly to the convenience and safety of travelling between the state of New-York, and Canada, especially in the winter, when passing the lake on ice is often dangerous and always uncomfortable.

A road has also been lately cut from Katt's Kill, on the Hudson, westwardly, which passes near Owasco Lake.

BRIDGES.] A bridge called Staat's Bridge, two hundred and fifty feet long, and of a sufficient width to admit two carriages abreast, has lately been thrown across Abram's Creek, which falls into Hudson's river, near the city of Hudson.

Skaticook bridge, in the town of that name, ten miles from Lansingburgh, is an ingenious structure, built at the private expense of an enterprising and liberal gentleman. It cost one thousand four hundred pounds currency.

The legislature of the state have granted three thousand pounds to build a bridge over the sprouts of Mohawk river whenever the sum of one thousand pounds shall be subscribed and paid. This bridge will be one of the largest in America, and will open a direct communication to a very extensive country progressing fast in population, in the northwestern parts of the state. It is now building.

At fort Stanwix, now fort Schuyler is a bridge over the Mohawk river, about one hundred and twenty feet in length; the workmanship of which does great credit to the ingenuity of the workman, as the arch extends from shore to shore. There is another bridge over this river, about fifty miles above Schenectady, of a similar construction, having an arch of one hundred feet.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS. } The state, to speak generally, is intersected by ridges of mountains running in a northeast and south west direction. Beyond the Allegany mountains, however, the country is a dead level, of a fine, rich soil, covered in its natural state, with maple, beach, birch, cherry, black walnut, locust, hickory and some mulberry trees. On the banks of Lake Erie, are a few chestnut and oak ridges. Hemlock swamps are interspersed thinly through the country. All the creeks that empty into Lake Erie, have falls, which afford many excellent mill seats.

The lands between the Seneca and Cayuga lakes are represented as uncommonly excellent, being most agreeably diversified with gentle risings and timbered with lofty trees, with little underwood. The legislature of the state have granted one million and a half acres of land, as a gratuity to the officers and soldiers of the line of New-York. The tract is bounded west by the east shore of the Seneca Lake and the Massachusetts lands in the new county of Ontario, north by part of Ontario near Fort Oswego; south by a ridge of the Allegany mountains and the Pennsylvania line and east, by Tuscarora creek (which falls nearly into the middle of the Oneida lake) and that part of Montgomery which has been settling by the New-England people very rapidly since the peace.

This pleasant country is divided into twenty five townships of sixty thousand acres each, which are again subdivided into one hundred convenient farms, of six hundred acres, making in the whole two thousand five hundred farms.

East of the Allegany mountains the country is broken into hills with rich intervening vallies. The hills are clothed thick with timber, and when cleared, afford fine pasture—the vallies, when cultivated, produce wheat, hemp, flax, peas, oats, Indian corn.

Besides the trees already mentioned, there are, in various parts of the state, the several kinds of oak such as white, red, yellow, black and chestnut oak; white, yellow, spruce, and pitch pines; cedar, fir tree, butter-nut, aspin, commonly called poplar, white wood, which in Pennsylvania is called poplar, and in Europe the tulip tree, rock maple, the linden tree, which, with the whitewood, grows on the low, rich ground, the buttonwood, shrub-cranberry, the fruit which hangs in clusters, like grapes, as large as cherries; this shrub too grows on low ground. Besides these is the sumach, which bears clusters of red berries; the Indians chew the leaves instead of tobacco; the berries are used in dyes. Of the commodities produced from culture, wheat is the staple. Of this article, in wheat and flour, equivalent to one million bushels, are yearly exported. Indian corn and peas are likewise raised for exportation; and rye, oats, barley, &c. for home consumption.

In some parts of the state, large dairies are kept, which furnish for the market, butter and cheese. The best lands in this state, which lie along the Mohawk river, and

north of it, and west of the Allegany mountains, are yet mostly in a state of nature, but are most rapidly settling.

The county of Clinton, in the most northern part of the state, on lake Champlain and lake George, lies about midway between Quebec and New-York, and from two hundred and thirty to two hundred and forty miles from each, and is settled by between two and three thousand inhabitants. A great proportion of the lands in this country are of an excellent quality, and produce in abundance the various kinds of grain, cultivated in other parts of the state. The inhabitants manufacture earthen ware, and pot and pearl ash in large quantities, which they export to New-York or Quebec. Their wool is of a better quality than that which is produced in more southern climates; their beef and pork are second to none; and the price of stall fed beef in Montreal (distant sixty miles from Plattsburg) is such as to encourage the farmers to drive their cattle to that market. Their forests supply them with sugar and molasses. The soil is well adapted to the culture of hemp. The land carriage from any part of the country, in transporting their produce to New-York, does not exceed eighteen miles. The carrying-place at Ticonderoga, is one mile and a half; and, from Fort George, at the south end of the lake of the same name, to Fort Edward, is but fourteen miles, after which there are two or three small obstructions by falls, which are about to be removed by the proprietors of the northern canal. From this county to Quebec are annually sent large rafts; the rapids at St. John's and Chamblee being the only interruption in the navigation, and even those, some seasons, batteaux with sixty bushels of salt can ascend.

In the northern and unsettled parts of the state are plenty of moose, deer, bears, some beavers, martins, and most other inhabitants of the forest, except wolves. Ducks, grouse, pigeons, and fish of many kinds, and particularly salmon, are taken in great abundance in different parts, and especially in the county of Clinton.

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] For the population of this state, according to the census of 1790, the reader is referred to the table of divisions. In 1785, the number of inhabitants was two hundred and thirty-eight thousand eight hundred and ninety-seven, of whom eighteen thousand eight hundred and eighty-nine were blacks. In 1756, there were ninety six thousand seven hundred and seventy-five inhabitants, including thirteen thousand five hundred and forty-two blacks. The average annual increase of inhabitants in this state, from 1756, to 1785, was four thousand five hundred and fifty-four. The annual increase for the four years succeeding 1786, was upwards of twenty five thousand. A great proportion of this increase consists of emigrants from the New-England states. The population for every square mile, including the whole state, is nearly eight, which shows that a great part of the country is yet unsettled.

The effects of the revolution have been as greatly and as happily felt by this, as by any of the united states. The accession of inhabitants within a few years has been great, even beyond calculation; and so long as lands can be obtained on advantageous terms, and with a good title, and the general government continues to protect industry and encourage commerce, so long they will continue to increase. The new settlements that are forming in the northern and western parts of the state, are principally by people from New-England. It is remarkable that the Dutch enterprise few or no settlements. Among all the new townships that have been settled since the peace, (and they have been very numerous) it is not known that one has been settled by them.

The ancestors of the inhabitants in the southern and middle parts of Long-Island, were either natives of England, or the immediate descendants of the first settlers of New-England, and their manners and customs remain. The counties inhabited by the Dutch, have adopted English manners in a great degree, but still retain many modes,

particularly in their religion, which are peculiar to the Hollanders. They are industrious, neat and economical in the management of their farms and their families.

The revolution and its consequences have had a very perceptible influence in diffusing a spirit of liberality among the Dutch, and in dispelling the clouds of ignorance and national prejudice. Schools, academies, and colleges are established and establishing for the education of their children, in the English and learned languages, and in the arts and sciences, and a literary and scientific spirit is evidently increasing.

Besides the Dutch and English already mentioned, there are in this state many emigrants from Scotland, Ireland, Germany, and some few from France. Many Germans are settled on the Mohawk, and some Scots people on the Hudson, in the county of Washington. The principal part of the two former settled in the city of New-York; and retain the manners, the religion, and some of them the language of their respective countries. The French emigrants settled principally at New-Rochelle, and on Staten island.

CHIEF TOWNS.] There are three incorporated cities in this state; New-York, Albany, and Hudson. New York is the capital of the state, and stands on the southwest point of Manhattan, commonly called New-York island, at the confluence of the Hudson and East rivers. The principal part of the city lies on the east side of the island, although the buildings extend from one river to the other. The length of the city on East river is about two miles; but falls much short of that distance on the banks of the Hudson. Its breadth, on an average, is nearly three-fourths of a mile; and its circumference may be four miles. The plan of the city is not perfectly regular. The ground, which was unoccupied before the peace of 1783, was laid out in parallel streets of convenient width which has had a good effect upon the parts of the city lately built. The principal streets run nearly parallel with the rivers. These are intersected, though not at right angles, by streets running from river to river. In the width of the streets there is a great diversity. Water street and Queen street, which occupy the banks of East river, are very conveniently situated for business, but they are low and too narrow; not admitting, in some places, of walks on the sides for foot passengers. Broad-street, extending from the Exchange to City-Hall, is sufficiently wide. This was originally built on each side of the creek which penetrated almost to the city-hall. This street is low, yet pleasant. But the most convenient and agreeable part of the city is the Broadway. It begins at a point which is formed by the junction of the Hudson and East rivers—occupies the height of land between them upon a true meridional line—rises gently to the northward—is near seventy feet wide—adorned, where the fort formerly stood, with an elegant brick edifice, for the accommodation of the governor of the state, and a public walk from the extremity of the point, occupying the ground of the lower battery; which is now demolished—also, with two episcopal churches and a number of elegant private buildings. It terminates to the northward, in a triangular area, fronting the bridewell and alms-house, and commands, from any point, a view of the Bay and *Narrows*.

Since the year 1788, that part of the city which was buried in ruins during the war, has been rapidly rebuilding—the streets are widened, straitened, raised in the middle under an angle sufficient to carry off the water to the side-gutters, and footways of brick made on each side. At this time, the part that was destroyed by fire is almost wholly covered with elegant brick houses.

The houses are generally built of brick, and the roofs tiled. There remain a few houses built after the old Dutch manner; but the English taste has prevailed almost a century.

The most magnificent edifice in this city is *Federal-hall*, situated at the head of Broad-street, where its front appears to great advantage. The basement story is Tuscan, and is pierced with seven openings; four massy pillars in the centre, support

four Doric columns and a pediment. The freeze is ingeniously divided, to admit thirteen stars in metopes, ; these, with the American eagle, and other *insignia* in the pediment, and the tablets over the windows, filled with the thirteen arrows and the olive branch united, mark it as a building designated for national purposes.

The other public buildings in the city are three houses for public worship for the Dutch reformed church—four presbyterian churches—three episcopal churches ; two for German Lutherans and Calvinists—two Friends' meeting houses—two for baptists—two for methodists—one for Moravians—one Roman catholic church—one French protestant church, out of repair, and a Jews-synagogue. Besides these, there are the governor's house, already mentioned, a most elegant building—the college, jail, and several other buildings of less note. The city is accommodated with four markets in different parts, which are furnished with a great plenty and variety of provisions in neat and excellent order.

The government of the city (which was incorporated in 1696) is now in the hands of a mayor, aldermen, and common council. The city is divided into seven wards, in each of which there are chosen annually by the people an alderman and an assistant, who together with the recorder, are appointed annually by the council of appointment.

The mayor's court, which is held from time to time by adjournment, is in high reputation as a court of law.

A court of sessions is likewise held for the trial of criminal causes.

The situation of the city is both healthy and pleasant. Surrounded on all sides by water, it is refreshed with cool breezes in summer, and the air in winter is more temperate than in other places under the same parallel. York island is fifteen miles in length, and hardly one in breadth. It is joined to the main, by a bridge called *King's Bridge*. The channel between Long and Staten islands, and between Long and York Islands, are so narrow as to occasion an unusual rapidity of tides, which is increased by the confluence of the waters of the Hudson and East River. This rapidity in general prevents the obstruction of the channel by ice, so that the navigation is clear, except for a few days in seasons when the weather is uncommonly severe. There is no basin or bay for the reception of ships ; but the road where they lie in East river, is defended from the violence of the sea by the islands which interlock with each other ; so that except that of Rhode Island, and Portland in the district of Maine, the harbour of New-York, which admits ships of any burden, is the best in the united states.

This city is in a most eligible situation for commerce. It almost necessarily commands the trade of one half of New-Jersey, most of that of Connecticut, part of that of Massachusetts and almost the whole of Vermont, besides the whole fertile interior country which is penetrated by one of the largest rivers in America. This city imports most of the goods consumed between a line of thirty miles east of Connecticut river, and twenty miles west of the Hudson, which is 130 miles, and between the ocean and the confines of Canada, about 400 miles ; a considerable portion of which is the best peopled of any part of the United States, and the whole territory contains at least 800,000 people, or one-fifth of the inhabitants of the union. Besides, some of the other states are partially supplied with goods from New-York. But in the staple commodity, flour, Pennsylvania and Maryland have exceeded it—the superfine flour of those states commanding a higher price than that of New-York ; not that the quality of the grain is worse, but because greater attention is paid in those states to the inspection and manufacture of that article,

A want of good water is a great inconvenience to the citizens ; there being few wells in the city. Most of the people are supplied every day with fresh water, conveyed to their doors in casks, from a pump near the head of Queen-street, which receives it from a spring almost a mile from the centre of the city. This well is about twenty feet deep, and four feet diameter. The average quantity drawn daily from it, is one hundred

and ten hogheads of one hundred and thirty gallons each.—In some hot summer days two hundred and sixteen hogheads have been drawn from it; and what is very singular, there is never more or less than about three feet water in the well. The water is sold commonly at three-pence a hoghead at the pump. Several proposals have been made by individuals to supply the citizens by pipes; but none have yet been accepted.

New-York is one of the gayest places in America. The ladies, in the richness and brilliancy of their dress, are not exceeded in any city in the united states. They are not solely employed in attentions to dress. There are many who are studious to add to brilliant external accomplishments, the more brilliant and lasting accomplishments of the mind. Nor have they been unsuccessful; for New-York can boast of great numbers of ladies, of refined taste, whose minds are highly improved, and whose conversation is as inviting as their personal charms. Tinctured with a Dutch education, they manage their families with good economy and singular neatness.

In point of sociability and hospitality, New-York is hardly exceeded by any town in the united states.

On a general view of this city, as described thirty years ago, and in its present state, the comparison is flattering to the present age; particularly the improvements in taste, elegance of manners, and that easy unaffected civility and politeness, which form the happiness of social intercourse.

The number of inhabitants in the city and county of New-York, in 1756, was ten thousand eight hundred and eighty one:—1771, twenty-one thousand eight hundred and sixty three; 1786, twenty-three thousand six hundred and fourteen; 1790, thirty-three thousand one hundred and thirty-one. The number has greatly increased since the last period.

ALBANY is situated upon the west side of Hudson's river, one hundred and sixty miles north of the city of New York, in latitude $42^{\circ} 36'$, and is, by charter, granted in 1686, one mile upon the river, and sixteen miles back. It contains upwards of one thousand houses, built mostly by trading people on the margin of the river. The houses stand chiefly upon Pearl, Market and Water-streets, and six other streets of lines which cross them at right angles.

The city of Albany contains about four thousand inhabitants, collected from various parts. As great a variety of languages is spoken in Albany, as in any town in the united states; but the English predominates, and the use of every other is constantly lessening. Adventurers in pursuit of wealth, are led here by the advantages for trade which this place affords.

Albany is unrivalled in its situation. It stands on the bank of one of the finest rivers in the world, at the head of sloop-navigation. It enjoys a salubrious air, as is evinced by the longevity of its inhabitants. It is the natural emporium of the increasing trade of a large extent of country west and north—a country of an excellent soil, abounding in every article for the West-India market—plentifully watered with navigable lakes, creeks, and rivers, as yet only partially peopled, but settling with almost unexampled rapidity, and capable of affording subsistence and affluence to millions of inhabitants.

The well-water in this city is extremely bad, scarcely drinkable by those who are not accustomed to it. It oozes through a stiff, blue clay, and imbibes in its passage, the fine particles common to that kind of soil. This discolours it, and, when exposed any length of time to the air, it acquires a disagreeable taste. Indeed, all the water for cooking is brought from the river, and many families use it to drink. The water in the wells is unwholesome, being full of little insects, resembling, except in size, those which we frequently see in stagnated rain water. But the inhabitants are about to remedy this inconvenience by constructing water works, to convey good water into the city. Just back of the city, there is very high ground, filled with good wa-

ter, which may, with great ease, and at an expense that would bear no proportion to the advantages, be conducted by pipes to all parts of the city, and even to the upper chambers of the houses.

The public buildings are a Low Dutch church, one for presbyterians, one for Germans or High Dutch, one for episcopalians—an hospital, the city-hall, and a handsome brick jail.

The city of Hudson has had the most rapid growth of any place in America, if we except Baltimore in Maryland. It is situated on the east side of Hudson's river, in lat. $42^{\circ} 23'$ and is one hundred and thirty miles north of New-York; thirty miles south of Albany, and four miles west from old Claverack town. It is surrounded by an extensive and fertile back country, and in proportion to its size and population, carries on a large trade.

No longer ago than the autumn of 1783, messrs. Seth and Thomas Jenkins, from Providence, in the state of Rhode-Island, having first reconnoitred all the way up the river, fixed on the unsettled spot where Hudson now stands, for a town. To this spot they found the river was navigable for vessels of any size. They purchased a tract of about a mile square, bordering on the river, with a large bay to the southward, and divided it into thirty parcels or shares. Other adventurers were admitted to proportions, and the town was laid out in squares, formed by spacious streets, crossing each other at right angles. Each square contains thirty lots, two deep, divided by a twenty feet alley; each lot is fifty feet in front and one hundred and twenty feet in depth.

In the spring of 1784, several houses and stores were erected. The increase of the town from this period to the spring of 1786, two years only, was astonishingly rapid, and reflects great honour upon the enterprizing and persevering spirit of the original founders. In the space of time just mentioned, no less than one hundred and fifty dwelling houses, besides shops, barns, and other buildings, four warehouses, several wharves, spermaceti works, a covered rope-walk, and one of the best distilleries in America, were erected, and fifteen hundred souls collected on a spot, which, three years before, was cultivated as a farm, and but two years before began to be built. Its increase since has been very rapid; a printing-office has been established, and several public buildings have been erected, besides dwelling houses, stores, &c. The inhabitants are plentifully and conveniently supplied with water, brought to their cellars in wooden pipes, from a spring two miles from the town.

Poughkeepsie is the shire town of Dutchess county, and is situated upon the east side of the Hudson's river, and north of Wapping-kill or creek. It is a pleasant little town, and has frequently been the seat of the state government.

Lansingburgh, formerly called the New-City, stands on the east side of the Hudson, just opposite the south branch of Mohawk river, and nine miles north of Albany. It is a very flourishing place, pleasantly situated on a plain at the foot of a hill.

Kingston is the county town of Ulster. Before it was burnt by the British, in 1777, it contained about two hundred houses regularly built, on an elevated, dry plain, at the mouth of a little pleasant stream, called Esopus kill or creek, that empties into the Hudson; but is nearly two miles west from the river. The town has been rebuilt. Schenectady is sixteen miles northwest of Albany, in Albany county, situated on the banks of the Mohawk river. The town is compact and regular, containing about three hundred houses, built of brick, and, excepting a few, in the old Dutch style, on a rich flat of low land, surrounded with hills. The windings of the river through the town, the fields, and a fine body of rich intervale, which is often overflowed in the spring, afford a beautiful prospect about harvest-time. As it is at the foot of navigation on a long river, which passes through a very fertile country, one would suppose it to embrace much of the commerce of it; but originally knowing no other than the fur-

trade, since the revolution, the place has decayed, and no advantage been taken of its happy situation.

Plattsburgh is an extensive township in Clinton county, situated on the west margin of lake Champlain. From the south part of the town, the mountains verge away wide from the lake, and leave a charming tract of excellent land, of a rich loam, well watered and about an equal proportion suitable for meadow and for tillage. The land rises in a gentle ascent for several miles from the lake, of which every farm will have a delightful view. Seven years ago, this township and the whole county, indeed, which at present contains several thousand inhabitants, was a wilderness; now they have a house for public worship, a court house, and jail. The courts of common pleas, and general sessions of the peace, sit here twice a year: they have artisans, of almost every kind, among them; and furnish, among themselves, all the materials for building, glass excepted. Polite circles may here be found, and the genteel traveller be entertained with the luxuries of a seaport, a tune on the harpsicord, and a philosophical conversation. This, with many other instances of the kind, serves to verify a prophetic remark in a letter of congress to their constituents written in a time of gloomy despondency, to the following purport: "Vast lakes and rivers, scarcely known or explored, whose waters have rolled for ages in silence and obscurity to the ocean, and extensive wildernesses of fertile soil, the dwelling place of savage beasts, shall yet hear the din of industry; become subservient to commerce, and boast delightful villas, gilded spires, and spacious cities rising on their banks, and fields loaded with the fruit of cultivation."

AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURES.] New-York is considerably behind her neighbours in New-England, New-Jersey and Pennsylvania, in point of improvements in agriculture and manufactures. Among other reasons for this deficiency, that of want of enterprize in the inhabitants is not the least. Indeed, their local advantages have been such, that they have grown rich without enterprize. Besides, lands have hitherto been so cheap, and farms so large, as to render exertion almost unnecessary. Population alone stamps a value upon lands, and lays a foundation for high improvements in agriculture. When a man is obliged to maintain a family on a small farm, his invention is exercised to find out every improvement that may render it more productive. This appears to be the great reason why the lands on Delaware and Connecticut rivers produce to the farmer twice as much clear profit, as lands in equal quantity and of the same quality upon the Hudson. Another cause which has heretofore operated in preventing agricultural improvements in this state has been the government, which, in the manner it was conducted until the revolution, was extremely unfavourable to improvements of almost every kind, and particularly in agriculture. Many of the governors were land-jobbers, bent on making their fortunes; and being invested with power to do this, they either engrossed for themselves or patented away to their particular favourites a very great proportion of the whole province. This proved an effectual bar to population, and, of course, prevented improvements in agriculture. It ought to be observed, in this connection, that these overgrown estates could be cultivated only by the hands of tenants, who, having no right in the soil, and no certain prospect of continuing upon the farm which they held at the will of their landlord, had no motives to make those expensive improvements, which, though not immediately productive, would prove very profitable in some future period. But these obstacles have been removed, in a great measure, by the revolution. The genius of the government of this state, however, still favours large monopolies of lands, which have, for some years back, been granted, without regard either to quality or settlement. The fine fertile country of the Mohawk, in Montgomery county, which was formerly possessed by sir William Johnston, and other land-jobbers, who were enemies to their country, has been forfeited to the state, and is now divided into freehold estates, and settling with astonishing rapidity.

The city of New York contains a great number of people, who are employed in various kinds of manufactures. Among many other articles manufactured in this city, are wheel-carriages of all kinds, loaf sugar, bread, beer, shoes and boots, saddlery, printed books, cabinet-work, cutlery, hats, wool-cards, clock, watches, potters'-ware, umbrellas, all kinds of mathematical and musical instruments, ships, and every thing necessary for their equipment. Glass-works, and several iron-works, have been established in different parts of the country, but they never, till lately, have been very productive, owing solely to the want of workmen, and the high price of labour, its necessary consequence. The internal resources and advantages for these manufactories, such as ore, wood, water, hearth stone, proper situations for bloomeries, forges, and all kinds of water-works, are immense. There are several paper-mills in the state, which are worked to advantage. The manufacture of maple sugar, within a few years past, has become an object of great importance. Three hundred chests, of four hundred pounds each, were made in the thinly inhabited county of Otsego, in the year 1791; besides large quantities, sufficient for home-consumption, in other newly-settled parts of the state.

[TRADE.] The situation of New-York, with respect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the states. It has, at all seasons of the year, a short and easy access to the ocean. We have already mentioned that it commands the trade of a great proportion of the best settled, and best cultivated parts of the united states. New-York has not been unmindful of her superior local advantages, but has availed herself of them to their full extent.

Her exports to the West Indies are, biscuit, peas, Indian corn, apples, onions, boards, staves, hoes, sheep, butter, cheese, pickled oysters, beef and pork. But wheat is the staple commodity of the state, of which no less than six hundred and seventy seven thousand seven hundred bushels were exported in the year 1775, besides two thousand five hundred and fifty-five tons of bread, and two thousand eight hundred and twenty-eight tons of flour. Inspectors of flour are appointed to prevent impositions, and to see that none is exported but what is merchantable. West-India goods are received in return for these articles. Besides the above-mentioned commodities, are exported flaxseed, cotton, wool, sarsaparilla, coffee, indigo, rice, pig iron, bar iron, pot-ash, pearl-ash, furs, deer skins, log-wood, fustic, mahogany, bees-wax, oil, Madeira wine, rum, tar, pitch, turpentine, whale, fins, fish, sugars, molasses, salt, tobacco, lard, &c, but most of these articles are imported for re-exportation. The trade of this state has greatly increased since the revolution, and the balance is almost constantly in its favour. The exports to foreign parts, for the year ending September 30th, 1791, consisting principally of the articles above enumerated, amounted to two millions five hundred and sixteen thousand one hundred and ninety-seven dollars. This state owns nearly fifty thousand tons of shipping, besides which, she finds employment for about forty thousand tons of foreign vessels.

[MEDICINAL SPRINGS.] The most noted springs in this state are those of Saratoga. They are eight or nine in number, situated in the margin of a marsh, formed by a branch of Kayadaroffora Creek, about twelve miles west from the confluence of Fish Creek, and Hudson's river. They are surrounded by a rock of a peculiar kind, formed by petrefactions. One of them, however, more particularly attracts the attention: it rises above the surface of the earth, five or six feet, in the form of a pyramid. The aperture in the top, which discovers the water, is perfectly cylindrical, of about nine inches diameter. In this the water is about twelve inches below the top, except at the time of its annual discharge, which is commonly in the beginning of summer. At all times it appears to be in as great agitation as if boiling in a pot, although it is extremely cold. The same appearances obtain in the other springs, except that the surrounding rocks are of different figures, and the water flows regularly from them.

By observation and experiment, the principal impregnation of the water is found to be a fossile acid, which is predominant in the taste. It is also strongly impregnated with a saline substance, which is very discernible in the taste of the water, and in the taste and smell of the petrified matter about it. From the corrosive and dissolving nature of the acid, the water acquires a chalybeate property, and receives into its composition a portion of calcareous earth, which, when separated, resembles an impure magnesia. As the different springs have no essential variance in the nature of their waters, but the proportions of the chalybeate impregnation, it is probable that they are derived from one common source, but flow in separate channels, where they have connexion with metallic bodies, in greater or less proportions.

The prodigious quantity of air contained in this water, makes another distinguishing property of it. This air, striving for enlargement, produces the fermentation and violent action of the water before described. After the water has stood a small time in an open vessel (no tight one will contain it) the air escapes, the water becomes vapid, and loses all that life and pungency which distinguish it when first taken from the pool. The particles of dissolving earth are deposited as the water flows off, which, with the combination of the salts and fixed air, concrete and form the rocks about the springs.

To most people who drink the waters, they are at first very disagreeable, having a strong, brackish, briny taste; but use, in a great measure, takes off the nauseousness, and renders them palatable, and to many, very grateful. Upon a few they operate as an emetic; upon most as cathartic and diuretic. They may be taken in very large quantities without sensible injury or disagreeable operation.

New-Lebanon springs are next in celebrity to those of Saratoga. New-Lebanon is a pleasant village, situated partly in a vale, and partly on the declivity of hills. The pool is situated on a commanding eminence, overlooking the valley, and surrounded with a few houses, which afford but indifferent accommodations for the valetudinarians who resort here in search of health. The waters have an agreeable temperature, and are not unpleasant to the taste. From the experiments of Dr. Mitchel, it appears that the water contains no iron, no lime, no neutral salt, no fixed air, no other acid—that soap unites very well with the water, and makes a good lather, and is excellent for bleaching cloths—that the spring is a *thermae*, and has a plenty of lime-stone in its neighbourhood. Its warmth is so considerable, that during the coolness of the morning, even in August, copious vapours are emitted by the pool, and the stream which issues from it, for a considerable distance. But the evaporated matter has no peculiar odour.

In the new town of Rensselaer, nearly opposite the city of Albany, a medicinal spring has lately been discovered, combining most of the valuable properties of the celebrated waters of Saratoga.

The salt-springs we have already mentioned. The weight of a bushel of the salt, made of these waters, is fifty six pounds, and is equal in goodness to that imported from Turks-Island.

MINERALS AND FOSSILS.] This state embosoms vast quantities of iron ore. Naturalists have observed, that ore, in swamps and poney grounds, vegetates and increases. There is a silver mine at Philipsburg, which produces virgin silver. Lead is found in Herkemer county, and sulphur in Montgomery. Spar, zink or spelter, a semi-metal, magnez, used in glazings, pyrites, of a golden hue, various kinds of copper ore, and lead and coal mines, are found in this state. Also petrified wood, plaster of Paris, infinglass in sheets, talcs and crystals of various kinds and colours, flint, asbestos, and several other fossils. A small black stone has also been found which vitrifies with a small heat, and it is said, makes excellent glass.

LITERARY AND HUMANE SOCIETIES.] The society for promoting useful knowledge,?

is upon an establishment similar to other philosophical societies in Europe and America, but is not incorporated. The members meet once a month. "The society for the manumission of slaves, and protecting such of them as have been or may be liberated," meets once a quarter. Both these societies consists of gentlemen of the first character in the city, and some in other parts of the state. Besides these there is a marine society—a society for the relief of poor debtors confined in jail—a manufacturing society—an agricultural society, lately established, of which the members of the legislature are *ex officio* members—a medical society—the Tammany society—and the "New-York society for promoting christian knowledge and piety," instituted in 1794.

LITERATURE, COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, &c.] There are eight incorporated academies in different parts of the state; but many parts of the country are yet either unfurnished with schools or they are kept by ignorant men. However, the legislature have lately patronized collegiate and academic education, by granting a large gratuity to the college and academies in this state, which in addition to their former funds, renders their endowments handsome, and adequate to their expenditures.

King's college, in the city of New-York, was principally founded by the voluntary contributions of the inhabitants of the province, assisted by the general assembly, and the corporation of Trinity church, in the year 1754; a royal charter being then obtained, incorporating a number of gentlemen therein mentioned, by the name of "The governor of the college of the province of New-York, in the city of New York in America;" and granting to them and their successors forever, among various other rights and privileges, the power of conferring all such degrees, as are usually conferred by either of the English universities.

By the charter, it was provided, that the president shall always be a member of the church of England and that a form of prayer, collected from the liturgy of that church, with a particular prayer for the college, shall be daily used, morning and evening, in the college chapel; at the same time, no test of their religious persuasion was required from any of the fellows, professors, or tutors; and the advantages of education were equally extended to students of all denominations.

The building (which is only one-third of the intended structure) consists of an elegant stone edifice, three complete stories high, with stair-cases, twelve apartments in each, a chapel, hall, library, museum, anatomical theatre, and a school for experimental philosophy.

The college is situated on a dry, gravelly soil, about one hundred and fifty yards from the bank of Hudson's river, which it overlooks; commanding a most extensive and beautiful prospect.

Since the revolution, the legislature passed an act, constituting twenty-one gentlemen (of whom the governor and lieutenant governor, for the time being, are members *ex officio*) a body corporate and politic, by the name and style of "The regents of the university of the state of New-York." They are entrusted with the care of literature in general in the state and have power to grant charters of incorporation for erecting colleges and academies throughout the state—are to visit these institutions as often as they shall think proper, and report their state to the legislature once a year.

King's college, which we have already described, is now called COLUMBIA COLLEGE. This college, by an act of the legislature, passed in the spring of 1787, was put under the care of twenty-four gentlemen, who are a body corporate, by the name and style of "The Trustees of Columbia College, in the city of New-York." This body possesses all the powers vested in the governors of King's college, before the revolution, or in the regents of the university, since the revolution, so far as their power respected this institution. No regent can be a trustee of any particular college or academy in the state. The regents of the university have power to confer the higher degrees, and they only.

The college edifice has received no addition since the peace. The funds, exclusive of the liberal grant of the legislature amount to between twelve and thirteen thousand pounds currency; the income of which is sufficient for present exigencies.

This college is now in a thriving state, and has about one hundred students in the four classes, besides medical students. The officers of instruction and immediate government, are a president, professor of mathematics and natural philosophy, a professor of logic and geography, and a professor of languages. A complete medical school has been lately annexed to the college, and able professors appointed by the trustees in every branch of that important science, who regularly teach their respective branches with reputation. The number of medical students is about fifty, and increasing; the library and museum were destroyed during the war. The philosophical apparatus is new and complete.

Of the eight incorporated academies, one is at Flatbush, in King's county, on Long Island, four miles from Brooklyn-ferry. It is situated in a pleasant, healthy village. The building is large, handsome and convenient and is called *Erasmus hall*. The academy is flourishing, under the care of a principal and other subordinate instructors.

There is another at East Hampton, on the east end of Long-Island, by the name of CLINTON ACADEMY. The others are in different parts of the state. Besides these, there are schools established and maintained by the voluntary contributions of the public. A spirit for literary improvement is evidently diffusing its influence throughout the state.

RELIGION.] The constitution of this state provides for "the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship, without discrimination or preference, within the state, for all mankind. Provided that the liberty of conscience, hereby granted, shall not be so construed, as to excuse acts of licentiousness, or justify practices inconsistent with the peace and safety of the state."

The various religious denominations in this state, are the following, English presbyterians, Dutch reformed, baptists, episcopalians, friends or quakers, German Lutherans, Moravians, methodists, Roman catholics, Jews, shakers, and a few of the followers of Jemima Wilkinson. The shakers are principally settled at New-Lebanon, and the followers of Jemima Wilkinson at Geneva, about twelve miles S. W. of the Cayuga Lake. For the peculiar sentiments of these various religious sects, the reader is referred to miss Hannah Adams's "View of Religions."

In April 1784, the legislature of this state passed an act, enabling all religious denominations to appoint trustees, not less than three, nor more than nine, who shall be a body corporate for the purpose of taking care of the temporalities of their respective congregations, and for the other purposes therein mentioned.

The ministers of every denomination in the state, are supported by the voluntary contributions of the people, raised generally by subscription or by a tax upon the pews, except the Dutch churches in New-York, Schenectady and Kingston, and the episcopal church in New-York, which have estates confirmed by charter.

CONSTITUTION AND COURTS OF JUSTICE.] The present constitution of the state was established by a convention authorized for the purpose, April 20, 1777,

The supreme legislative powers of the state are vested in two branches, a *senate* and *assembly*. There are twenty-four members of the senate, who are elected by the freeholders of the state, who possess freehold estates to the value of one hundred pounds clear of debts.

The senators are divided by lot into four classes, six in each class, and numbered, first, second, third, and fourth. The seats of the first class are vacated at the expiration of one year—the second, at the expiration of the next, &c. and their places filled by new elections. A majority of the senate is necessary to do business, and each branch of the legislature has a negative upon the other.

The legislature can, at any time, alter this division of the state for the choice of senators; and an increase of electors in any district, to the amount of one twenty-fourth of the electors in the whole state, entitles the district to another senator. But the number of senators can never exceed one hundred.

The assembly of the state is composed of representatives from the several counties, chosen annually in May.

Every male inhabitant, of full age, who has resided in the state six months preceding the day of election, and possessing a freehold to the value of twenty pounds, in the county where he is to give his vote, or has rented a tenement therein, of the yearly value of forty shillings, and has been rated and actually paid taxes, is entitled to vote for representatives in assembly. The freedom of the cities of New-York and Albany, likewise, entitles a person to the privilege of voting for members of assembly in the city or county where he resides. The method of voting is now by ballot, but subject to alteration by the legislature. The house of assembly, a majority of which is necessary to proceed to business, chooses its own speaker, and is judge of its own privileges.

The number of representatives is limited to three hundred. The present number is sixty-five.

The supreme executive power of the state is vested in a governor (in whose absence a deputy-governor is appointed to serve) chosen once in three years by the freemen of the state; the lieutenant-governor is by his office, president of the senate; and, upon an equal division of voices has a casting vote, but has no voice on other occasions. The governor has not a seat in the legislature; but as a member of the council of revision and council of appointment, he has a vast influence in the state.

The council of revision is composed of the chancellor, the judges of the supreme court, or any of them, and the governor. This council is empowered to revise all bills which have passed the two houses of the legislature, and if it shall appear to the council that such bills ought not to pass into laws, they shall be returned to the house in which they originated, with the objections of the council, in writing. The house shall then proceed to reconsider the bills, with the objections; and if, notwithstanding, two thirds of that house shall agree to the bills, they shall be sent to the other, where they shall be reconsidered, and if two-thirds of the members vote for them, they become laws. But if a bill is not returned in ten days, it becomes a law of course.

The subordinate officers of the state are appointed by the *council of appointment*, which is composed of one senator from each district, chosen annually by the legislature, with the governor or in his absence, the lieutenant-governor, or the president of the senate, who has a casting vote only.

All military officers hold their commissions during pleasure. The chancellor, the judges of the supreme court, and the first judge of each county court, hold their offices during good behavior. These officers can hold no other office at the same time, except that of delegate to congress.

A court of errors and impeachment is instituted, composed of the president of the senate, the senate, chancellor and judges of the supreme court, or the major part of them, under the regulation of the legislature. The power of impeachment is vested in the house of representatives; and the members, on trial, must be sworn.

Besides the court of error, and impeachment, there is, first, a court of chancery, consisting of a chancellor, appointed by the council of appointment, who holds his office during good behavior, or until he arrive at the age of sixty. Secondly, a *supreme court*, the judges of which are appointed in the same manner and for the same time as the chancellor. This is a *circuit court*. Thirdly, *county courts*, held in each county, the

judges of which are appointed in the manner above-mentioned, and the first judge holds his office during good behaviour, or until he arrives at the age of sixty years. Besides these, there are justices' courts, a court of probates, court of admiralty, court of exchequer, a court of oyer and terminer and general jail delivery, and court of quarter sessions.

The practice in the supreme court, to which an appeal lies from the courts below, is in imitation of the courts of common pleas and king's bench in England.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] By official returns of the militia of this state, made to the governor by the adjutant-general, it appears that the total number in 1789, was forty two thousand six hundred and seventy-nine; 1790—forty four thousand two hundred and fifty nine: 1791—fifty thousand three hundred and ninety-nine. Besides these, there are from five to six thousand of the militia in the new settlements, who are not yet organized.

FORTS, &c.] These are principally in ruins. The fort in the city of New-York has been demolished. Remains of the fortifications on Long-Island, York-Island, White-Plains, West-Point and other places, are still visible. Old Fort Stanwix, the foundation of which was laid in the year 1759, by general Broadstreet, at the expense, it is said, of sixty thousand pounds, and which was built upon by the troops of the united states during the revolution war, stands at the carrying place between Mohawk river, and Wood-creek, one hundred and seven miles westward of Schenectady, on an artificial eminence, on the bank of the Mohawk. The British made an unsuccessful attempt to take this fort from the Americans, in 1777. Between Fort Stanwix, and Schenectady, are forts Hunter, Anthony, Plain, Herkimer, and Schuyler. As you proceed westward of Fort Stanwix, you pass Fort-Bull, and Fort-Breweton at the west end of Oneida Lake. Fort-George is at the south end of Lake George. At the point where Lake George communicates with Lake Champlain, is the famous post of Ticonderoga. The works, at this place, are in such a state of dilapidation, that a stranger can scarcely form an idea of their construction. They are, however, situated on such high ground as to command the communication between the lakes George and Champlain. Opposite, on the south-side of the water that empties out of Lake George, is a mountain, to appearance inaccessible, called Mount Desance, whither general Burgoyne, in the late war, with a boldness, secrecy, and dispatch almost unparalleled, conveyed a number of cannon, stores and troops. The cannon were raised by large brass tackles from tree to tree and from rock to rock, over dens of rattle snakes, to the summit, which entirely commands the works of Ticonderoga.

Crown-Point is fifteen miles north of Ticonderoga on Lake Champlain. The fort at this place, in which a British garrison was always kept, from the reduction of Canada till the American revolution, was the most regular, and the most expensive, of any ever constructed, and supported by the British government in N. America. The walls are of wood and earth, about sixteen feet high, twenty feet thick, and nearly one hundred and fifty yards square, surrounded by a deep and broad ditch, cut through a solid rock. It stands on a rising ground, perhaps two hundred yards from the lake, to which there was a covered way, by which the garrison could be supplied with water in time of a siege. The only gate opens on the north, towards the lake, where there was a draw-bridge. On the right and left, as you enter the fort, are stone barracks, not inelegantly built, sufficient to contain one thousand five hundred or two thousand troops; the parade is between them, and is a flat, smooth rock. There were several out-works, which are now in ruins, as is the principal fort, except its walls, and those of the barracks, which still remain.

MODE OF RAISING INTERNAL TAXES.] The legislature fix upon the sum to be raised, and apportion it among the several counties. This being done, the supervisors, one from each township in the respective counties, assemble and assign to each town-

ship its proportion of the quota of the county. The supervisor and assessors in each township, then apportion their quota among the individuals of the township, according to the value of their real and personal estates. The tax, thus laid, is raised by the collector of the township, and lodged with the county-treasurer, who transmits it to the treasurer of the state.

FINANCES.] A variety of circumstances have conspired to fill the treasury of this state, and wholly to supersede the necessity of taxation for several years past; *first*, confiscations, and economical management of that property—*second*, sales of unappropriated lands; and *third*, a duty on imports previous to the establishment of the federal government.—The two former were sold for continental certificates, at a time when the credit of the state was perhaps above that of the union, which was the means of drawing a large sum of the public debt into the treasury of the state at a depreciated value. These certificates, since the funding system came into operation, added to the assumed state debt, a vast quantity of which was also in the treasury, form an enormous mass of property, yielding an annuity of upwards of one hundred thousand dollars; and when the deferred debt shall become a six per cent. stock, this annuity will be increased to upwards of two hundred thousand dollars.

CURIOSITIES.] In the county of Montgomery is a small, rapid stream, emptying into Schoon Lake, west of Lake George; it runs under a hill, the base of which is sixty or seventy yards in diameter, forming a most curious and beautiful arch in the rock, as white as snow. The fury of the water and the roughness of the bottom added to the terrific noise within, have hitherto prevented any person from passing through the chasm.

In the township of Willborough, in Clinton county, is a curious split rock. A point of a mountain, which projected about fifty yards into Lake Champlain, appears to have been broken by some violent shock of nature. It is removed from the main rock or mountain about twenty feet, and the opposite sides so exactly suit each other, that one needs no other proof of their having been once united. The point broken off, contains about half an acre, and is covered with wood. The height of the rock, on each side the fissure, is about twelve feet. Round this point is a spacious bay, sheltered from the southwest and northwest winds, by the surrounding hills and woods.

In Dutchess county, is an extraordinary cavern, which is divided by a narrow passage into two divisions; the first is about seventeen feet in length, and so low, that a child of eight years old can but just walk upright in it—the breadth is about eight or ten feet. The second is between twelve and fourteen feet in length, but much higher and broader than the first. What makes the cave peculiarly worthy of notice, is the petrifying quality of the water, which, by a gentle oozing, continually drops from every part of the ceiling, the whole of which exactly resembles a mill-gutter in a frosty morning, with a thousand icicles impending. These concretions are formed by the water, and probably are constantly increasing. They have, in almost every respect, the appearance of icicles, and may be broken off by the hand, if not more than two inches in circumference. They appear of a consistence much like indurated lime, almost transparent, and are all perforated quite through the whole length, with a hole of the size of that in a tobacco pipe, through which aperture the water unremittedly drops, although very slowly. When a person is in the remotest room, and the lights are removed into the first, those pendant drops of water make an appearance more splendid than can be well imagined. Some of those stony icicles have at length reached the bottom of the cave, and now form pillars, some of more than two feet in girth, of the appearance of marble, and almost as hard. They put one in mind of Solomon's Jachim and Beaz—imagination very easily giving them pedestals and chapiters and even wreathen work.

The skeleton of a large snake was found in the cave, turned into solid stone by

the petrifying quality of the water before mentioned. It was with some difficulty torn up with an axe from the rock it lay upon, some of which adhered to it.

The inmost recesses of this cavern are very warm, and respiration is difficult, although candles burn clear.

INDIANS.] The body of the Six Nations inhabit in the western parts of this state. The principal part of the Mohawk tribe reside on Grand river, in Upper Canada; and there are two villages of Senecas in the Allegany river, near the north line of Pennsylvania, and a few Delawares and Skawaghees, on Buffaloe Creek. Including these, and the Stockbridge and Mohegan Indians, who have migrated and settled in the vicinity of Oneida, there are, in the Six Nations; according to an accurate estimate lately made by the rev. Mr. Kirkland, missionary among them, six thousand three hundred and thirty souls. He adds, that among these, there are comparatively but very few children.

The Oneidas inhabit on Oneida Creek, twenty one miles west of Fort Stanwix.

The Tuscaroras migrated from North Carolina and the frontiers of Virginia, and were adopted by the Oneidas, with whom they have ever since lived. They were originally of the same nation.

The Senecas inhabit on the Genesee river, at the Genesee castle. They have two towns, of sixty or seventy souls each, on French Creek, in Pennsylvania; and another town on Buffaloe Creek, attached to the British; two small towns on Allegany river, attached to the Americans. Obeil or Cornplanter, one of the Seneca chiefs, resided here.

The Mohawks were acknowledged by the other tribes, to use their own expression, to be 'the true old heads of the confederacy;' and were formerly a powerful tribe, inhabiting on the Mohawk river. As they were strongly attached to the Johnson family, on account of sir William Johnson, they emigrated to Canada, with sir John Johnson, about the year 1776. There is now only one family of them in the state, and they live about a mile from Fort-Hunter.

All the confederated tribes, except the Oneidas and Tuscaroras, took part with the British in the late war, and fought against the Americans.

The Onondagas live near the Onondaga Lake, about twenty-five miles from the Oneida Lake. In the spring of 1779, a regiment of men was sent from Albany, by general J. Clinton, against the Onondagas. This regiment surprized their town—took thirty-three prisoners—killed twelve or fourteen, and returned without the loss of a man. A party of the Indians were, at this time, ravaging the American frontiers.

There are very few of the Delaware tribe in this state.

The five confederated nations were settled along the banks of the Susquehannah, and in the adjacent country, until the year 1779, when general Sullivan, with an army of four thousand men drove them from their country to Niagara, but could not bring them to action. This expedition had a good effect. General Sullivan burnt several of their towns and destroyed their provisions. Since this irruption into their country, their former habitations have been mostly deserted, and many of them have gone to Canada.

ISLANDS.] There are three islands of note belonging to this state; viz. York Island, which has already been described. Long-Island, and Staten-Island.

Long-Island extends one hundred and forty miles, and terminates with Montauk Point. It is not more than ten miles in breadth, on a medium, and is separated from Connecticut by Long-Island sound. The island is divided into three counties; King's, Queen's and Suffolk.

King's county lies at the west end of Long-Island, opposite New-York, and is not above ten miles long, and eight broad. The inhabitants are principally Dutch, and

live well. It contains a number of pleasant villages, of which Flatbush, Brooklyn, and Bedford, are the principal.

Queen's county lies next to King's, as you proceed eastward. It is about thirty miles long and twelve broad. Jamaica, Newton, Hempstead, in which is a handsome court-house, and Oysterbay, are the principal villages in this county.

Suffolk county is about one hundred miles long and ten broad, and comprehends all the eastern part of the island, and several little islands adjoining; viz. Shelter Island, Fishers-Island, Plum Island, and the Isle of Wight. Its principal towns are Huntington, Southampton, Smithtown, Brook-Haven, East Hampton (in which is an academy) Southhold and Bridge-Hampton.

There are very few rivers upon the island. The largest is Peakonok, which rises about ten miles west of a place called Piver-head, where the court-house stands, and runs east-erly into a large bay, dividing Southhold from Southampton. In this bay are Robin and Shelter islands.

Rockonkama pond lies about the centre of the island, between Smithtown and Islip, and is about a mile in circumference. This pond has been found, by observation, for several years, to rise gradually until it has arrived to a certain height, and then to fall more rapidly to its lowest bed; and thus it is continually ebbing and flowing. The cause of this curious phenomenon has never been investigated.

There are two whale-fisheries; one from Sagg-harbour, which produces about one thousand barrels of oil annually. The other is much smaller, and is carried on by the inhabitants in the winter season, from the south-side of the island. They commonly catch from three to seven whales in a season, which produce from twenty five to forty barrels each of oil. This fishery was formerly a source of considerable wealth to the inhabitants; but through a scarcity of whales, it has greatly declined of late years.

There is a considerable trade carried on from Sagg-harbour, whence are exported to the West-Indies and other places, whale oil, pitch-pine boards, horses, cattle, flaxseed, beef, &c. The produce of the middle and western parts of Long-Island is carried to New-York. It contains thirty-six thousand nine hundred and forty-nine inhabitants.

STATEN-ISLAND lies nine miles south-west of the city of New-York, and forms Richmond county. It is about eighteen miles in length, and, at a medium, six or seven in breadth, and contains three thousand eight hundred and thirty five inhabitants. On the south side is a considerable tract of level, good land; but the island in general is rough, and the hills high. Richmond is almost the only town on the island, and that is a poor, inconsiderable place. The inhabitants are principally descendants of the Dutch and French.

HISTORY.] As early as the year 1607 and 1608, Henry Hudson, an Englishman, an experienced, intrepid, and enterprising seaman, under a commission from king James, in the employ of certain merchants, made several voyages for the discovery of a north-west passage to the East-Indies. In 1609, in consequence of some misunderstanding between him and his employers, he engaged in the Dutch service. Their East-India company fitted out a ship for discovery, of which they gave Hudson the command. He sailed from Amsterdam, in March 1609, and during his voyage, he ranged the American coast, touching at different parts from lat. $71^{\circ} 46'$ to lat. $39^{\circ} 5'$ north; and, in September of the same year, entered the fine river which bears his name. He penetrated this river, according to his own account, fifty three leagues; which must be as far as where the city of Albany now stands. This discovery gave the Dutch at once an entrance into the heart of the American continent, where the best furs could be procured, without interruption from the French or English, both which nations claimed this territory.

Within four years after this discovery, a company of merchants, who had procured from the states-general a patent for an exclusive trade to Hudson's river, built a fort and trading-house where Albany now stands.

In 1614, captain Argall, under sir Thomas Dale, governor of Virginia, visited the Dutch on Hudson's river, who, being unable to resist him, prudently submitted to the present, to the king of England, and under him to the governor of Virginia. Determined upon the settlement of a colony, the states-general, in 1621, granted the country to the West-India company; and in the year 1664, Wouter Van Twiller arrived at Fort Amsterdam, now New-York, and took upon himself the government.

In 1615, a fort was built to the southwest point of Manhattan's, now York island; but the first settlers planted themselves about two miles from this fort, and built a church there, the ruins of which, it is said, are still visible, near the two mile stone, on the public road. In this situation, finding themselves insecure during the wars between the English and Dutch, they left this place, and planted their habitations under the guns of the fort, which laid the foundation of the present city.

In 1623, a company of Dutch traders came to Connecticut river, to the place where Hartford is now built, and erected a small fort, in which they planted two cannon, and built a trading house, which they called the *Hirfe of Good Hope*.

In consequence of these discoveries and settlements, the Dutch claimed all the country extending from Cape Cod to Cape-Henlopen, along the coast, and as far back into the country, as any of the rivers, within those limits, extend, and named it NEW-NETHERLANDS. But these extravagant and groundless claims were never allowed to the Dutch. This nation, and after them the province of New-York, for a long time, claimed as far east as the western banks of Connecticut river, and this claim has been the ground of much altercation. In 1664, the partition line between New-York and Connecticut was run from the mouth of Memoroncock river (a little west of Byram river) N. N. W. and was, according to dr. Douglass, (Summary, vol. ii. p. 161.) "the ancient easterly limits of New-York, until November 23, 1683, when the line was run nearly the same as it is now settled."

August 27th, 1664, governor Stuyvesant surrendered the colony to colonel Nicolls, who had arrived in the bay a few days before, with three or four ships and about three hundred soldiers, having a commission from king Charles II. to reduce the place, which then was called New Amsterdam, afterwards New-York. Very few of the inhabitants removed out of the country; and their numerous descendants are still in many parts of this state and New-Jersey.

In 1667, at the peace of Breda, New-York was confirmed to the English, who in exchange ceded Surinam to the Dutch.

The English kept peaceable possession of the country, until the year 1673, when the Dutch, with whom they were then at war, sent a small squadron, which arrived at Staten-Island on the 30 of July. John Manning, a captain of an independent company who had at that time the command of the fort, sent a messenger down to the commodore, and treacherously made his terms with him: on the same day the ships came up, moored under the fort, landed their men, and entered the garrison, without giving or receiving a shot. All the magistrates and constables from East Jersey, Long Island, Ætopus, and Albany, were summoned to New-York: and the major part of them swore allegiance to the states general and the prince of Orange. The conquerors, however, did not long enjoy the fruits of their success; for, on the 9th of February, the year following, a treaty of peace between England and Holland was signed by Westminster; by the sixth article of which, this province was restored to the English, in whose hands it remained until the late revolution.

The confederated tribes of Indians, before the incorporation of the Tuscaroras, a people driven by the Carolinians from the frontiers of Virginia, consisted of five nations, viz. the Mohawks, Oneidas, Senecas, Onondagas, and Cayugas. The alliance and trade of these six nations, inhabiting the territory west of Albany to the distance of more than two hundred miles, though much courted by the French of Canada have been almost uninterruptedly enjoyed by the English.

In 1684, the French attempted the destruction of these Indians, because they interrupted their trade with the more distant tribes, called the Far Nations. The Seneca Indians interrupted this trade because the French supplied the Miamies, with whom they were then at war, with arms and ammunition.

To effect the destruction of the Indians, great preparations were made by the French. But famine and sickness prevailing among them, the expedition proved fruitless. Four years after this, twelve hundred Indians attacked Montreal, burnt many houses, and put one thousand of the inhabitants to the sword.

In 1689, colonel Dongan, the governor, being called home by king James, and a general disaffection to government prevailing at New-York, one Jacob Leisler took possession of the garrison, for king William and queen Mary, and assumed the supreme power over the province. His reduction of Albany, held by others for William, and the confiscation of the estates of his opponents, were impolitic measures; and sowed the seeds of mutual animosity, which for a long time greatly embarrassed the public affairs.

The French, in 1689, in order to detach the six nations from the British interest, sent out several parties, against the English colonies, one of the parties, consisting of about two hundred French and some of the Caghuaga Indians, commanded by D'Ailldebout, De Mantel, and Le Moyne, was intended for New-York. But by the advice of the Indians, they determined first to attack Schenectady.

For this place, they accordingly directed their course, and after twenty days march, in the depth of winter, through the snow, carrying their provisions on their backs, they arrived in the neighbourhood of Schenectady, on the 8th of February, 1690. Such was the extreme distress to which they were reduced, that they had thoughts of surrendering themselves prisoners of war. But their scouts, who were a day or two in the village entirely unsuspected, returned with such encouraging accounts of the absolute security of the people, that the enemy determined on the attack. They entered, on Saturday night, about eleven o'clock, at the gates, which were found open; and, that every house might be invested at the same time, they divided into small parties of six or seven men. The inhabitants were in a profound sleep, and unalarmed, until their doors were broken open. Never were people in a more wretched consternation. Before they were risen from their beds, the enemy entered their houses, and began the perpetration of the most inhuman barbarities. No tongue can express the cruelties that were committed. The whole village was instantly in a blaze. Women with-child ripped open, and their infants cast into the flames, or dashed against the posts of the doors. Sixty persons perished in the massacre, and twenty seven were carried into captivity. The rest fled naked towards Albany, through a deep snow which fell that very night in a terrible storm; and twenty-five of the fugitives lost their limbs in the flight, through the severity of the frost. The news of this dreadful tragedy reached Albany, about break of day, and universal dread seized the inhabitants of that city, the enemy being reported to be one thousand four hundred strong. A party of horse was immediately dispatched to Schenectady, and a few Mohawks, then in town, fearful of being intercepted, were with difficulty sent to apprise their own castles.

The Mohawks were unacquainted with this bloody scene, until two days after it happened, the messengers being scarcely able to travel through the great depth of the snow. The enemy, in the mean time, pillaged the town of Shenectady until

noon the next day ; and then went off with their plunder, and with about forty of the best horses. The rest, with all the cattle they could find, lay slaughtered in the streets.

Upon the arrival of a governor at New York, commissioned by the king, Leifer refused to surrender the garrison, for which he and his son were condemned to death, as guilty of high treason.

The whole province of New-York was originally settled by non-episcopalians, chiefly by presbyterians, except a few episcopal families in the city of New York. In 1693, col. Fletcher, then governor of the province, projected the scheme of a general tax for building churches and supporting episcopal ministers, and artfully effected his design in part. This overture laid the foundation for a dispute between the presbyterians and episcopalians, which until the revolution, was maintained on both sides with great warmth and animosity. Several of the governors, particularly lord Cornbury, showed great partiality to the episcopalians, and persecuted the presbyterians.

July 19th 1701, the confederated tribes of Indians, at Albany, surrendered to the English, their beaver hunting country, lying between lakes Ontario and Erie, to be by them defended, for the said confederated Indians, their heirs, and successors forever. This transaction was confirmed, September 14, 1726, when the Senecas, Cayugas, and Onondagas, surrendered their habitations, from Cayahoga to Oswego, and sixty miles inland, to the English, and for the same use.

In 1709, a vigorous expedition was meditated against Canada ; in making preparations for which, this province expended above twenty thousand pounds ; but the expected assistance from Britain failing, it was never prosecuted. Soon after col. Schuyler, who had been very influential with the Indians, went to England with five Sachems ; who were introduced into the presence of queen Anne. The object of this visit was to stimulate the ministry to the reduction of Canada.

In 1710, governor Hunter brought over with him about three thousand Palatines, who, the year before, had fled to England from the rage of persecution in Germany. Many of these people settled in the city of New-York ; others settled on a tract, of several thousand acres, in the manor of Livingston, and some went to Pennsylvania, and were instrumental in inducing thousands of their countrymen to migrate to that province.

In 1711, a considerable fleet was sent over for that purpose ; but eight transports being cast away on the coast, the rest of the fleet and troops returned without making any attempt to reduce Canada.

The prohibition of the sale of Indian goods to the French, in 1720, excited the clamour of the merchants at New-York, whose interests was affected by it. The measure was undoubtedly a politic one ; and the reasons for it were these : The French, by this trade, were supplied with articles which were wanted by the Indians. This prevented the Indians from coming to Albany, and drew them to Montreal ; and they being employed by the French, as carriers, became attached to them from interest. About the same time, a trading-house was erected by the English at Oswego, on lake Ontario ; and another by the French at Niagara.

In 1729, the act prohibiting the trade between Albany and Montreal was imprudently repealed by the king. This naturally tended to undermine the trade at Oswego, and to advance the French commerce of Niagara ; and at the same time to alienate the affections of the Indians from Britain. Not long after this, the French were suffered to erect a fortress at Lake Champlain. To prevent the ill consequences of this, a scheme was projected to settle the lands near Lake George, with loyal protestant Highlanders from Scotland. A tract of thirty thousand acres was accordingly promised to captain Campbell, who, at his own expense, transported eighty-

three protestant families to New-York. But through the fordid views of some persons in power, who aimed at a share in the intended grant, the settlement was never made.

In 1787, the legislature of this state, ceded to the commonwealth of Massachusetts, all the lands, within their jurisdiction, west of a meridian to be drawn from a point in the north boundary line of Pennsylvania, eighty-two miles west from Delaware; (excepting one mile along the east-side of Niagara river) and also ten townships between the Chenengo and Owegy rivers, reserving the jurisdiction to the state of New York. This cession was made to satisfy a claim of Massachusetts, founded upon their original charter.

N E W - J E R S E Y .

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
 Length 160 }
 Breadth 52 } between { 39° and 41° 25' north latitude.
 The body of the state lies between the meridian
 of Philadelphia, and 1° east longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED east by Hudson's river and the sea; south, by the sea; west by Delaware bay and river, which divide it from the states of Delaware and Pennsylvania; north, by a line drawn from the mouth of Mahakamak river, in latitude 41° 24', to a point on Hudson's river in latitude 41°: containing about eight thousand three hundred and twenty square miles, equal to five million three hundred and twenty-four thousand eight hundred acres.

CIVIL DIVISIONS POPULATION, &c.] NEW JERSEY is divided into thirteen counties, which are subdivided into ninety-four townships or precincts.

	Counties.	Principal Towns.	Leng.		Total No. of Inhab.	No. of Slaves.
				Bread.		
These 7 counties lie from N. to S. on Delaware river. The eastern side of Cape May and Gloucester extend across to the sea.	Cape May	None.	30	5	2571	141
	Cumberland	Bridgetown	50	20	8248	120
	Salem	Salem			10437	172
	Gloucester	Woodbury and Gloucester	30	22	13363	191
		Burlington and Bordentown	60	30	18095	227
	Hunterdon	Trenton	37	12	20259	1301
	Suffex	Newtown			19500	439
	Bergen	Hackinack			12601	2301
		Newark and Elizabethtown			17785	1171
	Middlefex	Amboy and pt. of Brunswick			15956	1318
	Monmouth	Freehold	80	30	16918	1596
	Somerfet	Boundbrook & pt. Brunswick			12296	1810
	Morris	Morrisfrown	25	20	16216	626
Total.	Thirteen			184239	11429	

BAYS, PONDS, RIVERS, AND CANALS.] New-Jersey is washed, on the east and southeast, by Hudson's river and the ocean; and on the west by the river Delaware.

The most remarkable bay is Arthur-Kull, or Newark-bay, formed by the union of Passaick and Hackinsack rivers. This bay opens to the right and left, and embraces Staten-Island. There is a long bay formed by a beach, four or five miles from the shore, extending along the coast northeast, and southwest, from Manasquan-river, in Monmouth county, almost to Cape-May. Through this beach are a number of inlets, by which the bay communicates with the ocean.

On the top of a mountain, in Morris county, is a lake or pond, three miles in length, and from a mile to a mile and a half in breadth, from which proceeds a continual stream. It is in some places deep. The water is of a sea-green colour, but when taken up in a tumbler, is like the water of the ocean, clear and of a crystalline colour.

The rivers in this state, though not large, are numerous. A traveller, in passing the common road from New-York to Philadelphia, crosses three considerable rivers, viz the Hackinsack and Passaick, between Bergen and Newark, and the Raritan at Brunswick. The Hackinsack rises in Bergen county, runs a southwestwardly course, and empties into Newark Bay.—At the ferry, near its mouth, it is four hundred and sixty yards wide, and is navigable fifteen miles.

Passaick is a very crooked-river. It rises in a large swamp in Morris county. Its general course is from W. N. W. to E. S. E. until it mingles with the Hackinsack at the head of Newark bay. It is navigable about ten miles, and is two hundred and thirty yards wide at the ferry. The cataract (or Great-Falls) in this river, is one of the greatest natural curiosities in the state. The river is about forty yards wide, and moves in a slow, gentle current, until, coming within a short distance of a deep cleft in a rock, which crosses the channel, it descends, and falls above seven feet perpendicularly, in one entire sheet. One end of the cleft, which was evidently made by some violent convulsion in nature, is closed; at the other the water rushes out with incredible swiftness, forming an acute angle with its former direction, and is received with a large basin, whence it takes a winding course through the rocks, and spreads into a broad, smooth stream. The cleft is from four to twelve feet broad. The falling of the water, occasions a cloud of vapour to arise, which, by floating amidst the sun-beams, presents to the view, rainbows, that add beauty to the tremendous scene. The new manufacturing town of Patterson is erected upon the Great Falls of this river.

Raritan river is formed by two considerable streams, called the north and south branches; one of which has its source in Morris, the other in Hunterdon county. It passes by Brunswick and Amboy, and mingles with the waters of the Arthur Kull Sound, and helps to form the fine harbour of Amboy. It is a mile wide at its mouth, two hundred and fifty yards at Brunswick, and is navigable about fifteen miles. It is supposed that this river is capable of a very steady lock-navigation, as high as the junction of the north and south branches; and thence up the south branch to Grandin's Bridge, in Kingwood. Thence to Delaware river is ten or twelve miles. A portage will probably be established here by a turnpike road: or, the waters of the Raritan may be united with those of the Delaware, by a canal from the south-Branch of the Raritan to Musconetcony river, which empties into the Delaware—or from Capooling creek, a water of the Raritan, emptying at Grandin's Bridge, and Necessackaway, a water of the Delaware.

At Raritan hills, though which this river passes, is a small cascade, where the water falls fifteen or twenty feet, very romantically, between two rocks. This river opposite to Brunswick, is so shallow, that it is fordable, at low water, with horses and carriages; but a little below, it deepens so fast, that a twenty-gun ship may ride securely

at any time of tide. The tide, however, rises so high, that large shallops pass a mile above the ford ; so that it is no uncommon circumstance, to see vessels of considerable burden riding at anchor, and a number of large craft lying above, some dry, and others on their beam-ends for want of water, within gun-shot of each other.

Bridges are building (agreeably to laws of the state passed for that purpose) over, the Passaic, Hackinack, and Raritan rivers, on the post-road between New-York and Philadelphia. These bridges will greatly facilitate the intercourse between these two great cities.

Besides these are Cefarea-river, or Cohansey-creek, which rises in Salem county and is about thirty miles in length, and navigable for vessels of an hundred tons to Bridgetown, twenty miles from its mouth.

Mulicus river divides the counties of Gloucester and Burlington, and is navigable twenty miles for vessels of sixty tons.

Maurice-river rises in Gloucester county, runs southwardly about forty miles, and is navigable for vessels of an hundred tons, fifteen miles, and for shallops ten miles farther.

Alloway creek, in the county of Salem, is navigable sixteen miles for shallops, with several obstructions of drawbridges. Ancocus creek, in Burlington county, is also navigable sixteen miles. These with many smaller streams, empty into the Delaware, and carry down the produce which their fertile banks and the neighbouring country afford,

That part of the state which borders on the sea, is indented with a great number of small rivers and creeks such as Great-Egg-harbour and Little-Egg-harbour rivers, Navesink, Shark, Matitcong, and Forked rivers, which, as the country is flat, are navigable for small craft, almost to their sources.

Paulin's Kiln, in Suffex county, is navigable for crafts fifteen miles ; and the Musconetcony, which divides Hunterdon from Suffex, is capable of beneficial improvement as is the Pequest or Pequasset between the two last mentioned rivers.

This state is remarkable for mill seats eleven hundred of which are already occupied ; five hundred with flour mills, and the rest with saw mills, fulling mills, forges, furnaces, sitting and rolling mills, paper, powder and oil mills.

Sandy-Hook, or point, is in the township of Middletown ; and on this point stands a light-house, one hundred feet high, built by the citizens of New-York.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, } The counties of Suffex, Morris, and the
SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS. } northern part of Bergen, are mountainous. The South-Mountain, which is one ridge of the great Allegany Range, crosses this state in about latitude 41°. This mountain embosoms such amazing quantities of iron ore, that it might not improperly be called the Iron-Mountain. The Kittatinny ridge passes through this state north of the South mountain. Several spurs from these mountains are projected in a southern direction. One passes between Springfield and Chatham. Another runs west of it, by Morristown, Baskinridge and Vealtown. The interior country is in general, agreeably variegated with hills and vallies. The southern counties, which lie along the sea coast, are pretty uniformly flat and sandy. The noted Highlands of Navesink, and Center Hill, are almost the only hills within the distance of many miles from the sea coast. The Highlands of Navesink are on the sea coast near Sandy Hook; in the township of Middletown, and are the first lands that are discovered by mariners, as they come upon the coast. They rise about six hundred feet above the surface of the water.

Nearly five eighths of most of the southern counties, or one fourth of the whole state, is almost a sandy barren, unfit, in many parts, for cultivation. The land on the sea coast, in this, like that in the more southern states, has every appearance of *made ground*. The soil is generally a light sand ; and by digging, on an average, about fifty

feet below the surface, (which can be done, even at the distance of twenty or thirty miles from the sea, without any impediment from rocks or stones; you come to salt marsh. The gentleman, who gave this information, adds, "I have seen an oyster-shell that would hold a pint, which was dug out of the marsh, at fifty feet deep, in digging a well." "About seven years since," continues he, "at Long branch, in the county of Monmouth, in the banks of the Atlantic, which were greatly torn by a great rise of the sea in a violent easterly storm, was discovered the skeleton of some huge carnivorous animal. The country people who first saw it, had so little curiosity, as to suffer it to be wholly destroyed, except a jaw tooth which I saw. This was about two and a half inches wide, five inches long, and as many deep. The person who helped to take it out of the bank, assured me there was one rib seven feet four inches, and another four feet long." The bones of another of these animals have lately been discovered, in a meadow, in the county of Gloucester, on the river Delaware, by a negro, who was digging a ditch three or four feet deep. Part of these bones were sent to Philadelphia.

This state has all the varieties of soil from the worst to the best kind. It has a great proportion of barrens. The good land, in the southern counties, lies principally on the banks of rivers and creeks. The soil, on these banks, is generally a stiff clay; and while in a state of nature, produces various species of oak, hickory, poplar, chestnut, ash, gum, &c. The barrens produce little else but shrub oaks and yellow pines. These sandy lands yield immense quantity of bog iron ore, which is worked up to great advantage in the iron-works in these counties. There are large bodies of salt meadow along the lower part of the Delaware river and bay, which afford a plentiful pasture for cattle in summer, and hay in winter; but the flies and musketoes frequent these meadows in large swarms, in the months of June, July and August, and prove very troublesome both to man and beast. In Gloucester and Cumberland counties are several large tracts of banked meadow. Their vicinity to Philadelphia renders them highly valuable. Along the sea coast, the inhabitants subsist, principally, by feeding cattle on the salt meadows, and by fish of various kinds, such as rock, drum, shad, perch, &c: black turtle, crabs and oysters, which the sea, rivers, and creeks afford in great abundance. They raise Indian corn, rye, potatoes, &c. but not for exportation. Their swamps afford lumber, which is easily conveyed to a good market. The sugar-maple tree is common in Suffex county upon the Delaware.

In the hilly and mountainous parts of the state, which are not too rocky for cultivation, the soil is of a stronger kind, and covered in its natural state with stately oaks, hickories, chestnuts, &c. and, when cultivated, produces wheat, rye, Indian corn, buckwheat, oats, barley, flax, and fruits of all kinds common to the climate. The land in this hilly country is good for grazing; and farmers feed great numbers of cattle for New-York and Philadelphia markets; many of them keep large dairies, as there are extensive tracts of fine meadows between the hills.

The orchards, in many parts of the state, equal any in the united states; and the cyder is of excellent quality.

The markets of New-York and Philadelphia receive a very considerable proportion of their supplies from the contiguous parts of New-Jersey. And those contiguous parts are exceedingly well calculated, as to the nature and fertility of their soils, to afford these supplies; and the intervention of a great number of navigable rivers and creeks renders it very convenient to market their produce. These supplies consist of vegetables of many kinds, apples, pears, peaches, plumbs, strawberries, cherries, and other fruits—cyder in large quantities, and of the best quality, butter, cheese, beef, pork, mutton, &c.

TRADE.] The trade of this state is carried on almost solely with and from those two great commercial cities, New-York on one side, and Philadelphia on the other, tho'

it wants not good ports of its own. Several attempts have been made by the legislature, to secure to the state its own natural advantages, by granting extraordinary privileges to merchants, who would settle at Amboy and Burlington, two very commodious ports. But the people, having long been accustomed to send their produce to the markets of Philadelphia and New-York, and of course, having their correspondences established, and their mode of dealing fixed, it has been found impossible to turn their trade from the old channel. Besides in these large cities, where are so many able merchants, and so many wants to be supplied, credits are more easily obtained and a better and quicker market is found for produce, than could be expected in towns less populous and flourishing. These and other causes of same kind, have hitherto rendered abortive the encouragements held out by the legislature.

The articles exported, besides those already mentioned, are, wheat, flour, horses, live cattle, hams, which are celebrated as being among the best in the world; lumber, flax-seed, leather, iron, in great quantities, in pigs and bars, and formerly copper ore; but the mines have not been worked since the commencement of the late war. The imports consist chiefly of West-India and European goods.

[MANUFACTURES AND AGRICULTURE.] The manufactures of this state have hitherto been very inconsiderable, not sufficient to supply its own consumption, if we except the article of iron, nails and leather. A spirit of industry and improvement, particularly in manufactures, has, however, greatly increased in the two or three last years. Most of the families in the country, and many in the populous towns, are clothed in strong, decent homespun; and it is a happy circumstance for our country, that this plain American dress is every day growing more fashionable, not only in this, but in all the states.

In Trenton, Newark and Elizabeth town, are several valuable tanyards, where leather, in large quantities, and of an excellent quality, is made and exported to the neighbouring markets. Steel was manufactured at Trenton, in the time of the war, but not considerably since. In Gloucester county is a glass house. Paper mills, and nail manufactories are erected and worked to advantage in several parts of the state. Wheat also is manufactured into flour and Indian corn into meal to good account, in the western counties, where wheat is the staple commodity. But the iron manufacture is, of all others, the greatest source of wealth of the state. Iron works are erected in Gloucester, Burlington, Suffex, Morris, and other counties. The mountains in the county of Morris, give rise to a number of streams, necessary and convenient for these works, and, at the same time, furnish a copious supply of wood and ore, of a superior quality. In this county alone, are no less than seven rich iron mines; from which might be taken ore sufficient to supply the united states; and to work it into iron are two furnaces, two rolling and slitting mills, and about thirty forges, containing from two to four fires each. These works produce annually about five hundred and forty tons of bar-iron, eight hundred tons of pigs, besides large quantities of hollow ware, sheet iron, and nail rods. In the whole state, it is supposed there is yearly made about twelve hundred tons of bar-iron, twelve hundred of pigs, eighty of nail rods, exclusive of hollow-ware, and various other castings, of which vast quantities are made.

Early in the late war, a powder-mill was erected in Morristown, by col. Ford, who was enabled, by the ample supply of saltpetre furnished by the patriotic inhabitants, to make a considerable quantity of that valuable and necessary article, at a time when it was most needed. And when the enemy were at the door, it afforded a timely supply.

A manufacturing company was incorporated, in 1791, by the legislature of this state, and favoured with very great privileges. The better to encourage every kind of manufacture, a subscription was opened, under the patronage of the secretary of the

treasury of the united states, for this important purpose. Each subscriber promised to pay, for every share annexed to his name, four hundred dollars to the trustees appointed to receive it. A sum of upwards of five hundred thousand dollars was almost immediately subscribed, and the directors of the association have since taken measures, to carry into effect their extensive plan. They have fixed on the Great-falls, in Passaic river, and the ground adjoining, for the erection of the mills and the town; which they call PATTERSON, in honour of the then governor of New Jersey. Every advantage appears to be concentrate in this delightful situation, to make it one of the most eligible in the united states, for the permanent establishment of manufactures. Already a large sum of money has been expended. But the success hitherto has not equalled public expectation.

Although the majority of the inhabitants in this state are farmers, yet agriculture has not been improved (a few instances excepted) to that degree, which from long experience, we might rationally expect, and which the fertility of the soil, in many places, seems to encourage.

[MINES AND MINERALS.] This state embosoms vast quantities of iron and copper ore. The iron ore is of two kinds, one is capable of being manufactured into malleable iron, and is found in mountains and in low barrens; the other, called bog ore, grows in rich bottoms; and yields iron of a hard, brittle quality, and is commonly manufactured into hollow ware, and used sometimes instead of stone in building.

A number of copper mines have been discovered in different parts of the state. One is in Bergen county, which, when worked by the Schuylers, (to whom it belonged) was considerably productive; but they have, for many years, been neglected.

“ About the years 1748, 1749, 1750, several lumps of virgin copper from five to thirty pounds weight, (in the whole upwards of two hundred pounds) were ploughed up in a field, belonging to Philip French, esq. within a quarter of a mile of New Brunswick. This induced Mr. Elias Boudinot to take a lease of this land, in order to search for copper ore, a body of which he concluded must be contained in this hill. He took in several partners, and, about the year 1751, opened a pit in the low grounds, about two or three hundred yards from the river. He was led to this spot by a friend of his, who, a little before, passing by at three o'clock in the morning, observed a body of flame arise out of the ground, as large as a common-sized man, which soon after died away. He drove a stake in the spot. About fifteen feet deep, Mr. Boudinot came on a vein of bluish stone, about two feet thick, between two perpendicular loose bodies of red rock, covered with a sheet of pure virgin copper, a little thicker than gold leaf. This bluish stone was filled with sparks of virgin copper, very much like copper filings; and now, and then a large lump of virgin copper, from five to thirty pounds weight. He followed this vein almost thirty feet, when, the water coming in very fast, the expense became too great for the company's capital. A stamping mill was erected, and, by reducing the bluish stone to a powder, and washing it in large tubs, the stone was carried off, and the fine copper preserved; by which means many tons of the purest copper were sent to England, without ever passing through the fire; but labour was too high to render it possible for the company to proceed. Sheets of copper about the thickness of two pennies, and three feet square, on an average, have been taken from between the rocks, within four feet of the surface, in several parts of the hill. At about fifty or sixty feet deep, they came to a body of fine, solid ore, in the midst of this bluish vein, but between rocks of a white flinty spar, which however, was worked out in a few days. These works lie now wholly neglected, although the vein, when left, was richer than ever it had been. There was also a very rich vein of copper ore discovered at Rocky-hill, in Somerset county, which has also been

neglected, from the heavy expence attending the working of it. There have been various attempts made to search the hills beyond Boundbrook, known by the name of Van Horne's Mountain; but for the same reason, they are now neglected. This mountain discovers the greatest appearance of copper ore, of any place in the state. It may be picked up on the surface of many parts of it. A smelting furnace was erected, before the revolution, in the neighbourhood, by two Germans, who were making very considerable profit on their work, until the British destroyed it in the beginning of the war. The inhabitants made it worth their while, by collecting the ore from the surface, and by partially digging into the hill, to supply the furnace. Besides, a company opened a very large shaft on the side of the hill, from which also much valuable ore and some virgin copper were taken. Two lumps of virgin copper were found here in the year 1734, which weighed one thousand nine hundred pounds."

A lead mine has been discovered in Hopewell township, four miles from Trenton. There is said to be coal on Raritan river, below Brunswick; and at Pluckemin, and turf in Bethlehem; at the head of its south branch; and also at Springfield, on Rahway river.

CURIOUS SPRINGS.] In the upper part of the county of Morris, is a cold, mineral spring, which is frequented by valetudinarians, and its waters have been used with very considerable success. In the township of Hanover, in this county, on a ridge of hills, are a number of wells, which regularly ebb and flow about six feet, twice in every twenty four hours. These wells are nearly forty miles from the sea, in a straight line. In Cape May county, is a spring of fresh water, which boils up from the bottom of a salt water creek, which runs nearly dry at low tide; but at flood tide is covered with water directly from the ocean, to the depth of three or four feet; yet, in this situation, by letting down a bottle well corked, through the salt water in the spring, and immediately drawing the cork with a string prepared for the purpose, it may be drawn up full of fine, untainted fresh water. There are springs of this kind in other parts of the state. In the county of Hunterdon, near the top of Muskonetcong mountain, is a noted medicinal spring, to which invalids resort from every quarter. It issues from the side of a mountain, and is conveyed into an artificial reservoir for the accommodation of those who wish to bathe in, as well as to drink the waters. It is a strong chalybeate, and very cold. These waters have been used with very considerable success; but perhaps the exercise necessary to get to them, and the purity of the air in this lofty situation, aided by a lively imagination, have as great efficacy in curing the patient as the waters.

A curious spring has been discovered about two hundred yards from the south branch of Raritan river, from which, even in the driest seasons, a small stream issues, except when the wind continues to blow from the north west for more than two days successively, when it ceases to run; and if the water be taken out of the cask, placed in the ground, it will remain empty until the wind changes; when it is again filled and flows as usual.

CAVE.] In the township of Shrewsbury, in Monmouth county, on the side of a branch of Navesink river, is a remarkable cave, in which there are three rooms. The cave is about thirty feet long, and fifteen feet broad. Each of the rooms is arched, the centre of the arch is about five feet from the bottom of the cave; the sides not more than two and a half. The mouth of the cave is small; the bottom is a loose sand and the arch is formed in a soft rock, through the pores of which, the moisture slowly exudes, and falls in drops on the sand below.

POPULATION.] According to the census of 1790, as given in the table, there were in this state, one hundred and eighty four thousand two hundred and thirty nine, inhabitants, of whom eleven thousand four hundred and twenty three were slaves. The average population for every square mile is nearly twenty-two. The number of

inhabitants in this state, was, in 1738, forty-seven thousand three hundred and sixty-nine; 1745, sixty one thousand four hundred and three; 1784, one hundred and forty thousand four hundred and thirty-five, including ten thousand five hundred and one blacks.

The average annual increase since 1738, has been two thousand six hundred and thirty, exclusive of emigrations, which, since 1783, have been numerous, to the country west of the Allegany mountains.

CHARACTER, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] Many circumstances concur to render these various in different parts of the state. The inhabitants are a collection of Dutch, Germans, English, Scotch, Irish, and New Englanders, or their descendants. National attachment, and mutual convenience, have generally induced these several kinds of people to settle together in a body, and in this way their peculiar national manners, customs, and character are still preserved, especially among the poorer class of people, who have little intercourse with any but their own nation. Religion, although its tendency is to unite people in those things which are essential to happiness, occasions wide differences as to manners, customs, and even character. The presbyterian, the quaker, the episcopalian, the baptist, the German and Low Dutch Calvinist, the methodist and the Moravian, have each their distinguishing characteristics, either in their worship, their discipline, or their dress. There is still another characteristic difference, distinct from either of the others, which arises from the intercourse of the inhabitants with different states. The people in West-Jersey trade to Philadelphia, and, of course, imitate its fashions, and imbibe its manners. The inhabitants of East-Jersey trade to New-York, and regulate their fashions and manners according to those in New-York. So that the difference in regard to fashions and manners between East and West Jersey, is nearly as great as between New-York and Philadelphia. The people of New-Jersey are generally industrious, frugal, and hospitable. There are comparatively, but few men of learning in the state, nor can it be said that the people in general have a taste for the sciences. The poorer class are not sufficiently attentive to the education of their children. There are, however, a number of gentlemen of the first rank in abilities and learning in the civil offices of the state, and in the several learned professions.

There is at least as great a number of industrious, discreet, amiable, genteel and handsome women in New-Jersey, in proportion to the number of inhabitants, as in any of the thirteen states.

RELIGION.] There are, in this state, about fifty presbyterian congregations, subject to the care of three presbyteries, viz. that of New-York, of New-Brunswick, and Philadelphia. A part of the charge of New-York and Philadelphia presbyteries lies in New-Jersey, and part in their own respective states.

Besides these there are upwards of forty congregations of friends—thirty of baptists—twenty-five of episcopalians—twenty-eight of Dutch reformed, besides methodists—and a settlement of Moravians and Roman catholics. All these religious denominations live together in peace and harmony; are allowed, by the constitution of the state, to worship Almighty God agreeably to the dictates of their own consciences; and are not compelled to attend or support any worship contrary to their own faith and judgment. All protestant inhabitants, of peaceable behaviour, are eligible to the civil offices of the state.

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, AND SCHOOLS.] There are two colleges in New-Jersey; one at Princeton, called Nassau-Hall, the other at Brunswick, called Queen's College. The college at Princeton was first founded by charter from John Hamilton, esq. president of the council, about the year 1738, and enlarged by governor Belcher, in 1747. The charter delegates a power of granting to "the students of said college, or to any others thought worthy of them, all such degrees as are granted in

either of the universities or any other college in Great-Britain." It has twenty-three trustees. The governor of the state, and the president of the college are, *ex officio*, two of them. It has an annual income of about nine hundred pounds currency; of which two hundred pounds arise from funded public securities and lands, and the rest from the fees of the students.

The president of the college is professor of eloquence, criticism, and chronology. The vice-president is professor of divinity and moral philosophy. There is also a professor of mathematics, and natural philosophy, and two masters of languages. The four classes in college contain commonly from seventy to one hundred students. There is a grammar-school, of about twenty scholars, connected with the college, under the superintendance of the president, and taught sometimes by a senior scholar, and sometimes by a graduate.

Before the war, this college was furnished with a philosophical apparatus, worth five hundred pounds, which (except the elegant orrery constructed by Mr. Rittenhouse) was almost entirely destroyed by the British army in the late war, as was also the library, which now consists of between two and three thousand volumes.

The college edifice is handsomely built with stone, and is one hundred and eighty-feet in length, fifty-four in breadth, and four stories high; and is divided into forty-two convenient chambers, for the accommodation of the students, besides a dining-hall, chapel, and room for the library. Its situation is elevated, and exceedingly pleasant and healthful. It is remarkable, that since the removal of the college to Princeton in 1756, there have been but five or six deaths among the students.

The college has been under the care of a succession of presidents, eminent for piety and learning; and has furnished a number of civilians, divines, and physicians, of the first rank in America.

The charter for Queen's College, at Brunswick, was granted just before the war, in consequence of an application from a body of the Dutch church. Its funds, raised wholly by free donations, amounted, soon after its establishment, to four thousand pounds; but they were considerably diminished by the war. The grammar school, which is connected with the college, consists of between thirty and forty students, under the care of the trustees. This college, at present, is not in a very flourishing state. A union of these colleges is in contemplation, and some steps have been taken to effect it.

There are a number of good academies in this state. One at Freehold, in the county of Monmouth—another at Trenton, in which are about eighty students in the different branches. It has a fund of about one hundred and fifty pounds per annum, arising from the interest on public securities. Another at Hackinsack, in the county of Bergen, of upwards of an hundred scholars. There is another flourishing academy at Orangedale, in the county of Essex, consisting nearly of as many scholars as any of the others, furnished with able instructors and good accommodations. Another has lately been opened at Elizabethtown, and consists of upwards of twenty students in the languages, and is increasing. An academy, by the name of Burlington academy, has lately been established at Burlington, under the direction of seven trustees, and the instruction of two preceptors. The system of education adopted in this academy, is designed to prepare the scholars for the study of the more difficult classics, and the

<i>Accessus.</i>	<i>Presidents.</i>	<i>Exitus.</i>
1746	Rev. Jonathan Dickinson,	1747
1748	Rev. Aaron Burr,	1757
1758	Rev. Jonathan Edwards,	1758
1758	Rev. Samuel Davies,	1760
1761	Rev. Samuel Finley, D. D.	1766
1767	Rev. John Witherspoon, D. D.	1794

higher branches of science, in a college or university. At Newark, an academy was founded in June 1792; and promises to be a useful institution. Besides these, there are grammar schools at Springfield, Morristown, Bordenton and Amboy. There are no regular establishments for common schools in the state. The usual mode of education is, for the inhabitants of a village or neighbourhood to join in affording a temporary support for a schoolmaster, upon such terms as are mutually agreeable. But the encouragement which these occasional teachers meet with, is generally so indifferent, that hardly any person, of adequate abilities, will undertake the business; and, of course, little advantage is derived from these schools. It is therefore much to be regretted, that the legislature do not take up this subject, and adopt some such method of supporting public schools, as has been practised upon with visible good success, in some of the New-England states.

CHIEF TOWNS.] There are a number of towns in this state, nearly of equal size and importance, and none that has more than about two hundred houses compactly built. TRENTON is one of the largest towns in New-Jersey, and the capital of the state. It is situated on the north-east side of the river Delaware, opposite the falls, nearly in the centre of the state, from north to south, in lat. 40 15, and about 20 east of the meridian of Philadelphia. The river is not navigable above these falls, except for boats which will carry from five to seven hundred bushels of wheat. This town, with Lambertton, which joins it on the south, contains upwards of one hundred houses, and about two thousand inhabitants. Here the legislature meets, the supreme court sits, and most of the public offices are kept. The inhabitants have lately erected a handsome court-house one hundred feet by fifty, with a semi-hexagon at each end, over which is a ballustrade. In the neighbourhood of this pleasant town, are several gentlemen's seats, finely situated on the banks of the Delaware, and ornamented with taste and elegance. This town, being a thoroughfare between the eastern parts of the state and Philadelphia, has a considerable inland trade.

BURLINGTON (city) extends three miles along the Delaware, and one mile back, at right angles, into the county of Burlington, and is twenty miles above Philadelphia by water, and seventeen by land. The island, which is the most populous part of the city, is a mile and a quarter in length, and three quarters of a mile in breadth. It has four entrances over bridges and causeways, and a quantity of bank meadow adjoining. On the island are about one hundred and sixty houses, one thousand white and one hundred black inhabitants. But few of the negroes are slaves. The main streets are conveniently spacious, and mostly ornamented with trees in the fronts of the houses, which are regularly arranged. The Delaware, opposite the town, is about a mile wide, and, under shelter of Mittenicunk and Burlington islands, affords a safe and convenient harbour. It is commodiously situated for trade, but is too near Philadelphia, to admit of any considerable increase of foreign commerce. There are two houses for public worship in the town, one for the friends or quakers, who are the most numerous and one for episcopalians. The other public buildings are two market-houses, a court house, and the best jail in the state. Besides there is an academy, already mentioned, a free school, a nail-manufactory, and an excellent distillery.

The city was a free port under the state government. The mayor, recorder, and aldermen hold a commercial court, when the matter in controversy is between foreigners and foreigners, or between foreigners and citizens. The island of Burlington was laid out, and the first settlements made as early as 1677. In 1682, the island of Mittenicunk, or Free-School Island, was given for the use of the island of Burlington; the yearly profits arising from it (which amount to one hundred and eighty pounds) are appropriated for the education of poor children.

PERTH AMBOY (city) stands on a neck of land included between Raritan river and Arthur-Kull Sound. Its situation is high and healthy. It lies open to Sandy-Hook, and

has one of the best harbours on the continent. Vessels from sea may enter it in one tide, in almost any weather. Great efforts have been made, and legislative encouragements offered, to render it a place of trade, but without success. This town was early incorporated with city privileges, and continued to send two members to the general assembly until the revolution. Until this event, it was the capital of East Jersey, and the legislature and supreme court used to sit here and at Burlington alternately.

BRUNSWICK (city) was incorporated in 1784, and is situated on the southwest side of Raritan river. It contains about two hundred houses, and nearly two thousand inhabitants, nearly one-half of whom are Dutch. Its situation is low and unpleasant, being on the bank of a river, and under a high hill which rises back of the town. At the breaking up of the ice in winter, it frequently lodges on the shallow fording place, just opposite the town, and forms a temporary dam, which occasions the water to rise many feet above its usual height, and sometimes to overflow the lower floors of those houses which are not guarded against this inconvenience, by having their foundation elevated. The streets are raised and paved with stone. The water in the springs and wells is generally bad. The inhabitants are beginning to build on the hill above the town, which is very pleasant, and commands a pretty prospect. The citizens have a considerable inland trade, and several small vessels belonging to the port.

PRINCETON is a pleasant village of about eighty houses, fifty two miles from New-York and forty two miles from Philadelphia. Its public buildings are a large college edifice of stone, already described, and a presbyterian church built of brick. Its situation is remarkably healthy.

ELIZABETHTOWN (borough) is fifteen miles from New-York. Its situation is pleasant, and its soil equal in fertility to any in the state. In the compact part of the town, there are about one hundred and fifty houses. The public buildings are, a very handsome presbyterian brick church, lately built*, an episcopal church, also of brick, and an academy. This is one of the oldest towns in the state. It was purchased of the Indians as early as 1664, and was settled soon after, chiefly by emigrants from Long-Island.

NEWARK is seven miles from New-York. It is a handsome, flourishing town, about the size of Elizabethtown and has two presbyterian churches, one of which is of stone, and is the largest and most elegant building in the state. The other is unoccupied. Besides these there is an episcopal church, a court-house, and jail. This town is celebrated for the excellence of its cider, and is the seat of the largest shoe manufactory in the state. The average number made daily, throughout the year, is estimated at about two hundred pair.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This state contains four divisions, ten brigades, eighty battalions, three hundred and forty-nine companies of infantry, twenty-six of light-infantry, eleven of grenadiers, twenty-one troops of horse, and fourteen companies of artillery. The aggregate number enrolled, is twenty-five thousand seven hundred and eighty three; exempts, three thousand two hundred and ninety four. Total, twenty-nine thousand and seventy-seven.

PRACTICE OF PHYSIC.] There is a "Medical Society," in this state, consisting of about thirty of their most respectable physicians, who meet twice a year. No person is admitted to the practice of physic, without a licence from the supreme court, founded on a certificate from this society, or at least two of its members, testifying his skill and abilities. It is remarkable, that in the county of Cape-May, no regular

* Their former church which was very elegant, was burnt in 1780, by a refugee, who was a native and inhabitant of Elizabethtown.

physician has ever found support. Medicine has been administered by women, except in some extraordinary cases.

PRACTICE OF LAW.] No person is admitted to practice as an attorney, in any court, without a licence from the governor. This cannot be obtained, unless the candidate shall be above twenty one years of age, and shall have served a regular clerkship with some licenced attorney for four years, and have taken a degree in some public college, otherwise he must serve five years. He must also submit to an examination by three of the most eminent counsellors in the state, in the presence of the judges of the supreme court. After three years practice as an attorney, he becomes a candidate for a counsellor's licence, which is granted on a like examination.

CONSTITUTION.] The government of this state, agreeably to the constitution, is vested in a governor, legislative council, and general assembly. The governor is chosen annually, by the council and assembly jointly, and is styled, "Governor and commander in chief in and over the state of New-Jersey, and the territories thereunto belonging, chancellor and ordinary in the same." The legislative council is composed of one member from each county, chosen annually by the people. They must be worth one thousand pounds in real and personal estate, within the county, and have been freeholders, and inhabitants, of the counties they represent, for one year. The general assembly is composed of three members from each county, chosen as above; each of them must be worth five hundred pounds, of real and personal estate, within the country, and have been freeholders and inhabitants as above. Each of these, on taking his seat in the legislature, must swear, "that he will not assent to any law, vote, or proceeding, which shall appear to him injurious to the public welfare of the state, or that shall annul or repeal that part of the constitution which establishes annual elections, nor that part respecting trial by jury, nor that part which secures liberty of conscience."

The governor sits in, and presides over the legislative council; and has a casting vote in their debates. His privy, or executive council, is composed of any three members of the legislative council; and the governor, and any seven members of the council, are a court of appeals in the last resort, as to points of law in civil cases, and possess a power of pardoning criminals in all cases whatsoever. The council choose one of their members to be vice president, who, when the governor is absent from the state, possesses the supreme executive power. The council may originate any bills, except preparing and altering any money-bill, which is the sole prerogative of the assembly. In every other respect their powers are equal. Every bill is read three times in each house. None of the judges of the supreme court, or other courts, sheriffs, or any person possessed of any post of profit under the governor, except justices of the peace, is entitled to a seat in the assembly. The estate of a suicide is not forfeited for his offence.

COURTS OF JUSTICE, LAWS, &c.] The courts of justice in this state are, first, justice's courts. A competent number of persons are appointed in each county by the council and assembly, in joint meeting, who are called justices of the peace, and continue in office five years, who, besides being conservators of the peace, agreeably to the English laws, are authorized to hold courts for the trial of causes, under twelve pounds. From this court, persons aggrieved may appeal to the quarter sessions. Secondly, courts of quarter sessions of the peace, are held quarterly in every county, by at least three of the justices. These courts take cognizance of breaches of the peace, and are generally regulated by the rules of the English law.

Thirdly, courts of common pleas, which are held quarterly, by judges appointed for that purpose, in the same manner as the justices of the peace, and who are commonly of their number, and hold their commissions five years. This court may be held by a single judge, and has cognizance of demands to any amount, and is constructed on, and governed by, the principles of the English laws.

Fourthly, supreme courts, which are held four times in a year, at Trenton, by three judges appointed for that purpose, who hold their offices three years; but one judge only is necessary to the holding of this court. This court has cognizance of all actions, both civil and criminal, throughout the state, having the united authority of the courts of king's-bench, common pleas, and exchequer, in England. The courts of oyer and terminer, and *nisi prius*, commonly held once a year in each county, for the trial of causes arising in the county, and brought to issue in the supreme court, are properly branches of this court, and are held by one of the judges of it, except that in the courts of oyer and terminer, some of the gentlemen of the county are always added in the commission as assistants to the judge; but they cannot hold the court without him.

Fifthly, orphan's courts, lately established by act of assembly, are held by the judges of the court of common pleas, *ex officio*, and have cognizance of all matters relating to wills, administration, &c.

Sixthly, court of chancery, held by the governor *ex officio*, always open. It is a court of law and equity, founded on the same principles, and governed by the same rules, as the court of chancery in England.

Seventhly, high court of errors and appeals, composed of the governor, and seven of the council, and is a court of appeals in the last resort, in all cases of law.

All the English laws which had been practised upon in the state, and which are not repugnant to revolutionary principles, were adopted by the constitution, and very few alterations of consequence have since been made, except in the descent of the real estates, which, instead of descending to the eldest son, agreeably to the old feudal system, as formerly, are now divided (where there is no will) two shares to each son, and one share to each daughter; i. e. the sons have double the daughters' portions; but all the sons have equal portions and all the daughters.

HISTORY.] The first settlers of New Jersey, were a number of Dutch emigrants, who come over between the years 1614, and 1620, and settled in the county of Bergen. Next after these, in 1627, came over a colony of Swedes and Finns, and settled on the river Delaware. They afterwards purchased of the Indians, the land on both sides of New-Swedeland stream, (now called Delaware river) from Cape Henlopen to the falls; and, by presents to the Indian chiefs, obtained peaceable possession of it. The Dutch and Swedes, though not in harmony with each other, kept possession of the country many years. In 1683, the Dutch had a house devoted to religious worship at New-Castle; the Swedes, at the same time, had three, one on the island of Tenecum, one at Christiana, and one at Wicoco. The descendants of these first settlers are now in Gloucester county in this state, and in Philadelphia.

In March, 1634, Charles II. granted all the territory, called by the Dutch New Netherlands, to his brother the duke of York, and in June, 1654, the duke granted that part now called New-Jersey, to lord Berkley, of Stratton, and sir George Carteret, jointly; who, in 1665, agreed upon certain concessions with the people for the government of the province, and appointed Philip Carteret, esq. their governor. He purchased considerable tracts of land from the Indians, for small considerations, and the settlements increased.

The Dutch reduced the country in 1672 or 1673; but it was restored by the peace of Westminster, February 9th, 1674.

In consequence of the conquest made by the Dutch, and to obviate any objections that might be made on account of it against the former grant, a new patent was issued, in 1674, to the duke of York, for the same country. He appointed Andros his lieutenant, who entered on his charge the November following. In July of this year, New-Jersey was divided, and West-Jersey was granted, by the duke of York, to the assigns of lord Berkley; and East-Jersey to sir G. Carteret. The division-line was to

run from the south-east point of Little Egg-Harbour, on Barnegate Creek, being about the middle between Cape-May and Sandy-Hook, to a creek, a little below An-cocus Creek, on Delaware river, thence about thirty-five miles, straight course, along Delaware river up to $41^{\circ} 40'$ north latitude. This line has never been settled, but has ever since continued to be a subject of contention: Carteret, who had been expelled, with outrage, in 1672, once more returned to East-Jersey, early in 1675, and was now kindly received by the inhabitants because they had felt the rigours of conquest, which had not been softened by Andros.

In 1675, West-Jersey, which had been granted to lord Berkley, was sold to John Fenwick, in trust for Edward Bylinge. Fenwick came over with a colony, and settled at Salem. These were the first English settlers in West-Jersey. In 1676, the interests of Bylinge in West-Jersey was assigned to William Penn, Gavin Laurie, and Nicholas Lucas, as trustees, for the use of his creditors. Mutual quit claims were executed between sir George Carteret and the trustees of Bylinge. This partition was confirmed in 1719, by an act of the general assembly of the Jerseys.

In 1678, the duke of York made a new grant of West-Jersey to the assigns of lord Berkley.

Agreeably to sir George Carteret's will, dated December 5, 1678, East-Jersey was sold, in 1682, to twelve proprietors, who, by twelve separate deeds, conveyed one-half of their interests to twelve other persons, separately, in fee simple. This grant was confirmed to these twenty-four proprietors, by the duke of York, the same year. These twenty-four shares, by sales of small parts of them, and by these small parts being again divided among children of successive families, became at last subdivided in such a manner as that some of the proprietors had only one 40th part of a 48th part of a 24th share. West Jersey was in the same condition. This created much confusion in the management of the general proprietors, particularly in regard to appointing governors. These inconveniences, aided by other causes of complaint, which had been increasing for several years, and were fast advancing to a dangerous crisis, disposed the proprietors to surrender the government to the crown; which was accordingly done, and accepted by queen Anne, on the 17th of April, 1702. Till this time, the government of New-Jersey was proprietary: it now became royal, and so continued till the memorable fourth of July, 1776.

This state was the seat of war for several years, during the bloody contests between Britain and America. Her losses, both of men and property, in proportion to her population and wealth, were greater than those of any other of the thirteen states. When general Washington was retreating through the Jerseys, almost forsaken by all others, her militia were at all times obedient to his orders; and for a considerable length of time, composed the strength of his army. There is hardly a town in the state that lay in the progress of the British army, which was not rendered signal by some enterprise or exploit. At Trenton the enemy received a check which may be said, with justice, to have turned the tide of the war. At Princeton, the seat of the muses, they received another, which, united, obliged them to retire with precipitation, and to take refuge in disgraceful winter quarters. The many military achievements, performed by the Jersey soldiers, give this state one of the first ranks among her sisters in a military view, and entitle her to a share of praise that bears no proportion to her size, in the accomplishment of the late glorious revolution.

P E N N S Y L V A N I A

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Sq. Miles.
 Length 288 between $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0^{\circ} 20' \text{ E. and } 50' \text{ W. longitude.} \\ 39^{\circ} 43' \text{ and } 42^{\circ} \text{ N. latitude.} \end{array} \right\}$ 44,900
 Breadth 156

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED, east, by Delaware river, which divides it from New-Jersey; north, by New-York and Lake Erie; northwest, by a part of said lake; west, by the Western Territory, and a part of Virginia; south, by a part of Virginia, Maryland, and Delaware.

The northwestern corner, containing about two hundred thousand acres, was lately purchased of congress by this state. Its triangular projection breaks the rectangular form of the state.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] Pennsylvania is divided into twenty-two counties; which, with their county towns, situation, mines, &c. are mentioned in the following table.

Counties.	No. Inhab	Chief Towns.	Situations.	Settled.	Mines &c.
Philadelphia	54397	Philadelphia	On Delaware river	All	
Chester	27937	West Chester	On Delaware river	All	Iron ore.
Delaware	9483	Chester	On Delaware river	All	
Bucks	25401	Newtown	On Delaware river	All	Iron ore and lead
Montgomery	22929	Norristown	On Schuylkill river	All	Iron ore.
Lancaster	36147	Lancaster	On Susquehannah river	All	Iron ore & copper.
Dauphin	18177	Harrisburg	On Susquehannah river	3-4	Iron ore.
Berks	30179	Reading	On Schuylkill river	3-4	Ir. ore, coalmi. &c.
Northampton	24250	Easton	On Delaware river	3-4	Iron ore.
Luzerne	4904	Wilksburg	On Susquehannah river	3-4	Ir. ore, coalmi. &c.
York	37747	York	On Susquehannah river	3-4	Iron ore.
Cumberland	18243	Carlisle	On Susquehannah river	3-4	Ir. ore, lead mine.
Northumberland	17161	Sunbury	On W. branch Susqueh.	* 1-10	Ir. ore, salt spring.
Franklin	15655	Chambersburg	On Susquehannah river	3-4	Iron ore.
Bedford	13124	Bedford	On Juniata river	1-2	Iron mines, &c.
Huntingdon	7565	Huntingdon	On Juniata river	1-4	Coal & lead mines
Mifflin	7562	Lewisburg	On Juniata river	1-4	Iron ore.
Westmoreland	16018	Greensburg	On Allegany river	1-4	Coal mines.
Fayette	13325	Union	On Monongahela river	1-2	Coal & iron mines.
Washington	23866	Washington	S. W. corner of the state	1-4	Coal & iron mines
Allegany	10309	Pittsburg	On Allegany river	1-4	Coal & iron mines
Total	434373				

RIVERS, CANALS, &c.] There are six considerable rivers, which, with their numerous branches, peninsula the whole state, viz. the Delaware, Schuylkill, Susquehannah, Youghiogeny, Monongahela, and Allegany. The bay and river Delaware are navigable from the sea up to the Great, or Lower Falls, at Trenton, one hundred and fifty-five miles; and are accommodated with a light-house, on Cape Henlopen, and with

* A very large proportion of the vacant lands in the state are in this county (Northumberland) to the amount of about eight millions of acres.

buoys and piers for the accomodation and safety of ships. The distance of Philadelphia from the sea, is about sixty miles across the land, in a S. W. course, to the New-Jersey coast, and one hundred and twenty miles by the ship channel of the Delaware. So far it is navigable for a seventy four gun ship: Sloops go thirty five miles farther, to Trenton falls. The river is navigable for boats that carry eight or nine tons, an hundred miles further, and for Indian canoes, except several small falls or portages, one hundred and fifty miles. At Easton, it receives the Lehigh from the west, which is navigable thirty miles. The tide sets up as high as Trenton falls, and at Philadelphia rises generally about five or six feet. A northeast and east wind raise it higher.

Between Cape Henlopen and Cape May, is the entrance into Delaware bay. The entrance into the river is twenty miles further up, at Bombay Hook, where the river is four or five miles wide. From Bombay Hook to Reedy island is twenty miles. This island is the rendezvous of outward-bound ships in autumn and spring, waiting for a favourable wind. The course from this to the sea is S. S. E. so that a N. W. wind, which is the prevailing one in these seasons, is fair for vessels to put to sea. This river is generally frozen one or two months in the year at Philadelphia, so as to prevent navigation; but vessels may, at all times, make a secure harbour at Port Penn, at Reedy Island, where piers have been erected by the state. Vessels are generally from twelve to twenty four hours in ascending this beautiful river to Philadelphia; the navigation is safe, and, in the milder seasons, exceedingly pleasant.

From Chester to Philadelphia, twenty miles by water, and fifteen by land, the channel of the river is narrowed by islands of marsh, which are generally banked and turned into very valuable meadows.

Billingsport, twelve miles below Philadelphia, on the Jersey shore, was fortified in the late war for the defence of the channel. Opposite this fort, several large frames of timber, headed with iron spikes, called chevaux-de-frizes, were sunk, to prevent the British ships from passing. Since the peace, a curious machine has been employed to raise them.

The Schuylkill rises north west of the Kittatiny mountains, through which it passes into a fertile country, and runs, from its source, upwards of one hundred and twenty miles, in a south-east direction, and passing through the limits of the city of Philadelphia, falls into the Delaware, opposite Mud Island, six or seven miles below the city. It will be navigable from above Reading, eighty five or ninety miles to its mouth, when the canal, begun at Norristown, is completed. This will pass by the falls, and also form a communication with the Delaware, above the city. There are four floating bridges across the Schuylkill, made of logs, fastened together, and lying upon the water, in the vicinity of Philadelphia.

The north-east branch of Susquehannah river rises in lakes Otego, and Otego, in the state of New York, and runs in such a winding course, as to cross the boundary line between New York and Pennsylvania three times. It receives Tyoga river, one of its principal branches, in lat. $41^{\circ} 57'$, three miles south of the boundary line. The Susquehannah branch is navigable for batteaux to its source, whence, to Mohawk river is but twenty miles. The Tyoga branch is navigable fifty miles, for batteaux; and its source is but a few miles from the Chenessee, which empties into lake Ontario. From Tyoga point, the river proceeds south-east to Wyoming, without any obstruction by falls, and then south east, over Wyoming falls, till at Sunbury, in about latitude 41° , it meets the west branch of Susquehannah, which is navigable ninety miles from its mouth: some of the branches of it are navigable fifty miles, and approach very near some of the boatable branches of the Allegany river. This noble river is passable to Middletown, (below Harris's ferry) with boats, carrying several hundred bushels, and with rafts of boards, &c. from the state of New York, as well

as down the Tyoga, and Juniata branches, several hundred miles in their different windings; but it is attended with difficulty and danger from the numerous falls below Middletown. About fifteen miles above Harrisburg, it receives the Juniata, from the northwest, proceeding from the Allegany mountains, and flowing through a mountainous, broken, yet fertile country. The river is navigable, one hundred and twenty miles from its mouth.

The Swetara, which falls into the Susquehannah from the north east, is navigable fifteen miles. About half a mile from the mouth of this river, and a mile from Middletown, is a grist mill; which merits particular notice. It is a very large and handsome stone building, has four pair of stones, and is perhaps, in every respect, one of the most complete in the state. But the most remarkable circumstance relative to it, is the race, which is a canal from twenty to thirty feet wide, and carried with such a degree of boldness, to a length of four hundred and seventy-six rods or perches, through rocks and hills, and every obstacle in its course, as cannot fail to excite a very high idea of the enterprising and preserving industry of Mr. George Frey, the undertaker and owner.

From Swetara to the Tulpehoden branch of Schuylkill, a canal and lock navigation is undertaken, and the works commenced, by an incorporated company, whose capital is four hundred thousand dollars. This leads through the Schuylkill to Philadelphia. When this shall be effected, a passage will be opened to this city from the Juniata, the Tyoga, and the east and west branches of the Susquehannah, which water at least fifteen millions of acres. From this junction, the general course of the Susquehannah is about southeast, until it falls into the head of the Chesapeak bay at Havre-de-Grace. It is above a mile wide at its mouth, and is navigable for sea-vessels; but about five miles, on account of its rapids. The banks of this river are very romantic, particularly where it passes through the mountains. This passage has every appearance of having been forced through by the pressure of the water, or burst open by some convulsion of nature.

The several branches of the Youghiogeny river rise on the west side of the Allegany mountains. After running a short distance, they unite and form a large, beautiful river, which, in passing some of the most western ridges of the mountains, precipitates itself over a level ledge of rocks, lying nearly at right angles of the course of the river. These falls, called the Ohiopyle falls, are about twenty feet in perpendicular height, and the river is perhaps eighty yards wide. For a considerable distance below the falls, the water is very rapid, and boils and foams vehemently, occasioning a continual mist to rise from it, even at noon day, and in fair weather. The river at this place runs to the southwest, but presently winds round to the northwest, and continuing this course for thirty or forty miles, it loses its name by uniting with the Monongahelas which comes from the southward, and contains, perhaps twice as much water. These united streams, shortly after their junction, mingle with the waters of the Allegany at Pittsburgh, and together form the grand river, Ohio.

There is said to be a practicable communication between the southern branch of the Tyoga and a branch of the Allegany, the head waters of which, are but a short distance from each other. The Seneca Indians say they can walk four times in a day, from the boatable waters of the Allegany, to those of the Tyoga, at a place now mentioned. And between the Susquehannah, just before it crosses into Pennsylvania the first time, and the Delaware, is a portage of only twelve miles. Rafts of timber, plank, boards and staves, with other articles upon them, can be brought, down the Delaware from the counties of Montgomery and Otsego in New York, two hundred miles above the city, by the course of the river. Some money was expended by the government and landholders in improving the navigation up towards the source, before the revolution, and there has been a survey since made, for the purpose of

proceeding in the improvement of this and other principal rivers of Pennsylvania, and for making communications by canals in the improved part, and by roads in the unimproved part of the state. Great progress has already been made in these improvements, and the exertions for their completion are still continued. On the completion of the present plans, the state will be as conveniently intersected by roads as any other of its size in the union, which will greatly facilitate the settlement of its new lands. A slight view of the map of Pennsylvania will show how well this state is watered by the Delaware and its branches, the Schuylkill, the Juniata, the Susquehannah, and its branches; the Ohio, Allegany, Youghiogeny, and Monongahela. The Potomack and Lake Erie also afford prospects of considerable benefit from their navigation. The state has resolved to found a town at Presqu' Isle; the execution is delayed only by the present dispute with the Indians, in that quarter. Nature has done so much for Pennsylvania in regard to inland water-carriage, that although Philadelphia and Lake Erie are distant from each other above three hundred miles, the rivers may be so improved, as to reduce the land-carriage between them nine-tenths; and, in the same way, the navigation to Pittsburg, after due improvement, may be used instead of the land-carriage for the whole distance, except twenty-three miles. By these routes a large proportion of the foreign articles, used on the western waters, will be transported, and their furs, skins, ginseng, hemp, flax, pot-ash, and other valuable commodities brought to Philadelphia. The hemp and oak-timber, for the Russian navy, is transported by inland navigation, twelve hundred miles; and yet hemp is shipped from that kingdom on lower terms than from any other part of the known world. Russia, long since the settlement of Pennsylvania, was in a state of barbarism. Much, therefore, is to be expected from the continued exertions of the prudent, industrious, and sensible inhabitants of Pennsylvania, in the course of the present century.

One remark must not be omitted here, that in all the back-country waters of this state, even in those high up in the mountains, marine petrefactions are found in great abundance.

SWAMPS.] The only swamps worth notice, are the Great Swamp, between Northampton and Luzerne counties, and Buffaloe Swamp, in the northwestern parts of Northumberland county, near the head waters of the west branch of the Susquehannah. These swamps, on examination and survey, are found to be bodies of farmland, thickly covered with beach and sugar maple.

MOUNTAINS, FACE OF THE COUNTRY, } A considerable proportion of this state
SOIL AND NATURAL PRODUCTS. } may be called mountainous; particularly the counties of Bedford, Huntingdon, Cumberland, part of Franklin, Dauphin, and part of Bucks and Northampton, through which pass, under various names, the numerous ridges and spurs, which collectively form what we choose to call, for the sake of clearness, *the great range of Allegany Mountains*. The principal ridges in this range, in Pennsylvania, are the Kittatinny, or Blue-mountains, which pass north of Nazareth in Northampton county, and pursue a south-west course, across the Lehigh, through Dauphin county, just above Harrisburg, thence on the west side of the Susquehannah through Cumberland and Franklin counties. Back of these, and nearly parallel with them, are Peters, Tuscarora, and Nescopek mountains, on the east of the Susquehannah; and on the west, Shareman's hills, Sideling hills, Ragged, Great Warriors, Evits and Wills' mountains; then the great Allegany ridge, which being the largest, gives its name to the whole range, west of this are the Chestnut ridges. Between the Juniata and the west branch of the Susquehannah, are Jacks, Tussys, Nitiny and Bald-Eagle mountains. The vales between these mountains are generally of a rich, black soil, suited to the various kinds of grain and grass. Some of the mountains will admit of cultivation almost to their tops. The other parts of the state are generally level, or agreeably variegated with hills and vallies.

The soil of Pennsylvania is of various kinds ; in some parts it is barren ; a great proportion of the state is good land, and no inconsiderable part is excellent. Perhaps the proportion of first-rate land is not greater in any of the thirteen states. The richest part of the state, settled, is Lancaster county, and the valley through Cumberland, York, and Franklin. The richest, unsettled, is between Alleghany river and Lake Erie, in the northwest corner of the state, and in the country on the heads of the eastern branches of the Alleghany.

In general, the soil is more fit for grain than for grass. The turf of unimproved grounds is not equal to that in the northern states. But the borders of streams and rivulets are good meadow grounds. These abound throughout the state. They have also a great number of falls, suitable for every kind of mill works, and labour-saving machines : a great advantage to a country with plenty of raw materials for manufactures, but under a comparative scarcity of hands.

Pennsylvania includes the greater part of the kinds of trees, shrubs, and plants, that grow within the united states, as it has a central situation and considerable extent, with hills and vallies. Oaks, of several species, form the bulk of the woods. Hickory and walnut make a greater proportion than in the northern states. Sassafras, mulberry and tulip trees *, are frequent and grow to perfection. The *magnolia glauca* occurs in low grounds ; and the *acuminata* grows very tall about the western mountains. Grapes of several sorts are common : the late, when mellowed by frost, make, with the addition of sugar, good wine. The white pine (*pinus strobus*) and white cedar (*cedrus thyoides*) grow well in some parts. Red cedars, of tolerable size, are not rare on high grounds. Elms, and lindes are not here so stately as further north. The sugar maple is plenty in the west and northern parts of the state, and yields a considerable supply of sugar for the use of the inhabitants.

Iron ore is distributed in considerable quantity through the state : copper, lead, and allum, appear in some places. Lime-stone quarries occur in many parts. Several kinds of marble are also found : as light, speckled, bluish, and river-coloured (which is as yet rare.) They are used for chimney-pieces, tables, steps in buildings, and tomb stones. Mill-stones, of a coarse grain, are hewn in Bucks county. In the middle and western country is abundance of coal. In the vicinity of Wyoming, on the Susquehannah, is a bed of the open, burning kind, which gives very intense heat. On the head waters of Schuylkill and Lehigh are some considerable bodies. At the head of the western branch of Susquehannah is an extensive bed, which stretches over the country south-westwardly so as to be found in the greatest plenty about Pittsburg.

Wild turkeys, which formerly abounded, are now scarcely ever seen in the old settlements ; but in the new there are large flocks. Partridges are yet pretty numerous, though the late hard winters have destroyed many. Pheasants are become dear. Grouse are found only in some districts. Great numbers of pigeons come from the north in the cold seasons. In spring and autumn, several kinds of ducks, and some wild geese are got on the rivers †.

Trouts are common in the rivulets ; in size, seldom above a foot. In the eastern rivers, the principal fish are rock and sheep's-head, with shad and herring, which, in the spring, come up from the sea in great shoals. These are not found in the western waters, which are said to have their own valuable kinds, especially a species of catfish, weighing from fifty to one hundred pounds. Yellow perch and pike are also in them much larger and more numerous.

Useful quadrupeds, in the new districts, are, deer, in great numbers, beavers, ot-

* Liriodendron.

† Pennsylvania has a superior number of singing birds, as many migrate to it north and south, in certain seasons.

ters, racoons, martins. Buffaloes rarely cross the Ohio. Elks but seldom advance from the north. Panthers, wildcats, bears, foxes, wolves, are not rare: the last do most mischief; especially in winter, but the fur of all is valuable. In the thick settlements, rabbits and squirrels are frequent; also minks and musk-rats in marshes: oppossums and groundhogs are rare.

The south side of Pennsylvania is the best settled land throughout, owing entirely to the circumstance of the western road having been run by the armies, prior to 1762, through the towns of Lancaster, Carlisle, and Bedford, and thence to Pittsburg. For the purpose of turning the tide of settlers from this old channel into the unsettled parts of the state, the government and landed interest of Pennsylvania have been, and are still, busy in cutting convenient roads. During the summer of 1788 they run a road north, from the former roads beyond Bethlehem, to the north portage between Delaware and Susquehannah; and thence north, eighty degrees west, to the mouth of the Tyoga, the first seventy miles, and the last above sixty. It is now in contemplation to cut a road from Sunbury, at the forks of the east and west branches of Susquehannah, west, one hundred and fifty miles, to the mouth of Toby's creek, which empties into the Allegany river from the east. A road is also cut from the mouth of the Tyoga, southward, to the mouth of Loyal, which empties into the west branch of Susquehannah. Another road is cut from Huntingdon town, on Franks town branch of the Juniata, westward thirty miles, to Conemagh, a navigable branch of the Allegany.

The populous parts of the state can, at present, bear the expense of turnpike-roads. One from Philadelphia to Lancaster is now forming: and others are in contemplation.

The sales of public lands have, unfortunately, been too quick and irregular. Confusion in grants, and enormous land jobbing have been the consequence. The legislature has lately prohibited further sales, until it is known what land remains. Happily sixty thousand acres have been reserved for public schools.

AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, } Wheat is the principal grain of very general
AND COMMERCE. } cultivation. The Hessian fly has, in this state,
as well as much further north and south, caused great damage to it for several years past; Indian corn is the next in value, and attains full maturity, except in the mountainous tracts, where the early September frosts are more common and severe. Buckwheat is frequently somewhat injured by these and by the preceding heats in August; but yields, nevertheless, a considerable crop throughout the country. Rye has, of late years, been more cultivated, and a great proportion of it is, in the western parts, distilled into whisky. Crops of barley will increase with the progressive use of beer. Oats are raised sufficient for demand. Spelts are cultivated by the Germans, chiefly as horse-feed. Potatoes are plenty. Turnips, cabbage, parsnips, carrots, and the small, oval pea, are common: the Bermudian potatoe thrives in a loose mould.

The culture of meadows is a considerable object: the marshes on rivers are banked, drained, tusked, ploughed, and harrowed; then sown with timothy and clover: the last grass is also, in many places, a rotation crop, on suitable upland: trials of lucerne, saintfoin, and such artificial grasses, are yet rare. The summer is long enough for two mowings and even three in rich grounds; but in dry seasons, the last yield little.

On farms that have springs or streams, dairies are built over them so as to place the milk vessels in the water: without such convenience, the heat is prejudicial.

Unimproved woodlands are suitable for the rearing of cattle. Grazing is most profitable on extensive lowlands.

Horses are raised beyond the proper use; for oxen might be substituted more generally; and the former are liable, as in other parts, to the fatal distempers of botts and

swellings in the throat. The best for teams are bred in Lancaster county, and elegant saddle and carriage horses have more or less of the blood of stallions imported from England.

The number of sheep is already considerable in the improved country, and increases. Hogs exceed home-consumption: the woods of oak and beech afford a great part of their food. Mules and asses are yet very rare.

Poultry abounds: turkeys are in this (and generally through the states) very cheap, comparatively to the prices in Europe.

Flax has a portion of ground on most farms. The culture of hemp is increasing in the fertile inland counties. Hop yards are yet inconsiderable. Bees receive pretty good attention.

In the old settlements, all kinds of north European fruits are common: tho' choice of varieties and attentive cultivation are rare. Late frosts in the spring often cause great damage, but the warm autumn ripens the latest sorts. These are also better than the early kinds, which are liable to flatness and specks, especially when the season is hot, and wet. Catterpillars and worms, likewise, damage the orchards. Peach-trees were forty years ago large and lasting; but have gradually depreciated, and of late, decay very soon. Plumbs are infested by a fly, whose sting makes them shrivel and fall unripe. In favourable seasons, cherries, apples and cider, abound. Recent attempts at vineyards, within eleven miles of Philadelphia, are promising: espaliers of European grapes in gardens have long ago been introduced. The Italian mulberry-tree thrives well: but, as yet, silk-worms are merely a curiosity.

Improved farms and roomy lots in the country-towns have gardens, in which common vegetables, small fruits, and some flowers are cultivated. Ornamental planting and gardening is yet admired by few, but still progressive.

The general stile of architecture in this state is neat and solid. Stone buildings are most common in the old settlements; log and frame-houses in the new; the latter are naturally of the rough kind, usual in infant improvements. Towns have a considerable proportion of brick-houses; in Philadelphia, they make four fifths. Shingles cover the roofs; those of white cedar are preferred when they can be obtained.

White oak, chestnut, and cedar make the best wood fences. Stones are not often employed in fencing, even where they abound, and where wool is valuable.

Necessary tradesmen and mechanics, to wit, shoemakers, tailors, weavers, carpenters, joiners, masons, coopers, smiths, cartwrights, tanners, and saddlers are settled on small farms or lots throughout the improved country: several are also found together in villages; but this mode is more customary in the thickly peopled parts, which cannot support many of a sort. Manufacturers, for whom there is less comparative demand, dwell chiefly in the towns, as cabinet makers, whitesmiths, tanners, potters, hatters, dyers, rope makers, nailors, clock and watch makers, silver smiths, brewers, distillers, &c.

In the midland counties, many valuable manufactures have resulted from a flourishing agriculture, and immediately from their birth, have promoted the prosperity of the cultivators. Lancaster, which is the largest inland town in the united states, is sixty-six miles from a seaport, and ten from any practised boat-navigation. The number of families was, in 1786, about seven hundred; of whom two hundred and thirty four were manufacturers: among them fourteen hatters, seventeen saddlers, twenty five weavers of woolen, linen, and cotton cloth, three brewers, three copper smiths, two printers, in English and German, six clock and watch-makers, five silver-smiths. There were also, in 1786, within thirty-nine miles of the town, seventeen furnaces, forges, rolling and sitting-mills; and within ten miles of it, eighteen grain-mills, sixteen saw-mills, one fulling-mill, four oil mills, five hemp-mills, two boring and grinding mills for gun-barrels, and eight tanneries.

The product of domestic female industry is considerable. The wives and daughters of even opulent farmers knit and spin. In the towns some ladies do the same.

Woollen stockings are made sufficient for use: a large quantity of excellent quality, are wove by the Germans, especially in Germantown.

Hemp is also used, in several places, for coarse wearing apparel, bags, feins and nets, &c. A great quantity is manufactured into cordage, cables, and ropes; but of these, a large portion is imported.

Iron-works are of long standing, and their products increase in quantity, and improve in quality. The furnaces are sixteen, and the forges thirty-seven. The slitting and rolling mills are said to cut and roll fifteen hundred tons per annum. Among the fabricated articles are great numbers of stoves, both open and close, the use of which constantly increases; tongs, shovels, andirons; pots, kettles, ovens, pans, ladles; plough irons, spades, hoes, sheet iron, hoops; iron and steel work for pleasure and working carriages: nails, bolts, spikes; various pieces for ships, mills, and buildings; cannon, ball, and some musquets; scythes, sickles, axes, drawing knives, some saws and planes, with other tools.

Manufactures of leather, skins, and fur, are very extensive and good. Shoes and boots, saddles and bridles, housings, holsters, saddle-bags, portmanteaus, whips, harness and leather materials for carriages, are made, not only for home-use, but for exportation. Deerskin-breeches, drawers and men's gloves, answer full demand—Trunks covered with seal, deer and other skins; with slings, belts, cartouch-boxes, and scabbards, are, of late, considerable articles. Hatting is a business long established, though at present under some difficulty, from a scarcity of the fine northern fur: three hundred hatters, distributed over the state, make annually above fifty four thousand fur, and one hundred and sixty-one thousand wool hats. Muffs, tippetts, linings, &c. are of increasing demand.

The most respectable trades employed on materials of wood, are cabinet-making, house carpentry, coach making, and ship building. Tables, chairs, sofas, bureaux, and all sorts of household furniture, are made to any demand, neat and elegant: Walnut, maple, and wild cherry wood are the best native materials: Mahogany is imported, and generally used by the wealthier people, especially in towns. Commodious and very elegant chariots, phaetons, chaises, and sulkeys, are constructed for domestic and foreign use; particularly in Philadelphia, and the adjacent boroughs. The inward carpentry-work, on private and public buildings, is, in general, well-finished, and superior to the plan itself. The port of Philadelphia is among the first in the world for naval architecture. Masts, spars, timber, and plank from all the country up and down the Delaware, are constantly for sale in its market. The mulberry of the Chesapeak, and the live-oak and red-cedar of the Carolinas and Georgia, are so abundant, that seven-eighths of the vessels are built of them. These are of a superior quality, and come cheaper than the best oak-ships in European ports. A live-oak and cedar ship of two hundred tons, carpenter's measurement, can be fitted to take in a cargo for less than fifty Spanish dollars per ton. The return of new vessels built in Philadelphia during 1793, was eight thousand one hundred and forty-five tons. About twenty years ago the annual average was only two thousand three hundred. The pleasing form of the vessels is also generally admired.

Paper of most kinds, form a beneficial branch. The mills are above fifty, and their annual product is computed at twenty-five thousand dollars. Writing and printing paper, of various qualities, except the largest and most costly, sheathing and wrapping-paper, paste, cards, and some paper-hangings, are fabricated.

Gunpowder is become a great article: twenty-five mills have been erected since the year 1770.

Manufactories in stone, clay, and fossils, are bricks, and the abovementioned pieces

in marble, both sufficient for demand; common earthen ware, grind-stones, mill-stones of an inferior sort. French burrs must be imported for good grain-mills. Glass works are only in contemplation. Pot and pearl-ashes make a good progress. Our limits permit only a short account of the trades employed in foreign materials. Tin-ware is well executed for various domestic utensils, canteens, &c. Copper is manufactured into utensils for distillers, brewers, sugar refiners, and other manufactures, some domestic uses, articles in ships, &c. Brass is wrought for the furniture of houses and carriages, cabin stoves, technical instruments, &c. Lead is worked into ball and shot, sheets, and door and window-weights, &c. Pewter suits for distillers, worms, plates, basons, &c. Silver-plate, in spoons and tea table articles, is very common, also buckles and other small articles. Gold and ornamental toys are of small account. Watches are mostly imported; those fabricated here, are constructed in part from foreign materials. Much cotton is worked up in families: the Philadelphia cotton factory was burnt four years ago; but new ones are designed. Linens imported are now printed, and in increasing degree. Sugar refineries and distilleries of molasses, and various preparations of tobacco, employ many hands.

The manufactures of Pennsylvania have greatly increased within a few years, as well by master-workmen and journeymen from abroad, as by the skill and industry of the natives. Some persons have begun to press oil from hickory-nuts. The Messrs. Marshal, of Philadelphia, have commenced the making of Glauber's salt, sal ammoniac, and volatile salts; they already supply the whole union with the first article, and export a part of the others. A mill of Rumfay's (the improvement of Barker's) near this city, grinds by water, flour, chocolate, snuff, hair-powder, and mustard, shells chocolate nuts; presses and cuts tobacco for chewing and smoking; and bolts meal. The water-works, near the falls of Trenton, which grind grain, roll and slit iron, and pound plaster of Paris, exhibit great mechanism. Card manufactories are lately set up. The hand machines for carding and spinning cotton have been introduced and improved. Sir Richard Arkwright's famous water-mill for spinning cotton yarn has been obtained: also the machinery to sleyer, rove, and spin flax and hemp into thread, fit for linen of thirty cuts to the pound; which will also serve for the roving and spinning combed wool into worsted yarn. Screws for paper mills are now cut from solid cast-iron. Lanterns for light-houses are made by Mr. Wheeler of Philadelphia; who also executes work for sugar-mills in the West-Indies: during the war he made cannon from wrought-iron.

The commerce of Pennsylvania with the eastern and southern states is, in great part, an exchange of staple commodities. Wheat, flour, and bar-iron, are exported to New-England for whale-oil and bone, spermaceti, seal-skins, mackerel, codfish and salmon, Rhode-Island and Connecticut cheese; to South-Carolina and Georgia for live oak, cedar, cotton, rice, and indigo; to North-Carolina for tar, pitch, turpentine, and lumber. Much of the trade with the southern states arises from the superiority of Pennsylvania in manufactures and commerce. Great quantities of deer skins, with those of otters, racoons, foxes, muskrats, beavers, are imported from the back regions: Virginia sends a great deal of wheat, and unmanufactured tobacco. In return, she receives many articles of clothing, furniture, farming utensils, equipage; some East-India and European goods; and even West India produce; of all these, more or less, according to the local improvement and situation. Hats, saddlery, shoes, windfor-chairs, carriages, hewn stone, iron castings for domestic use, wheel-tire, spades, hoes, axes, paper, books, tin-ware, brushes, constitute a great proportion of the exports to the southward.

Numerous droves of lean cattle come from the western parts of these states, where they have a wide range, but want meadow. Virginia sends of late a considerable deal of coal, some lead, and peach brandy. This liquor also comes from Maryland:

but from both in quantity very small for its native value, and the facility of raising the fruit. The eastern shore of Maryland sends to Philadelphia considerable quantities of wheat, and Indian corn: from the western comes the kitefoot tobacco. This state has also some trade with the south of Pennsylvania by the way of Chesapeake-bay: some parts of it receive the same commodities as Virginia, especially pleasure carriages.

The trade with New-York depends chiefly on the fluctuation of the market: American and foreign goods, of the same kinds are carried between the two capital cities, as their prices fall and rise. Albany peas, and craw-fish, are, however, articles in regular demand from New-York. Great part of New-Jersey and Delaware state have, as neighbours, much intercourse with Pennsylvania. The first supports, in a great measure, the market of Philadelphia, furnishes rye-meal, much Indian corn and lumber; and some iron bloomery: the other sends great quantities of excellent flour from the mills of Brandywine, lumber from the district on the bay, and fat cattle from the pastures adjoining Delaware. Many of these, and of those fattened in the vicinity of Philadelphia, are brought from the south; and also from the countries on the North and Connecticut rivers, as far as Vermont and Massachusetts.

The commerce of Pennsylvania, in the west, is by the Ohio with the Spanish—and by the lakes with the British dominions: and both ways with the Indian tribes. This trade will be considerable when commercial stipulations shall be formed with those powers, and peace concluded with the Indians. At present nearly the whole foreign commerce is carried on by the port of Philadelphia. Its distance from the sea, and its closing by ice in the winter, are disadvantages; but the first is lessened by improved pilotage; the other by the construction of the piers below, by the occasional thaws which permit vessels to clear their way during the winter. In common seasons the navigation is obstructed six weeks: a shorter period as probably as a longer; though in the late hard winters, loads of wood have passed the river, near the city, in the first days of March.

Philadelphia is, in a commercial view the capital of all the country around Delaware. It is also by its resources, by the peculiar improvements of Pennsylvania, and by its central situation an emporium of the united states. Its market is, therefore, at all times, stocked with American, European, and, of late, East-India products. This accounts for the great amount of exports from Philadelphia, which, at present, are one-fourth of the total exports of the united states. The aggregate annual value of all the commodities shipped to foreign countries during the two years of 1792 and 1793, were, in the former, three millions, eight hundred and twenty thousand six hundred and forty-six, and, in the latter, six millions, nine hundred and fifty-eight thousand seven hundred and thirty-six dollars: The aggregate annual value of exports, during one half of a year ending on the 31st of March 1794, was three million five hundred and thirty-three thousand three hundred and ninety-seven dollars. The malady that swept off above four thousand of the people in the city and suburbs during the autumn of 1793, and the embargo in the following spring, interrupted the commerce for nearly five months.

The existing war has occasioned some extraordinary articles in the exportation of late: coffee has been carried to Philadelphia, and from thence to Hamburgh, as neutral ports. On the other hand, the quantity of flour, though great, will be much increased, if the Hessian fly ceases to ravage the wheat fields.

On importation, remark that it is very great, both for the consumption of Pennsylvania, and of the districts supplied from Philadelphia: that common and fine imported linens and woollens are used to a great amount, notwithstanding the quantity

of home made; that much Swedish iron, and Russia hemp is imported; and that English hardware is in great demand.

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] The population of this state is mentioned in the table. It is nearly ten for every square mile. The number of militia is estimated at upwards of ninety thousand, between eighteen and fifty-three years of age.

The inhabitants are principally the descendants of English, Irish and Germans, with some Scotch, Welsh, Swedes, and a few Dutch. There are also many of the Irish and Germans, who emigrated when young or middle aged. The friends and episcopalians are chiefly of the English extraction and compose about one-third of the inhabitants. They live principally in the city of Philadelphia, and in the counties of Chester, Philadelphia, Bucks, and Montgomery. The Irish and descendants of Irish, are chiefly settled in the western and frontier counties; a large proportion of them are presbyterians from the north of Ireland. There are likewise many Roman catholics from this nation.

The Germans compose about one quarter of the inhabitants of Pennsylvania. They are most numerous in the north part of the city of Philadelphia, and in the counties of Philadelphia, Montgomery, Bucks, Dauphin, Lancaster, York and Northampton; chiefly in the four last; but are spreading in other parts. They consist of Lutherans, (who are the most numerous sect) Calvinists or reformed church, Moravians, Catholics, Mennonists, Tunkers (corruptly called Dunkers) and Zwingelers; who are a species of quakers. These are all distinguished for their temperance, industry and economy.

The Germans have usually about a fourth of the members in the assembly; and some of them have arisen to the first honours in the state, and now fill a number of the higher offices.

Pennsylvania is much obliged to the Germans for improvements in agriculture; but their imperfect knowledge of the English language makes them deficient in literature and politics. This disadvantage is diminishing.

The baptists (except the Mennonist and Tunker-baptists, who are Germans) are chiefly the descendants of emigrants from Wales, and are not numerous.

The original Swedes came in the year 1638, as a colony, under the government and protection of Sweden. Their possession extended on the western shore of Delaware, from the capes up to the falls of Trenton, thirty miles beyond the site of Philadelphia, and inland towards Susquehannah. They had a regular civil and military establishment, which (as appears from the original Swedish ordinances) was founded on wise and good principles. It was earnestly enjoined, to make fair purchases from the Indians, as the just owners of the land, and to treat them with all manner of kindness, to support religion and good manners, to explore and cultivate valuable materials for agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. A few bad characters came out with the first emigrants, but by a subsequent edict, persons of that description were strictly restrained. The small colony was in a thriving state, until the dispute with the Dutch, who were already established in New-York, and pretended a prior claim to the Delaware: Unsupported by a distant mother-country, then involved in war with five principal powers of Europe, it was conquered in the year 1654, and afterwards became, with the other Dutch possessions in North-America, part of the British dominions. Sweden has hitherto furnished the descendants of the colony with missionaries. Their language is now nearly extinct. Very few Swedish emigrants have come since the first colony. This people have uniformly had the character of probity, mildness, and hospitality; but have been careless of their lands and interest.

More than one half of all the European and other emigrants to the united states enter the Delaware.

No difficulty lies in the way of any person, who desires to become a free and equal citizen. On the day of his landing he may buy a farm, a house, merchandize, or raw materials; he may open a work shop, a counting house, an office, or any other place of lawful business, and pursue his occupation without any hindrance, or the payment of any sum of money to the public. The right of electing, and being elected, is granted after the expiration of two years.

A privilege, almost peculiar to this state, has been granted to foreigners by the legislature—that of buying and holding land and houses within this commonwealth, without relinquishing their allegiance to the country in which they were born. They can sell or bequeath lands, receive the rents, and, in short, have every territorial and pecuniary right, that a natural-born Pennsylvanian has; but not civil rights. As they profess to owe allegiance to a foreign prince or government, and reside in a foreign country, where they of course have civil rights, they cannot claim them, nor ought they to desire them here; since no man can serve two masters. If they choose, at any time after purchase, to come out to this country, and make themselves citizens, or if they choose to give their estate to a child or other person, who will do so, either of them may become citizens to all intents and purposes.

The character of the Pennsylvanians is naturally diversified by difference of extraction, various degrees of education, and of opulence. The most leading features are industry, enterprize, and frugality. Extravagance, however, is making some progress, especially in the capital and towns. This causes a greater consumption of foreign luxuries than is consistent with solid policy. Emigrants, when collected together in neighbourhoods, retain much of the manners of their native countries; but in other cases, they generally assimilate to the manners of the state. The enterprising part of the character leads frequently to over trading, and produces ruinous consequences, which, however, are at present less frequent than formerly.

Religious liberty has always been on a more respectable establishment in Pennsylvania than in the other parts of America. However, even here it was imperfect until the late revolution; for Roman catholics and Jews were excluded from a share in the government. The latter continued under this disadvantage, until the new constitution gave them, and all people of whatever nation and religion, unlimited liberty of conscience, with capacity for all civil rights and privileges.

LITERARY, HUMANE, AND OTHER } These are more numerous and flourishing
USEFUL SOCIETIES. } in Pennsylvania, than in any of the fifteen
states. The names of these improving institutions, the times when they were established, and a summary of the benevolent designs they were intended to accomplish, will be mentioned in their order.

1. The American Philofophical Society, held at Philadelphia, for promoting useful knowledge. This society was formed January 2d, 1769, by the union of two other literary societies that had subsisted for some time in Philadelphia: and were created one body corporate and politic, with such powers, privileges, and immunities as are necessary for answering the valuable purposes which the society had originally in view, by a charter granted by the commonwealth of Pennsylvania, on the 15th of March, 1780. This society have already published three very valuable volumes of their transactions; the first in 1771, the second 1786, and the third in 1793.

In 1771, this society consisted of nearly three hundred members; and upwards of one hundred and twenty have since been added; a large proportion of whom are foreigners of the first distinction in Europe. Formerly membership was lavished very profusely; but at present more discrimination is observed.

Their charter allows them to hold lands, gifts, &c. to the amount of the clear yearly value of ten thousand bushels of wheat. The number of members is not limited.

2. The society for promoting political enquiries, consisting of fifty members instituted in February, 1787.

3. The college of Physicians, instituted in 1787, for the promotion of medical, anatomical, and chemical knowledge, incorporated by act of assembly, March, 1789.

4. The Pennsylvania Hospital, a humane institution, which was first meditated in 1750, and carried into effect by means of a liberal subscription of about three thousand pounds, and by the assistance of the assembly, who, in 1751, granted as much more for the purpose. The present building was begun in 1754, and finished in 1756. This hospital is under the direction of twelve managers, chosen annually, and is visited every year by a committee of the assembly. The accounts of the managers are submitted to the inspection of the legislature. Six physicians attend *gratis*, and generally prescribe twice or three times in a week, in their turns. This hospital is the general receptacle of lunatics and madmen, and of those affected with other disorders, and unable to support themselves. Here they are humanely treated and well provided for.

5. The Philadelphia Dispensary, for the medical relief of the poor. This benevolent institution was established on the 12th of April 1786, and is supported by annual subscriptions of thirty-five shillings each person. No less than eighteen hundred patients were admitted, within sixteen months after the first opening of the dispensary. It is under the direction of twelve managers and six physicians, all of whom attend *gratis*. This institution exhibits an application of something like the mechanical powers, to the purposes of humanity. The greatest quantity of good is produced this way, with the least money. Five hundred pounds a year defray all the expenses of the institution. The poor are taken care of in their own houses, and provide every thing for themselves except medicines, cordial drinks, &c.

6. The Pennsylvania Society for promoting the Abolition of Slavery, and the relief of Free Negroes unlawfully held in bondage. This society was begun in 1774, and enlarged on the 23d of April, 1787. The officers of the society consist of a president, two vice-presidents, two secretaries, a treasurer, four counsellors, an electing committee of twelve, and an acting committee of six members; all of whom, except the last, are to be chosen annually by ballot, on the first Monday in January. The society meet quarterly, and each member contributes ten shillings annually, towards defraying its contingent expenses.

The legislature of this state have favoured the humane designs of this society, by "An act for the gradual abolition of Slavery;" passed on the first of March, 1780, wherein, among other things, it is ordained, that no person, born within the state, after passing of the act, shall be considered as a servant for life; and all perpetual slavery is, by this act, forever abolished. The act provides, that those who would, in case this act had not been made, have been born servants or slaves, shall be deemed such, till they shall attain to the age of twenty eight years: but they are to be treated, in all respects, as servants, bound by indenture, for a term of years.

Some years ago, the society extended its original plan to improving the condition of free negroes. A committee of twenty four conducts this business, of which the four great parts are, to protect them from wrongs; to inspect their manners; to procure them employment; and to educate their children—for this last purpose, particular schools are kept.

7. The society for alleviating the miseries of prisons, has effected an admirable reform in the jail of Philadelphia. It is become a regular work-house, with some cells for the occasional correction of the refractory. The clergy preach there at convenient times. The prisoners may procure a diminution of the term of their confinement by good behaviour. This jail is under the constant care of twelve inspectors.

8. The Society of United Brethren for propagating the gospel among the heathens,

instituted in 1787, meet stately at Bethlehem. An act incorporating this society, and investing it with all necessary powers and privileges for accomplishing its pious designs, was passed by the legislature of the state, on the 27th of February, 1783. They can hold lands, houses, &c. to the annual amount of two thousand pounds.

These pious brethren, commonly called Moravians, began a mission among the Mahikan, Wampano, Delaware, Shawanoe, Nontikok, and other Indians, about fifty years ago, and were so successful as to add more than one thousand souls to the christian church by baptism. Six hundred of these have died in the christian faith; about three hundred live with the missionaries near Lake Erie, and the rest are either dead or apostates in the wilderness.

9. The Pennsylvania Society for the encouragement of manufactures and useful arts, instituted in 1787, is open for the reception of every citizen in the united states, who will fulfil the engagements of a member of the same. This society is under the direction of a president, four vice-presidents, and twelve managers, besides subordinate officers. Each member, on his admission, pays ten shillings into the general fund; and the same sum annually, till he shall cease to be a member.

10. The Philadelphia Society for the information and assistance of persons emigrating from foreign countries, instituted in the present year.

Besides these, there are two respectable insurance companies established in Philadelphia. There is also a humane society, for the recovering and restoring to life the bodies of drowned persons, instituted in 1770, under the direction of thirteen managers.

Also, an agricultural society; a society for the relief of German, and another for the relief of Irish emigrants; a marine society, consisting of captains of vessels; a charitable society for the support of widows and families of presbyterian clergymen; and St. George's, and St. Andrew's charitable societies. Most of these societies are in the city of Philadelphia.

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, AND SCHOOLS.] From the enterprising and literary spirit of the Pennsylvanians, we should naturally conclude, what is fact, that there are numerous.

The University of Pennsylvania, founded and endowed by the legislature during the late war, was lately united with the college of Philadelphia, by the agreement of the trustees on both sides, and with the sanction of the government. This college was founded by charter near forty years ago. The university is established in Philadelphia. Additional public support would render this institution still more respectable. Certain sciences demand also warmer patronage; as political economy, American jurisprudence, and natural history. In the last, indeed, there is a professorship, but without salary; nor is the study of this important science required for medical degrees.

Dickinson College, at Carlisle, in the western part of the state, was founded in 1783, and has a principal, three professors, a philosophical apparatus, a library consisting of nearly three thousand volumes, four thousand pounds in funded certificates, and ten thousand acres of land; the last, the donation of the state. In 1787, there were eighty students belonging to this college. This number is annually increasing. It was named after his excellency John Dickinson, author of the Pennsylvania Farmer's letters, and formerly president of the supreme executive council of this state.

In 1787, a college was founded at Lancaster, and honoured with the name of Franklin College, after Dr. Franklin. This college is for the Germans; in which they may educate their youth in their own language, and in conformity to their own habits. The English language, however, is taught in it. Its endowments are nearly the same as those of Dickinson college. Its trustees consist of Lutherans, Presbyterians, and Calvinists, German and English; of each, an equal number. The principal is a Lutheran, and the vice principal is a Calvinist.

The episcopalians have an academy at Yorktown, in York county. There are also academies at Germantown, at Pittsburg, at Washington, at Allen's town, and other places; these are endowed by donations from the legislature, and by liberal contributions of individuals.

The schools for young men and women in Bethlehem and Nazareth, under the direction of the people called Moravians, are upon the best establishment of any schools in America. Besides these, there are numerous private schools in different parts of the state; and, to promote the education of poor children, the legislature has appropriated a large tract of land for the establishment of free schools.

[CHIEF TOWNS.] The city of Philadelphia, capital of the state of Pennsylvania, and the present seat of government of the United States of America, lies in latitude $39^{\circ} 57''$ north, and, longitude 75° west from the meridian of London, upon the western bank of the river Delaware, which is here but a mile in breadth, about one hundred and twenty miles from the Atlantic ocean, by the course of the bay and river, and about fifty five or sixty miles from the sea, in a south eastward direction.

It was laid out by William Penn, the first proprietary and founder of the province, in the year 1682, and settled by a colony from England, which arrived in that and the preceding years, and was increased, by a constant and regular influx of foreigners, to so great a degree, that in less than a century, and within the life time of the first person born within it of European parents, it was computed to contain six thousand houses and forty thousand inhabitants in the city and suburbs.

The ground plot of the city is an oblong square, about one mile north and south, and two miles east and west, lying in the narrowest part of the isthmus between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, about five miles in a right line above their confluence. The plain is so nearly level, except upon the bank of the Delaware, that art and labour were necessary to dig common sewers and water-courses in many places to drain the streets. In the beginning of this settlement it was expected, that the fronts on both rivers would be first improved for the convenience of trade and navigation, and that the buildings would extend gradually in the rear of each, until they would meet and form one town extending from east to west; but experience soon convinced the settlers, that the Delaware front was alone sufficient for quays and landing places, and that the Schuylkill lay at too great a distance to form part of the town on its banks; whence it followed that the town increased northward and southward of the original plot, on the Delaware front, and now occupies a space near three miles in length, north and south, while the buildings in the middle, where they are most extended, do not reach a mile from the Delaware.

The city has been twice incorporated, and the limits thereof restrained to the oblong, originally laid out by William Penn, without including the northern or southern suburbs. This plot is intersected by a number of streets at right angles with each other, nine of which run east and west from Delaware to Schuylkill, and twenty three north and south, crossing the first at right angles, forming one hundred and eighty four squares of lots for buildings. The streets running east and west are named, (except High street, near the middle of the city) from the trees found in the country upon the arrival of the colony: Pine, Sassafras, Mulberry, High, Chestnut, Walnut, Spruce, Pine, and Cedar streets; and those running north and south, from their numeral order, Front, Second, Third, Fourth, &c. to Broad street, which is midway between the two rivers. In deeds and other descriptive writings which require exactness, these streets have the Delaware or Schuylkill prefixed to their numeral names, to distinguish which they belong to; as Delaware Second street, &c. but, as there are very few buildings westward of Broad street, this addition is never made in common conversation; but, when they are named, they are understood of the Delaware front, unless Schuylkill be added.

Of these, High street is one hundred feet, Broad-street one hundred and thirteen, Mulberry sixty, and all the others fifty feet wide. Within the improved parts of the city, they are paved, with pebble stones, in the middle, which usually contains three fifths of the whole breadth, and on each side with bricks; between the brick and stone pavements, are gutters, paved with brick, to carry off the water, and the foot-ways are defended from the approach of carriages, by rows of posts placed without the gutters, at the distance of ten or twelve feet from each other.

Besides the forementioned main streets, there are many others not originally laid down in the plot, the most public of which are Water street and Dock street. Water-street is thirty feet wide, running below the bank at the distance of about forty feet eastward from and parallel to Front-street; extending from the north line of the city, southward to the bridge over the dock, which was formerly a draw-bridge, and retains that name in common use, although it was converted into a stone-arch above thirty years since; from the bridge it is forty feet wide in a right line to Pine-street, and leaves a row of houses without yards, on the bank, in its whole length, between it and Front street: southward of Pine-street, there is an offset of about eighty feet eastward, and the street from thence to Cedar-street is forty-five feet wide, and called Penn-street. This street, in the original plan, was intended only for a cart way, to accommodate the wharves and stores to be erected under the bank, and not to rise more than four feet above it, so as to leave the river open to the view from the west-side of Front street; but the inhabitants were soon convinced that the ground, on both streets, was too valuable to be kept unimproved, in any degree, merely for the sake of a prospect; and it is closely built with lofty houses (except a very few vacancies here and there) throughout the whole front on both sides, and commodious wharves are extended into the river, at which the largest ships, that use the port, can lie in safety to discharge and receive their cargoes; and are defended from the ice in winter, by the piers, made of logs, extending into the river, sunk with stone and filled with earth, so as to be equally firm with the main land.

Dock street is the only crooked street in the city; beginning at the bridge in Front-street, extending northwestward in a serpentine tract, through two squares, across Second and Walnut streets; and terminating at third street; another branch of it extends southwestward across Spruce street, and terminates at Second-street. The ground occupied by this street, and by an open space between it and Spruce street below the bridge, was formerly a swamp, and was given by William Penn to the corporation, for the use of the city; it was intended as a place to dig a basin and docks to shelter the shipping: but experience proved that ships could be defended, from the ice, by the piers extended into the river, and that the dock could not be kept clean, but at an expense far beyond its utility, wherefore it was neglected till it became a nuisance, offensive to the smell and injurious to the health of the inhabitants, and was, by act of assembly, ordered to be arched over and covered with earth, whereby the city acquired a beautiful street, more than one hundred feet in breadth towards the water, and not less than ninety in the narrowest part.

The number of the streets, lanes and alleys, laid out by the owners of the lots, before they were built on, is too great to be enumerated here; there being scarce a square that is not intersected by one or more of them; some of them, continued in a light line through several squares, and so specious as to be easily mistaken for main streets; others only through one square.

The common council consists of two branches; fifteen aldermen are chosen by the freeholders, to continue in office for seven years; they choose a recorder from the citizens at large, for seven years, and a mayor from their own number for one year. Thirty common councilmen are chosen by the citizens at large, entitled to vote for representatives in assembly, to continue in office for three years: Eight aldermen and

sixteen common councilmen form a quorum or board, to transact business, at which the mayor or recorder presides, they sit and deliberate together, but no act is legal unless a majority of the aldermen, a majority of the common-councilmen present, and the mayor or recorder concur.

A city-court is held by the mayor, recorder, and aldermen four times a year, and has cognizance of all crimes and misdemeanors committed within the city.

A court of aldermen having cognizance of debts above forty shillings, and not exceeding ten pounds, is held every week, beginning on Monday morning, and sitting by adjournments until the business of the week is finished.

Each alderman has separate cognizance of debts under forty shillings.

The number of inhabitants within the city and suburbs (including the district of Southwark and the compactly built part of the northern liberties, which, to every purpose but as to their government, are considered as parts of the city) was found, by the late census, to be forty-two thousand five hundred and twenty, and the number of houses six thousand six hundred and fifty-one, and stores or workshops four hundred and fifteen.

The houses for public worship are numerous, and are as follow: the friends or quakers, have five* ; the presbyterians and seceders, six: the episcopalians, three; the German Lutherans, two: the German Calvinists, one: the catholics, three: the Swedish Lutherans, one†; the Moravians, one: the baptists, one: the universal baptists, one: the methodists, two: the Jews, one: the universalists, one: and the Africans, one: this was built by the subscription of those citizens who considered a separate house of worship beneficial to this race. Clergymen of various professions preach in it: as yet regular teachers of their own colour are wanting. It was opened this summer.

The other public buildings in this city, besides the university and college already mentioned, are the following, viz. a state-house and offices, two city court-houses, a county court house, the philosophical society's hall, a dispensary, an hospital, and offices, an alms-house, three incorporated banks, two dramatic theatres, a public library; medical theatre and laboratory, three brick market-houses, a fish-market; a public jail, a house of correction, &c.

The state house in Chestnut street, between Fifth and Sixth streets, was erected as early as 1735, within fifty-three years after the first European cabin was built in Pennsylvania. Its architecture is, in this respect, justly admired. The state-house yard is a neat, elegant, and spacious public walk, ornamented with rows of trees; but a high brick wall, which encloses it, limits the prospect.

In 1787, an elegant court-house was erected on the west of the state-house, and, on the east, the town hall or new court house, and a philosophical hall. Opposite these is the library. These add much to the beauty of the square.

South of the state house is the public jail, built of stone. It has a ground half story, and two stories above it. Every apartment is arched with stone, against fire and force. It is a hollow square, one hundred feet in front, and is the neatest and most secure building of the kind in America. To the jail is annexed a work-house, with yards to each, to separate the sexes, and criminals from the debtors. There have lately been added apartments in the yards for solitary confinement of criminals, according to the new penal code. Of four thousand and sixty debtors, and four thousand criminals, who were confined in this jail, between the 28th of September 1780, and the 5th of September 1790, only twelve died a natural death.

* One of these houses is for those quakers who took up arms in defence of their country in the late war, contrary to the established principles of the friends. They call themselves *free quakers*.

† This is the oldest church; it stands on the river, in Southwark.

The German church, lately erected, is one of the most elegant churches in America. Mr. D. Taneberger, one of the united bretheren's society, at Litiz, a great mechanical genius, has completed and erected a large organ for this church.

The market-house, in Highstreet, is hardly exceeded by any market whatever, in extent, neatness, variety and abundance of provisions.

There are two other market-houses in the city; one north in Callowhill street, the other south in Second street.

The new theatre, in Chestnut street, near the state house, is large and convenient, it was finished in 1793. Further west is a spacious building, intended for the accommodation of the president of the united states, but not yet finished.

The city is provided with a number of public and private charitable institutions; among which is, the house of employment, a large commodious building, where the poor of the city, and some adjoining townships, are supported and employed in coarse manufactures, to aid in defraying their expenses; under the care of the overseers and guardians of the poor, who are a corporate body, created for this purpose by act of assembly, with a power to lay taxes for its further support.

The quakers' almshouse is supported by the society, for the use of its own poor; it is divided into a number of separate houses and rooms for families or single persons who have fallen into decay; most of them contribute, by their industry, towards their own support; but are supplied with whatever their industry falls short of procuring, by a committee of the society; and live more comfortably than many, who, in full health, and unhurt by accident, provide for their own subsistence. There is a considerable garden belonging to this house, from which the city is supplied, at very moderate prices, with almost every kind of medicinal herbs common to the climate.

A house, founded by the late Dr. John Kearney, the elder, for the support of twelve elderly widows, of the protestant episcopal communion, in which a number of persons of that description, who have seen better days, are very comfortably and decently provided for.

We have already noticed the humane society, and the various societies for the relief of emigrants.

Seminaries of learning are established upon the most enlarged and liberal principles, of which the principal is the University of Pennsylvania.

Almost every religious society has one or more schools under its immediate direction, for the education of its own youth of both sexes, as well of the rich, who are able to pay, as of the poor, who are taught and provided with books and stationery gratis; besides which, there are a number of private schools under the direction of masters and mistresses, independent of any public body; and there are several private academies for the instruction of young ladies in all the branches of polite literature, suitable to the sex. There is no individual, whose parents or guardians, master or mistress, will take the trouble to apply, but will be admitted into some one of these schools; and, if they are unable to pay, will be taught gratis.

The African schools, into which, slaves as well as free persons, of whatever age, of both sexes, are admitted gratis, and taught reading, writing, arithmetic, &c. These schools are particularly fostered by the friends, who took the first lead in the cause of the Africans. The legacy of the late benevolent Anthony Benezet, donations from England, and occasional charities from the citizens, are, with the regular aid of the society before mentioned, sufficient for the support of these schools.

Sunday-schools, for the instruction of children who would otherwise spend that day in idleness or mischief, have lately been instituted, and have a tendency to amend the morals and conduct of the rising generation.

The public library of Philadelphia is a most useful institution: it contains near ten thousand volumes, well selected, for the information and improvement of all ranks of

the citizens. They are deposited in an elegant building lately erected, in a modern style; and are accessible every day in the week, except Sunday. The company consists of some hundreds of proprietors, incorporated by charter, who pay ten shillings annually for the purchase of new books and defraying incidental expenses: twelve directors are annually chosen, who manage the concerns of the company, and keep a correspondence with Europe, from whence they are regularly supplied with new publications of reputation and merit. The Loganian library is now incorporated with it. This precious collection of classical works, and rare books of antiquity in various kinds, was bequeathed to the citizens by James Logan, secretary of the proprietary government.

A museum was commenced some years ago by Mr. Peale, and has now a great and various collection of American and foreign specimens; as, four hundred species of birds, some living animals, &c. It is kept in the hall of the philosophical society.

Southwark will soon be paved, and then lighted with lamps. Two associated companies watch against dangers from fire.

The police of the port extends to the inspection of flour, and condemns whatever is not perfect in its kind; through various qualities, more or less fine, are permitted, and properly marked. The Philadelphians prudently acquiesce in a measure so necessary for the reputation of a staple commodity, which is annually exported to the amount of three hundred and fifty thousand barrels.

Few cities can boast of more useful improvements in manufactures, in the mechanical arts, in the art of healing, and particularly in the science of humanity, than Philadelphia.

The bank of North America, established in the year 1781—that of the united states, in 1792—and that of Pennsylvania, in 1793, give a great spring to the trade of the city. Philadelphia will for several years, continue to be the seat of the federal government. Congress are accommodated with apartments in the two new court-houses. The national mint is also established here.

The environs of Philadelphia, between the two rivers, are finely cultivated. In the northern are Kensington, near the suburbs on Delaware, noted for ship-building; Germantown, a populous, neat village, with two German churches; and Fankfort, another pretty village; both within seven miles; besides many country seats. In the south is Derby, a small, pleasant borough, above seven miles distant; and, on Schuylkill, four miles from the city, the botanical garden of messrs. Bartram. In the west, on the same river, eighteen acres of ground have been lately destined for a public botanical garden.

The borough of Lancaster is the largest inland town in the united states. It is the seat of justice in Lancaster county, and stands on Conestoga creek, sixty six miles, a little north-west from Philadelphia. Its trade is already great; and must increase in proportion as the surrounding country populates. It contains about seven or eight hundred houses, and about five thousand people.

Carlisle is the seat of justice in Cumberland county, and is one hundred and twenty miles westward, with one-fourth of a degree north of Philadelphia. It contains upwards of fifteen hundred inhabitants; has more than three hundred stone houses, three churches, a court house, and a college. Forty years ago this spot was a wilderness, and inhabited by Indians and wild beasts. A like instance of the rapid progress of the arts of civilized life is scarcely to be found in history.

Pittsburg, on the western side of the Allegany mountains, three hundred and twenty miles westward of Philadelphia, is beautifully situated on a large plain, which is the point of land between the Allegany and Monongahela river, and about a quarter of a mile above their confluence, in latitude $40^{\circ} 26'$ north. It contains about two hundred houses, stores, and shops, and eight or nine hundred inhabitants. The surrounding country is very hilly, but good land, and well stored with excellent coal.

The rivers abound with fine fish, such as pike, perch, catfish, and others of uncertain names.

This town is laid out on Penn's plan, and is a thoroughfare for the travellers from the eastern and middle states, to the settlements on the Ohio.

Sunbury, the county town of Northumberland county, is situated on the east side of Susquehannah river, just below the junction of the east and west branches, in about latitude $40^{\circ} 52'$, and about one hundred and twenty miles north-west from Philadelphia. It contains about one hundred houses.

Bethlehem is situated on the river Lehigh, a western branch of the Delaware, fifty-three miles north of Philadelphia, in latitude $40^{\circ} 37'$. The town being built partly on high, rising ground, and partly on the lower banks of the Monocacy, (a fine creek, which affords trout and other fish) has a very pleasant and healthy situation, and is frequently visited in the summer season by persons from different parts. The prospect is not extensive, being bounded very near by the chain of the Lehigh hills. To the northward is a tract of land called the dry lands.

In the year 1787, the number of inhabitants amounted to between five and six hundred, and the houses were about sixty in number, mostly good strong buildings of limestone. The town has since considerably increased.

Besides the church or public meeting hall, there are three large, spacious buildings, viz.

1. The single brethren's or young men's house, facing the main street or public road. Here the greatest part of the single tradesmen, journeymen, and apprentices of the town are boarded at a moderate rate, under the inspection of an elder and warden: and have, besides their public meetings, their house for morning and evening devotions. Different trades are carried on in the house for the benefit of the same.
2. The single sisters', or young women's house, where they live under the care of female inspectors. Such as are not employed in private families, earn their bread mostly by spinning, sewing, fine needle work, knitting, and other female occupations.

The ladies are at liberty to go about their business in the town, or to take a walk for recreation; and some are employed in private families, or live with their parents: neither are they bound to remain single: for every year some of them enter into the married state.

As to their almost uniform dress, the women in general, for the sake of avoiding extravagance and the follies of fashion, have hitherto retained a simple dress, introduced among them in Germany, many years ago.

3. The house for the widows, where those who have not a house of their own, or means to have their own house furnished, live nearly the same way as do the single sisters. Such as are poor, infirm, or superannuated, are assisted or maintained by the congregation, as is the case with other members of the same, that are not able to obtain subsistence for themselves.

In the house adjoining the church, is the school for girls, and, since the year 1787, a boarding school for young ladies from different parts, who are instructed in reading and writing (both English and German) grammar, arithmetic, history, geography, needle-work, music, &c.

The minister of the place has the special care and inspection of this as well as of the boys' school, which is kept in a separate house, fitted for that purpose, where are taught reading and writing in both languages, the rudiments of the Latin tongue, arithmetic, &c. These schools, especially that for the young ladies are deservedly in very high repute, and scholars, more than can be accommodated, are offered from all parts of the united states.

The ferry, across the river, is of such particular contrivance, that a flat, large enough to carry a team of six horses, runs on a strong-rope, fixed and stretched across, and,

by the mere force of the stream, without any other assistance, crosses the river backwards and forwards; the flat always being put in an oblique direction, with its foremost end verging towards the line described by the rope.

The greatest part of the inhabitants, as well as the people in the neighbourhood, being of German extraction, this language is more in use than the English. The latter, however, is taught in the schools, and divine service performed in both languages.

Nazareth is ten miles north from Bethlehem and sixty three north from Philadelphia. It is a tract of good land, containing about five thousand acres, purchased originally by the rev. Mr. George Whitfield, in 1740, and sold two years after to the brethren. The town was laid out almost in the centre of this tract, in 1772. Two streets cross each other at right angles, and form a square in the middle, of three hundred and forty by two hundred feet. The largest building is a stone house, erected in 1755, named Nazareth-Hill, ninety-eight feet by forty-six long, and fifty-four in height. In the lowest story is a spacious meeting-hall, or church. The upper part of the house is chiefly fitted for a boarding school; where youth, from different parts, are under the care and inspection of the minister of the place and several tutors; and are instructed in the English, German, elements of the Latin and French languages; book keeping, surveying, and other practical knowledge. Another good building, on the east side of Nazareth Hall is inhabited by single sisters, who have the same regulations and mode of living as those in Bethlehem. Besides their principal manufactory for spinning and twisting cotton, they have lately begun to draw wax tapers.

Litiz is in Lancaster county, and Warwick township, eight miles from Lancaster, and seventy miles west of Philadelphia. This settlement was begun in the year 1757. There are now, besides an elegant church, and the houses of the single brethren and sisters, which form a large square, a number of houses for private families, with a store and tavern, all in one street. There is also a good farm and several mill works belonging to the place. The number of inhabitants, including those that belong to Litiz congregation, living on their farms in the neighbourhood, amounted, in 1787, to upwards of three hundred.

The three last mentioned towns are settled chiefly by Moravians, or the United Brethren.

Reading, the capital of Berks county, is distant about sixty miles northwest of Philadelphia, in latitude $40^{\circ} 42'$. It is a flourishing town, chiefly inhabited by Germans. An elegant Lutheran church was erected in 1793. In its vicinity are ten fulling mills, and several iron works: in the whole county of Berks are five furnaces, and as many forges.

York town, distant nearly eighty-eight miles west, 40' south, from Philadelphia, is probably next to Lancaster in importance. It is inhabited chiefly by Germans. The Lutherans and Calvinists have each a church: that of the first is elegant.

Harrisburg, as it is commonly called, but legally styled Loufburg, the principal town in Dauphin county, is a very flourishing place, about one hundred miles west by north from Philadelphia. It contained, in 1789, one hundred and thirty dwelling houses, a stone jail, and a German church. At that period, it had been settled but about three years.

Washington, three hundred miles west of Philadelphia, and beyond the Monongahela, has been settled since the war, and is remarkable for the variety of manufactures, for so young and interior a town. It has above thirty manufacturers, of twenty two different kinds.

CURIOUS SPRINGS.] In the neighbourhood of Reading, is a spring about fourteen feet deep, and about one hundred feet square. A full mill stream issues from it. The waters are clear and full of fish. From appearances, it is probable that this spring is the outlet of a very considerable river, which, a mile and an half or two miles above

this place, sinks into the earth, and is conveyed to this outlet in a subterranean channel.

In the northern parts of Pennsylvania, there is a creek called Oil creek, which empties into the Allegany river. It issues from a spring on the top of which floats an oil, similar to that called Barbadoes tar; and of which one man may gather several gallons in a day. The troops sent to guard the western posts, basted at this spring, collected some of the oil, and bathed their joints with it. This gave them great relief from the rheumatic complaints with which they were affected. The waters of which the troops drank freely, operated as a gentle cathartic.

REMARKABLE CAVES.] There are three remarkable grottos or caves in this state; one near Carlisle, in Cumberland county; one in the township of Durham, in Bucks county, and the other at Swetara, in Lancaster county. The latter is on the east bank of Swetara river, about two miles above its confluence with the Susquehannah. Its aperture is under a pretty high bank, from fifteen to twenty feet wide, and from seven to ten in height. You enter, by a gradual descent, so low, that the surface of the river is rather higher than the bottom of the cave, and in your progress pass through a number of passages and apartments of various dimensions, some low and narrow, others very high and spacious, vaulted by magnificent canopies, fretted with a variety of depending petrifications, some of which are drawn to a great length, by means of the constant exudation and accretion of petrifying matter, till solid pillars have been gradually formed. These appear as supports to the roof, which is of solid limestone, perhaps twenty feet thick. Thirty years ago, there were ten such pillars, each six inches in diameter, and six feet high; all so ranged that the place they enclosed resembled a sanctuary in a Roman church. No royal throne ever exhibited more grandeur than this *lusus naturæ*. The resemblances of several monumentals are found indented in the walls, on the sides of the cave, which appear like the tombs of departed heroes. Suspended from the roof is "the bell" (which is nothing more than a stone projected in an unusual form) so called from the sound it occasions when struck.

Some of the stalactites are of a colour like sugar-candy, and others resemble loaf sugar; but their beauty is much defaced by the smoke of the torches which are frequently employed in conducting the curious traveller through this gloomy recess. The water which exudes through the roof, runs down the declivity, and is both pleasant and wholesome to drink. There are several holes in the bottom of the cave, descending perpendicularly, perhaps into an abyss below, which renders it dangerous to walk without a light. At the end of the cave is a pretty brook, which, after a short course, loses itself among the rocks. Beyond this brook is an outlet from the cave, by a very narrow aperture. Through this vapours continually pass outwards with a strong current of air, and ascend, resembling, at night, the smoke of a furnace. Part of these vapours and fogs appear, on ascending, to be condensed at the head of this great alembic, and the more volatile parts to be carried off through the aperture communicating with the exterior air beforementioned, by the force of the air in its passage.

CONSTITUTION.] The supreme executive power of the commonwealth is vested in a governor; the legislative, in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives. The governor is chosen for three years but cannot hold his office more than nine years in twelve. A majority of votes makes a choice. The representatives are elected for one year, the senators for four. The latter are divided into four classes. The time of one class expires each year, whose seats are then filled by new elections. Each county chooses its representatives separately. The senators are chosen in districts formed by the legislature. There is to be an enumeration of the inhabitants once in seven years. The number of senators and representatives is, after

each enumeration, to be fixed by the legislature, and apportioned among the several counties and districts, according to the number of taxable inhabitants. There can be never fewer than sixty, nor more than one hundred representatives. The number of senators cannot be less than one-fourth nor greater than one-third of the representatives. The elections are held on the second Tuesday of October: The general assembly meets on the first Tuesday of December, in each year, unless sooner convened by the governor. A majority of each house makes a quorum to do business, and a less number may adjourn from day to day, and compel the attendance of members. Each house chooses its speaker and other officers, judges of the qualifications of its members, and establishes the rules of its proceedings. Impeachments are made by the house of representatives, and tried by the senate. All bills for raising revenue originate in the lower house, but the senate may propose amendments. The senators and representatives are free from arrests, while attending the public business, except in cases of treason, felony, and breach of the peace; and are not liable to be questioned concerning any thing said in public debate. They are compensated out of the public treasury, from which no money can be drawn, but in consequence of appropriation by law. The journals of both houses are published and their doors kept open, unless the business require secrecy. All bills which have passed both houses, must be presented to the governor. If he approve, he must sign them; but if he do not approve, he must return them within ten days, with his objections, to the house in which they originate. No bill, so returned, shall become a law, unless it be re-passed by two thirds of both houses. The governor is commander in chief of the military force, may remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachment; may require information from all executive officers; may, on extraordinary occasions, convene the general assembly, and adjourn it, for any term not exceeding four months, in case the two branches cannot agree on the time themselves. He must inform the general assembly, of the state of the commonwealth; recommend such measures as he shall judge expedient; and see that the laws are faithfully executed. In case of vacancy in the office of governor, the speaker of the senate exercises that office. The judicial power is vested in a supreme and inferior court, the judges of which, and justices of the peace, are appointed by the governor, and commissioned during good behaviour; but are removable on the address of both houses. The other officers of the state are appointed, some by the governor, some by the general assembly, and some by the people. The qualifications for an elector are twenty-one years of age, two years' residence, and payment of taxes. They are privileged from arrests in civil actions, while attending elections. Those for a representative are, twenty-one years of age, and three years inhabitancy. For a senator, twenty-five years of age, and four years inhabitancy. For a governor, thirty years of age, and seven years inhabitancy. The governor can hold no other office; the senators and representatives none, but of attorney at law and in the militia. No person, holding an office of trust or profit under the united states, can hold any office in this state, to which a salary is by law annexed: All the officers of the state are liable to impeachments, and are bound by oath, or affirmation to support the constitution, and perform the duties of their offices.

The declaration of rights asserts the natural freedom and equality of all;—liberty of conscience; freedom of elections and of the press; subordination of the military to the civil power; trial by jury; security from unreasonable searches and seizures; a right to an equal distribution of justice; to be heard in criminal prosecutions; to petition for the redress of grievances; to bear arms; and to emigrate from the state. It declares that all power is inherent in the people, and that they may, at any time, alter their forms of government; that no person shall be obliged to maintain religious worship, or support any ministry; that all persons believing in the being of a God, and future state of rewards and punishments, are eligible to office; that laws cannot

be suspended but by the legislature; that all persons shall be bailable, unless for capital offences, when the proof is evident, or presumption strong; that every debtor shall be released from prison, on delivering his estate to his creditors; according to law, except there be strong presumption of fraud; that the privileges of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, but in time of rebellion or public danger; that no *ex post facto* law shall be made; that no person shall be attainted by the legislature, or forfeit his estate for longer term than his own life; that no title of nobility, or hereditary distinction, shall ever be granted.

The foregoing constitution was ratified in 1790.

Among other useful laws of this state, of a public nature, are, one, that declares all rivers and creeks to be highways—a law for the emancipation of negroes, already mentioned—a law commuting hard labour during a long term of years, for death, as a punishment for many crimes which are made capital by the laws of England. Murder, arson, and one or two other crimes, are yet punishable with death.

[NEW INVENTIONS.] These have been numerous and useful. Among others are the following: A new model of the planetary worlds, by Dr. Rittenhouse, commonly, but improperly called an orrery—a quadrant, by Mr. Godfrey, called by the plagiarist name of Hadley's quadrant—a steam-boat, so constructed, that by the assistance of steam, operating on certain machinery within the boat, it moves with considerable rapidity against the stream, without the aid of hands. Messrs. Fitcland Rumsay have contended with each other for the honour of this invention. Other discoveries may be seen in the philosophical transactions. Dr. Franklin, the great improver of electricity, had still greater merit as a promoter of general useful knowledge: a statue of him adorns the front of the Philadelphia library.

[HISTORY.] Pennsylvania was granted by King Charles II. to William Penn, son of the famous admiral Penn, in consideration of his father's services to the crown.* Mr. Penn's petition for the grant, was presented to the king in 1680; and after considerable delays, occasioned by Lord Baltimore's agent, who apprehended it might interfere with the Maryland patent, the charter of Pennsylvania received the royal signature on the fourth of March, 1682. To secure his title against all claims, and prevent future altercation, Mr. Penn procured a quit claim deed from the duke of York, of all the lands, covered by his own patent, to which the duke could have the least pretensions. This deed bears date, August 21, 1682. On the 24th of the same month, he obtained, from the duke, by deed of feoffment, Newcastle; with twelve miles of the adjacent territory, and the lands south to the Hoarkills. In December following, Mr. Penn effected an union of the lower counties with the province of Pennsylvania.†

The first frame of government for Pennsylvania, is dated in 1682. By this form, all legislative powers were vested in the governor and freemen of the province in the provincial council, and a general assembly. The council was to consist of seventy-two members, chosen by the freemen; of which the governor, or his deputy, was perpetual president, with a treble vote. One-third of this council went out of office every year, and their seats were supplied by new elections.

The general assembly was at first to consist of all the freemen—afterwards of two hundred, and never to exceed five hundred.

In 1683, Mr. Penn offered another frame of government, in which the number of representatives was reduced, and the governor vested with a negative upon all bills,

* A large debt was due from the crown to Mr. Penn, a part of which he offered to remit, on condition he obtained his grant. This, whatever benevolent motives are held out to the world, must have been a principal consideration with the king in making the grant.

† See Dr. Franklin's historical review of the constitution and government of Pennsylvania, p. 16.

passed in assembly. By several specious arguments, the people were persuaded to accept this system.

Not long after, a dispute between Mr. Penn and lord Baltimore, required the former to go to England, and he committed the administration of government to five commissioners, taken from the council. In 1686, Mr. Penn required the commissioners to dissolve the frame of government; but not being able to effect his purpose, he, in 1618, appointed capt. John Blackwell his deputy. From this period the proprietaries usually resided in England, and administered the government by deputies, who were devoted to their interests. Jealousies arose between the people and their governors, which never ceased till the late revolution. The primary cause of these jealousies, was an attempt of the proprietary to extend his own power, and abridge that of the assembly; and the consequence was, incessant disputes and dissensions in the legislature.

In 1689, governor Blackwell, finding himself opposed in his views, had recourse to artifice, and prevailed on certain members of the council to withdraw themselves from the house; thus defeating the measures of the legislature.* The house voted this to be treachery, and addressed the governor on the occasion.

In 1693, the king and queen assumed the government into their own hands. Col. Fletcher was appointed governor of New York and Pennsylvania, by one and the same commission, with equal powers in both provinces. By this commission, the number of counsellors in Pennsylvania was reduced.

Under the administration of governor Markham, in 1696, a new form of government was established in Pennsylvania. The election of the council and assembly now became annual, and the legislature, with its powers and forms of proceeding, was new modelled.

In 1699, the proprietary arrived from England, and assumed the reins of government. While he remained in Pennsylvania, the last charter of privileges, or frame of government, which continued to the revolution, was agreed upon and established. This was completed and delivered to the people by the proprietary, October 28, 1701, just on his embarking for England. The inhabitants of the territory, as it was then called, or the lower counties, refused to accept this charter, and thus separated themselves from the province of Pennsylvania. They afterwards had their own assembly, in which the governor of Pennsylvania presided.

In September 1700, the Susquehannah Indians granted to Mr. Penn all their lands on both sides of the river. The Susquehannah, Shawnese, and Patomak Indians, however, entered into articles of agreement with Mr. Penn, by which, on certain conditions of peaceable and friendly behaviour, they were permitted to settle about the head of Patomak, in the province of Pennsylvania. The Conestoga chiefs also, in 1701, ratified the grant of the Susquehannah Indians, made the preceeding year.

In 1708, Mr. Penn obtained from the sachems of the country a confirmation of grants made by former Indians, of all the lands from Duck creek to the mountains, and from the Delaware to the Susquehannah. In this deed, the sachems declared "that they had seen and heard read divers prior deeds which had been given to Mr. Penn, by former chiefs."

While Mr. Penn was in America, he erected Philadelphia into a corporation. The charter was dated: October 25, 1701; by which the police of the city was vested in a mayor, recorder, aldermen, and common council, with power to enquire into treasons, murders, and other felonies; and to enquire into and punish smaller crimes. The corporation had also extensive civil jurisdiction; but it was dissolved at the late revolution; and Philadelphia was governed, like other counties in the state, till 1789, when it was again incorporated.

* Two instances of a secession of members from the assembly, with similar views, have taken place since the revolution, and seem to have been copied from the example in 1689.

By the favourable terms which Mr. Penn offered to settlers, and an unlimited toleration of all religious denominations, the increase of the population of the province was extremely rapid. Notwithstanding the attempts of the proprietary, or his governors, to extend his power, and accumulate property by procuring grants from the people, and exempting his lands from taxation, the government was generally mild, and the burdens of the people by no means oppressive. The selfish designs of the proprietaries were vigorously and constantly opposed by the assembly, whose firmness preserved the charter rights of the province.

At the revolution, the government was abolished. The proprietaries were absent, and the people by their representatives, formed a new constitution, on republican principles. The proprietaries were excluded from all share in the government, and the legislature offered them one hundred and thirty thousand pounds in lieu of all quit rents, which was finally accepted. The proprietaries, however, still possess, in Pennsylvania, many large tracts of excellent land.

The constitution established at the revolution was a source of party spirit. The chief objection of those who disapproved it, was to a legislature composed of one branch. This party was styled republicans—the other, constitutionalists. Their efforts were incessantly exerted to render each other odious and to frustrate and thwart the measures brought forward by their opponents. Truth calls on us to declare, that in many important instances, the dearest interests of the community were sacrificed to gratify the spirit of faction, and that neither party could lay just claim to an exemption from the charge. The reins of government were alternately possessed by these parties according as their respective measures were popular or otherwise. At length the republicans acquired the ascendancy, and the constitution underwent an alteration that assimilated it nearly to the federal constitution.

At present the state enjoys a high degree of prosperity. Her population has greatly increased. Her commerce flourishes. New settlements are spreading in various directions.

In the year 1793, Philadelphia was visited with a severe scourge, the yellow fever, which raged with uncommon violence for above three months, and in that short time swept off nearly five thousand inhabitants. The humane efforts of a committee of health, appointed by the citizens, were highly instrumental in diminishing the calamity. A few weeks after this disorder ceased to rage, the trade of the city was restored in a manner incredible to any but eye witnesses.

In treating of the affairs of the united states, we noticed the disturbances in the western counties of Pennsylvania. We closed our observations with the humane measure, adopted by the federal and state governments, of sending commissioners to treat with the infatuated men who violated the peace and laws of their country. Since the publication of that part of our work, the president of the united states found it necessary to raise a considerable body of militia, to reduce the insurgents to obedience. He accompanied a part of the troops as far as Carlisle, where he took his leave of them to return to meet congress, and entrusted the chief command of the expedition to governor Lee, of Virginia. The militia advanced as far as Washington, and met with no opposition. The insurgents, who had been deluded into an expectation that the militia could not be prevailed upon to oppose them, made not the smallest attempt at resistance. The most criminal fled in various directions, some down the river Ohio, some into the Indian country. Others, to a very great number, have been arrested, some of whom are still in prison, others held by recognizance to stand trial. The principal part of the army has returned, and been received by their fellow citizens with the applauses their meritorious conduct has so justly earned. A select body is to be stationed in the western country, to prevent a renewal of disturbances, and

to aid, if necessary, the civil power in carrying the laws into execution. The excise law, the real or pretended source of all the disturbance, is enforced; and we have reason to hope that the public peace will be no more disturbed by similar outrages.

To conclude. This circumstance which appeared pregnant with dishonour and calamity to the American nation, is likely to be productive of solid and unexpected advantages. The friends of republican and free governments, see, that the very great degree of rational liberty which our constitutions impart to all classes of citizens, has not at all diminished the energy of government requisite to preserve the peace and impart dignity to the laws. The enemies of liberty, who have so eloquently harangued on the imbecility of republics, especially in such extensive countries as ours, must be silent after the present happy termination of insurrection without bloodshed—and the fears, entertained by so many, that the unwieldiness of our state machine would ultimately be the cause of its dismemberment, are totally removed.

D E L A W A R E.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles:		Acres.
Length 100	between	[38° 29' 30" and 39° 54' N. lat. and the mer. of Philadelphia, and 0° 40' W. lon.]	1,200,000
Breadth 24			

BOUNDARIES AND NAME.] **B**OUNDED on the east, by the river and bay of the same name, and the Atlantic ocean; on the south, by a line from Fenewick's Island, in latitude 38° 29' 30", drawn west till it intersects what is commonly called the tangent line, dividing it from the state of Maryland; on the west, by the same tangent line, passing northward up the peninsula, till it touches the western part of the territorial circle; and thence on the north, by the said circle, described by a radius of twelve miles about the town of New Castle.

This state appears to have derived its name from lord Delaware, who completed the settlement of Virginia.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] This state is divided into three counties, which are subdivided into hundreds.

Counties.	No. Inhab. 1790.	Slaves.	Chief Towns.
New Castle,	19,686	2562	New Castle.
Kent,	18,920	2300	Dover.
Suffex,	20,488	4025	Lewes.
Total	59,094	8887	

Before the revolution, this district of country was denominated, "The three lower counties."

RIVERS AND CREEKS.] The eastern side of the state is indented with a large number of creeks, or small rivers, which generally have a short course, soft banks, numerous shoals, are skirted with very extensive marshes, and empty into the river and bay of Delaware. In the southern and western parts of this state, spring the head waters of Pocomoke, Wicomico, Nanticoke, Choptank, Chester, Sassafras, and Bohemia rivers, all falling into the Chesapeak bay, and some of them navigable twenty or thirty miles into the country, for vessels of fifty or sixty tons.

PUBLIC IMPROVEMENTS.] Just before the commencement of the war, a work of considerable importance was begun at Lewes, in the southern part of the state, viz. the erection of a bridge and causeway from the town, over the creek and marsh to the opposite cape. This expensive work was just completed when the British ships first came into the road of Lewes. In order to prevent too easy a communication it was partially removed; and, being afterwards neglected, it was in total ruin at the close of the war. A bridge upon the same plan, but on a new foundation, has lately been erected, at the sole expense of individuals. It extends about a quarter of a mile, from the town to the beach, over a wide creek and marsh. The inhabitants are compensated for their expense, by the facility of the communication between the town and the cape.

Several canals in different parts of this state, are contemplated, one of which is down the waters of the Brandywine.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, } The state of the Delaware from the Christiana to
AND PRODUCTIONS. } the ocean may be accounted a flat country; for, though frequently diversified by gently rising grounds, it no where presents a conspicuous hill. This whole tract may, upon an average, be estimated at thirty feet above the level of the sea: the remaining part, which lies north of the Christiana, is hilly, rising within one mile of the creek, about two hundred feet, and within the first ten miles north west of Wilmington, five hundred feet above the tide. The spine or highest ridge of the peninsula, runs through the state of Delaware, inclined to the eastern or Delaware side. It is designated in Sussex, Kent, and part of New-Castle county, by a remarkable chain of swamps, from which the waters descend on each side, passing on the east, to the Delaware, and on the west, to the Chesapeake. Many of the shrubs and plants, growing in these swamps, are similar to those found in the highest mountains.

Delaware is chiefly an agricultural state. It includes a very fertile tract of country; and scarcely any part of the union can be selected more adapted to the different purposes of agriculture, or in which a greater variety of the most useful productions can be so conveniently and plentifully reared. The soil along the Delaware river, and from eight to ten miles into the interior country, is generally a rich clay, producing large timber, and well adapted to the various purposes of agriculture. From thence to the swamps above mentioned, the soil is light, sandy, and of an inferior quality.

The general aspect of the country is very favourable for cultivation. Excepting some of the upper parts of the county of Newcastle, the surface of the state is very little broken or irregular. The heights of Christiana are lofty and commanding; some of the hills of Brandywine are rough and stony: but, descending from these and a few others, the lower country is so little diversified, as almost to form one extended plain. In the county of Newcastle, the soil consists of a strong clay: in Kent, there is a considerable mixture of sand. The land in this county is the most fertile of any in the state; and, in Sussex, the quantity of sand altogether predominates.—Wheat is the staple of the state. It grows here in such perfection, as not only to be particularly sought by the manufacturers of flour throughout the union, but also to be distinguished and preferred, for its superior qualities, in foreign markets. This wheat possesses an uncommon softness and whiteness, very favourable to the manufacture of superfine flour, and, in other respects, far exceeds the hard and stony grains raised in general on the high lands. Besides wheat, this state generally produces plentiful crops of Indian corn, barley, rye, oats, flax, buckwheat, and potatoes. It abounds in natural and artificial meadows, containing a large variety of grasses. Hemp, cotton, and silk, if properly attended to, doubtless would flourish very well.

The county of Sussex, besides producing a considerable quantity of grain, particularly of Indian corn, possesses excellent grazing lands. This county also exports very

large quantities of lumber, obtained chiefly from an extensive swamp, called the Indian river or cypress swamp, lying partly within this state, and partly in the state of Maryland. This morass extends six miles from east to west, and nearly twelve from north to south, including an area of nearly fifty thousand acres of land. The whole of this swamp is a high and level basin, very wet, though undoubtedly the highest land between the sea and the bay, whence the Pokomoke descends on one side, and Indian river and St. Martin's on the other. This swamp contains a great variety of plants, trees, wild beasts, birds, and reptiles.

Not a thousandth part of the cultivated land in this state has ever been manured, consequently fifty or eighty successive and exhausting crops have greatly impoverished it; yet, there remain considerable quantities of good land, which, without manure, has yielded fifty crops of wheat, barley, and Indian corn, in as many years, and still continues to yield fifteen to twenty-five fold of the two former, and two hundred fold of the latter grain. The woods of the Delaware state are composed of oaks of different kinds, hickory, walnut, chestnut, poplar, gum, dogwood, cyprus, cedar, pine, &c.

The air of the middle parts of this state, is, of late years, thought to be less healthy than formerly; the inhabitants being subject, in the early part of the fall, to agues and intermittents, and, in the winter and spring, to the pleurisy. In the upper part of Newcastle county, the air is salubrious.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Wilmington is a pleasant town, north latitude $39^{\circ} 43' 18''$, twenty seven miles south west of Philadelphia, containing about five hundred houses, mostly brick, and three thousand inhabitants. It is situated two miles west of the river Delaware, between Christiana and Brandywine creeks, which, at this place, are about one mile from each other; but uniting below the town, they join the Delaware in one stream, four hundred yards at the mouth—the site of the principal part of the town is the southwest side of a hill, which rises one hundred and nine feet above the tide. On the north east side of the same hill, there are thirteen mills for grain, and a considerable number of handsome dwelling houses, which form a beautiful appendage to the town. The Christiana admits vessels of fourteen feet draught of water to the town, and those of six feet draught eight miles further, where the navigation ends; and the Brandywine admits those of seven feet draught to the mills. About the year 1735, the first houses were built at this place; and the town was incorporated a few years afterwards. Its officers are two burgesses, six assistants, and two constables, all of whom are chosen annually. There are six places of public worship, viz. two of presbyterians, one of friends, one of episcopalians, one of methodists, and one of baptists. There is also a public edifice, built of stone, one hundred and twenty feet in front, and forty feet in depth, three stories high for the reception of the paupers of Newcastle county. There is also another stone building, which was originally intended for an academy, where a school was supported some time with considerable reputation; but, though a defect in the constitution of the seminary, or some other causes, this building has, of late, been entirely neglected as a place of tuition. There are, however, nearly three hundred children in the different schools of the town. A market is held twice a week, and is well supplied with provisions. Almost the whole of the foreign exports of Delaware are from this place: the trade from this state to Philadelphia is great, being the principal source whence that city draws its staple commodity. Two hundred and sixty five thousand barrels of flour, three hundred thousand bushels of wheat, one hundred and seventy thousand bushels of Indian corn, besides barley, oats, flaxseed, paper, slit iron, snuff, salted provisions, &c. &c. to a very considerable amount, are annually sent from the waters of the Delaware state; of which the Christiana is by far the most productive, and probably many times as much as any other creek or river of like magnitude in the union—two hundred and forty five thousand barrels of flour, and other articles, to the amount of eighty

thousand dollars more, being from this creek : of which, to the value of five hundred and fifty thousand dollars, are manufactured on its northern bank, within two or three miles of the navigation. Among other branches of industry exercised in and near Wilmington, are, a cotton manufactory in considerable forwardness: a bolting-cloth manufactory has lately been established by an ingenious European; both of which promise fair to be a lasting advantage to the country. In the county of Newcastle are several fulling-mills, two snuff-mills; one slitting-mill, for paper-mills, and sixty mills for grinding grain, all of which are turned by water. But though Wilmington and its neighbourhood are probably already the greatest seat of manufactures in the united states, yet, they are capable of being much improved in this respect, as the country is hilly and abounds with running water; the Brandywine alone might, with a moderate expense, when compared with the object, be brought to the top of the hill upon which Wilmington is situated; whereby a fall sufficient for forty mills, in addition to those already built, would be obtained. The heights near Wilmington afford a number of agreeable prospects; from some of which may be seen the town, the adjacent meadows, and four adjoining states. No regular account of the births and burials has been kept, but the place is healthy. The number of children under sixteen, is probably equal to that of any town which is not more populous, and, according to an accurate account taken the present year, 1794, there were upwards of one hundred and sixty persons above sixty years old. Of twenty of whom the exact ages were not ascertained; but those of the remaining one hundred and forty four, were as follow: viz.

14 persons, aged 61	7 persons, aged 68	4 persons, aged 76	2 persons aged 86
6 - - - 62	3 - - - 69	2 - - - 77	1 - - - 87
11 - - - 63	13 - - - 71	3 - - - 78	2 - - - 89
14 - - - 64	8 - - - 72	4 - - - 80	1 - - - 90
7 - - - 65	4 - - - 73	2 - - - 81	2 - - - 92
10 - - - 66	4 - - - 74	1 - - - 83	1 - - - 101
12 - - - 67	3 - - - 75	3 - - - 84	

The congregation of friends, in Wilmington and its vicinity, consisting of about five hundred and eighty members, have buried sixty two within the last five years of whom eighteen were under ten, and four above eighty years of age. August appears to be the most healthy month of the year, as but one burial happened in that month, during the said five years.*

* As several travellers and writers, who never were at the pains, or never had the means of informing themselves better, have, without any foundation, charged the Americans with being short-lived, we have been the more particular upon this subject. And as facts, which embrace a large number of inhabitants, are a better proof of health, than any single instance of an individual, who may have doubled the usual period of human life, we subjoin the following brief account of a family, several of whom reside in Wilmington, and almost all of them within a few miles of it. Daniel Hoopes and Jane Worrellow, of Bucks county, Pennsylvania, were married in the year 1696. They soon after removed to the county of Chester, within fifteen miles of Wilmington. The issue of that marriage, now alive, are seven children, sixty grand-children, upwards of three hundred great grand children, and one hundred great great grand-children, all descendants by consanguinity. Of this case, we may particularly note and recapitulate the following remarkable circumstances, viz that of the children of Daniel and Jane Hoopes, seven are still living, ninety-eight years after the union of their parents. That, as many of them were living at one time, that their ages added together, made six hundred and seventy-two years. And that the aggregate sum of their ages, already, makes nine hundred and ninety years; to which, if we add the time that the remaining seven will probably live, we shall, perhaps, have a greater number of years, than have been enjoyed by the issue of any other single marriage, in latter times. But the increase and longevity are not more remarkable, than the paucity of deaths and second marriages; of which, many examples could be produced in the second as well as in the first generation. One may suffice: Joshua, son of the aforesaid Daniel, was

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Dover in the county of Kent, is the seat of government. It stands on Jones' creek, a few miles from the Delaware river, and consists of about one hundred houses, principally of brick. Four streets intersect each other at right angles, whose incidencies form a spacious parade, on the east side of which is an elegant state house, built of brick. The town has a lively appearance, and carries on a considerable trade with Philadelphia. Wheat is the principal article of export. The landing is five or six miles from the town.

Newcastle is agreeably situated on the west bank of Delaware river, five miles south of Wilmington. It was first settled by the Swedes, about the year 1627, and called Stockholm. It was afterwards taken by the Dutch, and called New Amsterdam. The English, when it fell into their hands, called it by its present name. It contains about sixty houses, which have the aspect of decay, and was formerly the seat of government. This is the first town that was settled on Delaware river.

Milford is situated at the source of a small river, fifteen miles from Delaware bay, and one hundred and fifty southward of Philadelphia. This town, which contains about eighty houses, has been built, except one house, since the revolution. It is laid out with much good taste. The inhabitants are episcopalians, quakers, and methodists.

Dutch Creek Cross-Roads is twelve miles northwest from Dover; and has eighty or ninety houses, which stand on one street. It carries on a considerable trade with Philadelphia; and is a good market for wheat. Kent is also a place of considerable trade.

Port Penn is situated upon the shore of the Delaware, ten miles south of Newcastle. It contains but few inhabitants; and its commerce is small.

Newport is situated upon the Christiana Creek, three miles west of Wilmington. It contains about two hundred inhabitants. The principal business is to transport flour to Philadelphia, and to bring in return foreign articles for the consumption of the country.

Christiana Bridge is at the head of the navigable part of the Christiana, eight miles south west of Wilmington. It contains about two hundred inhabitants. Its commerce is similar to that of Newport, but somewhat more considerable; being the greatest carrying place between the navigable waters of the Delaware and Chesapeake, which are thirteen miles asunder at this place.

Appoquinimink bridge is twenty three miles south of Wilmington; the village contains about two hundred inhabitants. The principal business is the transportation of flour and grain to Philadelphia and Brandywine, and the sales of foreign goods for the consumption of the neighbourhood.

Lewes is situated a few miles above the light house, on Cape-Henlopen. It contains about two hundred and fifty houses, built chiefly on a street, which is more than three miles in length, and extending along a creek, which separates the town from the pitch of the cape. The situation is high, and commands a full prospect of the light house, and the sea. The court house and jail are commodious buildings, and give an air of importance to the town. The situation of this place must, in some future time, render it considerably important. Placed at the entrance of a bay, which is crowded with vessels from all parts of the world, and which is frequently closed with ice a part of the winter season, necessity seems to require the forming of this port into a harbour for shipping. Nothing has prevented this heretofore, but the deficiency of water in the creek. This want can be cheaply and easily supplied by a small canal, so as to afford a passage

born 1704, and married in 1731; he had fifty-nine children and grand-children; of whom fifty-four are still living.

This, to fifty-nine births pretty regularly distributed, through a period of sixty-two years, there have been but five deaths.

for the waters of Rehoboth into Lewes creek, which would insure an adequate supply. The circumjacent country is beautifully diversified with hills, woods, streams, and lakes, forming an agreeable contrast to the naked, sandy beach, which terminates in the cape; but is greatly infested with musketoes and sand flies.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] We have already mentioned wheat as the staple commodity of this state. This is manufactured into flour, and exported in large quantities. The manufacture of flour is carried to a higher degree of perfection in this state than in any other in the union. Besides the well-constructed mills on Red and White clay creeks, and other streams in different parts of the state, the celebrated collection of mills at Brandywine merit a particular description. Here are to be seen, at one view, twelve merchant mills (besides a saw mill) which have double that number of pairs of stones, all of great dimensions, and excellent construction. These mills are three miles from the mouth of the creek on which they stand, half a mile from Wilmington, and twenty seven from Philadelphia, on the post road from the eastern to the southern states. They are called the Brandywine mills, from the stream on which they are erected. This stream rises near the Welsh mountains in Pennsylvania, and after a winding course, of thirty or forty miles, through falls which furnish numerous seats (one hundred and thirty of which are already occupied) for every species of water works, empties into Christiana creek, near Wilmington. The whole quantity of wheat manufactured at these mills, annually, is not accurately ascertained. It is estimated, however, by the best informed on the subject, that these mills can grind one hundred thousand bushels in a year. But although they are capable of manufacturing this quantity yearly, yet, from the difficulty of procuring a permanent supply of grain, the instability of the flour-markets, and other circumstances, there are not commonly more than from about two hundred and ninety to three hundred thousand bushels of wheat and corn ground here annually. In the fall of 1789, and spring of 1790, there were made at Brandywine-mills fifty thousand barrels of superfine flour— one thousand three hundred and fifty-four of common, four hundred of middlings, as many of ship-stuff, and two thousand of corn-meal. The quantity of wheat and corn ground from which this flour, &c. was made, was three hundred and eight thousand bushels, equal to the export in those articles, from the port of Philadelphia for the same year.

These mills give employment to about two hundred persons, viz. about forty to attend the mills, from fifty to seventy coopers, to make casks for the flour, a sufficient number to man twelve sloops, of about thirty tons each, which are employed in the transportation of the wheat and flour, the rest in various other occupations connected with the mills. The navigation quite to these mills is such, that a vessel carrying one thousand bushels of wheat, may be laid along side of any of the mills; and beside some of them, the water is of sufficient depth to admit vessels of twice the above size. The vessels are unloaded with great expedition. There have been instances of one thousand bushels being carried to the height of four stories in four hours. It frequently happens that vessels with one thousand bushels of wheat, come up with flood tide, unlade, and go away the succeeding ebb, with three hundred barrels of flour on board. In consequence of the machines introduced by the ingenious Mr. Oliver Evans, three quarters of the manual labour before found necessary, are now sufficient for every purpose. By means of these machines, when employed in the full extent proposed by the inventor, the wheat will be received on the shallop's deck— thence carried to the upper loft of the mill—and a considerable portion of the same returned in flour on the floor, ready for packing, without the assistance of manual labour but in a very small degree, in proportion to the business done. The transportation of flour from these mills to the port of Wilmington, does not require half an hour, and a cargo is frequently taken from the mills and delivered at

Philadelphia the same day. The situation of these mills is very pleasant and healthy. The first mill was built here about fifty years since. There is now a small town of forty houses, principally stone and brick, which, together with the mills and the vessels loading and unloading beside them, furnish an agreeable prospect from the bridge; from whence they are all in full view.

Besides the wheat and flour-trade, this state exports lumber and various other articles. The amount of exports for the year ending September 30th, 1791, was one hundred and ninety-nine thousand eight hundred and forty dollars. The nett amount of duties on imports and tonnage, and fines, penalties and forfeitures, in the year 1792, was nineteen thousand and seventy-seven dollars and twenty-eight cents.

LIGHT HOUSE.] The light-house, near the town of Lewes, was burnt in 1777. Since the war, it has been completed and handsomely repaired. It is a fine stone structure, eight stories high; the annual expense of which is estimated at six hundred and fifty pounds currency.

RELIGION.] In this state there is a variety of religious denominations. Of the presbyterian sect, there are twenty four churches—of the episcopal, fourteen—of the baptist, seven—of the methodist, a considerable number, especially in the two lower counties of Kent and Sussex; the number of their churches is not exactly ascertained. Besides these there is a Swedish church at Wilmington, which is one of the oldest churches in the united states.

POPULATION. See table of divisions.

MILITIA.] The militia of this state constitute one division, containing three brigades, one in each county. Each brigade contains three regiments.

MINERALS. In the county of Sussex, among the branches of the Nanticoke river, large quantities of bog iron ore are to be found. Before the revolution, this ore was worked to considerable extent; it was thought to be of a good quality and peculiarly adapted to the purposes of castings. The works have mostly fallen to decay.

CONSTITUTION.] The constitution of this state begins by declaring some of the rights of the people, and enumerates nearly the same that are mentioned in the declaration of rights of Pennsylvania. It then delegates the legislative power to a general assembly, consisting of a senate and a house of representatives; and the executive, to a governor. All these are chosen by the people on the first Tuesday of October—the governor for three years; but he is not eligible for the next three. He must be thirty years old, and have been an inhabitant of the state six years, and of the united states twelve years. A plurality of votes make a choice. The senators are chosen for three years, must be twenty-seven years old, free-holders of two hundred acres of land, or possessed of one hundred pounds property, and have been inhabitants of the state three years. They are divided into three classes, the time of one class expiring each year, and their seats being filled by new elections.—The representatives are chosen for one year, must be twenty-four years old, freeholders, and have been inhabitants three years. The constitution provides that there shall be seven representatives and three senators chosen by each county; but the general assembly has power to increase the number, when two-thirds of each branch shall think it expedient; provided the number of senators shall never be greater than one-half, nor less than one-third, of the number of representatives. The general assembly meets on the first Tuesday of January annually, unless sooner convened by the governor. Each branch has all the powers necessary for a branch of the legislature of a free and independent state. A majority of each constitutes a quorum to do business, and a less number may adjourn from day to day, and compel the attendance of members. They are privileged from arrests while attending on public business, except in cases of treason, felony, and breach of the peace; and for things said in public debate, are not questionable elsewhere. They are compensated out of the public treasury; from which

no money can be drawn, but in consequence of appropriation by law. Impeachments are to be made by the lower house, and tried by the senate. Revenue-bills originate in the house of representatives, but the senate may propose alterations. A journal is kept of their proceedings, and published at the end of every session, and the doors of both houses are kept open, unless the business is of a nature that requires secrecy.—The governor is commander in chief of the military force; may remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachment; may require information from all executive officers; may convene the general assembly on extraordinary occasions, and adjourn them to any time not exceeding three months, when they cannot agree on the time themselves. He must inform them of affairs concerning the state, recommend to them such measures as he shall judge expedient, and see that the laws are faithfully executed. The speaker of the senate, and, after him, the speaker of the house of representatives, shall exercise the office of governor, in case of vacancy.—The judicial power is vested in a court of chancery, and several common law courts. The judges are appointed by the governor, and commissioned during good behavior, and the justices of the peace for seven years; all removable on the address of two-thirds of both houses of assembly. The other officers of the state are appointed, some by the governor, some by the general assembly, and some by the people. No person concerned in any army or navy contract, or holding any office except that of attorney general, officers usually appointed by the courts of justice, attorneys at law, and officers in the militia, can be a senator, or representative. The governor can hold no other office. No federal officer can hold an office in this state, to which a salary is by law annexed. The clergy are excluded from all civil offices. All officers are impeachable, and are bound by oath or affirmation to support the constitution, and perform the duties of their offices. All free white men, twenty-one years old, having been two years inhabitants, and paid taxes, are electors: and are privileged from arrests in civil actions while attending elections. The general assembly, with the approbation of the governor, have a right, under certain regulations and restrictions, to make amendments to this constitution. A convention may also be called, where a majority of the people shall signify their wish for it.

The foregoing constitution was ratified on the 12th of June, 1792.

HISTORY.] The Dutch, under a pretended purchase made of Henry Hudson, took possession of the lands on both sides the river Delaware; and as early as the year 1623, built a fort, in New-Jersey, at the place which has since been called Gloucester.

In 1627, by the influence of William Uteling, a respectable merchant in Sweden, a colony of Swedes and Finns came over, furnished with all the necessaries for beginning a new settlement, and landed at Cape-Henlopen, which they called Paradise-Point: at which time the Dutch had wholly quitted the country. The Dutch had however, returned in 1630, and built a fort at Lewestown, by them named Hoarkill. The year following, the Swedes built a fort near Washington, which they called Christein or Christiana. Here also they laid out a small town, which was afterwards demolished by the Dutch. The same year they erected a fort higher up the river, upon Tenecum island, which they called New-Gottenburgh; they also, about the same time, built forts at Chester, Elsinburgh, and other places. John Printz then governed the Swedes, and, in 1654, deputed his son in law, John Pappia, and returned to Sweden. Pappia soon followed his father-in-law to his native country, and John Rysing succeeded to the government.

In 1655, the Dutch, under the command of Peter Stuyvesant, arrived in Delaware river, from New-Amsterdam (now New-York) in seven vessels, with six or seven hundred men. They dispossessed the Swedes of their forts on the river, and carried the officers and principal inhabitants prisoners to New-Amsterdam, and from thence to Holland. The common people submitted to the conquerors, and remained in the country.

On the first of October, 1664, sir Robert Carr obtained the submission of the Swedes on Delaware river, for the duke of York. Four years after, colonel Nicolls, governor of New-York, with his council, on the 21st of April, appointed a scout and five other persons, to assist captain Carr in the government of the country.

Before the conquest by captain Carr, the Dutch had purchased large tracts of land of the Indians; and the officers of the English government, under the duke of York, made them (the Dutch) liberal grants, on the west side of Delaware bay and river, reserving a quit-rent of a bushel of wheat for every hundred acres. In this situation the government continued till the war broke out between Holland and England, in which, as we have already stated, the Dutch became masters of the whole country; but they held possession no longer than 1667, when, by the treaty of Breda, the New-Netherlands, including the Delaware colony, were yielded to the English, in exchange for Surinam, a province of South America. From this period (1667) to the commencement of Dennis's administration, in 1682, the counties of Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex, were considered as forming an appendage to the government of New-York.

In 1672, the town of Newcastle was incorporated by the government of New-York, to be governed by a bailiff and six assistants; after the first year the four oldest were to leave their office, and four others to be chosen. The bailiff was president, with a double vote; the constable was chosen by the bench. They had power to try causes not exceeding ten pounds, without appeal. The office of scout was converted into that of sheriff, who had jurisdiction in the corporation and along the river, and was annually chosen. They were to have a free trade, without being obliged to make entry at New-York, as had formerly been the practice.

Wampum was, at this time, the principal currency of the country. Governor Lovelace of New-York, by proclamation, ordered that four white grains and three black ones, should pass for the value of a shilling or penny. This proclamation was published at Albany, Elopos, Delaware, Long-Island and the parts adjacent.

Sir Edmund Anderson was, at this time, governor of the duke of York's territory, which, by a patent from Charles II. bearing date June 29, 1674, comprehended all that country called by the Dutch NEW-NETHERLANDS, including, as was supposed, the three counties of Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex. By his arbitrary impositions he rendered both his administration and character odious to the people. They remonstrated in vain against his proceedings.

In 1680, when M. Penn petitioned the crown for a grant of Pennsylvania, the question arose, whether or not the duke of York's grant included the three counties west of the Delaware river. This question came before the lords of the committee of foreign plantations, who referred it to the attorney general. His report was, "that the patents granted his royal highness, of New-York, bounded westward by the east side of Delaware bay."

In 1685, this question received a still more formal adjudication. On lord Baltimore's opposition to Mr. Penn's settlement under his grant, it was brought before a committee of the privy council a second time. After a full examination of the subject, their lordships reported, among other things, "that they did adjudge the land called Delaware, to belong to his majesty."

In the settlement of the Delaware colony, under two deeds of feoffment from the duke of York, in 1682, William Penn became involved in a tedious and expensive territorial contest with lord Baltimore. This dispute was decided in 1685, by an order, "that for the avoiding further differences, the tract of land lying between the river and bay of Delaware and the eastern sea, on the one side, and Chesapeake bay on the other, be divided into two equal parts, by a line from the latitude of Cape-Henlopen to the fortieth degree of N. latitude; and that one half thereof, lying towards the bay of

Delaware and the eastern sea, be adjudged to belong to his majesty; and the other half to remain to the lord Baltimore, as comprised within his charter." This decision was founded on the principle, that the king had been deceived in his grant! The Delaware colony came within the exception, by which the patent was restricted; as that part of the country was proved to have been previously possessed and settled by the Swedes and Dutch.

In 1682, William Penn assumed the government of the Delaware colony. It then became connected with Pennsylvania in the affairs of legislation. After this union the representatives assembled for the first time at Chester, on the 4th day of October. They enacted a law confirming the union. By this law, all the benefits before granted to the province of Pennsylvania, were extended to Delaware colony. They were, from that time, to be considered as the same people, and subject to the same laws. The freemen, both of the province and of Delaware, were summoned to attend *in person*, at this first assembly; but they preferred the mode of transacting their business by their representatives; and accordingly elected twelve members in each county, amounting in the whole to seventy-two, the exact number which was to compose one house only. By their representatives, they sent petitions to the governor, importing, "that the fewness of the people, their inability in estate, and unskilfulness in government, would not permit them to serve in so large a council and assembly; and therefore it was their desire, that the twelve now returned from each county, might serve both for provincial council and general assembly, with the same powers and privileges, which, by the charter, were granted to the whole." The members were accordingly distributed into two houses; three out of each county made a council, consisting of eighteen members; and the remainder formed an assembly of fifty-four.

It ought here to be remarked, that, after the example of the first settlers in New-England, and of the Dutch in New-Netherlands, the first settlers in Pennsylvania, under the government of William Penn, purchased their lands of the native Indians, in a fair and honourable manner, and it was observable, that every new purchase considerably enhanced the value of the land, in the estimation of the original proprietors.

The administration of the government, gave general satisfaction, so long as William Penn resided in the province. But on his being recalled to England, in consequence of the dispute between him and lord Baltimore, disorders and altercations arose in every department of government, which continued till 1692, when the government was assumed by the crown; and colonel Fletcher, governor of New-York, was appointed governor of both provinces. The year following, however, the government was restored to William Penn.

In 1701, the Delaware counties rejected the new frame of government proposed by the proprietary, upon which a breach ensued between them and Pennsylvania, which terminated in an entire separation.

This separation proved favourable to the peace of the three lower counties; for a number of years, they enjoyed a considerable share of political tranquillity. At length, however, contests arose between the two proprietaries, which lasted for half a century. Exhausted with the expense and trouble attending this perplexing business, the claimants, in May, 1732, entered into articles of agreement, settling all differences, and appointed commissioners to complete the contract. The execution of these articles, and the decree thereon, through delays on the part of the Maryland proprietor, and some other circumstances, was postponed till they were superseded by another agreement between Frederic lord Baltimore, and the proprietaries of Pennsylvania, which was entered into July 4, 1760, and was confirmed by decree, March 6, 1792. These articles and decrees were immediately put in execution. The commissioners, appointed and authorized by the respective proprietors, surveyed the several lines as mentioned and described in the agreement—designated those lines by heaps of stones,

pillars, and other land-marks, and made return of their proceedings, under their hands and seals, with an exact plan or map of their work annexed. The change of jurisdiction was not completed, till the publication of Mr Penn's proclamation for that purpose, on the 8:h of April 1775. This was finally carried into operation, the laws extended, and the boundaries of the counties, and hundreds established by an act of the Delaware legislature, passed September 2, 1775.

In the war between Britain and France, which began in 1755, Delaware furnished her full quota of men and other supplies. Major Wells, who had been placed at the head of the military in this colony, marched to the seat of war in the western country, at the head of a large number of brave and well disciplined troops. Nor was this small district behind her sister colonies in opposing British usurpation and oppression. So early as October 1765, representatives* were sent from Delaware, to attend the first congress held at New-York, for the purpose of obtaining a repeal of some of the most obnoxious British statutes. In 1773, the legislature, alarmed at the measures of Britain, "resolved that a standing committee of correspondence and inquiry be appointed, to consist of five members, whose business it shall be to obtain the earliest and most authentic intelligence of all such acts and resolutions of the British colonies in America and to keep up a correspondence and communication with our sister colonies respecting these important considerations." Nor were these acts of patriotism confined to legislative resolves. When the inhabitants of Boston, by the operation of the port bill, were reduced to great distress, supplies, from different parts of the colony, were voluntarily contributed and forwarded for their relief.

In September 1776, the people, by their representatives, chosen for the express purpose, assembled and established a constitution of government (which, in 1792, was superseded by their present constitution), and assumed the name of the DELAWARE STATE. Till this time this district had been designated by the style of "The three lower counties on the Delaware."

During the existence of the revolutionary war, they manifested their attachment to the common cause, on all occasions, by furnishing their proportion of men, money, clothing, and provisions. The Delaware regiment, which, in the spring of 1776, marched to join the army at New-York, under the command of the brave and active col. John Haset, who afterwards fell in the battle of Princeton, was celebrated as one of the finest and most efficient in the continental army. The Delaware troops, in the southern states, sustained a distinguished character for military prowess. The commendation of them and of the intrepid Kirkwood, by general Greene, was singularly honourable.

In the course of the war, great were the distresses of the inhabitants of Delaware, from various sources; the upper district of the state, sustained, for a long time, the ravages of the British army. And while both armies were in Pennsylvania, the bay and river being in possession of the enemy, their armed vessels carried on a destructive predatory war on the coast, intercepting vessels, burning houses and kidnapping citizens. The sciences were compelled to give place to the ravages of war. The flourishing academies of New-Ark and Wilmington were broken up, the students dispersed by the approaching armies, and the funds sunk and destroyed by the depreciation of continental paper money. Learning has revived since the peace, and is flourishing under the auspices of a stable and efficient government.

When the present federal constitution was submitted, by the convention, to the legislatures of the several states for the purpose of collecting the general sense of the people upon the propriety of adopting it, the state of Delaware was the first which

* Caesar Rodney and Thomas M^cKean, esquires.

assembled on this most important business. A convention was called in November, which, after due examination of the constitution, and deliberation on its merits, unanimously ratified and adopted it on the third of December 1787, and the people have ever since remained its firm friends and supporters.

This state, as appears from the report of the commissioners for settling the accounts of the united states with the individual states, who completed the business of their commission July 1, 1793, is indebted to the united states the large sum of six hundred and twelve thousand four hundred and twenty-eight dollars, which is more than twice as much as the debt of any other of the states.

M A R Y L A N D.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Length 134 } between { 17° 55' and 39° 44' N. lat.
 Breadth 110 } { 0° and 4° 0' W. lon. Square miles. 14,000
 { one-fourth of which is water.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north by Pennsylvania; east, by Delaware state, and the Atlantic ocean; south and west, by Virginia.

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] This state is divided into nineteen counties; eleven of which are on the western, and eight on the eastern shore of Chesapeak-bay.

COUNTIES AND TOWNS.		Free white males of 16 years and upwards.	Free white males, under 16 years.	Free white females of all ages.	All other free persons	Slaves,	Total.
Hartford county	2872	2812	5100	775	3417	14976	
Baltimore county	5184	4668	9101	604	5877	25434	
Baltimore-town and precincts	3866	2556	5503	223	1255	13508	
Ann-Arundel county	3142	2850	5672	804	10130	24598	
Frederic county	7010	7016	12911	213	3641	30791	
Alleghany county	1068	1283	2188	12	258	4809	
Washington county	3738	3863	6871	64	1286	15822	
Montgomery county	3284	2746	5649	294	6030	18003	
Prince George county	2658	2503	4848	104	1176	21344	
Calvert county	1091	1109	2011	136	4375	8652	
Charles county	2565	2399	5160	404	10685	20613	
St. Mary's county	2100	1943	4178	343	6985	15544	
<i>Total—Western Shore</i>		38573	35748	69187	4136	64445	212089
Cecil county	2847	2377	4831	163	3497	13625	
Kent county	1870	1547	3245	655	5432	12836	
Queen Anns's county	2158	1974	4039	618	6674	15463	
Caroline county	1812	1727	3489	421	2057	956	
Talbot county	1938	1712	3581	1076	4777	13884	
Somerset county	2185	1908	4179	268	7070	15619	
Dorchester county	2541	2430	5039	528	5337	15875	
Worcester county	1985	1916	3725	178	3936	11640	
<i>Total—Eastern Shore</i>		17342	15591	32298	3907	38501	107659
<i>Aggregate number in the State</i>		55915	51339	101897	8043	102946	319728

BAYS AND RIVERS.] Chesapeak-bay, as we have already hinted, divides this state into the eastern and western divisions. This is one of the largest bays in the known world. Its entrance is nearly E. N. E. and S. S. W. between Cape Charles, latitude $37^{\circ} 12'$, and Cape Henry, latitude 37° in Virginia, twelve miles wide, and it extends two hundred and seventy miles to the northward, dividing Virginia and Maryland. It is from seven to eighteen miles broad, and generally nine fathoms deep; affording many commodious harbours, and a safe and easy navigation. It has many good fisheries and is remarkable for the excellence of its crabs, and also for a particular species of wild duck, called canvas back. In a commercial view, it is of immense advantage to the state. It receives a number of large rivers. From the Eastern Shore of Maryland it receives Pokomoke, Nanticoke, Choptank, Chester, Elk, and other smaller rivers. From the north, the rapid Susquehannah; and from the west, Patapsco, Severn, Patuxent, and Patomak, half of which is in Maryland, and half in Virginia. Except the Susquehannah and Patomak, these are small rivers. Patapsco river is but about thirty or forty yards wide at the ferry, just before it empties into the basin, upon which Baltimore stands. Its source is in York county, in Pennsylvania. Its course is southwardly, till it reaches Elkridge-landing, about eight miles westward of Baltimore; it then turns eastward, in a broad bay-like stream, by Baltimore, which it leaves on the north, and passes into the Chesapeak.

The entrance into Baltimore harbour about a mile below Fell's Point, is hardly pistol-shot across, and, of course, may be easily defended against naval force.

Severn is a short, inconsiderable river, passing by Annapolis, which it leaves to the south, emptying by a broad mouth, into the Chesapeak.

Patuxent is a larger river than the Patapsco. It rises in Ann Arundel county, and runs south-eastwardly, and then east into the bay, fifteen or twenty miles north of the mouth of Patomak. There are several small rivers, such as Wicocomico, Eastern Branch, Monocasy, and Conegocheague, which empty into Patomak river from the Maryland side.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE,] East of the blue ridge of mountains, which
SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] stretches across the western part of this state, the land like that in all the southern states, is generally level and free from stones; of course, the soil must be similar and the natural growth not remarkably different.

The ground is uniformly level and low in most of the counties of the Eastern Shore and consequently covered, in many places, with stagnant water, except where it is intersected by numerous creeks. There are large tracts of marsh, which during the day, load the atmosphere with vapour, that falls in dew, in the close of the summer and the fall season, which are thereby rendered sickly. The spring and first part of summer are most healthy.

The soil of the good land in Maryland, is of such a nature and quality as to produce from twelve to sixteen bushels of wheat, or from twenty to thirty bushels of Indian corn per acre. Ten bushels of wheat and fifteen bushels of corn per acre, may be the annual average crops in the state at large.

Wheat and tobacco are the staple commodities. In the interior country, on the uplands, considerable quantities of hemp and flax are raised.

Two articles are said to be peculiar to Maryland, viz. the genuine white wheat, which grows in Kent, Queen Ann's, and Talbot counties, on the Eastern Shore, and which degenerates in other places—and the bright kite's foot tobacco, which is produced at Elkridge, on the Patuxent.

Among other kinds of timber is the oak, of several kinds, which is of a straight grain, and easily rives into staves, for exportation. The walnut is in demand for cabinets, tables, and other furniture. The apples of this state are large, but mealy; the peaches abundant and good. From these the inhabitants distil cyder-brandy and peach-brandy.

The forests abound with nuts of various kinds, which are collectively called mast. On this mast, great numbers of swine are fed, which run wild in the woods. These swine, when fatted are caught, killed, barrelled, and exported in great quantities. This traffic was formerly carried on to a very considerable extent. Douglas says, that "in the year 1733, which was a good mast year, one gentleman, a planter and merchant, in Virginia, salted up three thousand barrels of pork."

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] The population of this state is exhibited in the foregoing table. By that it appears, that the number of inhabitants, including the negroes, is three hundred and nineteen thousand seven hundred and twenty-eight; which is nearly twenty-three for every square mile. The inhabitants, except in the populous towns, live on their plantations, often several miles distant from each other. To an inhabitant of the middle, and especially of the eastern states, which are thickly populated; they appear to live very retired. But their hospitality to strangers is equally universal and obvious. Many of the women possess all the amiable, and many of the elegant accomplishments of their sex.

The inhabitants are made up of various nations, of many different religious sentiments; few general observations, therefore, of a characteristical kind, will apply. It may be said, however, with great truth, that they are, in general, very federal, and friends to good government. They owe little money as a state, and are willing and able to discharge their debts. Their credit is very good; and although they have so great a proportion of slaves, yet a number of influential gentlemen have evinced their humanity and their disposition to abolish so disreputable a traffic, by forming themselves into a society for the abolition of negro slavery.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Annapolis (city) is the capital of Maryland, and the wealthiest town of its size in America, it is situated at the mouth of Severn river, on a healthy spot, thirty miles south of Baltimore. It is a place of little note in the commercial world. The houses, about two hundred and sixty in number, are generally large and elegant, indicative of great wealth. The number of inhabitants does not exceed two thousand. The design of those who planned the city, was to have the whole in the form of a circle, with the streets like radii, beginning at the centre where the state-house stands; and thence diverging in every direction. The principal part of the buildings are arranged agreeably to this plan. The state-house is an elegant building.

Baltimore has had the most rapid growth of any town on the continent, and is the fourth in size and fifth in trade, in the united states.* It lies in lat. $39^{\circ} 21'$, on the north side of Patapsco river, around what is called the Basin, in which the water at common tides, is about five or six feet deep. Baltimore is divided into the town and Fell's Point, by a creek, over which are two bridges; but the houses extend, in a sparse situation, from one to the other. At Fell's Point the water is deep enough for ships of burden; but small vessels only go up to the town. The situation of the town is low and was formerly unhealthy; but the increase of houses, and the improvements that have been made, particularly that of paving the streets, have rendered it healthy. The houses were numbered in 1787, and found to be one thousand nine hundred and fifty-five; about one thousand two hundred of which were in the town, and the rest at Fell's Point. The present number is about twenty-eight hundred. The number of ware houses and stores is about two hundred, and of churches nine, which belong to German Calvinists and Lutherans, episcopalians, presbyterians, Roman catholics, baptists, methodists, quakers, nicolites, or new quakers, The number of inhabitants in the town and precincts, according to the census of 1790, was thirteen thou-

* In point of size, the towns in the united states may be ranked in this order—Philadelphia, New-York, Boston, Baltimore, Charleston, &c. In point of trade, Philadelphia, New-York, Boston, Charleston, Baltimore, &c.

and five hundred and three. The majority of the inhabitants, recently collected from almost all quarters of the world, vary in their habits, their manners and their religions. There are great numbers of very respectable families in Baltimore, who live genteelly; are hospitable to strangers, and maintain a friendly and improving intercourse with each other.

Market-street is the principal street in the town, and runs nearly east and west, a mile in length, parallel with the water. This is crossed by several other streets leading from the water, a number of which, particularly Calvert, South, and Gay-streets, are well built. North and east of the town, the land rises, and affords a fine prospect of the town and bay. Belvedere, the seat of col. Howard, exhibits a fine landscape. The town—the point—the shipping, both in the basin and at Fell's Point—the bay, as far as the eye can reach—rising ground on the right and left of the harbour,—a grove of trees on the declivity at the right—a stream of water breaking over the rocks at the foot of the hill on the left, all conspire to complete the beauty and grandeur of the prospect. There is a bank established in this town, with a capital of three hundred thousand dollars, by the name of “the bank of Maryland.” There is likewise a branch of the bank of the united states.

Georgetown stands on the bank of the river Patomak, about one hundred and sixty miles from its entrance into Chesapeake bay. The ground on which it stands is much broken, being a cluster of little hills, which though at present elevated considerably above the surface of the river, were probably, at some former period, overflowed, as, at the depth of eight or ten feet below the surface, marine shells have been found.

Fredericktown is a fine, flourishing inland town, of upwards of three hundred houses, built principally of brick and stone, and mostly on one broad street. It is situated in a fertile country, about four miles south of Catokton mountain, and is a place of considerable trade. It has four places for public worship, one for presbyterians, two for Dutch Lutherans and Calvinists, and one for baptists; besides a public jail and a brick market-house.

Hagerstown is but little inferior to Fredericktown; and is situated in the beautiful and well-cultivated valley of Conegocheague, and carries on a considerable trade with the western country.

Elkton is situated near the head of Chesapeake bay, on a small river which bears the name of the town. It enjoys great advantages from the carrying-trade between Baltimore and Philadelphia. The tides rise to this town.

The city of Washington, in the territory of Columbia, was ceded, by the states of Virginia and Maryland, to the united states, and established as the seat of the federal government, after the year 1800. This city, which is now building, stands at the junction of the rivers Patomak and the eastern branch, latitude $38^{\circ} 53'$ north, extending nearly four miles up each, and including a tract of territory, exceeded, in point of convenience, salubrity, and beauty, by none in America. For although the land, in general, appears level, yet by gentle and gradual swellings, a variety of elegant prospects are produced, and a sufficient descent formed for conveying off the water occasioned by rain. Within the limits of the city are a great number of excellent springs; and by digging wells, water of the best quality may readily be had. Besides, the never-failing streams, that now run through that territory, may also be collected for the use of the city. The waters of Reedy branch, and of Tiber creek, may be conveyed to the president's house. The source of Tiber creek, is elevated about two hundred and thirty-six feet above the level of the tide in said creek. The perpendicular height of the ground on which the capitol is to stand, is seventy-eight feet above the level of the tide in Tiber creek. The water of Tiber creek may, therefore, be conveyed to the capitol, and, after watering that part of the city, may be destined to other useful purposes.

The Eastern Branch is one of the safest and most commodious harbours in America, being sufficiently deep for the largest ships, for about four miles above its mouth, while the channel lies close along the bank adjoining the city, and affords a large and convenient harbour. The Patomak, although only navigable for small craft, for a considerable distance from its banks next to the city, (excepting about half a mile above the junction of the rivers) will, nevertheless, afford a capacious summer harbour; as an immense number ships may ride in the great channel, opposite to, and below the city.

The situation of this metropolis is upon the great post road, equi distant from the northern and southern extremities of the union, and nearly so from the Atlantic and Pittsburg, upon the best navigation, and in the midst of a commercial territory, probably the richest, and commanding the most extensive internal resources of any in America. It has therefore many advantages to recommend it, as an eligible place for the permanent seat of the general government; and as it is likely to be speedily built and otherwise improved, by the public spirited enterprize of the people of the united states, and even by foreigners, it may be expected to grow up with a degree of rapidity hitherto unparalleled in the annals of cities.

The plan of this city appears to contain some important improvements upon that of the best planned cities in the world, combining, in a remarkable degree, convenience, regularity, elegance of prospect, and a free circulation of air. The positions for the different public edifices, and for the several squares and areas of different shapes, as they are laid down, were first determined on the most advantageous ground, commanding the most extensive prospects, and, from their situation, susceptible of such improvements as either use or ornament may hereafter require. The capitol will be situated on a most beautiful eminence, commanding a complete view of every part of the city, and of a considerable part of the country around. The president's house will stand on a rising ground, possessing a delightful water-prospect, together with a commanding view of the capitol, and the most material parts of the city. Lines, or avenues, of direct communication have been devised to connect the most distant and important objects. These tranverse avenues or diagonal streets, are laid out on the most advantageous ground for prospect and convenience, and are calculated not only to produce a variety of charming prospects, but greatly to facilitate the communication throughout the city. North and south lines, intersected by others running due east and west, make the distribution of the city into streets, squares &c. and those lines have been so combined as to meet at certain given points, with the divergent avenues, so as to form, on the spaces first determined, the different squares or areas. The grand avenues, and such streets as lead immediately to public places, are from one hundred and thirty to one hundred and sixty feet wide, and may be conveniently divided into footways, a walk planted with trees on each side, and a paved way for carriages. The other streets are from ninety to one hundred and ten feet wide.

In order to execute this plan, Mr. Ellicott drew a true meridional line by celestial observation, which passes through the area intended for the capitol. This line he crossed by another, running due east and west, which passes through the same area. These lines were accurately measured, and made the bases on which the whole plan was executed. He ran all the lines by a transit instrument, and determined the acute angles by actual measurement, leaving nothing to the uncertainty of the compass.

MINES AND MANUFACTURES.] Mines of iron ore, of a superior quality, abound in many parts of the state. Furnaces for running this ore into pigs and hollow ware, and forges to refine pig-iron into bars, are numerous, and worked to great extent and profit. This is the chief manufacture of importance carried on in the state, except that of wheat into flour, and the curing of tobacco.

TRADE.] The trade of Maryland is principally carried on from Baltimore, with the

other states, with the West-Indies, and with some parts of Europe, To these places they send annually about thirty thousand hogheads of tobacco, besides large quantities of wheat, flour, pig iron, lumber and corn; beans, pork, and flaxseed, in smaller quantities: and receive in return, clothing for themselves and negroes, and other dry goods, wines, spirits, sugars and other West-India commodities. The balance is generally in their favour.

	Dollars.	cents.
The total amount of exports from Baltimore, from October 1, 1786, to September 30, 1790, was	2,027,777	64
Value of imports from the same time,	1,945,899	55
Exports from October, 1, 1790, to September 30, 1791,	3,431,327	55

During the last mentioned period, the quantity of wheat exported was two hundred and five thousand five hundred and seventy-one bushels—Indian corn, two hundred and five thousand six hundred and forty-three bushels—buck wheat, four thousand two hundred and eighty-six bushels—peas, ten thousand six hundred and nineteen bushels; besides, one hundred and fifty-one thousand, four hundred and forty-five barrels of wheat-flour; four thousand three hundred and twenty-five barrels of Indian meal; six thousand seven hundred and sixty-one barrels of bread; and three thousand one hundred and four kegs of crackers. The nett amount of duties on imports and tonnage, and fines, penalties and forfeitures, in the whole year of 1792, in this state, according to the secretary's report, was four hundred and forty-nine thousand four hundred and fifty-two dollars, eighty-seven cents.

RELIGION.] The Roman catholics, who were the first settlers in Maryland, are the most numerous religion. Besides these, there are protestant episcopalians, English, Scotch and Irish presbyterians, German Calvinists, German Lutherans, friends, baptists, methodists, mennonists, nicolites or new quakers; who all enjoy the most perfect liberty of conscience.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING, &c.] Washington academy, in Somerset county, was instituted by law in 1779. It was founded and is supported by voluntary subscriptions and private donations, and is authorized to receive gifts and legacies, and to hold two thousand acres of land. A suppliment to the law, in 1784, increased the number of trustees from eleven to fifteen.

In 1782, a college was instituted at Chester town, in Kent county, and was stiled Washington College, after president Washington. It is under the management of twenty four visitors or governors, with power to supply vacancies, and hold estates, whose yearly value shall not exceed six thousand pounds current money. By a law enacted in 1787, a permanent fund was granted to this institution of twelve hundred and fifty pounds a year, currency, out of the money arising from marriage-licenses, fines and forfeitures on the Eastern Shore.

St. John's College was instituted in 1784, to have also twenty-four trustees, with power to keep up the succession by supplying vacancies and to receive an annual income of nine thousand pounds. A permanent fund is assigned this college, of seventeen hundred and fifty pounds a year, out of the monies arising from marriage-licenses, ordinary licenses, fines and forfeitures on the Western Shore. This college is to be at Annapolis, where a building is now prepared for it. Very liberal subscriptions were obtained towards founding and carrying on these seminaries. The two colleges constitute one university, by the name of 'the university of Maryland,' whereof the governor of the state, for the time being, is chancellor, and the principal of one of them, vice-chancellor, either by seniority or by election, as may hereafter be provided for, by rule or by law. The chancellor is empowered to call a meeting of the trustees, or a representation of seven of each, and two of the members of the faculty

of each, (the principal being one) which meeting is stiled "The Convocation of the university of Maryland," who are to frame the laws, preserve uniformity of manners and literature in the colleges, confer the higher degrees, determine appeals, &c.

The Roman catholics have also erected a college at Georgetown on Patomak river, for the promotion of general literature, which is at present in a very flourishing situation; it being found inadequate to contain the number of students that applied, a large addition is now building to it.

In 1785, the methodists instituted a college at Abington, in Harford county, by the name of Cokebury college, after Thomas Coke, and Francis Asbury, bishops of the methodist episcopal church. The college-edifice is of brick, handsomely built on a healthy spot, enjoying a fine air and a very extensive prospect.

The students, who are to consist of the sons of travelling preachers, the sons of annual subscribers, the sons of the members of the methodist society, and orphans, are instructed in English, Latin, Greek, logic, rhetoric, history, geography, natural philosophy and astronomy; and when the finances of the college will admit, they are to be taught the Hebrew, French and German languages.

The college was erected and is supported wholly by subscription and voluntary donations.

The students have regular hours for rising, for prayers, for their meals, for study, and for recreation. They are all to be in bed precisely at nine o'clock. Their recreations, (for they are all to be indulged in nothing which the world cal's "play") are gardening, walking, riding, and bathing, without doors; and within doors, the carpenter's, joiner's, cabinet-maker's, or turner's business. Suitable provision is made for these several occupations, which are to be considered not as matters of drudgery and constraint, but as pleasing and healthful recreations, both for the body and mind. Another of their rules, which is favourable to the health and vigour of the body and mind, is that the students shall not sleep on feather beds, but on mattresses, and each one by himself. Particular attention is paid to the morals and religion of the students.

There are a few other literary institutions, of inferior note, in different parts of the state and provision is made for free schools in most of the counties; though some are entirely neglected.

EXPENSES OF GOVERNMENT AND TAXES. } The annual expenses of government are estimated at about twenty thousand pounds currency. The revenue arises chiefly from taxes on real and personal property.

CONSTITUTION.] The legislature is composed of two distinct branches, a senate and house of delegates, and stiled the general assembly of Maryland. The senators are elected in the following manner. On the first of September every fifth year, the freemen choose two men in each county to be electors of the senate, and one elector for the city of Annapolis, and one for the town of Baltimore. These electors must have the qualifications, necessary for county delegates. These electors meet at Annapolis, or such other place as sha'l be appointed for convening the legislature, on the third Monday in September, every fifth year, and elect by ballot fifteen senators out of their own body or from the people at large. Nine of these must be residents on the Western Shore, and six on the Eastern—they must be more than twenty-five years of age—must have resided in the state more than three years next preceding the election, and have real and personal property above the value of a thousand pounds. The senate may originate any bills, except money-bills, to which they can only give their assent or dissent. The senate choose their president by ballot. The house of delegates is composed of four members for each county, chosen annually the first Monday in October. The city of Annapolis and town of Baltimore send each two delegates. The qualifications of a delegate, are, full age, one year's resi-

dence in the county where he is chosen, and real and personal property above the value of five hundred pounds. Both houses choose their own officers, and judge of the election of their members. A majority of each is a quorum. The election of senators and delegates is *viva voce*, and sheriffs are the returning officers, except in Baltimore town, where the commissioners superintend the elections and make returns. The stated session of the legislature is on the first Monday in November. The qualifications of a freeman are, full age, a freehold estate of fifty acres of land, and actual residence in the county where he offers to vote—or property to the value of thirty pounds in any part of the state, and a year's residence in the county where he offers a vote.

On the second Monday in November, annually, a governor is appointed by the joint ballot of both houses, taken in each house respectively, and deposited in a conference room; where the boxes are examined by a joint committee of both houses, and the number of votes severally reported. The governor cannot continue in office longer than three years successively, nor be re-elected until the expiration of four years after he has been out of office.—The qualifications for the chief-magistracy, are twenty-five years of age, residence in the state for five years next preceding the election, and real and personal estate above the value of five thousand pounds, one thousand of which must be freehold estate.—On the second Tuesday of November, annually, the senators and delegates elect, by joint ballot, five able and discreet men, above twenty five years of age, residents in the state three years next preceding the election, and possessing a freehold of lands and tenements above the value of a thousand pounds, to be a council for assisting the governor in the duties of his office.—Senators, delegates, and members of council, while such, can hold no other office of profit, nor receive the profits of any office exercised by another.—The governor, with the advice of his council, appoints the chancellor, all judges and justices, the attorney-general, naval and military officers, registers of the land office, surveyors, and all other civil officers, except constables, assessors and overseers of the roads.—A court of appeals is established for the final determination of all cases, which may be brought from the general court of admiralty, or of chancery.

This constitution was established by a convention of delegates at Annapolis, August 14, 1776.

[HISTORY.] Maryland was granted by king Charles I. to George Calvert, † baron of Baltimore, in Ireland, June 20, 1632. It was called Maryland, in honour of the queen, and was the first colony which was erected into a province of the English empire, and governed by laws enacted in a provincial legislature.

Lord Baltimore was a Roman catholic, and was induced to undertake this settle-

† George Calvert, lord Baltimore, the founder of Maryland, born in 1582, was educated at Oxford university—was knighted in 1617; by James I. and two years after was appointed one of the principal secretaries of state, which office he discharged with great industry and fidelity and was rewarded by the king with a pension of a thousand pounds a year. Having enjoyed this office about five years, he resigned it in 1624, freely owning to his majesty, that he was a Roman catholic. This honest confession so affected the king, that he continued him privy counsellor during his reign; and in 1635, created him (by the name of sir George Calvert, of Danbywiske, in Yorkshire, knight) ba-

ron of Baltimore, in the county of Longford, in Ireland. While he was secretary, he obtained a patent of the province of Avelon in Newfoundland, where he built an house, and spent twenty-five thousand pounds, in advancing this new plantation; but finding it exposed to the French, was obliged at last to abandon it.

Upon this he came over to Virginia; and, having taken a view of the country, returned to England, and obtained from Charles I. who was his friend, a patent, to him and his heirs, for Maryland. He died in London, April 15, 1642.

* See a copy of this patent in Hazard's Historical Collections, page 37.

ment in America, from the hope of enjoying liberty of conscience for himself and such of his friends as might prefer an easy banishment from England, embittered as they were by the sharpness of the laws, and the popular odium which hung over them. The court, at that time, was very little inclined to treat the Roman catholics in a harsh manner, neither had they any reason to do it; but the laws were of a rigorous complexion, and however the court might be inclined to relax them, they could not in policy do it but with great reserve.

The first migration, consisting of about two hundred gentlemen of considerable fortune and rank, with their adherents, chiefly Roman catholics, sailed from England in November, 1632; and after a prosperous voyage, landed in Maryland, near the mouth of Patomak river, the beginning of the next year. Calvert their leader, purchased the rights of the aborigines for a consideration which seems to have been satisfactory; and, with their free consent, in the following March, he took possession of their town, which he called St. Mary's. Prudence, as well as justice, dictated the continuation of this salutary policy with regard to the Indians; and having carefully cultivated their friendship, he lived with them on terms of perfect amity, till it was interrupted by the interested intrigues of one William Cleyborne*.

The providing of food and habitations, necessarily engrossed much of the attention of the first settlers. They lived for some time, rather under the domestic regimen of a family, than according to the diffusive regulations of a provincial establishment. The Indian women taught the emigrants how to make bread of their corn—their men went out to hunt and fish with the English—they assisted them in the chase, and sold them the game they took for themselves, for a trifling consideration; so that the new settlers had a sort of town already built, ground ready cleared for their cultivation, and no enemy to harass them. They had also prudently commenced their settlement at that season when the operations of agriculture naturally begin. Food was therefore easily provided for those whom they expected to follow them from England.

Lord Baltimore laid the foundation of this province on the broad basis of security to property, and liberty in religion; granting, in absolute fee, fifty acres of land to every emigrant; establishing christianity, agreeably to the old common law, without allowing pre-eminence to any particular sect. The wisdom of his choice and measures, soon converted a dreary wilderness into a prosperous colony. The transportation of people, and necessary stores and provisions during the first two years, cost lord Baltimore upwards of forty thousand pounds. The freemen of the province, even during the youthful state of the colony, granted him a subsidy of fifteen pounds of tobacco on every poll, "as a testimony of their gratitude for his great charge, and solicitude in maintaining the government, in protecting their inhabitants and their rights, and for reimbursing his vast charge." This donation does equal honour to both; as it shows that the one had merit, and that the others possessed gratitude.

The first assembly, of which any record remains, composed probably of the whole freemen of the province, because their numbers were few, convened in February, 1634-5. Little of their proceedings are now known. It is certain, however, that among other wholesome laws, it was then enacted, "that offenders in all murders and felonies, shall suffer the same pains and forfeitures, as for the same crimes in England."

As emigrants arrived and extended themselves at a greater distance from St. Mary's,

* This Cleyborne lived upon and claimed Kent Island, which is situated in the heart of Maryland. He refused his submission to the jurisdiction of Maryland, because the

government of Virginia, "knowing no reasons why the rights of that place should be given up," countenanced his opposition.

the metropolis, legislative regulations became more necessary. With a view chiefly to procure the assent of the freemen to a body of laws which the proprietary had transmitted, Calvert, the governor, called a new assembly, in January 1637. But, rejecting these with a becoming spirit, they prepared a collection of regulations, which demonstrate equally their good sense and the state of their affairs. The province was divided into baronies and manors, the privileges of which were carefully regulated. A bill was passed, "for settling the glebe." Others, "for the liberties of the people," and "for swearing allegiance to their sovereign." The interests of property were duly attended to. Bills passed for "assurance of titles to lands, and regulating their mode of descent," and "for succession of the goods of deceased intestates." The law both "for civil and criminal causes" was ascertained. Laws were also enacted, "for the payment of tobacco, for the planting of corn," and a variety of other regulations of domestic economy, and of commerce, were established.

A third assembly was held at St. John's, in February 1638.9, at which time a considerable change took place. While the fewness of their numbers continued, the whole body of freemen seem to have consented, in person to every law. But now an act passed, "for establishing the house of assembly." It enacted that those who should be elected pursuant to writs issued, should be called *burgesses*, and should supply the place of the freemen, who chose them in the same manner and to the same purpose as the representatives in the parliament of England—that the gentlemen summoned by the special writ of the proprietary, and those freemen who should not have voted at any of the elections, together with the governor and secretary, should be called the house of assembly." That all acts assented to by that body, should be deemed "of the same force, as if the proprietary and freemen had been personally present. The legislative power being thus erected, the assembly passed a code of laws, till a complete system of jurisprudence should be established. "Holy church," said the good catholics, "shall have all her rights and liberties." All inhabitants were required to take the oath of allegiance to his majesty—the prerogatives of the proprietary were recognized—and it was declared, that the colonists should enjoy their liberties, according to the great charter of England. The acts of assembly of Maryland demonstrate that none of the English provincials better understood the nature of their rights, or were more ready to acknowledge their duties, than were the people of that province.

Slavery seems to have rooted in Maryland with its first inhabitants—as an act of this assembly describes "the people," to consist of all christian inhabitants, "slaves only excepted."

In the beginning of the parliament, which assembled in 1640, an attempt was made to establish once more over Virginia the government of the ancient corporation, and thereby to annul the charter of Maryland. But owing partly to the vigorous opposition of the assembly of that ancient dominion, which had now learned, from experience, that more real liberty was enjoyed under any form of government, than beneath the rule of a commercial company, but more to the injustice and difficulty of the measure, that project was dropped—and thus, what commenced in wickedness, ended in disappointment.

Never did a people enjoy more real happiness, or were more grateful for it, than the inhabitants of Maryland under Cecilius, the excellent founder of that province. The spirit which the emigrants displayed on all occasions, as well as their legislative talents, evince that they understood their interests, and pursued it—that while they cherished the just prerogative of the proprietary, they never lost sight of the rights of freemen.

The wise and prudent measures of the governor, with regard to the Indians, had hitherto ensured a peace, which had proved extremely beneficial to the province, dur-

ing its weaknes. The intrigues of Cleyborne, however, infused a jealousy that was never altogether eradicated. The rapid increase of strangers, which threatened their own annihilation as a people, and the donation of their lands, without the authority of government, for trifling considerations, gave them the greatest dissatisfaction. All these causes brought on an Indian war, in 1642, which lasted for several years, and was attended with the customary evils. A peace was at length concluded on the usual conditions, of present submission and of future amity.

Laws were soon after made, to prevent, in future, the existence of the same causes: All purchases of lands from the Indians, without the consent of the proprietary, were declared illegal and void. It was made "felony of death" for any person "to sell or transport any friendly Indians." And it was declared to be highly penal to deliver any arms or ammunition to them. These salutary regulations, with the prudent conduct of the governor, preserved a long and advantageous peace with the aborigines.

The public tranquillity was scarcely restored, when it was disturbed by mischiefs of greater magnitude and more malignant effects. The restless Cleyborne, joined by Richard Ingle, who had been proclaimed a traitor against his king, in 1643, aided by the turbulent spirit of the times, raised a rebellion in this province, in the beginning of the year 1645, and obliged Calvert, the governor, to flee into Virginia for protection. The administration, which he had been constrained to relinquish, Cleyborne's adherents instantly seized on as fallen to them, and exercised it with great violence. And, notwithstanding Calvert's most rigorous exertions, the revolt was not suppressed, nor quiet restored, till August, 1646. The calamities of that period are sufficiently described by the assembly, when they say, "that the province had been wasted by a miserable dissention and unhappy war, which had been closed by a happy restitution of a blessed peace." In order to restore general tranquillity, an act of oblivion was passed by the assembly. It granted a free pardon of all offences, committed during the revolt, by any persons whatsoever, except Ingle and a few others of the isle of Kent. It discharged all actions for wrongs done while the rebellion lasted, and prohibited all compliance with William Cleyborne, in opposition to the proprietary's right and dominion. And soon after the assembly enacted, "that the charges of all domestic insurrections shall be defrayed by an equal tax upon the persons and estates of the inhabitants."

The revolt being thus suppressed, and order restored in the state, the assembly endeavoured, with a laudable anxiety, to preserve the peace of the church; and though composed chiefly of Roman catholics, which would have enabled it to have passed any regulation peculiarly favourable to that denomination, the act which it passed. "concerning religion," breathes a spirit of liberality uncommon at that period. It recited that the enforcement of conscience had ever been of dangerous consequence in those countries in which it had been practised. And it was enacted, "That no persons, professing to believe in Jesus Christ, should be molested in respect of their religion, or in the free exercise thereof, or be compelled to the exercise of any other religion, against their consent; so that they be not unfaithful to the proprietary, or conspire against the civil government. That any person molesting another in respect of his religious tenets, should pay treble damages to the party aggrieved, and twenty shillings to the proprietary; that those reproaching any with opprobrious names of religious distinction, should forfeit ten shillings to the persons injured, that any one speaking reproachfully against the blessed virgin, or the apostles, should forfeit five pounds. But blasphemy against God should be punished with death." This act passed 1649, and was confirmed, in 1676, among the perpetual laws of the province.

Virginia, at this period, animated by a very different spirit, passed severe laws against the puritans, whose ministers were not suffered to preach. This occasioned numbers to emigrate to Maryland.

Extraordinary scenes were, at this time, exhibited on the colonial theatres. In Massachusetts, the congregationalists, intolerant towards the episcopalians, and every other sect; the episcopal church retaliating upon them in Virginia; and the Roman catholics of Maryland tolerating and protecting all.

The year 1650 is remarkable in the history of Maryland, for the final establishment of that constitution, which continued, with some short interruption, till the present one was adopted in 1776. The burgesses, who convened in 1642, "desired that they might be separated and sit by themselves, and have a negative." The governor did not grant their request. They, however, afterwards availed themselves of the distraction which took place, about this time, and the assembly, in 1649, divided into two branches, and transacted affairs in form of upper and lower house. A law was now (1650) passed "for settling this present assembly." It enacted, that those, who were called by special writ, should constitute the upper house—those chosen by the hundreds should form the lower house—and that all bills which should be assented to by the two branches of the legislature and confirmed by the governor, should be deemed the laws of the province, and have the same effect as if the freemen were personally present. It is from this epoch of its existence, that the democratic part of the assembly, consisting of fourteen delegates, must date the origin of its peculiar immunities or exclusive privileges.—an act of recognition of the undoubted right of lord Baltimore to the province, was passed at the same session.

The province at this time was divided into three counties: St. Mary's, the isle of Kent and Ann-Arundel. These counties were subdivided into eight hundreds.

In September 1651, commissioners were appointed by the then ruling powers in England, "for reducing and governing the provinces within the bay of Chesapeake;" which trust they executed with great attention and dexterity.

The following year, the commissioners issued a variety of orders with respect to Maryland. Yet, while they established the authority of the commonwealth, they permitted the proprietary, who had acknowledged its authority, to rule the province, as formerly; though, in the name of the keepers of the liberties of England. But in 1654, the year after he was made protector for life, Cromwell seized the government. Contentions ensued between the Roman catholics and the puritans; the former adhering to their old constitution, the latter to the new established authority of the commonwealth; which at length issued in a civil war. Various skirmishes were fought with various success, till finally, a decisive engagement took place, and the Roman catholics were vanquished; the governor, Stone, was taken prisoner, and ordered to be executed according to martial law; but the mildness of his administration had so endeared him to the soldiers of his adversaries, that, by their intercession, his sentence was suspended. He, however, suffered a long and rigorous confinement.

In July 1654, Cleyborne, who has been so often mentioned as the evil genius of Maryland, appointed Fuller, Preston and others, commissioners "for directing the affairs of Maryland, under his highness, the lord protector." And these men called an assembly to meet in the next October. The burgesses, returned for St. Mary's county, refused to serve, deeming it "inconsistent with the oaths which they had taken to lord Baltimore."

This assembly first passed "an act of recognition of Cromwell's just title, and authority"—as from him it had derived its power. It next passed "an act concerning religion," declaring, that none who professed the popish religion, could be protected in this province, by the laws of England, formerly established and yet unrevoked; nor by the government of the commonwealth. That such as professed faith in God, by Jesus Christ, though differing in judgment from the doctrine and discipline

publicly held forth, should not be restrained from the exercise of their religion provided such liberty was not extended to popery or prelacy, or to such as under the profession of Christ, practised licentiousness." The contrast between this and the act of assembly of 1649, relative to religion, reflects great honour on the liberality and good sense of the Roman catholics.

In March 1658, the government was surrendered, by the commissioners, to Josiah Fendall, esq. who had been appointed governor by the proprietary. During his administration, the burgesses of the assembly, which met in February, 1649, by his connivance or direction, dissolved the upper house, and assumed every power in the state. Into their hands, he treacherously surrendered what had so lately been entrusted him by the proprietary, and from them he accepted a new commission as governor.

The hon. Philip Calvert, esq. being appointed governor, by the proprietary, in June, 1656, assumed that administration, the December following. His predecessor, (Fendall) was now tried for high treason, found guilty, and condemned to banishment, with the loss of his estate. But the accustomed magnanimity of the founder of the province prevailed over his resentments, and he granted him a pardon, on paying a moderate fine. His accomplices, upon timely submission, were fully pardoned, without prosecution. With the commission of the proprietary to Philip Calvert, was transmitted a letter from Charles II. now restored to the crown of England, commanding all officers and others, his subjects in Maryland, to assist him in the re-establishment of lord Baltimore's just rights and jurisdictions.

Notwithstanding these various distractions, and revolutions, Maryland continued to increase in population and wealth. At the epoch of the restoration (1660) this province contained about twelve thousand souls*.

In 1662, Charles Calvert, eldest son of the proprietary, assumed, by appointment of his father, the administration of the government of Maryland; and, if we may decide from the various "acts of gratitude" which were passed by the assembly, he followed, with the greatest success, the salutary maxims of his father.

In the beginning of the year 1676, died Cecilius, the father of his province, covered with age and reputation, in the forty-fourth year of his government. He lived to see his province, divided into ten counties, containing about sixteen thousand† inhabitants, of whom, the Roman catholics were, to the number of protestants, in the proportion of an hundred to one. But there were no parishes laid out, nor churches erected, nor public maintenance granted, for the support of the ministry. And there were then in Maryland, only three clergymen of the church of England.

Charles Calvert, who had governed the province with great ability, prudence, and reputation, from the year 1661, succeeded his father as proprietary, in the year 1676. He immediately convened an assembly in which he presided in person. They carefully revised the whole code of laws, repealed the unnecessary, explained the obscure, and confirmed the salutary.

Early in the year 1689, a rumour was artfully disseminated, which faction had framed, and credulity believed, "that a popish administration, supported by papists, had leagued with Indians, to cut off all the protestants in the province." Confusion, dismay, and indignation, instantly seized the people. Every art was tried to satisfy them of the falsehood, the folly and absurdity of the report; but in vain. "An association in arms, for the defence of the protestant religion, and for asserting the right of king William and queen Mary to that province, and all the English dominions," was formed in April, 1689. The association placed at their head, John Coode, a seditious, profligate character; who in 1631, had been tried and condemned for sedi-

* British Empire in America, vol. i. p. 191.

† Other accounts say there were, at this period, twenty thousand souls, at least.

tious practices, but had been pardoned. The deputies, at first, endeavoured to oppose the association with force; but meeting few supporters they were constrained to deliver up the fort, with the powers of government, by capitulation; and a revolution in government, of great extent and duration, ensued in Maryland.

Thus were the prerogatives of the proprietary, which he had exerted with an unexampled attention to the rights of the people, together with the privileges of the Roman catholics, which they had hitherto enjoyed under the mildest of laws, overwhelmed at once by the provincial popish plot, and buried in the same grave. William approved the revolution, and transmitted orders to those who had thus acquired the power, to exercise it, in his name, for the preservation of peace; and for the succeeding twenty-seven years, the government of the province remained in the crown of England. In 1692, the protestant religion was established by law in this province.

In the year 1716, the government was restored to Charles, lord Baltimore, the then proprietary, and continued in his and his successors' hands, till the late revolution; when though a minor, the proprietary's property in the lands, was confiscated, and the government assumed by the freemen of the province, who framed their present constitution.

In regard to the American revolution, which separated Britain and her colonies, Maryland was not behind her sister states in its accomplishment.

In July, 1775, the Maryland convention met at Annapolis, and unanimously resolved upon an association to be signed by its members, and by all the freemen of the then province. They said, "we do unite as one band, and solemnly pledge ourselves to each other and to America, that we will, to the utmost of our power, support the present opposition, carrying on, as well by arms as by the continental association, restraining our commerce," &c. They also resolved, "that there be forty companies of minute men, enrolled as soon as might be; that every able-bodied, effective freeman, within the province, between sixteen and fifty" (with the usual exceptions in such cases) "as soon as might be, and at furthest before the 15th of September, should enroll himself in some company of militia." They established a council of safety, consisting of sixteen persons, who were to regulate the operations of the minute men and militia, and also during the recess, to do all other matters for securing the province, and for providing for its defence. They ordered committees of observation and of correspondence to be chosen, and bills of credit, to the amount of two hundred and sixty-six thousand six hundred and sixty six dollars, to be struck off, with all convenient speed, for the service of the province.

Maryland was the last to sign the articles of confederation, published by congress after the declaration of independence. The reason she assigned for her delay, was, "that she had no vacant, unappropriated western territory, of which there were large tracts in the united states, and which she contended, with great justice, ought to be deemed the common property of the union, and pledged as a fund for sinking the national debt." Till, therefore, some satisfaction should be given on the subject, she declined acceding to the confederation. Congress having recommended to the several states, claiming such country, to relinquish their claims to the union, which being complied with on the part of some of the states, the legislature of Maryland, by the earnest request of congress, empowered their delegates in congress, by an act for that purpose, to subscribe and ratify the articles of confederation: and this they did, as well from a desire to perpetuate and strengthen the union, as from a confidence in the justice and generosity of the larger states—and from a belief, that rising superior to local interests, they would consent to such arrangements of the unappropriated lands, included in the respective charters, as good policy required, and the great exertions of their own state in the common cause had so highly deserved. On the first of

March, 1781, they signed the articles of confederation, and they were thus finally ratified.

At the close of the war, Henry Harford, esq. the natural son and heir of lord Baltimore, petitioned the legislature of Maryland for his estate; his petition, however, was not granted, for reasons which we are not able to assign. He estimated his loss of quit-rents; valued at twenty years purchase, and including arrears, at two hundred and fifty nine thousand four hundred and eighty-eight pounds, five shillings, Maryland currency: and the value of his manors and reserved lands at three hundred and twenty-seven thousand four hundred and forty-one pounds of the same money.

During the rage of the paper currency *mania*, in many of the states, soon after the peace, Maryland escaped the calamity. The house of delegates brought forward a bill for the emission of bills of credit to a large amount; but the senate firmly and successfully resisted the pernicious scheme. The opposition between the two houses was violent and tumultuous; it threatened the state, for a while, with anarchy; but the question was carried to the people, and the good sense of the senate finally prevailed.

When the present federal constitution came before the convention of Maryland, in April 1788, several men of talents appeared in opposition to it, and were unremitting in their endeavors, before, as well as during the sitting of the convention, to persuade the people, that the proposed plan of government was artfully calculated to deprive them of their dearest rights. But on taking the voice of the convention, there appeared in favour of adopting it, sixty-three against twelve.

In the report of the commissioners for settling the accounts of the united states with the individual states, Maryland appears on the side of the debtor states, charged with a debt to the union of one hundred and fifty-one thousand six hundred and forty dollars.

VIRGINIA*,

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Length 446 } Breadth 224 }	between {	70,000
	0° and 8° W. long. 36° 30' and 40° 30' N. lat. }	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by Maryland, part of Pennsylvania, and the Ohio river; west, by Kentucky; south, by North Carolina; and east, by the Atlantic ocean.

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] This state is divided into eighty-two counties, (and, by another division into parishes) which, with the number of inhabitants, according to the census of 1790, are mentioned in the following table.

* In the following description of this state, free use has been made of Mr. Jefferson's celebrated "Notes on Virginia."

Kentucky, which, till lately, belonged to this state, contains seventy-three thousand six hundred and seventy-seven inhabitants, which added to seven hundred forty seven thousand six hundred and ten, makes eight hundred and twenty-one thousand two hundred and eighty-seven.

In the year 1781, an inaccurate census was taken: several counties made no return: but supplying by conjecture the deficiencies, the population of Virginia was then computed at five hundred and sixty seven thousand six hundred and fourteen. The increase then; is two hundred and fifty-eight thousand six hundred and seventy-three; and is nine to thirteen in ten years.

The increase of slaves, during those ten years has been less than it had been observed for a century before. The reason is, that about thirty thousand slaves perished with the small-pox or camp-fever, caught from the British army, or went off with them, while lord Cornwallis was roving over the state.

CLIMATE.] Proceeding on the same parallel of latitude westwardly, the climate becomes colder in like manner as when you proceed northwardly. This continues to be the case till you attain the summit of the Allegany, which is the highest land between the ocean and the Mississippi. From thence, descending in the same latitude to the Mississippi, the change reverses; and, if we may believe travellers, it becomes warmer there, than it is in the same latitude on the sea side. Their testimony is strengthened by the vegetables and animals which subsist and multiply there naturally, and do not on the sea coast. Thus catalpas grow spontaneously on the Mississippi, as far as the latitude of 37° , and reeds as far as 38° . Parroquets even winter on the Scioto in the thirty-ninth degree of latitude.

The S. W. winds are most predominant east of the mountains. Next to these to the sea coast, the N. E. and, at the mountains, the N. W. winds prevail. The difference between these winds, is very great. The N. E. is loaded with vapour, inso-much that the salt manufactures have found that their crystals would not shoot while that blows; it occasions a distressing chill, and a heaviness and depression of the spirits. The N. W. is dry, cooling, elastic, and animating. The E. and S. E. breezes come on generally in the afternoon. They have advanced into the country very sensibly within the memory of people now living. Mr. Jefferson reckons the extremes of heat and cold to be 98° above, and below 0, in Fahrenheit's thermometer.

The fluctuation between heat and cold, so destructive to fruit, prevails less in Virginia than in Pennsylvania, in the spring season; nor is the overflowing of the rivers in Virginia so extensive or so frequent at that season as those of the New-England states; because the snows in the former do not lie accumulating all winter, to be dissolved, all at once, in the spring, as they do sometimes in the latter. In Virginia, below the mountains, snow seldom lies more than a day or two, and seldom a week; and the large rivers seldom freeze over. This fluctuation of weather, however, is sufficient to render the winters and springs very unwholesome, as the inhabitants have to walk in almost perpetual slop.

The months of June and July, though often the hottest, are the most healthy in the year. The weather is then dry and less liable to change than in August and September, when the rain commences, and sudden variations take place.

On the sea coast, the land is low, generally within twelve feet of the level of the sea, intersected in all directions with salt creeks and rivers, the heads of which form swamps and marshes and fenny ground, covered with water, in wet seasons. The uncultivated lands are covered with large trees, and thick underwood. The vicinity of the sea and salt-creeks and rivers, occasions a constant moisture and warmth of the atmosphere; so that, although under the same latitude, one hundred or one hundred and fifty miles in the country, the rivers are frozen; and deep snows frequently happen for a short season; yet here such occurrences are considered as phenomena. The trees are

often in bloom as early as the last of February. From this period, however, till the end of April, the inhabitants are incommoded by cold rains, piercing winds, and sharp frosts, which subject them to the inflammatory diseases, known here under the names of pleurisy and peripneumony.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] Roanoke so far as it lies within this state, is no where navigable, but for canoes, or light batteaux and even for these in such detached parcels, as to have prevented the inhabitants from availing themselves of it at all.

James river, and its waters, afford navigation as follows: The whole of Elizabeth river, the lowest of those which run into James river, is a harbour, and would contain upwards of three hundred ships. The channel is from one hundred and fifty to two hundred fathoms wide and at common flood tide, affords eighteen feet water to Norfolk. The Strafford, a sixty-gun ship, went there, lightening herself to cross the bar at Sowell's point. The Fier Rodrigue, pierced for sixty guns, and carrying fifty, went there without lightening. Craney island, at the mouth of this river, commands its channel tolerably well.

Nansemond river is navigable to Sleepy Hole, for vessels of two hundred and fifty tons; to Suffolk, for those of one hundred tons; and to Milner's for those of twenty-five.

Pagan creek affords eight or ten feet water to Smithfield, which admits vessels of twenty tons. Chickahominy has, at its mouth, a bar, on which is only twelve feet water at common flood tide. Vessels passing that, may go eight miles up the river; those of ten feet draught, may go four miles further, and those of six tons burden, twenty miles further.

Appamattox may be navigated as far as Broadways, by any vessel which has crossed Harrison's bar, in James river; it keeps eight or nine feet water a mile or two higher up, to Fisher's bar, and four feet on that, and upwards, to Petersburg, where all navigation ceases.

James river itself affords harbour for vessels of any size in Hampton Road, but not in safety through the whole winter; and there is navigable water for them as far as Mulberry island. A forty-gun ship goes to Jamestown, and, lightening herself, may pass to Harrison's bar, on which there is only fifteen feet water. Vessels of two hundred and fifty tons may go to Warwick; those of one hundred and twenty-five go to Rocket's, a mile below Richmond; from thence is above seven feet water to Richmond; and about the centre of the town, four feet and a half, where the navigation is interrupted by falls, which, in a course of six miles, descend about eighty feet perpendicular*: above these the navigation is resumed in canoes and batteaux, and is prosecuted safely and advantageously to within ten miles of Blue-Ridge; and, even through the Blue-Ridge, a ton weight has been brought; and the expense would not be great, when compared with the object, to open a tolerable navigation up Jackson's river and Carpenter's creek, to within twenty-five miles of Howard's creek of Green-Briar, both of which have then water enough to float vessels into the Great-Kanhaway. In some future state of population, it is possible that its navigation may also be made to interlock with that of Patomak, and through that, to communicate, by a short portage with the Ohio. It is to be noted, that this river is called, in the maps, James river, only to its confluence with the Rivanna; thence to the Blue Ridge it is called the Fluvanna; and thence to its source Jackson's river. But in common speech it is called James river to its source.

The Rivanna, a branch of James river, is navigable for canoes and batteaux to its intersection with the South-West mountains, which is about twenty two miles; and may easily be opened to navigation, through those mountains, to its fork above Charlotteville.

* A canal is nearly or quite completed for the passing of boats by these falls.

York River, at York town, affords the best harbour, in the state, for vessels of the largest size. The river there narrows to the width of a mile, and is contained within very high banks, close under which vessels may ride. It holds four fathom water, at high tide, for twenty-five miles above York, to the mouth of Poropotank, where the river is a mile and a half wide, and the channel only seventy-five fathom, and passing under a high bank. At the confluence of Pamunkey and Mattapony, it is reduced to three fathom depth, which continues up Pamunkey to Cumberland, where the width is one hundred yards, and up Mattapony to within two miles of Frazier's ferry, where it becomes two and a half fathom deep, and holds that about five miles. Pamunkey is then capable of navigation for loaded flats to Bockman's bridge, fifty miles above Hanover town, and Mattapony to Downer's bridge, seventy miles above its mouth.

Piankatank, the little rivers making out the Mobjack Bay and those of the Eastern Shore, receive only very small vessels, and these can but enter them. Rappahannock affords four fathom water to Hobb's Hole, and two fathom from thence to Fredericksburg, one hundred and ten miles.

Patomak is seven and a half miles wide at the mouth; four and a half at Nomony Bay; three at Aquia; one and a half at Hallooing-Point; one and a quarter at Alexandria. Its soundings are, seven fathom at the mouth; five at St. George's Island; four and a half at Lower Machodic; three at Swan's Point, and thence up to Alexandria; thence ten feet water to the falls, which are thirteen miles above Alexandria. The tides in the Patomak are not very strong, except after great rains, when the ebb is pretty strong—then there is little or no flood—and there is never more than four or five hours flood, except with the long and strong south winds.

The distance from the capes of Virginia to the termination of the tide water in this river, is above three hundred miles, navigable for ships of the greatest-burden. From thence, this river, obstructed by four considerable falls, extends through a vast tract of inhabited country towards its source. These falls are, first, the Little-Falls, three miles above tide-water, in which distance there is a fall of thirty-six feet: second, the Great-Falls, six miles higher, where is a fall of seventy-six feet in one mile and a quarter: third, the Seneca-Falls, six miles above the former, which form short, irregular rapids, with a fall of about ten feet; and fourth, the Shenandoah-Falls, sixty miles from the Seneca, where is a fall of about thirty feet in three miles: from which last, Fort Cumberland is about one hundred and twenty miles distant. The obstructions, opposed to the navigation above and between these falls, are of little consequence.

In the year 1784, a company was formed for the purpose of removing the obstructions, and opening the navigation of the river from its source down to tide water, and an act of incorporation passed by the assemblies of Virginia and Maryland, authorising the company to take the necessary measures for carrying into effect the objects for which they were incorporated—and granting them, forever, the tolls which may arise therefrom; which tolls are fixed by the same law that empowers the company to undertake the business. The sum, agreed upon to complete the navigation, was fifty thousand pounds sterling, divided into five hundred shares, of one hundred pounds each, to be paid by such instalments, and at such times, as the directors of the company should find necessary for the prosecution of the work. Ten years were allowed them to finish the business.

The company have prosecuted the work with great success, and what is not common in undertakings of this nature, they will complete it for something less than the sum subscribed. The rate of toll being fixed, and knowing, with some accuracy, the quantity of produce that is now brought by land from those parts of the country, which will, of course, throw the same upon the river, they have a certainty of receiving, on the first opening of the river, a handsome per centage on their capital, (even without calculating upon the articles which will be sent up the river) and the

increase will be almost incredible. Those who best know the circumstances of the country, and some, who are not among the most sanguine with respect to the profits of the undertaking, have no doubt of the capital's producing fifty per cent. annually, in less than ten years from the time of the toll's commencing.

The principal work in completing the abovementioned navigation, is at the Great-Falls fourteen miles above the city of Washington—at the Little-Falls, four miles above the said city, and in clearing the river between these two falls. At the Great-Falls, the water falls seventy-two feet in one mile and an half—and at the Little Falls, thirty-six feet eight inches in about two miles. At the former there will be six, and at the latter three locks. The locks, at the Little-Falls, will be finished this season, (179^a) and fit for use; those at the Great-Falls, are in forwardness—and with the clearing the bed of the river, between the two falls, will be completed next year. This will finish the navigation of the main river from Cumberland, down to the tide-water and enable the company to receive the reward of their expense and labour. Boats, carrying from one hundred and fifty to two hundred barrels of flour, already pass from Cumberland to the Great-Falls; and many thousand barrels of flour have actually been brought in boats to the latter place during the present year.

As soon as the proprietors shall begin to receive toll, they will doubtless find an ample compensation for their pecuniary advances. By an estimate made many years ago, it was calculated that the amount, in the commencement, would be at the rate of eleven thousand eight hundred and seventy-five pounds, Virginia currency, per annum. The toll must every year become more productive; as the quantity of articles for exportation will be augmented in a rapid ratio, with the increase of population and the extension of settlements. In the mean time, the effect will be immediately seen in the agriculture of the interior country; for the multitude of horses now employed in carrying produce to market, will then be used altogether for the purposes of tillage. But in order to form just conceptions of the utility of this inland navigation, it would be requisite to notice the long rivers which empty into the Patomak and even to take a survey of the geographical position of the western waters.

The Shenandoah, which empties just above the Blue-Mountains, may be made navigable, for about twenty-five thousand dollars, more than one hundred and fifty miles from its confluence with the Patomak; and will receive and bear the produce of the richest part of the state. The Patomak company have already made a beginning of this work. The South-Branch, still higher, is navigable, in its actual condition, nearly or quite one hundred miles, through exceedingly fertile lands. Between these, on the Virginia side, are several smaller rivers, that may with ease be improved, so as to afford a passage for boats. On the Maryland side are the Monocacy, Antietam, and Conococheague, some of which pass through the state of Maryland, and have their sources in Pennsylvania.

From Fort-Cumberland, (or Wills' creek) one or two good waggon roads may be had (where the distance is said by some to be thirty-five, and by others forty miles) to the Youghiogany, a large and navigable branch of the Monongahela, which last forms a junction with the Allegany at Fort-Pitt.

But, by passing farther up the Patomak than Fort Cumberland, which may very easily be done, a portage, by a good waggon road, to Cheat river, another large branch of the Monongahela, can be obtained, through a space, between twenty and thirty miles.

When we have arrived at either of these western waters, the navigation, through that immense region, is opened by a thousand directions, and to the lakes several places by portages of less than ten miles; and by one portage, it is asserted, of not more than a single mile.

Notwithstanding it was sneeringly said by some foreigners, at the beginning of

this undertaking, that the Americans are fond of engaging in splendid projects which they could never accomplish; yet it is hoped the success of this first essay, towards improving their inland navigation, will, in some degree, rescue them from the reproach intended to have been fixed upon their national character, by the unmerited imputation.

The Great-Kanhawa is a river, of considerable note for the fertility of its lands, and still more, as leading towards the head waters of James river. Nevertheless, it is doubtful whether its great and numerous rapids will admit a navigation, but at an expense to which it will require ages to render its inhabitants equal. The great obstacles begin at what are called the Great Falls, ninety miles above the mouth, below which are only five or six rapids; and these passable, with some difficulty, even at low water. From the falls to the mouth of Green Briar, is one hundred miles, and thence to the lead mines, one hundred and twenty. It is two hundred and eighty yards wide at its mouth.

The Little Kanhawa is one hundred and fifty yards wide at the mouth. It yields a navigation of ten miles only. Perhaps its northern branch, called Junius' Creek, which interlocks with the western waters of Monongahela, may one day admit a shorter passage from the latter into the Ohio.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains are not solitary and scattered confusedly over the face of the country; but commence at about one hundred and fifty miles from the sea coast, are disposed in ridges one behind another, running nearly parallel with the sea coast, though rather approaching it as they advance northeastwardly. To the southwest, as the tract of country between the sea-coast and the Mississippi becomes narrower, the mountains converge into a single ridge, which as it approaches the gulph of Mexico, subsides into plain country, and gives rise to some of the waters of that gulph and particularly to a river called Apalachicola, probably from the Apalachies, an Indian nation formerly residing on it. Hence the mountains giving rise to that river, and seen from its various parts, were called the Apalachian Mountains, being in fact, the end or termination only of the great ridges passing through the continent. European geographers, however, extended the name northwardly as far as the mountains extended; some giving it, after their separation into different ridges, to the Blue Ridge, others to the North mountains, others to the Allegany, others to the Laurel Ridge, as may be seen in their different maps. But none of these ridges were ever known by that name to the inhabitants, either native or emigrant, but as they saw them so called in European maps. In the same direction generally are the veins of lime-stone, coal, and other minerals hitherto discovered; and so range the falls of the great rivers. But the courses of the great rivers are at right angles with these. James and Patomak penetrate through all the ridges of mountains eastward of the Allegany, which is broken by no water course. It is in fact the spine of the country between the Atlantic on one side, and the Mississippi and St. Lawrence on the other. The passage of the Patomak through the blue ridge is perhaps one of the most stupendous scenes in nature. You stand on a very high point of land. On your right comes up the Shenandoah, having ranged along the foot of the mountain an hundred miles to seek a vent. On your left approaches the Patomak, in quest of a passage also. In the moment of their junction, they rush together against the mountain, rend it asunder, and pass off to the sea. The first glance of this scene hurries our senses into the opinion, that this earth has been created in time, that the mountains were formed first, that the rivers began to flow afterwards, that in this place particularly they have been dammed up by the blue ridge of mountains, and have formed an ocean, which filled the whole valley; that, continuing to rise, they have at length broken over at this spot, and have torn the mountain down from its summit to its base. The piles of rock on each hand, but particularly on the Shenandoah, the evident marks

of their disruption and avulsion from their beds by the most powerful agents of nature, corroborate the impression. But the distant finishing which nature has given to the picture, is of a very different character. It is a true contrast to the foreground. It is as placid and delightful, as that is wild and tremendous. For the mountain, being cloven asunder, presents to the eye, through the cleft, a small catch of smooth blue horizon, at an infinite distance, in the plain country, inviting you, as it were from the riot and tumult roaring around, to pass through the breach and participate of the calm below. Here the eye ultimately composes itself; and that way too, the road actually leads. You cross the Patomak above the junction, pass along its side through the base of the mountain for three miles, its terrible precipices hanging in fragments over you, and within about twenty miles reach Fredericktown and the fine country around. This scene is worth a voyage across the Atlantic. The height of the mountains has not yet been estimated with any degree of exactness. The Allegany being the great ridge which divides the waters of the Atlantic from those of the Mississippi, its summit is doubtless more elevated above the ocean than that of any other mountain. But its relative height, compared with the base on which it stands, is not so great as that of some others, the country rising behind the successive ridges like the steps of stairs. The mountains of the blue ridge, particularly the peaks of Otter, are thought to be of a greater height, measured from their base, than any others in Virginia, and perhaps in North-America. From data, which may found a tolerable conjecture, we suppose the highest peak to be about four thousand feet perpendicular, which is not a fifth part of the height of the mountains of South America, nor one third of the height which would be necessary, in our latitude, to preserve ice in the open air unmelted through the year. The ridge of mountains next beyond the blue ridge, called the North mountain, is of the greatest extent; for which reason they are named by the Indians the Endless Mountains.

The Ouastoto mountains are fifty or sixty miles wide at the gap. These mountains abound in coal, lime and free stone; the summits of them are generally covered with a good soil, and a variety of timber; and the low, intervale lands are rich, and remarkably well watered.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, } The whole country below the mountains, which
PRODUCTIONS, &c. } are about one hundred and fifty, some say two hundred miles from the sea, is level, and seems, from various appearances, to have been once washed by the sea. The land between York and James rivers is very level, and its surface about forty feet above high-water mark. It appears from observation, to have arisen to its present height, at different periods, far distant from each other, and at these periods it was washed by the sea; for near Yorktown, where the banks are perpendicular, you first see a stratum, intermixed with small shells, resembling a mixture of clay and sand, and about five feet thick; on this lies, horizontally, small white shells, cockle, clam, &c. an inch or two thick; then a body of earth, similar to that first mentioned, eighteen inches thick; then a layer of shells and another body of earth; on this a layer of three feet of white shells mixed with sand, on which lies a body of oyster shells six feet thick, which are covered with earth to the surface. The oyster-shells are so united by a very strong cement, that they fall, only when undermined, and then in large bodies, from one to twenty tons weight. They have the appearance of large rocks on the shore.*

These appearances continue in a greater or less degree in the banks of James river, one hundred miles from the sea; the appearances then vary, and the banks are filled with sharks teeth, petrified bones of large and small fish, and many other petrifications, some resembling the bones of animals, other vegetable substances. These appear-

ances are not confined to the river banks but are seen in various places in gullies, at considerable distances from the river. In one part of the state, seventy miles in length by sinking a well, you apparently come to the bottom of what was formerly a water course. And even as high up as Botetourt county, among the Allegany mountains; there is a tract of land, judged to be 40,000 acres, surrounded on every side by mountains, which is entirely covered with oyster and cockle shells, and, from some gullies, they appear to be of considerable depth. A plantation at Day's Point, on James river, of one thousand acres, appears at a distance as if covered with snow; but on examination, the white appearance is found to arise from a bed of clam-shells, which, by repeated ploughing, have become fine, and mixed with the earth.

The soil below the mountains, though not rich, is well suited to the growth of tobacco and Indian corn, and parts of it for wheat. Good crops of cotton, flax and hemp are also raised; and in some counties, they have plenty of cyder, and exquisite brandy, distilled from peaches, which grow in great abundance upon the numerous rivers of the Chesapeak.

The planters, before the war, paid their principal attention to the culture of tobacco, of which there used to be exported, generally, fifty-five thousand hogheads a year. Since the revolution, they devote their attention more to the cultivation of wheat, Indian corn, barley, flax, and hemp. It is expected that this state will add the article of rice to the list of her exports; as it is supposed, a large body of swamp, in the easternmost counties, is capable of producing it.

Horned or neat cattle are bred in great numbers in the western counties of Virginia, as well as in the states south of it, where they have an extensive range, and mild winters, without any permanent snows.—They run at large, are not housed, and multiply very fast.—“In the lower parts of the state, a disease prevails among the neat cattle, which proves fatal to all that are not bred there. The oxen, from the more northern states, which were employed at the siege of Yorktown, in October 1781, almost all died, sometimes forty of them in a night, and often suddenly dropped down dead in the roads. It is said that the seeds of this disease were brought from the Havanna to South Carolina or Georgia in some hides, and that the disease has progressed northward to Virginia. Lord Dunmore imported some cattle from Rhode-Island, and kept them confined in a small pasture, near his seat, where no cattle had been for some years, and where they could not intermix with other cattle, and yet they soon died.”

In this state much pains have been taken to improve the breed of horses. Horse racing has had a great tendency to encourage a good breed. They are more elegant, and will perform more service than the horses of the northern states.

An intelligent gentleman, an inhabitant of Virginia, informs, that caves among the mountains, have lately been discovered, which yield salt-petre in such abundance, that he judges five hundred thousand pounds might be collected from them annually.

This state does not abound in good fish. Sturgeon, shad, and herring are the most plenty—perch, sheep's-head, drum, rock fish and trout, are common—Besides these there are oysters in abundance, crabs, shrimps, &c.

CASCADES, CURIOSITIES, AND CAVERNS.] The only remarkable cascade in this state, is that of Falling Spring, in Augusta. It is a water of James river, where it is called Jackson's river, rising in the warm spring mountains, about twenty miles southwest of the warm spring, and flowing into that valley. About three quarters of a mile from its source, it falls over a rock, two hundred feet, into the valley below. The sheet of water is broken in its breadth by the rock in two or three places, but not at

all in its height. Between the sheet and the rock, at the bottom, you may walk across dry. This cataract will bear no comparison with that of Niagara, as to the quantity of water composing it; the sheet being only twelve or fifteen feet wide above, and somewhat more spread below: but it is one half higher.

In the lime-stone country, there are many caverns of very considerable extent. The most noted is called Madison's cave, and is on the north side of the blue ridge, near the intersection of the Rockingham and Augusta line with the fourth fork of the southern river of Shenandoah. It is in a hill of about two hundred feet perpendicular height; the ascent of which, on one side, is so steep, that you may pitch a biscuit from its summit into the river which washes its base. The entrance of the cave is, in this side, two thirds of the way up. It extends into the earth about three hundred feet, branching into subordinate caverns, sometimes ascending a little, but more generally descending, and at length terminates in two different places, at basins of water of unknown extent, and which appear to be nearly on a level with the water of the river. It is probably one of the many reservoirs with which the interior parts of the earth are supposed to abound; yielding supplies to the fountains of water, and is distinguished from others only by its being accessible. The vault of this cave is of solid lime stone, from twenty to forty or fifty feet high, through which water is continually exuding. This, trickling down the sides of the cave, has incrusted them over in the form of elegant drapery; and dripping from the top of the vault, generates on that, and on the base below, stalactites of a conical form, some of which have met and formed massive columns.

Another of these caves is near the North Mountain, in the county of Frederic. The entrance into this is on the top of an extensive ridge. You descend thirty or forty feet, as into a well, from whence the cave then extends almost horizontally, four hundred feet into the earth, preserving a breadth of from twenty to fifty feet, and a height of from five to twelve feet — After entering this cave a few feet, the mercury, which in the open air, was 50° , rose to 57° of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

At the Panther gap, in the ridge which divides the waters of the Cow and the Calf pasture, is what is called the Blowing-cave. It is in the side of a hill, is of about one hundred feet diameter, and emits constantly a current of air of such force, as to keep the weeds prostrate to the distance of twenty yards before it. This current is strongest in dry, frosty weather, and weakest in long spells of rain. Regular inspirations and expirations of air, by caverns and fissures, have been probably enough accounted for, by supposing them combined with intermitting fountains, as they must of course inhale the air, while the reservoirs are emptying themselves, and again emit it while they are filling. But a constant issue of air, only varying in force as the weather is drier or damper, will require a new hypothesis. There is another blowing cave in the Cumberland mountain, about a mile from where it crosses the Carolina line. All we know of this is, that it is not constant, and that a fountain of water issues from it.

The Natural Bridge is the most sublime of nature's works. It is on the ascent of a hill, which seems to have been cleft through its length by some great convulsion. The fissure, just at the bridge, is by some measurements two hundred and seventy feet deep, by others only two hundred and five. It is about forty-five feet wide at the bottom, and ninety feet at the top; this of course determines the length of the bridge, and its height from the water. Its breadth in the middle is sixty feet, but more at the ends, and the thickness of the mass, at the summit of the arch, about forty feet. A part of this thickness is constituted by a coat of earth, which gives growth to many large trees. The residue, with the hill on both sides, is solid rock of limestone. The arch approaches the semi-elliptical form; but the larger axis of the ellipsis, which would be the chord of the arch, is many times longer than the transverse.

Though the sides of this bridge are provided in some parts with a parapet of fixed rocks, yet few men have resolution to walk to them and look over into the abyss. You involuntarily fall on your hands and feet, creep to the parapet, and peep over it. If the view from the top be painful and intolerable, that from below is delightful in an equal extreme. It is impossible for the emotions arising from the sublime, to be felt beyond what they are here: so beautiful an arch, so elevated, so light, and springing as it were up to heaven, excites in the spectator a rapture really indescribable! The fissure continuing narrow, deep, and straight for a considerable distance above and below the bridge, opens a short but very pleasing view of the North mountain, on one side, and the Blue Ridge on the other, at the distance each of them of about five miles. This bridge is in the county of Rockbridge, to which it has given name, and affords a public and commodious passage over a valley, which cannot be crossed elsewhere, for a considerable distance. The stream passing under it, is called Cedar creek. It is a water of James river, and sufficient, in the driest seasons, to turn a grist-mill, though its fountain is not more than two miles above*.

MINES AND MINERALS.] Virginia is the most pregnant with minerals and fossils of any state in the union. A single lump of gold ore has been found, near the falls of Rappahannock, which yielded seventeen pennyweights of gold, of extraordinary ductility. No other indication of gold has been discovered in its neighbourhood.

On New-River, opposite to the mouth of Cripple-creek, and also about twenty-five miles from the southern boundary of the state, in the county of Montgomery are mines of lead. The metal is mixed sometimes with earth, and sometimes with rock, which requires the force of gunpowder to open it; and is accompanied with a portion of silver, too small to be worth separation, under any process hitherto attempted there. The proportion yielded is from fifty to eighty pounds of pure metal from one hundred pounds of washed ore. The most common is that of sixty to the hundred pounds. The veins are at times very flattering: at others they disappear suddenly and totally. They enter the side of the hill, and proceed horizontally. Two of them have been wrought by the public. These would employ about fifty labourers to advantage. Thirty men, who have at the same time raised their own corn, have produced sixty tons of lead in the year; but the general quantity is from twenty to twenty five tons.

A mine of copper was opened in the county of Amherst, on the north side of James river, and another in the opposite county, on the south side. However, either from bad management or the poverty of the veins, they were discontinued. A few years ago there were six iron mines worked in this state. Two of them make about one hundred and fifty tons of bar-iron each—the others made each from six hundred to sixteen hundred tons of pig-iron, annually. Besides these, a forge at Fredericksburg, made about three hundred tons a year of bar-iron, from pigs imported from Maryland; and a forge on Neapoco of Patomak, was worked in the same way. The indications of iron in other places, are numerous, and dispersed through all the middle country. The toughness of the cast-iron of some of the furnaces is remarkable. Pots and other utensils, cast thinner than usual, of this iron, may be safely thrown into or out of the waggons in which they are transported. Salt pans made of the same, and no longer wanted for that purpose, cannot be broken up, in order to be melted again, unless previously drilled in many parts.

In the western part of the state, we are told of iron mines on Chestnut-creek, a branch of the New-River, near where it crosses the Carolina line, and in other places.

* Don Ulloa mentions a break, similar to this, in the province of Angarnez, in South-America. It is from sixteen to twenty two feet wide, one hundred and eleven deep, and of one and three-fourths miles continuance, English measure. Its breadth at top is not sensibly greater than at bottom.

Considerable quantities of black lead are taken occasionally for use from Winterham, in the county of Amelia. There is no work established at it; those who want, go and procure it for themselves.

The country on both sides of James river, from fifteen to twenty miles above Richmond, and for several miles northward and southward, is replete with mineral coal, of very excellent quality. Being in the hands of many proprietors, pits have been opened, and worked to an extent equal to the demand. The pits which have been opened, lie one hundred and fifty, or two hundred feet above the bed of the river, and have been very little incommoded with water. The first discovery of the coal, is said to have been made by a boy, digging after cray-fish; it has also been found on the bottom of trees blown up. In many places, it lies within three or four feet of the surface of the ground. It is conjectured that five hundred thousand bushels might be raised from one pit in twelve months.

In the western country, coal is known to be in so many places, as to have induced an opinion, that the whole tract between the Laurel-Mountain, Mississippi, and Ohio, yields coal. It is also found in many places on the north side of the Ohio. The coal at Pittsburg is of a very superior quality. A bed of it, at that place, has been on fire since the year 1765. Another coal-hill, on the Pike Run of Monongahela, has been on fire ten years; yet it has only burnt away about twenty yards.

I have known one instance, says Mr. Jefferson, of an emerald being found in this country. Amethysts have been frequent, and crystals common; yet none of them in such numbers as to be worth seeking.

There is very good marble, and in very great abundance, on James river, at the mouth of Rockfish. Some white, and as pure as one might expect to find on the surface of the earth; but generally variegated with red, blue, and purple. None of it has ever been worked. It forms a very large precipice, which hangs over a navigable part of the river.

But one vein of lime-stone is known below the Blue-Ridge. Its first appearance is in Prince William, two miles below the Pignut ridge of mountains; thence it passes on, nearly parallel with that, and crosses the Rivanna, about five miles below it, where it is called the Southwest Ridge. It then crosses Hardware, above the mouth of Hudson's creek, James river, at the mouth of Rockfish, at the marble quarry before spoken of, probably runs up that river to where it appears again at Ross's iron works, and so passes off southwestwardly by Flat creek, of Otter river. It is never more than one hundred yards wide. From the Blue-Ridge westwardly, the whole country seems to be founded on a rock of lime stone, besides infinite quantities on the surface both loose and fixed. This is cut into beds, which range, as the mountains and sea-coast do, from the southwest to northeast.

MEDICAL SPRINGS.] The most efficacious of these are, two springs in Augusta, near the source of James river, where it is called Jackson's river. They rise near the foot of the ridge of mountains, generally called the Warm-spring mountains, but in maps Jackson's mountains. The one is distinguished by the name of the Warm-Spring and the other of the Hot Spring. The Warm-Spring issues with a very bold stream, sufficient to work a grist mill, and to keep the waters of its basin, which is thirty feet in diameter, at the vital-warmth, viz. 96° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. The matter with which these waters is allied, is very volatile; its smell indicates it to be sulphureous, as also does the circumstance of its turning silver black. They relieve rheumatisms. Other complaints also, of very different natures, have been removed or lessened by them. It rains here four or five days in every week.

The Hot Spring is about six miles from the Warm, is much smaller, and has been so hot as to boil an egg. Some believe its degree of heat to be lessened. It raises the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer to 112° . It sometimes relieves where the Warm

Spring fails. A fountain of common water, issuing within a few inches of its margin, gives it a singular appearance. Comparing the temperature of these with that of the hot springs of Kamtschatka, of which Krachinnikow gives an account, the difference is very great, the latter raising the mercury to 200° , which is within 12° of boiling water. These springs are very much resorted to, notwithstanding a total want of accommodation for the sick. Their waters are strongest in the hottest months, which occasions their being visited in July and August principally.

The Sweet Springs are in the county of Botetourt, at the eastern foot of the Alleghany, about forty-two miles from the warm springs. They are still less known. Having been found to relieve cases in which the others had been ineffectually tried, it is probable their composition is different. They are different also in their temperature, being as cold as common water.

On Patomak river, in Berkeley county, above the North Mountain, are medicinal springs much more frequented than those of Bath. Their powers, however, are less, the waters weakly mineralised, and scarcely warm. They are now visited, because situated in a fertile, plentiful, and populous country, provided with better accommodations, always safe from the Indians, and nearest to the more populous states.

In Louisa county, on the head waters of the South Anna branch of York river, are springs of some medicinal virtue. They are, however, not much used. There is a weak chalybeate at Richmond; and others in various parts of the country, which are of too little worth, or too little note, to be enumerated after those already mentioned.

We are told of a sulphur spring, on Howard's creek, of Green briar. In the low grounds of the Great Kanhawa, seven miles above the mouth of Elk river, and sixty-seven above that of the Kanhawa itself, is a hole in the earth, of the capacity of thirty or forty gallons, from which issues constantly a bituminous vapour, in so strong a current, as to give to the sand about its orifice, the motion which it has in a boiling spring. On presenting a lighted candle or torch within eighteen inches of the hole, it flames up in a column of eighteen inches diameter, and four or five feet in height, which sometimes burns out in twenty minutes, and at other times has been known to continue three days, and then has been left burning. The flame is unsteady, of the density of that of burning spirits, and smells like burning pit coal. Water sometimes collects in the basin, which is remarkably cold, and is kept in ebullition by the vapour issuing through it. If the vapour be fired in this state, the water soon becomes so warm, that the hand cannot bear it, and evaporates wholly in a short time. This, with the circumjacent lands, is the property of president Washington and general Lewis.

There is a similar one on Sandy river, the flume of which is a column of about twelve inches diameter, and three feet high. General Clarke kindled the vapour, staid about an hour, and left it burning.

The mention of uncommon springs leads to that of Syphon fountains. There is one of these near the intersection of the lord Fairfax's boundary with the North mountain, not far from Brock's gap, on the stream of which is a grist-mill, which grinds two bushels of grain at every flood of the spring. Another, near the Cow pasture river, a mile and a half below its confluence with the Bull pasture river, and sixteen or seventeen miles from the Hot Springs, intermits once in every twelve hours. There is one also near the mouth of the middle fork of Holston.

After these may be mentioned the Natural well, on the lands of Mr. Lewis, in Frederick county. It is somewhat larger than a common well; the water rises in it as near the surface of the earth as in the neighbouring artificial wells, and is of a depth as yet unknown. It is said there is a current in it, tending sensibly downwards. If

this be true, it probably feeds some fountain, of which it is the natural reservoir, distinguished from others, like that of Madison's cave, by being accessible. It is used with a bucket and windlass, as an ordinary well.

POPULATION.] See table.

MILITIA.] The militia of this state compose seventeen brigades, in four divisions. Every able bodied freeman, between the age of eighteen and forty five is enrolled in the militia. Those of every county are formed into companies, and those again into one or more battalions, according to the numbers in the county. They are commanded by lieutenant colonels, and other subordinate officers, as in the regular service. In every county is a colonel-commandant of a regiment, who commands the whole of the militia therein, but ranks only as a colonel in the field. The governor is head of the military as well as civil power. The law requires every militia-man to provide himself with the arms usual in the regular service. But this injunction was always indifferently complied with, and the arms they had, were so frequently called for to arm the regulars, that in the lower parts of the country they are entirely disarmed. In the middle country, a fourth or fifth part of them may have such firelocks as they have provided to destroy the noxious animals which infest their farms; and on the western side of the Blue ridge, they are generally armed with rifles.

The interfection of Virginia, by so many navigable rivers, renders its defence difficult.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The towns in this state are generally small, owing probably to the interfection of the country by navigable rivers, which bring the trade to the doors of the inhabitants, and prevent the necessity of their going in quest of it to a distance.

On James river and its waters, Norfolk, Portsmouth, Hampton, Suffolk, Smithfield, Williamsburg, Petersburg, Richmond, the seat of government, Manchester, Charlottesville, New-London, Carterville, Milton, Columbia, Warren, Warminster, Newmarket, New-Canton, Lynchburg, Madison, Fincastle, and Lexington.—On York river and its waters, York, Newcastle, Hanover.—On Rappahannock, Urbanna, Port-Royal, Fredericksburg, Falmouth.—On Patomak, and its waters, Dumfries, Colchester, Alexandria, Winchester, Staunton.

Statement of the population of the principal town according to the census in 1790.

Names of Towns. In what Counties situated.

Alexandria	Fauifax
Fredericksburg	Spetsylvania
Richmond	Herrico
Petersburg	in Dinwiddie
comprehending Blandford	in Prince George &
Pocahuntas	in Cheserheld
Williamsburg	James city and York
Borough of Norfolk	Norfolk
Portsmouth	do.
Winchester	Frederic
York	York

Free white males of 16 years and upwards	Free white males under 16 years.	Free white females.	All other free persons.		Slaves.	Total.
734	480	931	52	54		2716
318	187	354	59	56		1480
878	353	780	265	147		3761
583	205	464	310	126		2826
186	108	368	46	63		1344
599	312	693	61	1294		2559
294	209	536	47	61		1702
464	341	664	12	170		1651
68	56	142	17	37		651

Norfolk and Portsmouth will certainly become the emporium of all the bulky articles imported from foreign countries, from whence they will be distributed for retail to all the towns in the state, as well as those in North Carolina south of Newbern, as a canal is now cutting from the north branch of Albemarle sound in North Carolina, to the waters of the south branch of Elizabeth river; this canal will be sixteen miles in length, through a level low country: it will empty the waters of Albermarle sound, which are rather higher than those of Elizabeth river in Virginia, about nine miles from Portsmouth, which lies opposite to Norfolk, on the same side of Elizabeth river with the canal.—To the place where the canal empties into Elizabeth, merchant vessels of the largest size may go within a mile: here the water will be continually fresh, so much so that the worm, the greatest enemy to the shipping of the harbour of Norfolk and Portsmouth, and which does great injury in the months of July, August, and September, will not affect them, if they run up near the canal.

Petersburg now receives a great portion of the tobacco it ships from North Carolina, and the counties of Virginia bordering on the North-Carolina line. When the canal is completed, which will be in two years, and the little and great falls of the Roanoke and those of Dan and Staunton rivers, are cleared, not only the produce of North Carolina, that now goes to Petersburg, will be diverted to the Norfolk and Portsmouth channel, but the produce of the valuable counties of Dan and Staunton rivers in Virginia, will naturally pursue the same course, as the water carriage will be much cheaper than a land one of one hundred miles, which is now imposed on them; but at Norfolk and Portsmouth they will certainly procure their goods cheaper, being the fountain head, than from any of the extraneous sources.

As an evidence of the importance of these towns to the united states, congress passed a law, last session, for fortifying the port and harbour of Norfolk and Portsmouth. The strong batteries are now nearly completed, and another is said to be in contemplation; when completed, it is supposed the harbour will be perfectly secure from any depredation from naval operation alone; a forty-four gun frigate is now building at that part of Portsmouth, called Gosport, which was formerly the king of Great-Britain's rendezvous for his ships of war, for the protection of the trade of the middle colonies. It is supposed to be one of the best harbours in the world; it begins at the mouth of the south branch of Elizabeth river, which is not a quarter of a mile over, and has six fathom water within thirty miles of the shore.

Secondary to this place, are the towns at the head of the tide-waters, to wit, Petersburg on Appamatox, Richmond on James river, Newcastle on York river, Fredericksburg on Rappahannock, and Alexandria on Patomak. From these, the distribution will be to subordinate situations of the country. Accidental circumstances, however, may controul the indications of nature, and in no instances do they do it more frequently than in the rise and fall of towns.

Alexandria stands on the south bank of Patomak river, in Fairfax county. Its situation is elevated and pleasant. The soil is clay. The original settlers, anticipating its future growth and importance laid out the streets upon the plan of Philadelphia. It contains about four hundred houses, many of which are handsomely built. This town, upon opening the navigation of Patomak river, and in consequence of its vicinity to the city of Washington, will probably attain considerable commercial importance.

Mount Vernon, the celebrated seat of president Washington, is pleasantly situated on the Virginia bank of the river Patomak, where it is nearly two miles wide, and is about two hundred and eighty miles from the sea, and one hundred and twenty-seven from point Lookout, at the mouth of the river. It is nine miles below Alexandria, and four above the beautiful seat of the late colonel Fairfax, called Bellevoir;

The area of the mount is two hundred feet above the surface of the river, and, after furnishing a lawn of five acres in front, and about the same in rear of the buildings, falls off rather abruptly on those two quarters. On the north end, it subsides gradually into extensive pasture grounds; while on the south, it slopes more steeply, in a shorter distance, and terminates with the coach house, stables, vineyard, and nurseries. On either wing is a thick grove of different flowering forest trees. Parallel with them, on the land side, are two spacious gardens, the entrance to which is by two serpentine gravel walks, planted with weeping willows and shady shrubs. The mansion house itself (though much embellished by, yet not perfectly satisfactory to the chaste taste of, the present possessor) appears venerable and convenient. The superb banquetting room has been finished since he returned home from the army. A lofty portico, ninety-six feet in length, supported by eight pillars, has a pleasing effect, when viewed from the water; the whole assemblage of the green house, school-house, offices and servants' halls, when seen from the land side, bears a resemblance to a rural village; especially as the lands on that side are laid out somewhat in the form of English gardens, in meadows and grass grounds, ornamented with little copses, circular clumps, and single trees. A small part, on the margin of the river, where the English fallow deer and the American wild deer, are seen through the thickets, alternately with the vessels as they are sailing along, add a romantic and picturesque appearance to the whole scenery. On the opposite side of a small creek to the northward, an extensive plain, exhibiting corn fields and cattle grazing, affords in summer a luxuriant landscape; while the blended verdure of woodlands and cultivated declivities, on the Maryland shore, variegates the prospect in a charming manner. Such are the philosophic shades to which the late commander in chief of the American armies retired from the tumultuous scenes of a busy world, and which he has since left, to dignify, by his unequalled abilities, the most important office in the gift of his fellow citizens.

Fredericksburgh, in the county of Spottsylvania, is situated on the south side of Rapahannock river, one hundred and ten miles from its mouth; and contains about two hundred houses, principally on one street, which runs nearly parallel with the river.

Richmond, in the county of Henrico, is the present seat of government, and stands on the north side of James river, just at the foot of the falls; and contains between four hundred and five hundred houses. Part of the houses are built upon the margin of the river, convenient for business; the rest are upon a hill which overlooks the lower part of the town, and commands an extensive prospect of the river and adjacent country. The new houses are well built. A large state house, or capitol, has lately been erected on the hill. The lower part of the town is divided by a creek, over which is a convenient bridge. A bridge between three hundred and four hundred yards in length has lately been thrown across James river, at the foot of the falls, by colonel Mayo. That part from Manchester to the island is built on fifteen boats. From the island to the rocks was formerly a floating bridge of rafts; but colonel Mayo has now built it of framed log piers, filled with stone. This bridge connects Richmond with Manchester.

The falls above the bridge are seven miles in length. A noble canal is cutting and nearly completed on the north side of the river, which is to terminate in a basin of about two acres, in the town of Richmond. It is to communicate with tide water by docks. From the basin to the wharves in the river, will be a land-carriage of about a mile. This canal is cutting under the direction of a company, who have calculated the expense at two hundred thousand dollars. The opening of this canal promises the addition of much wealth to Richmond.

Petersburg, twenty-five miles southward of Richmond, stands on the south side of Appamattok river, and contains upwards of three hundred houses in two divisions;

one is upon a clay cold soil, and is very dirty, the other upon a plain of sand or loam. There is little regularity or elegance in Petersburg. It is merely a place of business. It is very unhealthy, being shut out from the access of the winds by high hills on every side. This confined situation has a very injurious effect upon the constitutions of the inhabitants.

About two thousand two hundred hogheads of tobacco are inspected here annually. Like Richmond, Williamsburg, Alexandria and Norfolk, it is a corporation; and, what is singular, Petersburg city comprehends a part of three counties. The celebrated Indian queen, Pocahunta, from whom have descended the Randolph and Bowling families, formerly resided at this place.

Williamsburg is sixty miles eastward of Richmond, situated between two creeks; one falling into James, the other into York river. The distance of each landing place is about a mile from the town, which, with the disadvantage of not being able to bring up large vessels, and want of enterprize in the inhabitants, are the reasons why it never flourished. It consists of about two hundred houses, going fast to decay. It is regularly laid out in parallel streets, with a square in the centre, through which runs the principal street E. and W. about a mile in length, and more than one hundred feet wide. At the ends of this street are two public buildings, the college and capitol. Besides these, there is an episcopal church, a prison, an hospital for lunatics, and a palace; all of them extremely indifferent. In the capitol is a large marble statue, in the likeness of Narboune Berkley, lord Botetourt, a man distinguished for his love of piety, literature and good government; and formerly governor of Virginia. It has been erected at the expense of the state. The capitol is little better than in ruins, and this elegant statue is exposed to the rudeness of negroes and boys, and is shamefully defaced.

Every thing in Williamsburg appears dull, forsaken, and melancholy—little trade or industry. The unprosperous state of the college, but principally the removal of the seat of government, have contributed much to the decline of this city.

Yorktown, thirteen miles eastward from Williamsburg, and fourteen from Monday's point at the mouth of the river, is a place of about one hundred houses, situated on the south side of York river, and contains about seven hundred inhabitants. It was rendered famous by the capture of lord Cornwallis and his army, on the 19th of October, 1781, by the united forces of France and America.

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES.] The college of William and Mary was founded in the time of king William and queen Mary, who granted to it twenty thousand acres of land, and a penny per pound duties on certain tobaccoes exported from Virginia and Maryland, which had been levied by the statute of 25 Car. II. The assembly gave it, by temporary laws, a duty on liquors imported, and on skins and furs exported. From these resources it received upwards of three thousand pounds. The buildings are of brick, sufficient for an indifferent accomodation of perhaps one hundred students. By its charter, it was to be under the government of twenty visitors, who were to be its legislators, and to have a president and six professors, who were incorporated. It was allowed a representative in the general assembly. Under this charter a professorship of the Greek and Latin languages, a professorship of mathematics, one of moral philosophy, and two of divinity, were established. To these were annexed, for a sixth professorship, a considerable donation by Mr. Boyle, of England, for the instruction of the Indians, and their conversion to christianity. This was called the professorship of Baffeton, from an estate of that name in England, purchased with monies given. The admission of the learners of Latin and Greek filled the college with children. This rendering it disagreeable and degrading to young gentlemen already prepared for entering on the sciences, they were discouraged from resorting to it; and thus the schools for mathematics and moral philosophy, which might have

been of some service, became of very little. The revenues too were exhausted in accommodating those who came only to acquire the rudiments of science. After the late revolution, the visitors having no power to change those circumstances in the constitution of the college which were fixed by charter, and being therefore confined to the number of professorships, undertook to change the objects of them. They excluded the two schools of divinity, and that of the Greek and Latin languages, and substituted others; so that they at present stand thus—a professorship for law and policy—anatomy and medicine—natural philosophy and mathematics—moral philosophy, the law of nature and nations, the fine arts—modern languages—and for the Brafferton.

The college edifice is a huge, misshapen pile, “which, but that it has a roof, would be taken for a brick kiln*.” In 1787; there were about thirty young gentlemen members of this college, a large proportion of whom were law students. The academy, in Prince Edward county, has been erected into a college by the name of “Hampden Sydney College.” It has been a flourishing seminary, but is now said to be on the decline.

There are several academies in Virginia: one at Alexandria, one at Norfolk, one at Hanover, and others in different places.

Since the declaration of independence, the laws of Virginia have been revised by a committee appointed for the purpose, who have reported their work to the assembly; one object of this revival was, to diffuse knowledge more generally thro' the mass of the people. The bill for this purpose “proposes to lay off every county into small districts, of five or six miles square, called hundreds, and in each of them to establish a school for teaching reading, writing and arithmetic. The tutor to be supported by the hundred, and all persons in it entitled to send their children three years gratis, and as much longer as they please, paying for it. These schools to be under a visitor, who is annually to choose the boy of best genius in the school, of those whose parents are too poor to give them further education, and to send him forward to one of the grammar schools, of which twenty are proposed to be erected in the different parts of the country, for teaching Greek, Latin, geography, and the higher branches of numerical arithmetic. Of the boys thus sent in one year, trial is to be made at the grammar schools one or two years, and the best genius of the whole selected and continued six years, and the residue dismissed; by this means, twenty of the best geniuses will be collected from the poor annually, and instructed, at the public expense, so far as the grammar schools go. At the end of six years' instruction, one half are to be discontinued (from among whom the grammar schools will be probably supplied with future masters,) and the other half, who are to be chosen for the superiority of their parts and disposition, are to be sent and continued three years in the study of such sciences as they shall choose, at William and Mary college, the plan of which is proposed to be enlarged and extended to all the useful sciences. The ultimate result of the whole scheme of education would be, the teaching all the children of the state reading, writing, and common arithmetic; instructing ten annually, of superior genius, in Greek, Latin, geography, and the higher branches of arithmetic; having ten others annually, of still superior parts, who, to those branches of learning, shall have added such of the sciences as their genius shall have led them to; the furnishing to the wealthier part of the people convenient schools, at which their children may be educated, at their own expense. The general objects of this law are, to provide an education adapted to the years, to the capacity, and the condition of every one, and directed to their freedom and happiness. Specific details were not proper for the law. These must be the business of the visitors entrusted with

* Jefferson.

its execution. The first stage of this education being the schools of the hundreds, wherein the great mass of the people will receive their instruction, the principal foundations of future order will be laid there. The first elements of morality may be instilled into their minds; those, which, when further developed, as their judgments advance in strength, may teach them how to promote their own greatest happiness, by showing them that it does not depend on the condition of life in which chance has placed them, but is always the result of a good conscience, good health, occupation, and freedom in all just pursuits. Those whom either the wealth of their parents, or the adoption of the state, shall destine to higher degrees of learning, will go on to the grammar schools, which constitute the next stage, there to be instructed in the languages. As soon as they are of a sufficient age, it is supposed they will be sent on from the grammar schools to the university, which constitutes the third and last stage, there to study those sciences which may be adapted to their views. By that part of the plan which prescribes the selection of the youths of genius from among the classes of the poor, the state will avail itself of those talents which nature has sown as liberally among the poor as the rich, but which perish without use, if not sought for and cultivated. But of all the views of this law, none is more important, none more just, than that of rendering the people the safe, as they are the unlimited guardians of their own liberty. For this purpose, the reading in the first stage, where they will receive their whole education, is proposed to be chiefly historical. History, by apprising them of the past, will enable them to judge for the future; it will avail them of the experience of other times and other nations; it will qualify them as judges of the actions and designs of men; it will enable them to know ambition under every disguise it may assume, and, knowing it, to defeat its views. In every government on earth, there is some trace of human weakness, some germ of corruption and degeneracy, which cunning will discover, and wickedness insensibly open, cultivate, and improve. Every government degenerates when trusted to the rulers of the people alone. The people themselves, therefore, are its only safe guardians. And, to render even them safe, their minds must be improved to a certain degree. This, indeed, is not all that is necessary, though it be essentially necessary. The influence over government must be shared among the people. If every individual which composes their mass, participates of the ultimate authority, the government will be safe; because the corrupting the whole mass will exceed any private resources of wealth; and public ones cannot be provided, but by levies on the people. In this case every man would have to pay his price. The government of Britain has been corrupted, because but one man in ten has a right to vote for members of parliament. The sellers of the government therefore get nine tenths of their price clear.

The excellent measures for the diffusion of useful knowledge, which the fore-mentioned bill proposes, have not yet been carried into effect. And it will be happy if the great inequality in the circumstances of the citizens does not prove an insuperable difficulty in the way of their universal operation.

RELIGION.] The first settlers in this country were emigrants from England, of the English church, just at a point of time when it was flushed with complete victory over the religious of all other persuasions. Possessed, as they became, of the powers of making, administering and executing the laws, they showed equal intolerance in this country with their presbyterian brethren, who had emigrated to the northern government. The quakers were flying from persecution in England. They cast their eyes on these new countries, as asylums of civil and religious freedom; but they found them free only for the reigning sect. Several acts of the Virginian assembly, of 1659, 1662, and 1663, had made it penal in parents to refuse to have their children baptized; had prohibited the unlawful assembling of quakers; had made it

penal for any master of a vessel to bring a quaker into the state; had ordered those already here, and such as should come thereafter, to be imprisoned till they should abjure the country; provided a milder punishment for the first and second return, put death for the third; had inhibited all persons from suffering their meetings in or near their houses, entertaining them individually, or disposing of books which supported their tenets. If no capital execution took place here, as did in New England, it was not owing to the moderation of the church, or spirit of the legislature, as may be inferred from the law itself; but to historical circumstances which have not been handed down to us. The episcopalians retained full possession of the country about a century. Other opinions began to creep in; and the great care of the government to support their own church, having begotten an equal degree of indolence in its clergy, two-thirds of the people had become dissenters at the commencement of the late revolution. The laws, indeed, were still oppressive on them; but the spirit of the one party had subsided into moderation, and of the other had risen to a degree of determination which commanded respect.

The present denominations of christians in Virginia are presbyterians, who are the most numerous, and inhabit the western parts of the state; episcopalians, who are the most ancient settlers, and occupy the eastern and first settled part of the state. Intermingled with these, are a great number of baptist and methodists.

CHARACTER, MANNERS } Virginia, "the ancient dominion," has produced
AND CUSTOMS. } some of the most distinguished and influential men in
America. Her political and military character will rank among the first in the page of history. The planters and merchants of Virginia; and in general, all the men of property, are at least equal in politeness, hospitality, and all the virtues that reflect lustre on human nature, to those of the same description in the other states. Some of the most illustrious characters that America can boast, either of those who now guide her councils, or of those who live but on the records of history, derive their birth from this state. But the disparity of fortunes, and of intellectual acquirements, is very great here, and it is to be regretted, that the mass of the people are rather unenlightened. Industry is not so general as to the northward of them; dissipation, in various forms, as horse-racing, cock-fighting, and gaming, is more prevalent in this state, than perhaps in any other of the union. However, the state of things is rapidly ameliorating. A taste for reading is spreading in almost every direction. And should the wise plan of education, which we have mentioned, be carried into effect, there is ground to hope that the shades on the Virginian character will be totally dispelled, and that the state will shine forth with a splendour commensurate to its ancient dignity, and the extent of its population.

CONSTITUTION, COURTS AND LAWS.] The executive powers are lodged in the hands of a governor, chosen annually, and incapable of acting more than three years in seven. He is assisted by a council of eight members. The judiciary powers are divided among several courts, as will be hereafter explained. Legislation is exercised by two houses of assembly, the one called the house of delegates, composed of two members from each county, chosen annually by the citizens, possessing an estate for life, in one hundred acres of uninhabited land, or twenty five acres with a house on it, or in a house or lot in some town; the other called the senate, consisting of twenty-four members, chosen quinquennially by the same electors, who, for this purpose, are distributed into twenty-four districts. The concurrence of both houses is necessary to the passing of a law. They have the appointment of the governor and council, the judges of the superior courts, auditors, attorney-general, treasurer, register of the land office.

This constitution was the first that was formed in the whole united states.

In each county and corporation in Virginia, there is a court held monthly at a stated place. The governor commissions the justices who hold these courts. They do not receive a salary, and any four are sufficient to constitute a court. They have jurisdiction respectively, 1st. To hear and ultimately decide on certain misdemeanors: 2d. To examine into every criminal offence committed within their limits; and, if the culprit is deemed guilty of the offence imputed to him, to order him, for ultimate trial, to the district court to which the county belongs—but no criminal can be put upon his trial in a district court, without such previous examination; nor can the examining courts inflict any punishment on him: 3d. To hear and determine all civil causes peculiar to the county or corporation, and all transitory actions of every kind: 4th. To regulate the police of the county, grant administrations, and receive probate of wills and deeds, &c. Quarterly, these courts sit for the dispatch of civil suits, and at all their other sessions, their other powers are exercised. Every county and corporation is thrown into a district, so as to make the number of districts in the state eighteen. For each of these districts a court is held twice in each year, by the judges of the general court, at a stated place within each district. The jurisdiction of the district court is, 1st, over all criminal causes: 2d, over all causes, at common law, of a civil nature, if, in pecuniary demands, the sum amounts to thirty pounds. They have also an appellate jurisdiction, from the county courts, in all civil cases, at common law, if the sum recovered amounts to ten pounds. Each of the district courts is to consist of two judges from the general courts, to be allotted, at the sessions of the general court, twice in each year. One judge, however, in the absence of the other, may do all business of a civil nature, but no criminal can be tried, in the absence of either judge, without his consent, and a petition from him for that purpose. The general court consists of ten judges; elected by joint ballot of both houses of the assembly, and commissioned by the governor. It sits twice a year in Richmond. Its jurisdiction, which has of late been transferred into the district courts, for the convenience of suitors, is now confined to cases which affect public delinquencies, in tax gatherers, &c. It can hear cases, adjourned by the district judges, and some others, but its powers are now very much confined. The high court of chancery sits four times a year, in Richmond. It consists of one judge, who has original chancery jurisdiction, co extensive with the state. It has an appellate jurisdiction from the county and corporation courts in chancery. The court of appeal consists of five judges, chosen by joint ballot of both houses of the assembly. It sits twice a year in Richmond. It has no original jurisdiction in any case, but it has an appellate jurisdiction from the chancery, general, and district courts, in all civil cases, and its decrees and decisions are final.

In 1785, the assembly enacted that no man should be compelled to support any religious worship, place or minister whatsoever, nor be enforced, restrained, molested, or burdened in his body or goods, nor otherwise suffer on account of his religious opinions or belief; but that all men should be free to profess, and by argument to maintain their opinion, in matters of religion; and that the same should in no wise diminish, enlarge or affect their civil capacity.

In October 1786, an act was passed by the assembly prohibiting the importation of slaves into the commonwealth under the penalty of forfeiting the sum of one thousand pounds for every slave. And every slave imported contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act, becomes free.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Before the war the inhabitants of this state paid but little attention to the manufacture of their own clothing. It has been thought they used to import as much as seven-eighths of it, and that they now manufacture three quarters. We have before mentioned that considerable quantities of iron are manufactured in this state—To these we may add the manufacture

of lead; besides which they have few others of consequence. The people are much attached to agriculture, and prefer foreign manufactures.

Before the war, this state exported, *communibus annis*, according to the best information that could be obtained, as follows :

<i>Articles.</i>	<i>Quantity.</i>	<i>Amt. in dolls.</i>
Tobacco,	55,000 hhds. 1000 lb.	1,650,000
Wheat,	800,000 bushels,	606,666
Indian corn,	600,000 bushels,	200,000
Shipping	—	100,000
Masts, planks, skantling,	}	66,666
Shingles, staves,		
Tar, Pitch turpentine,	30,000 barrels,	40,000
Peltry, viz. skins of deer,	}	42,000
beavers, otters, musk-		
rats, racoons, foxes		
Pork,	4,000 barrels	40,000
Flaxseed, hemp, cotton,	—	8,000
Pit-coal, pig-iron,	—	6,666
Peas,	5,000 bushels,	3,333
Beef,	1,000 barrels,	3,333
Sturgeon, white shad, herring,	—	3,333
Brandy from peaches and	}	1,666
apples, and whiskey,		
Horses,	—	—
		<u>2,833,333</u>

	<i>Dolls.</i>
Exports from Virginia, from October 1st, 1790, to Sept. 30, 1791	3,131,227
October 1st, 1791, to Sept. 33, 1792,	3,549,499
October 1st, 1792, to Sept. 30, 1793,	2,984,317

In the year 1758, Virginia exported seventy thousand hogheads of tobacco, which was the greatest quantity ever produced in this country in one year. But its culture has fast declined since the commencement of the war, and that of wheat taken its place. The price, which the former commands at market, will not enable the planter to cultivate it. Were the supply still to depend on Virginia and Maryland alone, as its culture becomes more difficult, the price would rise, so as to enable the planter to surmount those difficulties. But the western country on the Mississippi, and the midlands of Georgia, having fresh and fertile lands in abundance, and a hotter sun, are able to undersell these two states, and will oblige them in time to abandon the raising of tobacco altogether; and a happy obligation for them it will be. It is a culture unfriendly to human happiness. Those employed in it are in a continued state of exhausting exertion. Little food of any kind is raised by them; so that the men and animals on these farms are badly fed, and the earth is rapidly impoverished. The cultivation of wheat is the reverse in every circumstance. Besides clothing the earth with herbage, and preserving its fertility, it feeds the labourers plentifully, requires from them only a moderate toil, except in the season of harvest, raises great numbers of animals for food and service, and diffuses plenty and happiness among the whole. It is easier to make an hundred bushels of wheat than a thousand weight of tobacco, and the former are worth more when made.

It is not easy to say what are the articles either of necessity, comfort, or luxury, which cannot be raised here, as every thing hardier than the olive, and as hardy as the fig, may be raised in the open air. Sugar, coffee, and tea, indeed, are not between these limits; and habit having placed them among the necessaries of life with the wealthy, as long as these habits remain, they must go for them to those countries which are able to furnish them.

HISTORY.] The enterprising genius, which added so much splendor to the active reign of Elizabeth, continued its influence even during that of her indolent successor. Captain Bartholomew Gosnold having made a voyage to the Virginian coast, in 1602, was so well pleased with the country, that he resolved to establish in it a plantation, and accordingly, he, with some other projectors, applied to James I. "for licence to deduce a colony into that part of America called Virginia." This proposal pleased that monarch, naturally fond of novelty; and, in order to promote so noble a work, he, on the 10th of April, 1606, granted letters patent, under the great seal of England, to sir Thomas Gates and his associates*. All those territories in America which either belonged to that monarch, or were not then possessed by any other christian prince or people, lying between the 34th and 45th degrees N. latitude, were granted to this company. They were divided at their own desire into two companies: The one, consisting of adventurers of the city of London, was styled the *first* colony, and was required to establish its settlement, between the 34th and 41st degrees of latitude—the other, composed of merchants of Bristol and other western towns, named the *second* colony, was ordered to plant between 38 and 45 degrees; yet so that the colony last formed, should not be planted within one hundred miles of the prior establishment. Each of these colonies, under the general names of South and North Virginia, had a council of thirteen men to govern them. This is the most ancient colonial charter, and comprehended almost the whole of the present territory of the united states.

Both companies early enterprised settlements within the limits of their respective grants. A small fleet of transports, with emigrants, under the command of captain Christopher Newport, sailed from the Thames, in December, 1609. But the month of April, 1607, is the remarkable epoch of the arrival of the first permanent colony on the Virginia coast. On the 26th of this month they entered the Chesapeak bay, landed and soon after gave to the most southern point, the name of Cape-Henry, which it still retains. On May 13, they elected Mr. Edward Maria Wingfield president for the year, and next day landed all their men, and began a settlement on James' river, at a place which they called James-town. This is the first town that was settled by the English in North America. The June following, captain Newport sailed for England, leaving with the president one hundred and four persons.

In August, a mortal sickness prevailed in the colony, and carried off nearly half their number; and, among others, extremely regretted, captain Gosnold, the first and zealous projector of this colony, and one of the council. The following winter Jamestown was burnt, and the colony reduced to the greatest extremity.

In 1608, the London company sent captain Nelson with two ships, and one hundred and twenty persons, to Jamestown; and the year following captain J. Smith, afterwards president, arrived, and sailed up a number of the rivers, making very important discoveries in the interior parts of South Virginia. In September, captain Newport arrived, with seventy persons, which increased the colony to two hundred souls.

In May 1609, partly in order to augment the number of the adventurers, by the addition of persons of the greatest consequence in the nation, but more to explain former, and to acquire new privileges, the London company applied for, and easily

* See Hazard's Historical Collections, vol. i. page 50.

obtained, from the favour of their sovereign, a new charter*. The second patent recited and confirmed the first. There were now added, to the former adventurers, many of the first nobility and gentry, at the head of whom was Robert, earl of Salisbury, most of the companies of London, a numerous body of merchants and tradesmen; and all these were incorporated by the name of "the treasurer and company of adventurers of the city of London, for the first colony of Virginia."

The addition of so many persons of rank, influence, and fortune, augmented the reputation, not less than the wealth of the former adventurers, and they were now enabled to press on, with bolder steps, to the goal of their wishes.

In June of this year, 1609, sir Thomas Gates, admiral Newport, sir George Somers, with seven ships, a ketch, and a pinnace, having five hundred souls on board, men, women, and children, sailed from Falmouth for South Virginia. In crossing the Bahama Gulf, on the 24th of July, the fleet was overtaken by a violent storm, and separated. Four days after, sir George Somers ran his vessel ashore on one of the Bermuda islands, which from this circumstance have been called the Somer islands. The people on board, one hundred and fifty in number, all got safe on shore; and there remained until the following May. The remainder of the fleet arrived at Virginia in August. The colony was now increased to five hundred men. Capt. Smith, then president, a little before the arrival of the fleet, had been very badly burnt by means of powder which had accidentally caught fire. This unfortunate circumstance, together with the opposition he met with from those who had lately arrived, induced him to leave the colony, and return to England; which he accordingly did the last of September. Francis West, his successor in office, soon followed him, and George Piercy was elected president.

In 1610, the South Virginia, or London company, sealed a patent to lord de la War constituting him governor and captain general of South Virginia. He soon after embarked for America with captain Argal, and one hundred and fifty men, in three ships.

The unfortunate people, who, the year before, had been shipwrecked on the Bermuda islands, had employed themselves, during the winter and spring, under the direction of sir Thomas Gates, sir George Somers, and admiral Newport, in building a sloop to transport themselves to the continent. They embarked for Virginia on the 10th of May, with about one hundred and fifty persons on board; leaving two of their men behind, who chose to stay; and landed at Jamestown on the 23d of the same month. Finding the colony, which at the time of capt. Smith's departure, consisted of five hundred souls, now reduced to sixty, and those few in a distressed and wretched situation, they, with one voice, resolved to return to England; and, for this purpose, on the 7th of June, the whole colony repaired on board their vessels, broke up the settlement, and sailed down the river, on the way to their native country.

Fortunately, lord de la War, who had embarked for Jamestown the March before, met them the day after they sailed, and persuaded them to return with him to Jamestown, where they arrived and landed the 10th of June. The government of the colony, of right devolved upon lord de la War. From this time we may date the effectual settlement of Virginia.

In April 1613, John Rolfe, a worthy young gentleman, was married to Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhatan, a famous Indian chief. This connection, which was very agreeable both to the English and Indians, was the foundation of a friendly and advantageous commerce between them.

In 1616, Rolfe, with his wife Pocahontas, visited England, where she was treated with that attention and respect which she had merited by her important services to

the colony in Virginia. She died the year following at Gravesend, in the twenty-second year of her age, just as she was about to embark for America. She had embraced the christian religion; and in her life and death, evidenced the sincerity of her profession. She left a son, who, having received his education in England, came over to Virginia, where he lived and died in affluence and honour, leaving behind him an only daughter. Her descendants are among the most respectable families in Virginia.

Tomocomo, a sensible Indian, brother-in-law to Pocohontas, accompanied her to England; and was directed by Powhatan to bring him an exact account of the numbers and strength of the English. For this purpose; when he arrived at Plymouth, he took a long stick, intending to cut a notch in it for every person he should see. This he soon found impracticable, and threw away his stick. On his return, being asked by Powhatan, how many people there were, he is said to have replied, 'Count the stars in the sky, the leaves on the trees, and the sands on the sea-shore; for such is the number of the people in England.'

In pursuance of the authorities given to the company by their several charters, and more especially of that part in the charter of 1609, which authorized them, to establish a form of government, they, on the 24th of July, 1621, by charter under their common seal, declared, that from thence forward there should be two supreme councils in Virginia; the one to be called the council of state, to be placed and displaced by the treasurer, council in England, and company, from time to time, whose office was to be that of assisting and advising the governor; the other to be called the general assembly, to be convened by the governor once yearly, or oftener, which was to consist of the council of state, and two burgessees out of every town, hundred, or plantation, to be respectively chosen by the inhabitants. In this, all matters were to be decided by the greater part of the votes present, reserving to the governor a negative voice; and they were to have power to treat, consult and conclude on all emergent occasions concerning the public weal, and to make laws for the behoof and government of the colony, imitating and following the laws and policy of England as nearly as might be: Provided that these laws should have no force till ratified in a general quarter court of the company in England, and returned under their common seal; and declaring, that, after the government of the colony should be well framed and settled, no orders of the council in England should bind the colony, unless ratified by the said general assembly. The king and company quarrelled, and, by a mixture of law and force, the latter were ousted of all their rights, without retribution, after having expended one hundred thousand pounds, in establishing the colony, without the smallest aid from government. King James suspended their powers, by proclamation of July 15th, 1624: and Charles I. took the government into his own hands. Both sides had their partisans in the colony: But, in truth, the people of the colony, in general, thought themselves little concerned in the dispute. There were three parties interested in these several charters; what passed between the first and second, it was thought, could not affect the third. If the king seized on the powers of the company, they only passed into other hands, without increase or diminution, while the rights of the people remained as they were. But they did not remain so long. The northern parts of their country were granted away to the lords Baltimore and Fairfax; the first of these obtained also the rights of separate jurisdiction and government. And in 1650, the parliament, considering itself as standing in the place of their deposed king, and as having succeeded to all his powers without, as well as within the realm, began to assume a right over the colonies, passing an act for inhibiting their trade with foreign nations. This succession to the exercise of the king's authority, gave the first colour for parliamentary interference with the colonies, and produced that fatal precedent, which it continued to follow

after it had retired, in other respects, within its proper functions. When this colony, therefore, which still maintained its opposition to Cromwell and the parliament, was induced, in 1651, to lay down their arms, they previously secured their most essential rights by a solemn convention.

This convention, entered into with arms in their hands, they supposed, had secured the ancient limits of their country—its free trade—its exemption from taxation but by their own assembly; and exclusion of military force from among them. Yet, in every of these points was this convention violated by subsequent kings and parliaments, and other infractions of their constitution, equally dangerous, committed. The general assembly, which was composed of the council of state and burgesses, sitting together and deciding by plurality of voices, was divided into two houses, by which the council obtained a separate negative on their laws. Appeals from their supreme court which had been fixed by law in their general assembly, were arbitrarily revoked to England, to be there heard before the king and council. Instead of four hundred miles on the sea coast, they were reduced, in the space of thirty years, to about one hundred miles. Their trade with foreigners was totally suppressed, and when carried to Great Britain, was there loaded with imposts. It is unnecessary, however, to glean up the several instances of injury, as scattered through American and British history; and the more especially, as, by passing on to the accession of the present king, we shall find specimens of them all, aggravated, multiplied, and crowded within a small compass of time, so as to evince a fixed design of considering the rights of the people, whether natural, conventional or chartered, as mere nullities. The colonies were taxed internally; their essential interests sacrificed to individuals in Great Britain; their legislatures suspended, charters annulled, trials by juries taken away, their persons subjected to transportation across the Atlantic, and to trials before foreign judicatories, their supplications for redress thought beneath answer, themselves published as cowards in the councils of their mother country and courts of Europe, armed troops sent among them to enforce submission to these violences, and actual hostilities commenced against them. No alternative was presented but resistance or unconditional submission. Between these could be no hesitation. They closed in the appeal to arms. They declared themselves independent states. They confederated together into one great republic thus securing to every state the benefit of an union of their whole force. They fought—they conquered—and obtained an honourable and glorious peace.

It was not till after the peace that the defects and inefficacy of the old confederation were perceived and felt. Virginia had the honour of leading the way to a most important reform in the government. In 1785, a proposition was made in the legislature of this state, to appoint commissioners, to meet such as might be appointed in the other states, who should form a system of commercial regulations for the united states, and recommend it to the several legislatures for adoption. Commissioners were accordingly appointed, and a request was made to the legislatures of the other states, to accede to the proposition. Several states acceded, and appointed commissioners, who met at Annapolis in the summer of 1786, to consult what measures should be taken to unite the states in some efficient commercial system. But, as all the states were not represented, and the powers of the commissioners were, in their opinion, too limited to propose a system of regulations, adequate to the purposes of government, they agreed to recommend a general convention to be held at Philadelphia the subsequent year, with powers to frame a general plan of government for the united states.

This convention accordingly met, as proposed, and agreed upon a plan of government, to be submitted to the legislatures of the several states. In Virginia, when this plan of government came before the convention of the state, many of the leading characters opposed the ratification of it, with great ability and industry. But, after a full discussion of the subject, a small majority of a numerous convention appeared for its adoption.

N O R T H - C A R O L I N A .

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Sq. Miles
Length, from E. to W.	450	} between	34000 ⁰
Breadth, on the sea,	180		
		{ 1 ^o and 8 ^o W. lon. from Phil.	
		{ 33 ^o 50 and 36 ^o 30 N. lat.	

Breadth across the centre, from 35^o N. latitude. 105 miles.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS state is bounded, on the east, by the Atlantic Ocean ; on the west, by the Tennessee government, or Territory south of the Ohio ; on the north, by Virginia, and on the south, by South-Carolina and Georgia.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.*] The Eastern and Western Ridings. The Eastern contains the districts of Wilmington, Newbern, Edenton, lying along the sea coast, from South-Carolina to Virginia, and the district of Halifax, to the westward of the latter. The western Riding is composed of the districts of Hillsborough, Salisbury, Morgan, and Fayetteville. In these eight districts are the following counties and towns :—

* The charter limits of North-Carolina are, a the line actually run in 1772, by commissioners line beginning on the sea side, at a cedar stake, appointed by the governors of each province ; at or near the mouth of Little river (being the being continued from the end of the line north-southern extremity of Brunswick county) and west from Little river, due west to the lands running thence a north-west course, through the belonging to the Catawba nation, thence north-boundary house, in latitude 33^o 56 to latitude wardly with their lands, so as to leave the same 35^o, and on that parallel west to the South Sea. in South-Carolina, thence due west ; which The northern line begins on the sea coast, in latitude 36^o 30, and runs due west, by said charter, to the South Sea ; but, by the cession to gave a considerable body of territory, fertile and populous, to South-Carolina. North-Carolina, in her bill of rights reclaims this land, congress, these lines now both stop at the Ten-adhering to her charter ; but South-Carolina nasssee government ; and, by an order of king retains possession.

George II. the southern line was altered and

Rocky river, Uharee, Smith's river, Drowning creek, and Fishing creek, besides many of lesser note. Also on the west of the Allegany mountain, in the extensive frontier county of Buncom, French Broad river, Swannanoah, Laurel, and some others, which are the heads of the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers.

Roanoke, or Albermarle river, is very long and rapid; it opens into Albermarle sound by several mouths, at the south west corner thereof: after traversing a great distance of rich lands and crossing in its course the line between Virginia and North-Carolina, it forks, into Dan and Staunton rivers, about one hundred and twenty miles from its mouth; most of the former watering North-Carolina, the latter entirely in Virginia. The low lands of Roanoke, like those of all long rivers, are subject to inundations. It is navigable for shallops about sixty or seventy miles only, on account of falls, which, in a great measure, obstruct the water communication with the back country: there are however, latterly, considerable quantities of tobacco brought down the river nearly two hundred miles, from the Dan and Staunton, to warehouses, established at St. Tammany's on the Virginia side of the Roanoke, a little below Taylor's ferry, in such boats as are used in James river above Richmond, being from ten to twelve hogheads burden. The tobacco, &c. is then taken by land across the country to Petersburg. Several of the planters on this river are considered the wealthiest in the state; one of them, it is said, raises annually three thousand barrels of corn, and four thousand bushels of peas. Some planters, however, in the southern part of the state, add to the cultivation of corn, the more valuable articles of indigo, rice, and cotton, whose crops nett them a greater amount.

Cape Fear, or Clarendon river, affords the best navigation of any river in this state: it opens into the sea by two mouths, the smaller at the head of Smith's island, called the New Inlet, sufficiently deep to admit brigs of ten or eleven feet water: the longer, between Oak island and the south west end of Smith's island, at Bald-head, whereon has lately been erected a very complete light-house. The cape projects into the sea about five miles east-south east therefrom. At its grand entrance, it is full three miles, affords eighteen feet water at high tides over the bar, and continues that breadth, passing the towns of Smithville, near the fort, and Brunswick on the left, up to the Flats, to which place it is navigable for large vessels, being twenty-one miles from the mouth of the river, and fourteen below Wilmington; to this town, vessels drawing ten or twelve feet go with safety. Opposite to the town, Cape Fear divides into the North east and North west rivers, so called from their general courses; the latter being the most extensive, retains generally the name of Cape Fear. Between the Flats and Fort Johnson is an excellent harbour for vessels.

The north west river is not so wide, as the North-east, but a much deeper and larger river. About fifteen miles from the mouth, it receives Black river, and continues its course, navigable for sea vessels twenty five miles higher up, and afterwards, for at least eighty miles further to Fayetteville landing, is practicable for boats of great burthen, constructed for the purpose of carrying up vast quantities of imported goods from Wilmington, and bringing down in return to the same place, the produce of the country; principally tobacco, flour, flaxseed, and grain. The lands, on this river are so well-watered, that there is scarcely a large plantation on it, without a saw or grist-mill, or a stream sufficient for those purposes, by which means rafts of lumber are continually descending when there is no interruption to trade. About forty five miles above Fayetteville landing, the North-west branches into Deep and Haw rivers, meandering with their various streams entirely from the south-east to the north-west extremity of the state, and being bordered in their whole course by as strong, fertile, and well-timbered lands, as any in the Atlantic states, watering a great part of the rich and populous counties of Chatham, More, Orange, Caswell, Randolph, Guilford, Rock-

ingham, and Surry. It is navigable for small boats about twenty-five miles above Fayetteville in times of small freshes, being about twenty-five miles from Raleigh; and might, at an inconsiderable expense, be made passable for small craft to the forks of Haw and deep rivers, where it loses its name of North west, or Cape Fear.

The North east river is about two hundred yards wide at Wilmington, and continues nearly the same for many miles. It is navigable, for brigs twenty miles above Wilmington, and boats of considerable burden to South Washington, about forty miles further; for smaller boats and rafts to the town of Sarecto, in Duplin county, about seventy miles further.

Waccamaw derives its principal source from a large and beautiful transparent lake, whence it descends through many thousand acres of rich well-timbered swamp, the whole length of Brunswick county; its stream being increased by the waters of the Great Green Swamp, and the Marsh Fork. It crosses the line of the two Carolinas, opposite the mouth of Little river, at which it is only about six miles from the sea, and continues to run from thence nearly parallel with the coast, making a neck of land seventy or eighty miles in length to its mouth, below Georgetown, in the vicinity of which, some of the lands on the river have sold at fifty pounds sterling per acre, for the swamp fields of a whole plantation,

Black-river is a broader and handfomer stream than the North-west for some distance up, and not so subject to freshes, being a much shorter river. The tide overflows its rich swamps and extensive cane-meadows from the mouth about fifteen miles upwards. It is navigable some distance for sea vessels, and for boats about sixty miles. From it branches South river, on which, and the main stream, are some mills, but lying between the two other branches of Cape Fear, the North east and North-west, and therefore not so accessible by land. It has hitherto been neglected, although highly worthy of notice for the fertility of its swamps and extraordinary range for cattle. All the above rivers, viz. Waccamaw, Cape Fear, the Northeast, North west and Black river, from their southern situation, have the advantage of every other river in north Carolina, with respect to variety of produce, being at least equal to the best, and superior to most in point of fertility, and capable of producing, with greater certainty, the most valuable articles of rice and indigo. Cape Fear river, and its branches above mentioned, are the only rivers in this state that afford those inestimable tide swamps which have raised their southern neighbours to such a pitch of opulence, as to be esteemed generally the richest planters on the continent of North America.

Peedee river has, in every respect, a strong resemblance of the beautiful Roanoke, in the breadth and appearance of its waters, its handsome banks for farm buildings, its fertile and extensive low grounds — Perhaps no lands in America afford more abundant crops than those of Peedee; as a proof of this, corn, pork, and beef are cheaper here than on any other navigable river in the Atlantic states. Indigo, tobacco, wheat, barley, corn and all other grains are produced on this river, in great quantities; cotton is also raised here to great perfection; the apple and peach orchards here are numerous and extensive. This river empties itself into Winyau bay, near Georgetown, in South-Carolina; from thence you trace it up nearly a north-west direction about one hundred and seventy miles to Parker's ferry, where the North-Carolina line crosses it due west; it is here near four hundred yards wide: then continuing its course into North-Carolina, divides Richmond from Anson county, nearly forty five miles to the mouth of Rocky river; it then enters the county of Montgomery; and about twenty-five miles further, receiving Uharree river, it loses the name of Peedee at that tremendous place called the Rapids, or Narrows of the Yadkin. This river admits large boats with little difficulty about twenty miles into North-Carolina, and smaller craft to or near the narrows, being by water to Georgetown about two hundred and forty miles. — A great number of the farmers of that part of this river which is in North-Carolina, trade to Fayetteville, being a land carriage of only sixty to ninety miles.

Yadkin river affords the principal waters of Peedee. Its name commences at the foot of the Rapids, where Peedee ends : these Rapids, or Narrows, are from two and an half to three miles long, and are occasioned by the river being narrowed from two hundred yards to thirty in this place, by very high hills on each side, which, added to a considerable fall in the bed of the river, causes the water to rush through the gap with a velocity almost inconceivable, dashing from side to side, and rock to rock, every thing that passes down it ; trunks of trees float down the river, and are frequently beat to pieces in this place. Notwithstanding this, a man, some years ago, passed through the Narrows in a large boat, when a considerable fresh made the waters deep, and hid the rocks ; he had nearly lost his life by this mad experiment ; the boat struck once or twice, and wheeled round like a top ; the rudder was of no service : the boat was ruined ; and, it is said, the trip was performed in eight or ten minutes. Several kinds of fish are taken here at all seasons. Shad are caught in the spring of the year with hoop-nets, in the eddies, in numbers almost incredible. A man frequently catches one thousand in an hour in one spot. The water can easily be conveyed from the bed of the river to beautiful seats for mills, and, perhaps, there is not in the world, a more eligible situation for a large manufacturing town than at this place, being in the centre of an extensive, rich, and healthy country. The waters of this river flow from the spurs of the Allegany mountains. About forty miles above the Narrows, it divides into North and South Yadkin. The North Fork interlocks with the waters of Dan river, the South with those of the Catawba. The lands on the waters of the rivers are very rich, red, yellow, and black mould, a little stoney, the country hilly, and better settled than any in the state: it may be made navigable at an inconsiderable expense, one hundred and eighty miles above the Narrows, for such boats as come to Richmond, down James river in Virginia, from ten to twelve hogheads burden.

The Dan is a fine river, and in most respects like the Yadkin.

The Catawba, and Broad river, water the south west part of Carolina, and run from the top of the Allegany mountains, in the district of Morgan, from innumerable and delightful springs, which soon unite, and form these rivers, which are very wide within fifty miles of the mountains. It is very common in these high mountains, to see within fifty yards the waters flowing to the east and to the west. It may be said, with great truth, that the lands in this country are not inferior to the boasted soil of Kentucky, and the western waters. The Catawba at Morganton, three hundred and fifty miles from the sea, and sixty from the top of the mountains, is two hundred and fifty yards wide ; and at some expense, can be made navigable for small boats.

Newse river opens into Pamlico sound, and is navigable for sea vessels to Newbern, and twelve miles higher up for the small kind. It then continues navigable for large boats fifty miles, and for small, two hundred.

Pamlico, or Tar river, opens into Pamlico sound, and navigable for vessels drawing nine feet water, to Washington, which lies about forty miles from its mouth ; and for boats, carrying thirty or forty hogheads, fifty miles further to Tarborough, after which its stream lessens so as to be inconsiderable and not navigable.

Chowan falls into the northwest corner of Albemarle sound, is three miles wide at its mouth, and, in its course upwards, passes Edenton, not very distant from which it narrows fast, and separates into several smaller streams, all of which derive their source from Virginia.

New river is a very handsome broad river, but short and shallow ; the lands on each side are generally of an inferior quality, except a considerable body on the head of the north-west fork, which is so fertile as to be distinguished by the name of the rich lands.

Drowning creek has its source in North-Carolina, in that sandy country which lies between Peedee and Cape Fear rivers: it is not wide, but is very deep and long for so narrow a water course, and runs parallel with Peedee, receiving several considerable streams and empties itself into that river: a little above Georgetown, after passing by Lumberton, in North-Carolina; a growing little town, one hundred and twenty miles above the former; from this place, boats, rafts, &c. go to Georgetown, and, at a little expense, the water-course may be made passable for small boats and craft fifty miles higher up to Cole's bridge. Immediately on the banks of the creek, and its water courses, are rich, extensive swamps, and cane meadows:

Trent river empties into Neuse at Newbern, is navigable for sea vessels of small size about twelve miles, and for boats thirty miles, having on its banks some very extensive corn fields.

This country is generally settled by emigrants from North-Britain; a hardy, industrious, economical race of people, and much in the habits of domestick manufactures. Black cattle are raised here with little care, and in great numbers; many of which are driven to Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, to market.

A committee of the general assembly, held at Fayetteville, December, 1793, being appointed to enquire into the probability of improving the inland navigation of the several rivers in this state, reported, that eight might probably be operated upon with great effect:

	<i>Miles.</i>
Broad river, for - - - - -	30
Catawba, (a branch of Santee) - - -	140
Yadkin, (a branch of Peedee) - - -	180
Haw river, - - - - -	50
Deep river, - - - - -	50
Neuse, above Smithfield, - - - -	50
Tar river, above Tarborough and Fishing creek,	40
Roanoke, above Halifax, - - - -	30
Dan river, - - - - -	50
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	620

SOUNDS, CAPES, INLETS, &c.] Pamlico sound is a kind of lake or inland sea, from ten to twenty miles broad, and nearly one hundred miles in length. It is separated from the sea, in its whole length, by a beach of sand hardly a mile wide, generally covered with small trees or bushes. Through this bank are several small inlets, by which boats may pass. But Ocrecok inlet is the only one that will admit vessels of burden into the districts of Edenton and Newbern. This inlet is in latitude $35^{\circ} 10'$, and opens into Pamlico sound, between Ocrecok island and Core bank; the land on the north is called Ocrecok, and on the south Portsmouth. A bar of hard sand crosses this inlet, on which, at low tide, there are fourteen feet water. Six miles within this bar is a hard sand shoal, called the Swash, lying across the channel. On each side the channel, are dangerous shoals, sometimes dry. There is from eight to nine feet water at full tide, according to the winds, on the Swash. Common tides rise eighteen inches on the bar, and ten on the Swash. Between the bar and the Swash is good anchoring ground, called the upper and lower anchorages. Ships, drawing ten feet water, do not come farther than the first anchorage till lightened. Few mariners, though acquainted with the inlets, choose to bring in their own vessels, as the bar often shifts during their absence on a voyage. North of Pamlico sound, and communicating with it, is Albemarle sound, sixty miles in length, and from eight to twelve in breadth,

Core sound lies south of Pamlico, and communicates with it. These sounds are so large when compared with their inlets from the sea, that no tide can be perceived in any of the rivers which empty into them, nor is the water salt even in the mouths of these rivers.

Cape Hatteras is in latitude $35^{\circ} 15'$. At the time of sir Walter Raleigh's approaching the American shores, the shoals in the vicinity of Hatteras were conceived to be extremely dangerous, and no vessels, in that latitude, ventured within seven leagues of the land. From a survey of the ancient drafts of this part of the coast, there can be no doubt that the fears of former navigators were not without foundation; as these shoals were laid down, very large in extent, and in many places covered with not more than five or six feet water, at a great distance from the land.

The constant experience of the coasting trade of the united states demonstrates, that either the ancient drafts were purposely falsified, in order to deter seamen from venturing too near a coast, with which they had as yet very slender acquaintance, or, (which is the most probable) that by the strong currents hereabouts, which are only the counter-currents of the Gulf Stream, the sands which were originally heaped up in this part of the ocean, by some ancient convulsion in nature, have been gradually wearing away, and diminishing to what we find them to be at this time.

At present, the out shoals, which lie about fourteen miles southwest of the Cape, are but five or six acres extent; and where they are really dangerous to vessels of moderate draught, not more than half that number of acres. On the shoalest part of these is, at low water, about ten feet; and here, at times, the ocean breaks in a tremendous manner, spouting, as it were, to the clouds, from the violent agitations of the Gulf Stream, which touches the eastern edge of the banks, from whence the declivity is sudden, that is to say, from ten fathoms to no soundings. On the spot abovementioned, which is firm sand, many good vessels strike in gales of wind, and go to pieces. In moderate weather however, these shoals may be passed over, if necessary, at full tide, without much danger, by vessels not drawing more than eight, nine or ten feet water.

From this bank, which was formerly of vast extent, and called the Full moon Shoal, a ridge runs the whole distance to the Cape, about a northwest course. This ridge which is about half a mile wide, has on it, at low tide, generally ten, eleven, and twelve feet water, with gaps at equal intervals, affording good channels of about fifteen or sixteen feet water. The most noted of these channels, and most used by coasting vessels, is about one mile and a half from the land and may easily be known by a range of breakers which are always seen on the west side, and a breaker head or two on the eastern side, which however, are not so constant, only appearing when the sea is considerably agitated. This channel is at least two and a half miles wide, and might, at full sea, be safely passed by the largest ships. These however, rarely attempt it. The common tides swell about six feet, and always come from the south-east.—A little north of the Cape is good anchoring in four or five fathoms, and with the wind to the westward, a boat may land in safety, and even bring off casks of fresh water, plenty of which is to be found every where on the beach, by digging a foot or two, and putting a barrel into the sand.

Cape Lookout is south of Cape Hatteras, opposite Core sound, and has had an excellent harbour, entirely filled up with sand since the year 1777.

Cape Fear is remarkable for a dangerous shoal, called, from its form, the Frying pan. The south part of it lies six miles from Cape Fear pitch, in latitude $33^{\circ} 32'$. This shoal makes out from the southeast end of Smith's island, commonly called Ballhead island; and has two considerable channels through it. It is seldom passed but in cases of necessity, being rather narrow for large vessels. The light house, however, lately built at

Cape Fear Bar, will hereafter prove a security to vessels navigating to this part of the coast of Carolina, as it will always give the mariner warning and information where he is.

[CANALS, AND OTHER MODERN IMPROVEMENTS.] In North-Carolina there are two great tracts which are called dismal; because they are passed with difficulty by man or beast. The ground is low and generally marshy, covered with tall cypress, or juniper, with a thick, under growth of magnolia, bamboo, briars, and reeds. One of those dismal is in Tyrrel county, containing three or four hundred thousand acres. In the midst of this tract, there is a lake called Phelps, about eleven miles long by seven. Immediately after the revolution war, the idea of liberty giving a spring to enterprise, three gentlemen in Edenton, messrs. Collins, Allen, and Dickinson, took up all the land adjoining lake Phelps, including above one hundred thousand acres in their patents. There is a navigable river within five and a half miles of the lake; and though a constant stream that came out of the lake did not pass into the river, but seemed to be lost or absorbed in the great swamp, it was found, in making a survey, that the descent from the lake to the river, was above eleven feet: those gentlemen immediately dug a navigable canal eighteen feet wide, from the river to the lake: and shutting up the original vent, that caused the surplus water of the lake to pass through the canal. The only lock in the canal is about four hundred yards from the lake; and at the lock there are several saw-mills, a corn-mill, and a machine for cleaning rice. The lake is generally surrounded by a dry ridge, four or five hundred yards broad; and two or three feet higher than the common surface of the water. At the back of this ridge in most places there is a cyprus swamp, eight or ten feet deep, black soil. The proprietors of the canal have already cleared one hundred and twenty acres of this swamp, which they planted with rice, and have reaped great crops. By means of the canal, they can at any season cover the rice land with twelve or eighteen inches of fresh water, and there are, at least, ten thousand acres of excellent rice swamp adjoining their present improvement, which they can water in the same manner. Considering the extent and quality of this swamp, the ease with which it may be covered with water, and the perfect safety they enjoy from accidents by heavy rains and storms, this canal has probably produced as valuable a rice estate as any in America, to say nothing of the mills.

The other swamp, called also a great Dismal, is at the head of Pasquotank river; being partly in North-Carolina, and partly in Virginia. In the midst of this Dismal, there is a small lake called Drummond's pond. A company was incorporated in the year 1790, by the legislatures of North-Carolina and Virginia, for opening a navigable canal from Pasquotank river to a branch of Elizabeth river. This canal, which is to be filled from Drummond's pond, passing it to the southward, will be sixteen or seventeen miles long. The company have been working some years on this canal; but like all other public undertakings, we may suppose that it proceeds more tardily, and at a greater expense, than the Tyrrel canal, which was finished in three years. By means of the Pasquotank canal, the inland navigation will be extended from Newbern to the head of Elk, or perhaps to Philadelphia, in case public spirit should prevail over private interest; or local considerations.

There are two other very large and extensive swamps in North-Carolina, one called Holly Shelter, in New-Harover county; the other in Brunswick, called the Green Swamp, which, if cleared and cultivated, are not inferior in soil to the above.

[PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Newbern, Edenton, Wilmington, Halifax, Hillsborough, Salisbury, and Fayetteville, each in their turns have been the seat of the general assembly. At present they have no capital. According to the constitution of this state, the general assemblies are to meet at any place they think fit on their own adjournments. The effect of this power was such as might be expected, in a state where there is no very large city or town nearly central; it was the source of constant intrigue and

disquietude. The assembly seldom sat twice in succession in the same place. The public officers were scattered over every part of the country. Visits to the governor, the secretary, the treasurer, or the comptroller, frequently required two or three hundred miles. Hence records were lost, accounts were badly kept, and the state, from that single misfortune, is supposed to have lost more than a million of dollars. It was equally clear to all parties, that government should not be itinerant, and the convention which met in the year 1788, to consider the new federal constitution, according to their instructions, took this part of their own constitution into consideration, and, by a very small majority, resolved, that the seat of government should be fixed at some place, to be agreed upon by commissioners, within ten miles of Wake court-house. This is a healthy and central situation. But an act of the legislature became necessary to give effect to this ordinance. And the general assembly of the state, at their session in December, 1791, passed a law for carrying the ordinance into effect, and appropriated ten thousand pounds towards erecting public buildings. A town has since been laid out at this place, by act of the legislature, and named the city of RALEIGH, in honour and memory of sir Walter Raleigh, by whose enterprize this country was discovered, and under whose directions the first settlement in North-America was made, at Roanoke Island, in Albermarle sound. We are informed the public buildings are nearly finished; and the next session of the legislature is to be held at that place, which labours under great inconvenience, owing to its remoteness from navigation of any kind.

Newbern is the largest town in the state. It stands on a point of land, formed by the confluence of the rivers Neuse on the north, and Trent on the south. Opposite the town, the Neuse is about a mile and a half, and the Trent three quarters of a mile wide. The town contains about four thousand houses*, all built of wood, excepting the palace, the church, the jail, and a few dwelling-houses, which are of brick. The palace is a building erected by the province before the revolution, and was formerly the residence of the governors. It is large and elegant, two stories high, with two wings for offices, a little advanced in front towards the town; these wings are connected with the principal building, by a circular arcade. This once handsome and well-finished building, superior to any in the late colonies, is now much out of repair. One of the halls is now used for a dancing, and another for a school room—which are the only present uses of this place. The arms of the king of Great Britain still appear in a pediment in front of the building, and exhibit the remains of departed royalty. The episcopal church is a small brick building, with a bell. It is the only house for public worship in the place. Two large rum distilleries have lately been erected in this town. It is the county town of Craven county, and has a court-house and jail. The court house is raised on brick arches, so as to render the lower part a convenient market place; but the principal marketing is done with the people in their canoes and boats at the river side.

Edenton is situated on the north side of Albemarle sound; and has about one hundred indifferent wood houses, and a few handsome buildings. It has a brick church for episcopalians, which for many years, has been much neglected. Its local situation is advantageous for trade, but not for health. It is the county town of Chowan county, and has a court-house and jail. In or near the town lived the proprietary, and the first of the royal governors.

Wilmington is a small, regular sea-port town, standing on the east side of Cape Fear, or Clarendon river, opposite the confluence of the North west and North east branches of said river, and about thirty-five miles above the mouth or main bar thereof, and six miles from the ocean; it contains about two hundred and fifty

* In September, 1791, nearly one third part of this town was consumed by fire.

houses, nearly a fourth of which are built of brick, with a church of the same materials, well finished. The town hath twice experienced considerable damage by fire. Its superior situation for commerce, renders it the best mart in the state, as will appear by the following statement.—In 1792, the impost and tonnage of the state amounted to seventy-five thousand eight hundred and eighty-four dollars, of which thirty-two thousand six hundred and ninety-six dollars were paid at the port of Wilmington;—in 1793, to ninety-six thousand and fifty-five dollars, forty-three thousand two hundred and eighty-seven of which were paid at this place. Thus it appears that nearly one-half of all the monies received in North-Carolina for imposts and tonnage, is paid at the town of Wilmington.—It is also a fact that many of the principal trading-houses at this town import their goods from the northern states, and from Charlestown in South-Carolina, where their remittances are sent in the produce of North-Carolina, and shipped from thence to Europe, as the product of those states. It is a matter of surprise and regret, that greater exertions have not been made at this place in ship-building, as the best of timber, viz. live oak, red cedar, and pitch pine, abounds in its vicinity, and provisions, &c. are much cheaper than in the towns to the northward. Wilmington has a regular market, and is well supplied with a great variety of excellent fish. The springs of water here are very good, some of which flow from beds of lime-stone, and contribute much to the health of the inhabitants, several of whom, born in this town, about the time it was first settled, are still (Jan. 1795) alive, and perfectly in health, being between sixty and seventy years of age. When these facts are taken into view, with the late improvements made in the river navigation here, this town, at no very distant day, must assume a rank far superior to what it at present possesses, in the mercantile scale of the united states.

Hillsborough is an inland town, situated in a high, healthy, and fertile country, one hundred and eighty miles northwest from Newbern. It is settled by about sixty or seventy families.

Salisbury is agreeably situated, about five miles from Yadkin river, and contains about ninety dwelling-houses.

Halifax is a pretty town, and stands on the western bank of the Roanoke, about six miles below the falls, and has about thirty or forty dwelling-houses.

Fayetteville, so called, in honour of the marquis La Fayette, is situated in the county of Cumberland, on the west side of the north-west branch of Cape Fear, nearly at the head of the natural navigation of the same, one hundred miles above Wilmington; on the bank of the river stand a few buildings and the tobacco warehouses, capable of containing about six thousand hogsheads, which quantity has been received here in one season, a considerable proportion whereof is equal to Petersburg tobacco. The centric, and most improved part of the town, is about a mile from the river, in the fork and near the junction of Blount's and Cross creek; from the latter, on whose banks it principally stands, the town formerly was named. It is well built on both sides of the creek, and contains nearly four hundred houses, and two very decent public buildings, for the supreme, district, and county courts, and the meetings of the town police and its citizens; one built of brick, and the other of wood, by voluntary subscriptions and donations. They are erected in two public squares, of three hundred feet, fronting each other, about a quarter of a mile apart; into each of these squares run four principal streets, of one hundred feet wide; the buildings being open below, afford excellent market places. The freemason's lodge, lately built here, is a large, handsome edifice. Fayetteville is better situated for commerce, and vends more merchandize, than any inland town in the state; and few places are more eligible for the establishment of several important manufactures.—There are three mills at this place, which make excellent flour; several extensive tan-yards;

and one or two considerable distilleries and breweries, just ready to work.—The produce received here is, tobacco, flour, wheat, beef, pork, flax-seed, some hemp, cotton, butter, and a variety of other articles, the product of a rich and fertile back country, lying to the north and west of this town, from thirty to two hundred and fifty miles.—Add to this, quantities of saw-mill lumber, staves, and some naval stores made in the neighbourhood. The town has increased since the revolution in a very rapid manner, but has experienced some dreadful checks from fire; the inhabitants begin now to use bricks for building, which are made here of a fine quality, and sold from five to six dollars per thousand. The country immediately around the town is a high, sandy, dry soil, and not fertile, except on the water courses, which are numerous, and generally afford as rich soil as any in the state. The boats used between this place and Wilmington, are from one hundred and twenty barrels burden to five hundred; and perform a trip from ten to fifteen days.

Washington is situated in the county of Beaufort, on the north side of Tar river, in latitude $35^{\circ} 30''$, distant from Ocracok inlet ninety miles. From this town is exported tobacco of the Petersburg quality, pork, beef, Indian corn, peas, beans, pitch, tar, turpentine, rosin, &c. and pine boards, shingles and oak staves. About one hundred and thirty vessels enter annually at the custom house in this town.

Greenville, so called after major-general Nathaniel Greene, is situated in Pitt county, on the south bank of Tar river, in latitude $35^{\circ} 45''$, distant from Ocracok inlet one hundred and eleven miles. At this town there is an academy established, called the Pitt academy.

Tarborough is situated in the county of Edgecomb, on the south bank of Tar river, in latitude $35^{\circ} 45''$, distant from Ocracok inlet one hundred and forty miles. At this town, large quantities of tobacco, of the Petersburg quality, pork, beef, and Indian corn, are collected for exportation.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL } North-Carolina, in its whole width, for sixty
AND PRODUCTIONS. } miles from the sea, is a dead level. A great proportion of this tract lies in forest, and is barren. On the banks of the rivers, however, the land is fertile and good. Interspersed through the other parts, are glades of rich swamp, and ridges of oak land, of a black, fertile soil. In all this champagne country, marine productions are found by digging eighteen or twenty feet below the surface of the ground. The sea coasts, the sounds, inlets, and the lower part of the rivers, have uniformly a muddy, soft bottom. Sixty or eighty miles from the sea, the country rises into hills and mountains.

Wheat, rye, barley, oats, and flax, grow well in the back hilly country. Indian corn and pulse of every kind in all parts. Cotton and hemp are also considerably cultivated here, and might be raised in much greater plenty. The cotton is planted yearly. The stalk dies with the frost. The labour of one man will produce one thousand pounds in the seeds, or two hundred and fifty, fit for manufacturing. The country is generally friendly to the raising of sheep, which yield from three-quarters to two and a half pounds of wool.

It is no uncommon thing for the farmer to mark from one hundred to two hundred calves in a year. No farther attention is paid to them till they are fit for slaughter; then they are taken up, killed, barrellled, and sent to the west India market. Their pork is raised with as little trouble: large quantities of which, before the war, were sent to New England, particularly to Boston and Salem, and now to Virginia.

TRADE.] A great proportion of the produce of the back country, consisting of tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, &c. is carried to market in South-Carolina and Virginia. The southern interior counties carry part of their produce to Charleston, and the northern to Petersburg in Virginia. The exports from the lower part of the state, are tar, pitch, turpentine, rosin, Indian corn, boards, scantling, staves, shingles,

furs, tobacco, pork, lard, tallow, bees-wax, myrtle wax, and a few other articles, amounting in the year, ending September 30th, 1791, to five hundred and twenty-four thousand five hundred and forty-eight dollars. Their trade is chiefly, with the West-Indies and the northern states. From the latter they receive flour, cheese cyder, apples, potatoes, iron wares, cabinet wares, hats, and dry goods of all kinds, imported from Great-Britain, France, and Holland, teas, &c. From the West-Indies rum, sugar, and coffee.

CLIMATE, DISEASES, &c.] In the flat country, near the sea coast, the inhabitants, during the summer and autumn, are subject to intermitting fevers, which often prove fatal, as bilious or nervous symptoms prevail. These fevers are seldom immediately dangerous to the natives who are temperate, or to strangers who are prudent. They, however, if suffered to continue for any length of time, bring on other disorders, which greatly impair the natural vigour of the mind, debilitate the constitution, and terminate in death. The countenances of the inhabitants during these seasons, have generally a pale yellowish cast, occasioned by the prevalence of bilious symptoms. They have very little of the bloom and freshness of the people in the northern states until you go from the sea eighty or one hundred miles into the country.

It has been observed, that more of the inhabitants, of the men especially, die during the winter, by pleurifies and peripneumonies, than during the warm months by bilious complaints. These pleurifies are brought on, sometimes, by intemperance, and by an imprudent exposure to the weather. Were the inhabitants cautious and prudent in these respects, it is alledged by their physicians, that they might, in general, escape the danger of these fatal diseases. The use of flannel next to the skin, during the winter, is reckoned an excellent preventative of the diseases incident to this climate. The western hilly parts of the state are as healthy as any of the united states. That country is fertile, full of springs and rivulets of pure water. The air there is serene a great part of the year; and the inhabitants live to old age, which cannot so generally be said of the inhabitants of the flat country. Though the days in summer are extremely hot, the nights are cool and refreshing. Autumn is very pleasant, both in regard to the temperature and serenity of the weather, and the richness and variety of the vegetable productions which the season affords. The winters are so mild in some years, that autumn may be said to continue till spring. Wheat harvest is the beginning of June, and that of Indian corn early in September.

NATURAL HISTORY.] The large natural growth of the plains in the low country, is almost universally pitch-pine, which is a tall, handsome tree, far superior to the pitch-pine of the northern states. This tree may be called the staple commodity of North-Carolina. It affords tar, pitch, turpentine, and various kinds of lumber, which, together constitute at least one-half of the exports of this state. This pine is of two kinds, the common and the long-leaved. The latter has a leaf shaped like other pines, but is nearly half a yard in length, hanging in large clusters. No country produces finer white and red oak for staves. The swamps abound with cypress and bay trees. The latter is an evergreen, and is food for the cattle in the winter. The leaves are shaped like those of the peach-tree, but larger. The most common kinds of timber in the back country are oak, walnut, and pine. A species of oak, called black jack, grows in the moist, sandy soil; it seldom grows larger than eight or nine inches diameter. It is worthy of remark, that the trees in the low country, near the sea coast, are loaded with vast quantities of a long species of moss, which, by absorbing the noxious vapour that is exhaled from stagnated waters, contributes much, it is supposed, to the healthiness of the climate. This hypothesis is confirmed by experience; since it is commonly observed, that the country is much less healthy for a few years after having been cleared, than while in a state of nature.

The mistletoe is common in the back country. This is a shrub which differs in kind,

perhaps from all others. It never grows out of the earth, but on the tops of trees. The roots (if they may be so called) run under the bark of the tree, and incorporate with the wood. It is an evergreen, resembling the garden boxwood.

The principal wildfruits are plumbs, grapes, strawberries and blackberries.

The grape grows here spontaneously and in great abundance. Several persons have made from two to three hogheads of wine, out of the wild grape in one season; and some of it, when kept a year or two, is considered as tolerable wine.

The country is generally covered with herbage of various kinds, and a species of wild grass. It abounds with medicinal plants and roots. Among others are the ginseng; Virginia snake root; Seneca snake root, an herb of the emetic kind, like the ipecacuanina; Lyon's heart, which is a sovereign remedy for the bite of a serpent; angelica and sarsaparilla. A species of the sensitive plant is also found here; it is a sort of brier, the stalk of which dies with the frost, but the root lives through the winter, and shoots again to the spring. The lightest touch of a leaf, causes it to turn and cling close to the stalk. Although it so easily takes the alarm, and apparently shrinks from danger, in the space of two minutes after it is touched, it perfectly recovers its former situation. The *Mucipula veneris* is also found here. The rich bottoms are overgrown with canes. The leaves are green all the winter, and afford an excellent food for cattle. They are of a sweetish taste, like the stalks of green corn, which they in many respects resemble. They frequently grow in the rich low grounds of North-West river twenty-five feet high, and as thick as a man's arm at the root.

There is a long ridge of lime-stone, which, extending in a southwesterly direction, nearly crosses the state of North Carolina, being about forty and fifty miles from the sea coast. It appears in large piles of rocks, for a number of miles, on the upper road leading from Newbern to Wilmington, and affords agreeable amusement to the traveller, in passing over natural bridges of this stone, with curious irregular arches through which brooks and rivulets discharge their currents. At Rocky Point, on the east branch of Cape Fear, it makes nearly a similar appearance. A species of rock has been found in several places, of which lime is made, which is obviously a concretion of marine shells. The state is traversed nearly in the same direction by another stratum of rocks, which passes near Warrenton. It is a circumstance, worthy of observation, that the springs of water on the northwest side of the ridge are apt to fail in dry seasons; on the southwest side they seldom fail.

MANUFACTURES.] The late war put a stop to several iron works. At present there are four or five furnaces in the state that are in blast, and a number of forges. There is a furnace in Guilford county, one in Surry, and one in Wilkes, all on the Yadkin— one in Lincoln, one on Snow creek, in Stokes, and one on deep river, Chatham county. The quality of the iron is excellent.

A paper mill has lately been erected at Salem, by the Moravians, and is worked to great advantage.

RELIGION.] The western parts of this state, and a great part of the district of Fayetteville, which have been settled within the last forty years, are chiefly inhabited by presbyterians from Pennsylvania, the descendants of people from the north of Ireland, and Emigrants from North Britain; they are exceedingly attached to the doctrines, discipline, and usages of the church of Scotland. They are a regular, industrious people. Almost all the inhabitants between the Catawba and Yadkin rivers, are of this denomination; and they are, in general, well supplied with a sensible and learned ministry. There are interspersed some settlements of Germans, both Lutherans and Calvinists, but they have very few ministers.

The Moravians have several flourishing settlements in this state. In 1751, they purchased of lord Granville one hundred thousand acres of land, between Dan and Yadkin rivers, about ten miles south of Pilot mountain, in Surry county, and called it

Wachovia, after an estate of count Zinzendorf, in Austria. In 1755, this tract, by an act of assembly, was made a separate parish, by the name of Dobb's parish. The first settlement, called Bethabara, was begun in 1753, by a number of the brethren from Pennsylvania, in a very wild, uninhabited country, which, from that time, began to be rapidly settled by farmers from the middle states:

In 1759, Bethany, a regular village, was laid out and settled. In 1766, Salem, which is now the principal settlement, and nearly in the centre of Wachovia, was settled by a collection of tradesmen. The same constitution and regulations are established here, as in other regular settlements of the united brethren. Besides, there are in Wachovia three churches, one in Friedland, one in Friedburgh, and another in Hope, each of which has a minister of the brethren's church. These people, by their industry and attention to various branches of manufacture, are very useful to the country around them.

The friends or quakers have a settlement in New Garden, in Guilford county, and several congregations at Perquimans and Pasquotank. The methodists and baptists are numerous and increasing.

It has been published, that "the inhabitants of Wilmington, Newbern, Edenton and Halifax districts, seem now to be making the experiment, whether christianity can long exist in a country, where there is no visible church." This is an egregious error. For, from the best information, it appears, that there is scarcely a neighbourhood, in those districts, without a church, a meeting house, or other place of public worship, and many of them attended by preachers as respectable as any on the continent.

COLLEGES AND ACADEMIES.] The general assembly of North Carolina, in December, 1719, passed a law incorporating forty gentlemen, five from each district, as trustees of the university of North Carolina. To this university they gave, by a subsequent law, all the debts due to the state, from the sheriffs or other holders of public money, and which had been due before the year 1783. They also gave it all escheated property within the state. A considerable quantity of land has already been given to the university. The general assembly, in December, 1791, loaned five thousand pounds to the trustees, to enable them to proceed immediately with their buildings. The trustees have fixed on Chapel-hill, in Orange county, for the site of the university, a very elevated and elegant situation. The buildings are nearly complete, and the education of students commences in January, 1795, under the tuition of the rev. Mr. Kerr.

There is a very good academy, at Warrenton, one at Newbern, and another at Williamsborough in Granville, and there are four more, in other parts of the state, of considerable note.

POPULATION, CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] From the marshall's return it appears, that the number of inhabitants, in the year 1791, was three hundred and ninety three thousand, seven hundred and fifty-one, of whom two hundred and ninety three thousand one hundred and seventy-nine were citizens. Perhaps there are few instances of such a rapid increase of inhabitants as we find in this state. In the year 1710, we are well assured that the number of inhabitants, in North Carolina did not exceed six thousand. This extraordinary increase must arise, in a great measure, from the migration of inhabitants from other states, or from distant countries; but this will not fully account for the present state of population of North Carolina. By examining the return, we find there are one hundred and forty seven thousand four hundred and ninety-four white male inhabitants; we also find that the number of males under sixteen years, exceeds the number above sixteen by seven thousand five hundred and eighteen, which is about one nineteenth of the whole. This is a very remarkable fact, as it respects the increase of the human species. We find a small difference in the states of Delaware, Virginia and Georgia, in favour of those under sixteen. The difference in Kentucky is similar to that of North Carolina. In

the other states, the number above sixteen is greatest, and in several kingdoms in Europe, as far as our information reaches, the inhabitants above sixteen are universally much more numerous than those under that age. The great difference that appears in North-Carolina in favour of children, cannot be explained by supposing that the climate is sickly; for we know that such climates are equally fatal to young and old. The idea, too, of sickly climate, does not accord with the prodigious increase of inhabitants in this state, nor with another fact, viz. that there is a considerable proportion of very old inhabitants in the state. To explain this, we must observe, that the human species, and all other animals, are found to increase in proportion to the comforts of life, and the ease with which they can support their progeny. Remove the rigours of an inhospitable climate, and the more uniform dissuasive to matrimony, the apprehended difficulty of supporting a family, and the human species would double, not in twenty, but in fifteen years. In North Carolina, neither the cold of winter, nor heat of summer, are in the back country, at all disagreeable; land continues to be plenty and cheaper than in any other of the Atlantic states; grain is raised with so much ease, and the trouble of providing for cattle in winter is so trifling, that a man supports his family with half the labour that is required in cold climates. Under these advantages, we are not to wonder, that people in all ranks of life should marry very young. We have heard of grandmothers in that state who were not more than twenty-seven years old.

The North Carolinians are mostly planters, and live from half a mile to three and four miles from each other, on their plantations. They have a plentiful country and a natural fondness for society, which induce them to be hospitable to travellers. And this hospitality is the principal reason of there being few good inns on the travelling roads.

Since the peace there has not been greater progress in the arts of civilized life, made in any of the states, than in North-Carolina. Instead of dissipation and indolence, formerly too prevalent among the inhabitants, we generally find an orderly, industrious people, who are, in some measure, indebted for this reform to the great immigration of farmers and artizans from Europe and the northern states, who have roused the spirit of industry among them, in a country where it may be cultivated and cherished to any degree. The schools that have lately been erected in different parts of the state, have greatly contributed to the advancement of knowledge, and the improvement of the people. Many native young gentlemen, first initiated in literature in some these schools, and finishing their education in Europe, or in some of the northern colleges, have exhibited proofs of genius in the learned professions equal to most of their northern brethren. Some of these characters are distinguished in the legislature, on the bench, at the bar, and in the pulpit, doing honour to this country.

North Carolina, as already observed, has had a rapid growth. In the year 1710, it contained but about one thousand two hundred sensible men. It is now, in point of numbers, the fourth state in the union. During this amazing progress in population, which has been greatly aided by immigrations from Pennsylvania and Virginia and other states, while each has been endeavouring to increase his fortune, the human mind, like an unweeded garden, has been suffered to shoot up in wild disorder. But when we consider, that, during the late revolution, this state produced many distinguished patriots and politicians, that she sent her thousands to the defence of Georgia and South-Carolina, gave occasional succours to Virginia—when we may consider, too, the difficulties she has had to encounter from a mixture of inhabitants, collected from different parts, strangers to each other, and intent upon gain, we shall find many things worthy of praise in her general character.

CONSTITUTION.] By the constitution of this state, which was ratified in Decem-
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ber, 1775, all legislative authority is vested in two distinct branches, both dependent on the people, viz. a senate and house of commons, which, when convened for business, are styled the general assembly.

The senate is composed of representatives, one from each county, chosen annually by ballot, by the freeholders.

The house of commons consists of representatives chosen by every freeman having a year's residence in the county, two for each county, and one for each of the towns of Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Salisbury, Hillsborough, Halifax and Fayetteville.

The qualifications for a senator, are, one year's residence immediately preceding his election, in the county in which he is chosen, and five hundred acres of land in fee.

A member of the house of commons must have usually resided in the county in which he is elected, one year immediately preceding his election; and, for six months, shall have possessed, and continue to possess, in the county which he represents, not less than one hundred acres of land in fee, or for the term of his own life.

The senate and house of commons, when convened, choose each their own speaker, and are judges of the qualifications and elections of their members. They jointly, by ballot, at their first meeting, after each annual election, choose a governor for one year, who is not eligible to that office longer than three, in six successive years; and who must possess a freehold of more than one thousand pounds, and have been an inhabitant of the state above five years. They in the same manner, and at the same time, elect several persons to be a council of state for one year, to advise the governor, in the execution of his office. They appoint a treasurer or treasurers for the state. They triennially choose a state secretary. They jointly appoint judges of the supreme courts of law and equity, judges of admiralty, and the attorney general, who are commissioned by the governor, and hold their offices during good behaviour. They prepare bills, which must be read three times in each house, and signed by the speaker of both houses, before they pass into laws.

Judges of the supreme court—members of the council—judges of admiralty—treasurers—secretaries—attorney-generals for the state—clerks of record—clergymen—persons denying the being of a God, the truth of the protestant religion, or the divine authority of the old and new testament—receivers of public monies, whose accounts are unsettled—military officers in actual service, are all ineligible to a seat either in the senate or house of commons—justices of the peace, being recommended by the representatives, are commissioned by the governor, and hold their offices during good behaviour. The constitution allows of no religious establishment: the legislature are authorized to regulate entails so as to prevent perpetuities. A majority of both houses is necessary to do business.

HISTORY.] That extensive, plain country, which stretches from the 36th degree of northern latitude to Cape Florida, was the first theatre on which the three great naval powers of Europe, England, France, and Spain, contended for American sovereignty. Their pretensions and disputes arose from the discoveries of Columbus, of Cabot, and of Varazzan, all Italians.

It was not till 1652, that the settlement of this country was attempted, by admiral Chattehon (others say Coligny) who, in order at once to promote the interests of his country, and to furnish an asylum for the French protestants, sent a colony, under the conduct of Ribaud, who built fort Charles on the river Edisto. A larger emigration of the same sect was conducted thither, in 1564, by Landoniere, who settled on the river May, called afterwards, by the Spaniards, St. Matheo. The year following, this colony was most cruelly massacred by the Spaniards, under the command of Merandez.

In the year 1584, two patents were granted by queen Elizabeth, one to Adrian Gilbert, (Feb. 6) the other to sir Walter Raleigh, (March 25) for lands "not possessed by any christian prince*." Two ships, under the command of Amidas and Barlow, with one hundred and seven passengers, fitted out by Raleigh, were sent to America; and, in June, 1585, anchored in a harbour seven leagues west of Roanoke river†. On the 13th of July, they took formal possession of the country; and, in honour of their *virgin* queen, Elizabeth, called it VIRGINIA. Till this period, the country had been known by the general name of FLORIDA.

In 1586, Raleigh sent seven ships to America, under the direction of sir Richard Granville. He landed at Roanoke, where he left a colony of more than one hundred people, under the direction of captain Ralph Lane, a man of prudence and spirit. During the year that the emigrants remained, they discovered the rivers to be shallow, and the country to be inhabited by men, who "lived by fishing and hunting, till harvest," who were very powerful, because, though badly armed, they were numerous and brave.

But the colonists seem not to have been provided with what was necessary to maintain themselves long in the wilderness; for they endured extreme hardships, and must have perished, had they not been visited by sir Francis Drake, on his return from the destruction of St. Augustin, who carried them to England. The pious among them remarked, that the misfortunes which they had encountered, were judgments for the outrages offered to the natives, who merited attention because they were entitled to the rights of men.

A fortnight after the embarkation of this colony, Granville arrived with new recruits; and, although he did not find the colony which he had before left, and knew not but they had perished, he had the rashness to leave fifty men at the same place.

The year following, Raleigh sent another company to Virginia, under governor White, with a charter and twelve assistants. He arrived at Roanoke, in July, but found not an individual of the last colony remaining. He determined, however, to risk another colony. Accordingly, he left one hundred and fifteen people at the old settlement, and returned to England.

In 1590, governor White returned to Virginia, with supplies and recruits for his colony; but, to his great grief, not a man was to be found. They had all miserably famished with hunger, or were massacred by the Indians.

Thus ended the exertions of sir Walter Raleigh for colonizing Virginia, which proved unsuccessful, because the enterprise had been undertaken without sufficient information, and because the project was new, and the means employed were not equal to the end. His name has been justly celebrated, because his talents and adventures added renown to the English nation. And his fate was pitied, because it was severe and undeserved.

No farther projects were formed for planting that part of Virginia which stretches southward from the 36th degree of northern latitude till the beginning of the reign of Charles I. Nor were the projects then formed, by sir Robert Keith, the attorney-general, in 1630, carried into effect.

About the epoch of the restoration, a few adventurers emigrated from Massachusetts, and settled round Cape Fear. As neither the climate nor the lands where they settled were equal in goodness to those they had left, as the waters offered not the same advantages of fishery, as they yet enjoyed none of the benefits of neighbourhood, these men, for some years, experienced the complicated miseries of want. They

* Hazard's Historical Collections, vol. i. p. 28 and 33.

† This colony returned to England the following year.

solicited the aid of their countrymen: and the general court, with an attention and humanity which does them the greatest honour, ordered an universal contribution for their relief*.

The country which had been denominated Florida, by the French, and by the English, Virginia, lying in the 36th degree N. latitude, was, on the 24th of March, 1663, erected into a province, by the name of Carolina, after Charles II. of England, and conferred on lord Clarendon, duke of Albemarle, lord Craven, lord Berkley, lord Ashley, sir George Carteret, sir John Colleton, sir William Berkley, as absolute proprietors forever, saving the sovereign allegiance due to the crown.

Animated by this attention, these noblemen held their first meeting in May 1663, in order to agree on measures for executing the chief purpose of their patent. They formed a joint stock, by general contribution, for the transportation of colonists, and for the payment of other expenses. And, what was of more real importance, because it more effectually promoted their views, they published "proposals, to all that would plant in Carolina" at the desire of "the New England people" before mentioned. These proposals were advantageous to those who should comply with them. They offered them, among other privileges, a perfect freedom in religion, one hundred acres of land for every freeman, and fifty for every servant, for five years, paying only one half penny an acre, with the same freedom from customs, which had been conferred by the royal charter.

Previous to the granting of the Carolinian patent, in 1663, a small plantation had for some years, been established, within its boundaries, on the northeast shore of the river Chowan which was now called Albemarle, in compliment to the celebrated general Monk. Sir William Berkley, one of the proprietaries and governor of Virginia, was appointed general superintendent of the affairs of the county of Albemarle.

In September, 1663, he was empowered, by the proprietaries, to nominate a governor and council of six, who were authorized to rule that little community according to the powers granted by the royal charter; to confirm former possessions, and to grant lands to every one, allowing them three years to pay the quit rents; to make laws with the consent of the delegates of the freemen, for the general good, transmitting them for the approbation of the proprietaries. He was requested to visit the colony in person, and to employ skilful persons to explore its bay, its rivers, and shores, which were then unknown.

From these notices, we may judge of the then condition of this most ancient settlement of North-Carolina, with regard to the freedom of its constitution, and the mode of acquiring property. Governor Berkley appears to have discharged the trust reposed in him, during the next year, with great fidelity. He confirmed and granted lands to every one on the conditions before mentioned. He appointed Drummond, a man of sufficient prudence and abilities, the first governor, with other officers; and departed, leaving the whole to follow their various pursuits in peace. The colony remained, for some time, tranquil. Governing themselves, they felt no apprehension. But as the time approached when the payment of quit-rents was to commence, they became dissatisfied with the tenures by which they held their lands. And the assembly of 1666, (being the first, probably, of which any memorial now remains) transmitted a petition to the proprietaries, praying that the people of Albermarle might hold their possessions on the same terms as the Virginians enjoyed theirs. The proprietaries readily agreed to their reasonable request, commanding the governor to grant the lands in future on the terms prescribed by themselves.

A second charter was granted in June, 1665, to the same proprietaries. It recited the former and confirmed it. It granted to the same patentees, that tract of country

* Hutchinson's History of Massachusetts, vol. i. p. 226.

lying within the king's dominions, in America, extending north and east to Caratuke (or Curratuck) inlet, thence, in a straight line to Wyonoke, which lies under 36° 30' north latitude; southward to the 29th degree, and from the ocean to the South Seas. It conferred on them all the rights, jurisdictions, and royalties which the bishop of Durham ever possessed.

Encouraged by this fresh instance of the royal favour, the proprietaries exerted themselves for several years to procure adventurers from Scotland, Ireland, the West-Indies, and the northern colonies, but with little success.—Carolina increased slowly in population, and in power.

The emigrants from Barbadoes, conducted by sir John Yeamans, at length landed, in the autumn of 1665, on the southern bank of Cape Fear river. This man governed this little colony, agreeably to his instructions, and with excellent policy.—He at the same time cultivated the good will of the Indians, which secured Carolina a seven-years' peace. While the planters opened the forests, to prepare the earth for tillage, they naturally took care to prepare timber for the uses of the cooper and the builder, which they transmitted to the island from which they migrated, as the first essay towards commerce, which kindled the spark of industry, and soon gave a spring to the settlement.

In the mean time, the inhabitants of Albemarle pursued their original employments in peace.—Like their neighbours, the Virginians, they cultivated tobacco and Indian corn, which enabled them to carry on an inconsiderable traffic with the New-Englanders, who seem alone, at this period, to have frequented their shallow rivers, and to have supplied their little wants.

In October, 1667, Samuel Stevens was appointed governor of Albemarle, in the room of Drummond. And now was given an excellent constitution of government to this colony; which, had it been duly supported, must have made them happy.—He was commanded to act by the advice of a council of twelve; the one-half of whom he was empowered to appoint; the other six were to be chosen by the assembly. The assembly was composed of the governor, council, and twelve delegates, annually chosen by the freeholders. Perfect freedom of religion was offered to all the inhabitants.

In 1669, the legislature being of the opinion, that sufficient encouragement had not yet been given to the people of Albemarle; they enacted, that none should be sued during five years, for any cause of action arising out of the country; and that none should accept a power of attorney, to receive debts contracted abroad. In consequence of this law, the colony was long considered as the refuge of the criminal, and the asylum of the fugitive debtor. But a more natural mode of promoting population was, at the same time, established, by “an act concerning marriage.”—This act declared, that, as people might wish to marry, and there being yet no ministers, in order that none might be hindered from so necessary a work, for the preservation of mankind, any man and woman, carrying before the governor and council, a few of their neighbours, and declaring their mutual assent, should be deemed man and wife. Other regulations and laws were at the same time enacted. New-comers were exempted from taxes for one year. Engrossing was prohibited. The peace of the country was secured, by prohibiting strangers from trading with the Indians. Every one was restrained from “transferring his lands for two years.” A duty of thirty pounds of tobacco, on every law-suit, was imposed, for paying the expenses of the governor and council, during the sitting of the assemblies, “as no course had yet been taken for defraying their charges.”

These laws, which demonstrate the weakness, and illustrate the early policy of that inconsiderable settlement, were ratified by the proprietaries in January, 1670. As it received little augmentation to its numbers from abroad, the colonists increased but

slowly, and they only began to plant the banks of Albemarle river; which shows that the extent of its frontier was proportionate to the poverty of its inhabitants. Leaving Albemarle to its own exertions, the proprietaries turned their whole attention, about this time, to the settlements in the southern parts of the province.

The command of sir John Yeamans, who had hitherto governed the plantation round Cape Fear, with a prudence and propriety which precluded complaint, was extended, in August 1671, over that which lay southward of Cape Carteret, and the authority given him was the same as that of his predecessor. This promotion, as too frequently happens in such cases, was the occasion of a change in the whole conduct of Yeamans. Instead of dedicating his chief attention to promote the happiness of the people, he acted as the only trader of that little community, "buying of the poor planters their provisions at low prices, and shipping them off to Barbadoes." His improper management was supposed to have reduced the colony to "no higher pitch than to be subservient to that island in provisions and timber." And his commission was revoked in May, 1674.

The same year, Albemarle was deprived of a governor, by the death of Stevens.

Agreeably to prudent provision for that purpose, the assembly chose Cartwright in his room, "till orders should come from England." Yet, disgusted probably with the distractions and changes which had lately torn the colony in pieces, and reflecting that the situation of chief magistrate, in such a colony, was not one in which he could acquire either much profit or reputation, he returned to England early in the year 1676, leaving "the administration in ill order and worse hands."

When the proprietaries reflected how much their former instructions had been neglected, and their designs opposed, by those who had been entrusted with the execution of both, they resolved to appoint such a governor as should carry into effect their purposes. Accordingly, in Nov. 1676, they appointed Eastchurch, whose address and abilities had raised him to the dignity of speaker of the assembly, and who had lately arrived in England, to represent the state of the colony. His instructions were framed so as to remedy the late, and prevent future disorders. Miller, a man of some consideration, was, at the same time, appointed secretary, and the first collector of the parliamentary revenue, in that colony. They left England early the following year, with a view to take upon them their respective offices. But Eastchurch, being detained in the West-Indies, by an agreeable engagement, thought it prudent to detach Miller to govern the colony, as president, till his arrival. As chief magistrate and collector of the royal customs, he was received, July, 1667. He found the colony to consist of a few inconsiderable plantations, dispersed over the north-eastern bank of the Albemarle, and divided into four districts. The colonists were far from numerous; as the titheables, consisting of all the working hands, from sixteen to sixty years of age, one-third of which was composed of women, Indians, and negroes, amounted only to fourteen hundred. And, exclusive of the cattle and Indian corn, eight hundred thousand pounds of tobacco were the annual productions of their labour. These formed the basis of an inconsiderable commerce, which was carried on by the people of New-England, who furnished them with necessaries, sent their commodities all over Europe, and, in a great measure, governed the colony, and directed the pursuits of the planters to their own advantage.

From July to December, 1677, Miller collected three hundred and twenty-seven thousand and sixty-eight pounds of tobacco, and one thousand two hundred and forty-two pounds, eight shillings, and one penny sterling; being the parliamentary duty of one penny a pound on tobacco exported to other colonies. As almost the whole was sent to New-England, whence it was carried all over Europe, the annual parliamentary revenue, arising in that little colony, amounted, though badly collected, to three thousand pounds sterling.

The offices which Miller had to perform, as president and collector, in the then deranged state of the colony, had a natural tendency to render him unpopular. He, besides, "did many extravagant things," whereby he lost the affections of the people. An insurrection broke out in 1677. The insurgents were chiefly conducted by one Culpepper, an experienced leader in such enterprises. As there was no power to resist them, they acquired undisputed possession of the country—imprisoned the president, the chief object of their indignation, and the proprietary deputies—seized the royal revenue, amounting to three thousand pounds, which they appropriated for supporting the revolt—established courts of justice—appointed officers—called a parliament—and exercised all the powers of an independent state. To justify these proceedings, the inhabitants of Pasquotank addressed a remonstrance to the rest of the people of Albemarle, in order to induce the planters of the three other districts to favour their views, and to lend them their aid. It complained of the various oppressions of Miller, and assigned, as the principal reason why they had seized the records, and imprisoned the president, "that thereby the country might have a free parliament, to represent their grievances to the proprietaries."

When Eastchurch at length arrived, to whose commission or conduct they could have no objection, the insurgents denied his authority, and refused him obedience.

He was constrained to apply to the governor of Virginia for aid: but he died of vexation before a sufficient number of troops could be collected to answer his purpose.

At the end of two years successful revolt, the insurgents dispatched Culpepper and Holden to England, to promise submission to the proprietaries, but to insist on the punishment of Miller. Miller, who had found means to escape, appeared in England about the same time, and filled the court with complaints of his own sufferings, and with accusations against his persecutors, but without effect. Culpepper, having executed his commission, and being about to return, was seized by the commissioners of the customs, for embezzling the king's revenue, tried in the court of king's bench, on an indictment of high treason committed without the realm, and acquitted. The proprietaries accepted the proffered submission of the insurgents, and established a temporary government, in the beginning of the year 1680, at the head of which they placed Harvey, as president, and sent Seth Sothel, who had lately purchased lord Clarendon's share of the province, that, by his authority, he might restore order to the colony. These measures had not the expected effect. Sothel was captured by the Algerines on his voyage. Harvey was but little regarded, and governed but a short time. Henry Wilkinson, a person from whose prudence much was expected, was appointed governor in February, 1681, of that part of Carolina lying between Virginia, and a line drawn five miles south of Pamlico river. Means were now employed to heal former disorders, but with little effect.

Sothel arrived, as governor of the colony, in 1683; but the lamentable scene of anarchy was not changed. He refused to comply with the measures prescribed by the proprietaries to restore order. "The annals of delegated authority have not recorded a name which deserves so much to be transmitted to posterity with infamy, as that of Sothel. Bribery, extortion, injustice, rapacity, breach of trust, and disobedience to orders, are the crimes of which he was accused during the five years that he misruled a miserable colony." Driven almost to despair, the inhabitants seized his person in 1688, with a view to send him to England to answer for his crimes. But, in consequence of his entreaties, and offering to submit their mutual accusations to the next assembly, they accepted his proposal. The assembly "gave judgment against him in all the abovementioned particulars, and compelled him to abjure the country for twelve months, and the government forever." Such was the sad condition to which North-Carolina was reduced, at the epoch of the revolution, partly by her own folly, and partly by the crimes of her governors and others.

For many years from this period, the proprietaries seem to have paid but little attention to this colony, and to have directed it almost wholly to South-Carolina. The colony was small, so late as 1710, when a number of Palatines from Germany, who had been reduced to circumstances of great indigence by a calamitous war, came over and settled in its vicinity. The proprietaries, knowing that the value of their lands depended on the strength of their settlements, determined to give every possible encouragement to such emigrants. Ships were accordingly provided for their transportation—and instructions were given to governor Tynte, to allow one hundred acres of land for every man, woman, and child, free of quit-rents, for the first ten years: but at the expiration of that term, to stipulate for one penny per acre, annual rent forever, according to the usage and customs of the province. Upon their arrival, governor Tynte granted them a tract of land in North-Carolina, since called Albemarle and Bath precincts, where they settled, and flattered themselves with having found, in the hideous wilderness, a happy retreat from the desolations of a war which then raged in Europe.

In the year 1712, a dangerous conspiracy was formed by the Coree and Tufcorora tribes of Indians, to murder and expel this infant colony. The foundation of it is not known. Probably they were offended at the encroachments upon their hunting ground. They managed their conspiracy with great cunning and profound secrecy. They surrounded their principal-town with a breast-work to secure their families. Here the warriors convened, to the number of twelve hundred. From this place of rendezvous they sent out small parties, by different roads, who entered the settlement under the mask of friendship. At the change of the full moon, all of them had agreed to begin their murderous operations the same night. When the night came, they entered the houses of the planters, demanding provisions; and, pretending to be offended, began to murder men, women and children, without mercy or distinction. One hundred and thirty-seven settlers, among whom were the Baron De Graffenreidt, of Switzerland, and almost all the poor Palatines that had lately come into the country, were slaughtered the first night. Such was the secrecy and dispatch of the Indians in this expedition, that none knew what had befallen his neighbour, until the barbarians had reached his own door. Some few, however, escaped, and gave the alarm. The militia assembled in arms, and kept watch day and night, until the news of the said disaster had reached the province of South-Carolina. Governor Craven lost no time in sending a force to their relief. The assembly voted four thousand pounds for the service of the war. A body of six hundred militia, under the command of colonel Barnwell, and three hundred and sixty-six Indians of various tribes, with different commanders, marched with great expedition, through a hideous wilderness, to their assistance. In their first encounter with the Indians, they killed three hundred, and took one hundred prisoners. After this defeat, the Tufcororas retreated to their fortified town—which was shortly after surrendered to colonel Barnwell. In this expedition, it was computed that nearly a thousand Tufcororas were killed, wounded and taken. The remainder of the tribe soon after abandoned their country, and joined the five nations, with whom they have ever since remained.

Their intestine distractions, and their wars with the Indians, kept the colony so low, and so wretched, that an act of parliament, to prevent, if possible, the last ruinous consequences of these divisions, put the whole province of Carolina under the immediate care and inspection of the crown. The lords proprietors, making a virtue of necessity, accepted a recompense of about twenty four thousand pounds sterling, both for the property and jurisdiction, except the earl Granville, who kept his eighth part of the property, which comprehended nearly half of North-Carolina,

on that which immediately borders on Virginia. Their constitution in those points in which it differed from that of the other colonies, was altered; and the country, for the more commodious administration of affairs, was divided into two distinct, independent governments, called North and South Carolina. This was in the year 1728.

From this period, the government of North-Carolina assumed a more regular appearance than formerly, and was administered by several respectable characters*, to the general satisfaction of the people, till the year 1765: a year noted for the American stamp act, as already mentioned. In consequence of this act, new disturbances arose among the people. On the arrival of the stamps, in a British sloop of war, into Cape Fear river, in order to be delivered to the stamp master, the militia of the neighbouring counties embodied in arms, on the shortest notice, under the command colonels Ashe and Waddell, who marched to the town of Brunswick, and opposed the landing of the stamps. The captain of the sloop of war, finding no security for them on shore, continued them on board. In the mean while, the stamp master, dr. Houston, on finding his appointment obnoxious to his countrymen, made a voluntary resignation thereof, declaring he would not accept of any office, but what should meet the approbation of his country. In a short time after, the stamp act was repealed, when peace and good order again took place in the government.

In the years 1768 and 1769, several law characters and county registers, being charged with taking fees for their services, higher than allowed by law, were indicted at Hillsborough superior court for extortion, and found guilty by the verdicts of the jury. The court, having doubts whether, under the existing law for establishing fees for attornies and the respective officers, the persons indicted were really guilty of this crime, they were fined only six-pence, and assessed with costs. In the mean while, the parties prosecuted, transmitted the law to Britain, and obtained thereon the opinion and advice of the ablest council at Westminster, "that the fees taken were admissible and justifiable under the said law." This lenient punishment of the court, greatly exasperated the prosecutors, who, being generally leading characters in the district of Hillsborough, attending at one of the succeeding courts, in the chief town of that district, with upwards of two thousand persons, whom they stiled regulators, collected from different parts of the upper districts, armed with clubs, insulted the court, on its first opening, charging them with injustice and partiality, seized the attornies and officers whom they had prosecuted with other persons obnoxious to them, and dragged them out of the court-house into the streets, where they beat them with their clubs, and otherwise inhumanly treated them. After severely beating colonel Fanning (since his Britanic majesty's lieutenant governor of the island of St. John) who had been the principal object of their resentment, they repaired to his house in the town, and destroyed it, with the chief part of his furniture. These outrages, being represented to the legislature, an act passed, proscribing the ringleaders of this body, now become formidable, unless they should surrender themselves to justice within forty days. None did surrender; but, in open defiance to the legislature, mobs and riotous meetings of these people, at every county court and elsewhere, continued to disturb the peace of the colony, in such a manner, that no one was safe, in his person or property, who was not of their party. Governor Tryon, then in the administration, finding lawless and tumultuous proceedings, raised in the districts where this contagion had not spread, a body of well-affected militia, to the amount of fifteen hundred men, marched into the largest settlements of the regulators, in Orange county, to appre-

* Particularly Gabriel Johnson, Mathew Rowan, and Arthur Dobbs, the last of whom was an esteemed literary character, and had been concerned in attempts to discover a north-west passage to the East-Indies.

hend their leaders, and to endeavor to restore the public peace, by enforcing submission to the laws. The regulators, soon informed of the military preparations, and movements of the governor, were not behind hand in opposition to his measures. They embodied, to the amount of two thousand five hundred or three thousand men, under the command of Herman Husband*, James Hunter, and William Butler, and met him near the Allamance, one of the branches of Haw river. After a demand and summons of the governor to surrender their chiefs, and disperse to their homes, within one hour, which they contemptuously refused, they were fired upon by the governor's militia, on which an action ensued between the parties. The regulators, pursuing the Indian mode of fighting, did considerable mischief to the governor's troops at first; but owing to the dread of his artillery, and firmness of the militia under his command, they were, after the conflict of an hour, struck with a panic, and fled, leaving upwards of twenty dead, and a number wounded on the ground. The fugitives were pursued in all directions; twelve of the chiefs were taken; who were capitally convicted at the next Hillsborough superior court, and sentenced to be hanged; six of them were accordingly executed, and six pardoned by the governor. The laurels, however, which he gained in this enterprise, were sullied by an intemperate, vindictive conduct, exercised, to his great disgrace, on one Few, an insurgent captain, one of the proscribed; who, in the action, was taken prisoner by the governor's party. In the evening of the day of the action, when all was quiet, the regulators being defeated and dispersed, the governor ordered that Few, without any formality of trial, should be hanged, which order was carried into immediate execution. Thus ended what was called the regulation, that had convulsed the province for more than three years. Husband, Hunter, and Butler made their escape, and had address to conceal themselves till a general amnesty took place, under the succeeding administration;—this was extended to all concerned, except to Husband, who, in the mean while, found a safe retreat in the back parts of Pennsylvania.

North Carolina took an early and decided part in the war which separated Britain from her colonies. When gov. Joseph Martin met the assembly at Newbern, in April, 1775, he addressed them in language which bespoke his fixed attachment to Britain and her measures. He expressed his desire and expectation, that they would oppose so dangerous a measure as the appointing of delegates to attend a congress at Philadelphia. He said they were called upon, in a peculiar manner, to oppose a meeting of delegates which the people had been invited to choose, and who were appointed to assemble, at that very time and place, in the face of the legislature. The assembly, in their answer, justified the assembling of the people, and said, "Be it far from us even to wish to prevent the operations of the convention now held at Newbern." They improved the opportunity now afforded them, to express their warm attachment to their sister colonies in general, and their heart-felt compassion for the unhappy state of the town of Boston; and to declare the fixed resolution of the colony, to unite with the other colonies, in every effort to retain their just rights and liberties.

The governor, observing the current of affairs turning against him, thought proper to fortify his place at Newbern, expecting support from the Scotch settlers and the Highland emigrants, inhabiting the back country, in opposing the patriotic party. In the mean time, the militia were called out, exercised and accoutred, and other measures taken to support whatever opposition they might be called to make against the British adherents.

The proceedings of the governor, in fortifying his palace, and attempting to remove the palace guns, alarmed the committee of the town; and they, at the head of

* At present confined in the Philadelphia jail, charged with high treason in the late insurrection in the western counties of Pennsylvania.

a body of armed men, interposed, seized, and carried off six pieces of artillery, which lay behind the palace. In consequence of this, the governor, finding himself insecure, made a precipitate retreat to Fort Johnson, on Cape Fear river. The people, apprehensive that he might strengthen and prepare it for the reception of a force to be employed in reducing the province, and concluding that he would encourage the slaves to revolt, in case other means should fail in maintaining the king's government, assembled at Wilmington, under colonel Ashe, who had resigned the commission he held from the British government, and accepted one from popular authority. It was the colonel's intention to remove the king's artillery from the fort; but the cannon and stores had been previously secured by order of the governor, who had retired on board the king's sloop, the *Cruiser*. Col. Ashe, in the dead of night, entered the fort, and set fire to the houses and other buildings in it, which were soon reduced to ashes. The next day he completed the destruction of the fort, and desolated every thing in its neighbourhood.

The Newbern committee, in the mean time, apprehending that the governor meant to erect the king's standard, and to commence hostilities, resolved, "that no person or persons whatsoever, should have any correspondence with him, on pain of being deemed enemies to the liberties of America, and dealt with accordingly." These interesting events took place in July, 1775.

The governor was accused by the committee of Wilmington district, of fomenting civil war, and of exciting an insurrection among the negroes, upon which they declared him to be an enemy to his country at large, and to that province in particular; and forbade all persons holding communication with him. When these proceedings appeared in print, the governor published his remarks upon them in a very lengthy proclamation, which came before the provincial congress, at their subsequent meeting at Hillsborough, in August, when they resolved unanimously, that it was a false, scandalous, scurrilous, malicious and seditious libel; and ordered it to be burnt by the hands of the common hangman.

Four days before these proceedings, a plan of confederation of the colonies was laid before them. After mature deliberation they resolved, "That we are of opinion, that the plan of general confederation between the united colonies, is not at present eligible, and that the present association ought to be further relied on for bringing about a reconciliation with the parent state, and a further confederacy ought only to be adopted in case of the last extremity."

Mr. Hooper then presented an address to the inhabitants of the British empire, which was unanimously adopted. In answer to a suggestion, that independence was their object, they said, "we again declare, and we invoke the Almighty Being, who searches the recesses of the human heart, and knows our most secret intentions, that it is our most earnest wish and prayer to be restored, with the other united colonies, to the state in which we and they were placed before the year 1763—disposed to glance over any regulations which Britain had made previous to this, and which seem to be injurious and oppressive to these colonies, hoping that at some future day, she will benignly interpose, and remove from us every cause of complaint."

The congress afterwards agreed to raise one thousand men—to strike a sum of paper money, for the payment and subsistence of the troops—to enlist a considerable body of minute men, and to put the colony immediately into a state of defence. These proceedings certainly reflect great honour on the moderation, prudence, firmness and patriotism of the inhabitants of North-Carolina.

It was on the 18th of December, 1776, that the representatives of the freemen of this state, assembled at Halifax, ratified their present constitution of government, to which is prefixed a declaration of rights.

At an early period in the late war, a party of the North Carolina militia, com-

manded by the hon. col. Richard Caswell and col. Alexander Lillington, attacked and defeated a large body of insurgents, under certain British officers, at Moore's creek. Had that body been permitted to form a junction with other forces in the British service, then near Wilmington, the situation of this whole state would have been very precarious and disagreeable; and much blood must have been shed, before the loyalists could have been subdued. Since that period, Mr. Caswell has been six times elected governor of this state. In 1780, he, as major-general, commanded a large body of troops, who attempted to carry relief to South-Carolina.

This state furnished many other distinguished characters, who were active in the late war. Gen. Isaac Gregory, commanding a brigade of militia in the unfortunate action near Camden, distinguished himself by bringing off a part of his brigade in good order; he retreated in the rear of his men, and was twice wounded by a bayonet. From this time, he was constantly in the field, and generally had a separate command while there was an enemy in the state.

General Griffith Rutherford also merits particular notice, who took an early and distinguished part of the American revolution. At the battle of Camden he was taken prisoner, after having greatly exerted himself with his troops during the action, and received several wounds from the enemy. He might have made his escape, with others, after this disaster, but wishing to bring off his militia in some order, he kept in their rear, the main body having already generally escaped; there, endeavouring to rally some scattered fugitives, he was overtaken by the British light-horse, and captured. He was sent to St. Augustine with other American officers, and continued in captivity till a cartel was settled for the exchange of prisoners.

From the period when peace was established, till the commencement of the operation of the federal constitution, this state experienced her full share of evils, arising from the imbecility and defects of the former general government. She, as well as several others of the states, in order to have a supply of money, had recourse to the wretched experiment of a paper currency, not reflecting, that industry, frugality, and good commercial laws, are the only means of turning the balance of trade in favor of a country, and that this balance is the only permanent source of solid wealth and ready money. The bills they emitted, not only depreciated, but expelled almost all the circulating cash from the state: they impoverished the merchants, embarrassed the planters, and produced much distress, fraud, and iniquity.

When the present federal constitution came before the convention of this state, for their consideration, in July, 1788, the current of the public opinion was strongly against its adoption; and they rejected it by a majority of one hundred and seventy six against seventy-six. But time and consideration, the arguments used in favour, by the most influential characters, and the example of other conventions, soon wrought a complete change in the public opinion; and, in a convention, assembled in 1789, the constitution was ratified by a majority of one hundred and ninety-three against seventy-five.

[NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The Ararat, or Pilot Mountain, about sixteen miles north-west of Salem, draws the attention of every curious traveller in this part of the state. It is discernible at the distance of sixty or seventy miles, overlooking the country below. It was anciently called the Pilot, by the Indians, as it served them for a beacon, to conduct their routes in the northern and southern wars. On approaching it, a grand display of Nature's workmanship, in a rude dress, is exhibited. From its broad base, the mountain rises in easy ascent, like a pyramid, near a mile high, to where it is not more than the area of an acre broad: when on a sudden, a vast stupendous rock, having the appearance of a large castle, with its battlements, erects its perpendicular height to upwards of three hundred feet, and terminates the top, which is generally as flat as a floor. To ascend this precipice, there is only one way,

which, through cavities and fissures of the rock, is with some difficulty and danger effected. When on the summit, the eye is entertained with a vast delightful prospect of the Apalachian mountains, on the north, and a wide, extended level country below, on the south; while the streams of the Yadkin and Dan, on the right and left hand, are discovered at several distant places, winding, through the fertile low grounds, their way towards the ocean.

MINERAL SPRINGS.] In the counties of Warren, Rockingham, and Lincoln, there are mineral springs of great medicinal virtue. They are supposed to be impregnated chiefly with sulphur and iron; and are powerful in removing cutaneous scorbutic complaints, and correcting indigestions. Numbers of people from the lower country and elsewhere repair to these springs, in the autumn, for health, which is generally obtained by copiously drinking the waters.

SOUTH-CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles,

Length 200 } between [32° and 35° N. latitude,
Breadth 125 } [4° and 9° W. longitude from Philadelphia.

BOUNDARIES] **B**OUNDED on the north by North-Carolina; on the east by the Atlantic ocean; on the south by the Savannah river, which divides it from Georgia; and on the west, the state comes to a point in latitude 35°, and longitude 8° 30' west from Philadelphia*.

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] The following table will show the civil divisions of this state, and likewise the number of inhabitants contained in each county, according to the census taken by the marshal of the district, under the act of the general government, in 1790, providing for an enumeration of the inhabitants of the united states.

* The commissioners, appointed in 1787, to settle the boundary line between South-Carolina and Georgia, determined as follows:

“The most northern branch or stream of the river Savannah, from the sea or mouth of such stream, to the fork or confluence of the rivers now called Tugulo and Keowee, and from thence the most northern branch or stream of the said river Tugulo, till it intersects the northern boundary line of South-Carolina, if the said branch of Tugulo extends so far north, reserving all the islands in the said rivers Savannah and Tugulo to Georgia—but if the said branch or stream

of Tugulo does not extend to the north boundary line of South-Carolina, then a west line to the Mississippi, to be drawn from the head spring or source of the said branch of Tugulo river, which extends to the highest northern latitude, shall forever hereafter form the separating limit and boundary between the states of South-Carolina and Georgia.”

It is not thought that the source of this stream will reach the thirty-fifth degree by twenty miles—however, this is a conjecture; it may be less, or it may be something more.

COUNTIES.	Free white males above sixteen years	Free white males under sixteen years.	Free white female	Other free persons	Slaves.	Total.
All Saints, Georgetown <i>dist.</i>	104	102	223	1	1795	12225
Prince George's ditto,	1345	1450	2236	80	6651	1762
Prince Frederic, ditto,	907	915	1596	32	4685	8135
Cheraws <i>district</i> ,	1779	1993	3646	59	3229	10706
Fairfield, Camden <i>district</i> ,	1335	1874	2929	3	1485	7623
Chester ditto,	1446	1604	2831	47	938	6861
York, ditto,	1350	1612	2650	29	923	6664
Richland ditto,	596	710	1173	14	1437	3931
Clarendon, ditto,	414	516	830	0	602	2392
Clermont, ditto,	517	141	1080	0	2110	4548
Lancaster, ditto,	1253	1557	2074	68	1370	2630
Edgfield, Ninety six <i>district</i> .	2333	2571	4701	65	3619	13289
Pendleton, ditto,	2007	2535	4189	3	834	9568
Spartenburgh, ditto,	1868	2173	3866	27	866	8800
Spartenborough, ditto,	1904	1948	3653	27	1665	9197
Abbeville, ditto,	1969	2270	3971	7	1120	9337
Laurens, ditto,	1400	1627	2861	5	616	6503
Grenville, ditto,	1500	1809	3121	48	1215	7593
Union, ditto,	1992	2232	3962	12	1144	9342
Newbury, ditto,	1266	1955	2043	152	1423	18752
Beaufort <i>district</i> ,	178	1693	3258	21	4520	11281
N. part of Orangeburgh <i>dist.</i> ,	1421	1478	2782	149	1412	7232
South part, ditto,	2810	1561	3718	586	7684	6359
St. Philip's & } <i>Charleston</i> St. Michael's } <i>district</i>	625	491	1017	135	10338	112606
St. Bartholomew, ditto,	29	152	331	60	5170	5922
St. John's, Berkly, ditto	33	311	604	25	3022	4299
St. George's, Dorches, ditto,	81	451	100	1	256	2733
St. Stephen's, ditto,	140	110	187	15	3345	3797
St. James', Santee, ditto,	145	67	185	34	3405	3836
St. Thomas', ditto,	156	138	272	1	2377	2954
Christ church ditto,	158	79	202	15	2333	2787
St. James', Goose creek do.	209	104	272	22	4705	5312
St. John's, Colleton, ditto,	125	71	174	31	2546	2947
St. Andrew's, ditto,	65	48	103	5	3202	3443
St. Paul's, ditto,						
Total,	35576	37722	66880	1801	107094	249073

CLIMATE.] As this state is situated between the thirty, second and thirty-fifth degrees of north latitude, it will readily be perceived, that the intense degree of cold experienced in the more northern latitudes is totally unknown here: neither is it so extremely hot, as many of the northern inhabitants have generally supposed. "The climate," says a writer who resided fifteen years in the state, "is not hotter in the months of June, July, and August, in the lower part of this state, than it is in the lower part of New-Jersey; nor is it hotter in the upper part, than it is in the high eastern part of the state. The spring and fall are exceedingly agreeable; and, in the coldest season of the year, our gardens furnish us with fresh vegetables. Every kind of fruit, that Britain, or the northern states produce, may be raised in South Carolina; also good oranges, limes, lemons, figs, and grapes.

But there is a part of the country, beginning at a little distance from the sea, and extending back fifty or sixty miles, which is very unhealthy, owing to the stagnated waters in the swamps, and the large reservoirs of water, kept up with dams by the planters, to water their rice in the proper season. Hence, in this flat country, bilious, intermitting, and putrid fevers prevail, especially in September and October, and the inhabitants exhibit a pale and sickly appearance.

Higher up in the country, the waters are more pure, and the inhabitants enjoy the advantages of a good climate. Along the sea coast, the country is fanned with gentle breezes from the ocean, and the weather is very pleasant and agreeable. This state, however, is subject to violent thunder storms, and to frequent and heavy rains. From actual observation it was found, that the average annual fall of rain, for ten years, was forty-two inches, without regarding the moisture that fell in fogs and dews. One great advantage which this country possesses over the northern states, is that the winter being mild, the cattle are fat in the woods all the year round. In short, though nauseous exhalations, from stagnant waters, may be injurious in some parts of the flat country, and indolence and intemperance produce diseases in others, it may, nevertheless, be considered as a pleasant and delightful climate, where nature, aided by a small degree of industry, furnishes the comforts of life in abundance.

RIVERS.] This state is watered by four large navigable rivers, besides a great number of small ones, which are passable for boats. The river Savannah washes it from the north west to the south east corner. A particular account of it will be given in the description of Georgia.

The Edisto rises in two branches, from a remarkable ridge in the interior part of the state. These branches unite a little below Orangeburgh, which stands on the north fork; and form Edisto river, which, having passed Jacksonburgh, divides, and embraces Edisto island.

Santee is the largest and longest river in this state. It rises in various streams, upon the eastern part of the Allegany mountains. The two first branches, which are called the Congaree and Wateree, are about the distance of one hundred and twenty miles in a direct line from the ocean. The Wateree, or northern branch, passes the Catawba nation of Indians, and afterwards bears the name of the Catawba to its source. The Catawba river is upwards of three hundred yards wide, at the distance of two hundred and seventy miles from the sea. The Congaree, or south branch, is formed by the water of Broad river, Fair Forest, Tyger, Enoree, and Saluda. Just below the junction of Saluda and Broad rivers, on the Congaree, stands the town of Columbia, the seat of government in this state.

Pedee river rises in several branches, in North-Carolina, where the principal branch is called Yadkin river. In this state, it, however, takes the name of Pedee, and after receiving Lynche's and Wakkamaw rivers, passes by Georgetown, which it leaves on the west, and twelve miles below, it empties into the ocean.

In none of the rivers in this state does the tide flow more than twenty-five miles from the sea shore.

MOUNTAINS.] The Tryon and Hogback mountains are two hundred and twenty miles north-west of Charleston, in latitude 35° and longitude $6^{\circ} 30'$ from Philadelphia. The elevation of these mountains, above their base, is three thousand eight hundred and forty feet; and above the sea coast four thousand six hundred and forty. The ascent from the sea shore being eight times as great as the difference between the sphere of the horizon, and that of an even plane, there is exhibited from the top of these mountains an extensive view of this state, North-Carolina, and Georgia.

The mountains west and north-west rise much higher than these, and form a ridge, which divides the waters of the Tennessee and Santee rivers.

HARBOURS.] The best harbour in this state is to the southward, near the borders of Georgia, named Port Royal. This might give a capacious and safe reception to the largest fleet in the world. Charleston harbour is spacious, convenient and safe. It is formed by the junction of Ashley and Cooper rivers. Its entrance is guarded by fort Johnson. Twelve miles from the city is a bar, over which are four channels; one, by the name of Ship channel, has eighteen feet water; another sixteen and a half, the other two are for small vessels. The tide rises about nine feet. Georgetown has a good harbour for small vessels; but the entrance is impassable to large ships.

ISLANDS.] The sea-coast is bordered with a fine chain of islands; around which the sea flows, opening an excellent inland navigation for the conveyance of produce to market. Of these, the principal is James island, opposite to Charleston, on which are about fifty families. Further south is John's island, larger than James. There is also an island by the name of Edisto; and, on the other side of St. Helens sound, from Edisto, lies a cluster of islands; one of the largest of which is Port Royal. Adjacent to Port Royal lie St. Helena, Ladies' island, Paris island, and the hunting islands and near Broad is Hilton-head island. The soil and natural growth of these islands are not materially different from the adjacent main land, and they are in general suitable for the culture of indigo.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Charleston is the capital town, and indeed the only one of any considerable consequence in the whole state. It stands in latitude of $32^{\circ} 45'$, north and 4° west longitude from Philadelphia. The town is built on a narrow peninsula, formed by the confluence of Ashley and Cooper rivers, which are broad and deep, and discharge their waters into the ocean, about six miles below this place. In these rivers there is a rapid flood and ebb, which, in the middle of the stream, runs at the rate of between three and four miles an hour; and the tide in common, rises and falls about five feet; but at new and full moon seven feet. Three sides of this town are washed by the above rivers, the ground between them being so low and level, that it is not seven feet, nor is the country, for twenty miles round, ten feet higher at a medium, than the surface of a full sea is at spring tides.

This is both a healthy and agreeable situation in such a climate; for the town stands in a large plain, having the sea open to it on one side, and the rivers afford an easy opportunity for conveying away nuisances, and keeping the town clean and healthy. The streets are from thirty-three to sixty-six feet wide, running from east to west; and these again are intersected by others at right angles, having drains under them to prevent the water from standing long, any where, during wet seasons; the good effects of which, with respect to health, are already sensibly felt. But, not being paved, except for a few feet along the fronts of houses, the streets are dirty during rainy, and dusty weather. The plan of this town was originally bad; for the heat of the climate made wide and airy streets necessary; more especially when there was no necessity for limiting them to such scanty breadths; as in those days, there was a sufficiency of ground, which was no man's property, and therefore it might have been disposed of in a manner more suited to the welfare of the future inhabitants. And what is still worse, there are many narrow lanes and alleys, and more are daily laying out, with a view of increasing the value of lands; but the legislature should prevent such nuisances; for those confined situations may hereafter prove a nursery for diseases, when the town becomes large and more closely built. The houses at first were entirely built of wood, and consequently have often suffered by fire; but such calamities, though they fell heavy on individuals, have afforded frequent opportunities of making considerable improvements in the manner of building. At present, the houses are mostly built of brick, three stories high, some of them elegant,

and most are neat habitations. Within, they are genteely furnished, and without, are exposed as much as possible to the refreshing breezes from the sea. Many of them are, indeed, incumbered with balconies and piazzas, but these are found convenient, and even necessary during the hot season; as into them, the inhabitants retreat for the benefit of fresh air. Almost every family has a pump well; but the water, being at no great distance from the salt river, and filtered only through sand, is brackish, and commonly occasions severe griping to every person not accustomed to it.

Charleston contains the following public buildings, viz. a state-house, and armoury, a poor-house, an orphan-house, and exchange, two episcopalian, and two independent churches, one for Scotch presbyterians, one baptist, one methodist, and one German Lutheran church, and one for French protestants. There are also two Jewish synagogues, a quaker meeting house, and a chapel for Roman catholics.

This place is secured by fort Johnson, built on James' island, about two miles below the town.

The fort stands in a commanding situation, within point-blank shot of the channel, through which all ships in their way to and from Charleston, must pass.

In 1763, the number of white-inhabitants in this town amounted to between five and six thousand, and the number of negroes to between seven and eight thousand.

In 1787, there were said to be sixteen hundred houses; nine thousand six hundred white inhabitants, and five thousand four hundred negroes; and it is also said, that two hundred of the whites were above sixty years of age. But, according to an actual census, taken in the year 1791, it was found that the number of inhabitants amounted only to eight thousand six hundred and seventy-five whites, and seven thousand six hundred and eighty-four negroes.

Charleston is one of the healthiest places in the flat country of the southern states; the common computation is, that one out of thirty-five dies yearly, or one out of each family in the space of seven years. But the list of deaths is often increased by the sailors and transient persons who die in the town. Among the settled inhabitants, the number of births far exceeds that of funerals.

The inhabitants of this city are easy and polite in their manners, hospitable to strangers, and very fond of social amusements. These amiable qualities, and the healthiness of the place, have rendered Charleston the resort of many invalids from the West Indies, and other places, during the sickly months.

Charleston was made a city by incorporation, in the year 1783, and is divided into thirteen wards, each of which chooses one warden; the wardens choose an intendant from among themselves, and the whole forms a city council, with powers to make and enforce bye laws for the better regulation of the city.

Columbia, the seat of government in this state, is situated in a central part of the state, upon the Congaree river. It is at present in a flourishing condition, and will probably be a town of considerable consequence.

Georgetown is situated near Pedee river, about twelve miles from its mouth, and sixty-one miles north-east from Charleston. It contains about one hundred and fifty houses, has a good harbour for small vessels, and carries on a considerable trade.

Beaufort is a small town, of about sixty houses, situated upon the island of Port-Royal, and is the seat of justice in Beaufort district. The town contains about two hundred and forty inhabitants.

In the district of Ninety-six, about one hundred and sixty miles west of Charleston, there is a small town called Cambridge, containing thirty or forty houses, a court house, jail, and public seminary of learning.

Besides the abovementioned towns, there are in this state several small villages, viz. Wynnsborough, Camden, Orangeburgh, Jacksonborough, and Purishburgh; but none of them containing more than thirty or forty houses.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] That part of this state, adjoining the sea coast, and to the distance of seventy or eighty miles into the country, is almost a perfect level pine barren, interrupted neither by hills nor stones. At the termination of this distance, commences a curiously uneven country. The traveller is constantly ascending or descending little sand hills. If a pretty high sea were suddenly arrested, and transformed into sand hills, in the very form in which the waves existed at the moment of transformation, it would present the eye with just such a view as is here to be seen. This country continues for sixty miles, to a place called the Ridge, one hundred and forty miles from Charleston. This ridge is, from the side next to the sea, a tract of high ground, but level as you advance northwest from its summit. It is a fine, high, healthy belt of land; well watered, of a good soil, and extends from the Savannah to Broad river, in about $6^{\circ} 30'$ west longitude from Philadelphia. Beyond this ridge, to the westward, the country is broken into hills and vallies, and the spectator enjoys all that pleasure which results from a view of the variegated beauties of nature. The land still rises by a gradual ascent, each succeeding hill overlooking that which immediately precedes it, till, having advanced two hundred miles in a northwest direction from Charleston, the elevation of the land above the sea-coast is found, by mensuration, to be about eight hundred feet. Here the arms of the Allegany mountains commence, and continue rising, till you come to the highest grounds of the Atlantic country, which divide the eastern and western waters.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] There is a remarkable similarity to be observed in the soil of the sea-coast in all the southern states. The same uniform plan, covered with a large growth of pines, and extending back into the country, to the distance of seventy or eighty miles, every where presents itself to our view. But interspersed, here and there, are tracts of land which produce nothing but a sort of wild grass, and are called savannas. Upon the creeks and rivers in the lower part of this state, are likewise situated the rich and fertile rice swamps, which furnish the staple commodity of the country, and on which grow great quantities of canes and cyress. These lands possess inconceivable strength and richness; and from their being almost annually overflowed, they may be considered as inexhaustible. Those lands which are called pine barrens, besides the range which they afford for the pasture of cattle, produce, when cleared; from ten to fifteen bushels of corn to the acre; as also sweet potatoes, and some other vegetables. These pine barrens, the savannas, and the fertile rice swamps, compose the soil of the eastern part of this state. In proceeding westward to the interior part and the frontiers, there is found a different kind of soil, covered with a different natural growth. The soil is strong and fertile, suitable for the culture of wheat and tobacco, and the timber consists principally of walnut, oak, and hickory, with some locust and pine.

The low lands and swamps, for the cultivation of rice, adjoining the rivers, terminate at the distance of about one hundred miles from the ocean, and the high grounds approaching, form prodigious banks upon the rivers, several hundred feet in height, affording many grand and sublime prospects. These elevated banks exhibit strata of differently coloured earth, and are said to abound with silver, lead, iron ore, quarries of free stone, flint, crystals, sulphur, and coarse diamonds.

The rivers every where abound with good fish; such as rock, trout, cat-fish, shad, and sturgeon; and the woods with plenty of wild game. The principal productions, raised by culture, in this state, are the following, viz. rice, tobacco, indigo, cotton, wheat, rye, and Indian corn; together with hemp, flax, oats, peas, barley, and other kinds of grain.

Rice is produced in vast quantities in all the flat country, and constitutes the staple commodity; the common increase, from good land, being about eighty bushels of rough rice per acre, which when beat out and cleaned, will yield two thousand pounds

weight, or four barrels, fit for market; besides a considerable quantity of small, broken rice, which the negroes eat. Tobacco is produced in large quantities in the upper country, and indigo and cotton in various parts of the state.

Cattle of all kinds, as well as swine, multiply here in a surprising degree. For, as the thickets are warm and close, a constant verdure is found there in the winter, even though the weather should be frosty; for them the young canes or reeds, and several other plants, being green and full of juices, there is no need of houses to shelter, nor of provender to support the cattle, during the coldest season; for they lie warm abroad, and find something to feed on in the woods.

Any person, therefore, who inclines to raise black cattle or hogs, marks out a few hundred acres of land, in some unsettled part of the country, where he finds a good range, and drives thither as many cows, bulls and swine, as he pleases, where they increase without any more trouble than to have a few negroes to plant provisions, in order to keep the hogs together, and accustom them to the settlement, by giving them a little maize now and then; for the woods yield a sufficiency of nuts and roots to maintain them. The black cattle are driven together once a year, in order to mark and brand the increase. After which they are again suffered to feed at large, perhaps to the distance of twenty miles, unless it be required to collect some of them for sale, when they are wanted. In this manner, some persons, who have stocked farms with fifty or more black cattle, &c. have in fifteen or twenty years, marked three or four thousand calves yearly, and hogs without number.

These animals, however, are not without enemies whilst they are young, and unable to defend themselves; for wolves, bears, and wild cats of a large size, prey upon them; and some are also destroyed by the bites of snakes, of which there are several venomous kinds in this country.

MODE OF LIVING.] In this state, many circumstances concur to render it neither very difficult nor expensive to furnish plentiful tables. Tea is had from the East-Indies, and coffee, sugar, spirits, &c. from the West-Indies, in great plenty. Butter is good, especially at that season, when the fields are cleared of rice, and the cows are admitted into them; and it is so plentiful that considerable quantities are exported to the leeward islands. The state produces some flour for bread; but, being of an inferior quality, the inhabitants chiefly make use of that imported from New-York and Philadelphia. In the market, there is plenty of beef, pork, veal, poultry, and venison, and a great variety of wild fowls, and salt-water fish. The mutton from the low lands is not so good as that from the hills, in the interior parts; but the back country being now well settled, good mutton will be supplied in abundance. They have also a variety of the finest fruits and vegetables in their season. Their principal drink is punch, or grog. Madeira is the wine best suited to the climate, in which it improves by heat and age, and is the most common.

CURIOSITIES.] On the banks of the Savannah river, in this state, about one hundred and sixty miles westward from Charleston, there is a place known by the name of Silver Bluff. The bank rises to the height of forty or fifty feet, almost perpendicular, above the low lands, on the opposite side of the Savannah, and exhibits various strata of earth. The surface, for a considerable depth, is a loose sandy loam, with a mixture of sea shells; the next stratum is clay; then sand; next marl; clay again of various colours and qualities; which last insensibly mixes with a deep stratum of blackish, saline, and sulphureous earth. In this are found sticks, limbs and trunks of trees, leaves and acorns, all transmuted into black, hard, and shining substance like charcoal; petrified animal substances are likewise found here.

RELIGION.] Every man is permitted to worship God, according to the dictates of his own conscience, no kind of compulsion being made use of in matters of religion. Whatever a man chooses to bestow for maintaining the worship of God, he gives vo-

luntarily to the preacher of that sect or denomination to which he clooses to attach himself. In this, however, the people are not different from most of the united states; freedom of opinion being every where established.

In different parts of this state are to be found presbyterians, independents, episcopalian, baptists, methodists, quakers, Roman catholics, and Jews. Presbyterians are perhaps the most numerous; though, in the western parts of the state, baptists and methodists have of late years, increased considerably. As none of them has a legal pre-eminence over another, they live in peace and harmony.

WILD ANIMALS.] The alligator, probably a species of the crocodile, is found here in and near the rivers, and is often destructive to fish and young creatures about a plantation. He is, except the crocodile in Africa, perhaps the largest animal of the oviparous kind. The bear is a fierce animal, but in many respects a rich prize to the Indian hunter. The beaver is a native of Carolina, and his fur is a precious article of American commerce. The racoon and opossum are also natives of this country, but rarely found. The wolf, the fox, the deer, the rabbit, and the wild cat, are all found in the country. Squirrels of various kinds and different hues are numerous. One of these is called the flying squirrel, not from its having wings like a bird, but from its being furnished with a fine loose skin between its fore and hind legs, which it contracts or expands at pleasure, and which buoys it up, and enables it to spring from branch to branch, at a considerable distance, with amazing rapidity.

MANUFACTURES.] Little need be said concerning these, for they are not much attended to in this state. Nothing of consequence is manufactured for exportation; and in all the low country next to the sea, the inhabitants are almost entirely supplied by importation. In the western parts, many articles of common wearing apparel are manufactured out of wool, cotton, and flax; here are also some mechanics, who furnish the implements of agriculture.

This state furnishes all the materials, and of the best kind, for ship-building. The live oak, and the pitch and yellow pines, are of a superior quality. Ships might be built here with more ease, and to much greater advantage, than in the middle and eastern states; a want of seamen is one reason why this business is not more generally attended to.

So much attention is now paid to the manufacture of indigo, in this state, that it bids fair to rival that of the French. It is to be regretted, that it is still the practice of the merchants concerned in the Carolina trade, to sell at foreign markets the Carolina indigo, of the first quality, as French.

An association, containing forty of the most respectable planters and farmers in the western district of this state, has been established within a few years, for the promotion of manufactures and agriculture.

HURRICANES AND WHIRLWINDS.] On the 15th of September, 1752, a hurricane happened at Charleston, which caused the tide to rise six feet in perpendicular height, in the short space of ten minutes; and had the sea continued to flow in this manner one hour longer, Charleston must inevitably have been destroyed. But the wind shifted, and blowing in a direction with the gulph stream, the waters suddenly abated without much damage.

About ten o'clock in the morning, on the 4th of May, 1764, a dreadful whirlwind was said to be observed in the Indian country, above three hundred miles to the westward of Charleston; which, between one and two in the afternoon of the same day, was seen approaching with great rapidity within three miles of the town. But when it had advanced to the distance of about half a mile from Charleston, it was opposed by another whirlwind from the northeast; the shock of their junction was so great, as to alter the direction of the former more towards the south, by which a great part of the town was preserved from otherwise inevitable destruction. Three

of the vessels in the harbour were overfet, and sunk fo suddenly, that some of the people in the cabins had not time to come upon deck.

Hurricanes, whirlwinds, and violent thunder storms, especially the latter, are frequent in Carolina; but while they do great damage, by destroying every thing that comes in their way, they are also of infinite service to the inhabitants by purifying the air, and freeing it from noxious exhalations.

CANAL.] A company has been incorporated for the purpose of connecting Cooper and Santee rivers by a canal of twenty-one miles in length. The sum supposed to be necessary to complete this extensive work is fifty-five thousand six hundred and twenty pounds sterling. Twenty-five per cent. are allowed by the legislature, in tolls, for all monies advanced by the stockholders. The advantage of a canal, at this place, to one who inspects a map of the Carolinas, must appear to be great, both to the public and to the proprietors.

COMMERCE.] Rice forms the staple commodity of this state. It is exported in great quantities annually, and is found equal in quality to any in the world. Besides rice, considerable quantities are exported of indigo, cotton, tobacco, and many other articles. In return, are imported, all kinds of European, East and West-India goods; to a very considerable amount.

Besides foreign commerce, the South Carolinians likewise carry on a considerable trade with the northern and eastern states. Many articles, which are the production of South Carolina, cannot be raised in high northern latitudes; and, on the other hand, some of the conveniencies of life are produced in greater perfection, in the middle and eastern states, than they are here. An exchange, therefore, takes place for the mutual advantage of both parties. The rice, indigo, cotton, and tobacco of the south, are transported to the northward, in exchange for flour, cheese, cider, apples, fish, shoes, &c.

BANKS.] Besides a branch of the bank of the united states, a bank, by the name of the South-Carolina bank, was established, in 1792, in Charleston.

INDIANS.] The Catawbas are the only nation of Indians in this state. They have but one town, called Catawba, situated on Catawba river, in latitude $34^{\circ} 49''$, on the boundary line between North and South-Carolina, which contains about four hundred and fifty inhabitants, of whom about one hundred and fifty are fighting men.

It is worthy of remark, that this nation was long at war with the six nations, into whose country they often penetrated, which, it is said, no other Indian nation, from the south or west, ever did. The Six-Nations always considered them as the bravest of their enemies, till they were surrounded by the settlements of white people, whose neighbourhood, with other concurrent causes, have rendered them corrupt and nerveless.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] There are between twenty and thirty thousand fighting men in this state. About ten men are kept to guard fort Johnson, on James' Island at the entrance of Charleston harbour, by which no vessel can pass, unless the master or mate take an oath that there is no malignant distemper on board. The militia laws, enacting that every freeman, between sixteen and fifty years of age, shall be prepared for war, have been but indifferently obeyed since the peace. An unusual degree of military spirit, however, seems lately to have arisen among the citizens of Charleston. A number of volunteer companies have been lately formed in this city, besides a troop of horse, and the ancient battalion of artillery.

STATE OF LITERATURE.] Persons of fortune, before the late war, sent their sons to Europe for education. During the war, and since, they have generally sent them to the middle and northern states. Those who have been at this expense in educating their sons, have been but comparatively few in number, so that the literature of the state is at a low ebb. Since the peace, however, it has begun to flourish. There

are several respectable academies in Charleston—one at Beaufort, on Port Royal island, and several others in different parts of the state. Three colleges have lately been incorporated by law—one at Charleston—one at Wainsborough, in the district of Camden—the other at Cambridge, in the district of Ninety-Six. The public and private donations for the support of these three colleges, were originally intended to have been appropriated jointly, for the erecting and supporting of one respectable college. The division of these donations has frustrated this design. Part of the old barracks in Charleston has been handsomely fitted up, and converted into a college, and there are a number of students; but it does not yet merit a more dignified name than that of a respectable academy. The Mount Zion college, at Wainsborough, is supported by a society of gentlemen, who have long been incorporated. This institution flourishes, and bids fair for usefulness. The college at Cambridge is no more than a grammar school. That the literature of this state might be put upon a respectable footing, nothing is wanting but a spirit of enterprise among its wealthy inhabitants.

[CHARACTER.] There is no peculiarity in the manners of the inhabitants of this state, except what arises from the mischievous influence of slavery; and in this, indeed, they do not differ from the inhabitants of the other southern states. Slavery, by exempting great numbers from the necessity of labour, leads to luxury, dissipation and extravagance. The absolute authority which is exercised over their slaves, too much favours a haughty supercilious behaviour. A disposition to obey the christian precept, 'Do to others as you would that others should do unto you,' is not cherished by a daily exhibition of many made for one. The Carolinians sooner arrive at maturity, both in their bodies and minds, than the natives of colder climates. They possess a natural quickness and vivacity of genius, superior to the inhabitants of the north; but frequently want that enterprise and perseverance, which are necessary for the highest attainments in the arts and sciences. They have, indeed, few motives to enterprise. Inhabiting a fertile country, which, by the labour of the slaves, produces plentifully, and creates affluence—in a climate which favours indulgence, ease, and a disposition for convivial pleasures, they too generally rest contented with barely knowledge enough to transact the common affairs of life. There are not a few instances, however, in this state, in which genius has been united with application and the effects of their union have been happily experienced, not only by this state but by the united states.

The wealth produced by the labour of the slaves, furnishes their proprietors with the means of hospitality; and no people in the world use these means with more liberality. Many of the inhabitants spare no pains or expense in giving the highest polish of education to their children, by enabling them to travel, and by other means unattainable by those who have but moderate fortunes.

The Carolinians are generally affable and easy in their manners, and polite and attentive to strangers. The ladies want the bloom of the north, but have an engaging softness and delicacy in their appearance and manners, and many of them possess the polite and elegant accomplishments.

Hunting is the most fashionable amusement in this state. At this the country gentlemen are extremely expert, and, with surprising dexterity, pursue their game through the woods. Gaming of all kinds is more discountenanced among fashionable people in this than in any of the southern states. Twice a year, stately, a class of sportive gentlemen, in this and the neighbouring states, have their horse races. Bets of ten or fifteen hundred guineas have been sometimes laid on these occasions.

There is no instance, perhaps, in which the rich classes of people trespass more on the rules of propriety than in the mode of conducting their funerals. That a decent respect be paid to the dead, is the natural dictate of refined humanity, but this is not done by sumptuous and expensive entertainments, splendid decorations and pompous

ceremonies, which a misguided fashion has here introduced, and rendered necessary. In Charleston, and other parts of the state, no person attends a funeral any more than a wedding, unless particularly invited. Wine, punch, and all kinds of liquors, tea, coffee, cake, &c. in profusion, are handed round on these solemn occasions. In short one would suppose that the religious proverb of the wise man, 'It is better to go to the house of mourning than to the house of feasting,' would be unintelligible, and wholly inapplicable here, as it would be difficult to distinguish the house of mourning from the house of feasting.

DAMAGE BY THE LATE WAR.] The damages, which this state sustained in the late war, are thus estimated:—the three entire crops of 1773, 1780, and 1781, all of which were used by the British—the crop of 1782, taken by the Americans—about twenty five thousand negroes—many thousand pounds worth of plate—and household furniture in abundance—the villages of Georgetown and Camden burnt.—The loss to the citizens, directly, by the plunderings and devastations of the British army, and indirectly, by American impressments, and by the depreciation of the paper currency, together with the heavy debt of one million, two hundred thousand pounds sterling, incurred for the support of the war, in one aggregate view, make the price of independence to South-Carolina, exclusive of the blood of its citizens, upwards of three million pounds sterling.

PUBLIC REVENUE AND EXPENSES.] The public revenue of this state is, nominally, ninety thousand pounds sterling. But a great part of this is either not collected, or paid in securities, which are much depreciated. The expenses of government are about sixteen thousand pounds sterling.

MODE OF LEVYING TAXES.] The greater part of the revenue of this state is raised by a tax on lands and negroes. The land, for the purpose of being taxed according to their value, are classed into three grand divisions; the first reaches from the sea coast to the extent of the flowing of the tides; the second from these points to the falls of the rivers; and from thence to the utmost verge of the western settlements, makes the third. These three divisions, for the sake of more exactly ascertaining the value of the lands, are subdivided into twenty-one different species, the most valuable of which is estimated at six pounds, and the least valuable at one shilling per acre.

One per cent. on the value thus estimated, is levied from all granted lands in the state.

PRACTICE OF LAW.] Previous to the year 1785, when there were no county courts in this state, the lawyers of South-Carolina all resided in Charleston, and, whoever stood in need of juridical advice, was obliged to repair thither to obtain it. But, of late years they have established themselves in different parts of the state, and many of them are eminent in their profession. They are not, however, so numerous here, in proportion to the business to be done, as they are in many other of the united states.

ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.] For one hundred years after the first settlement of this country, the whole judicial business was transacted by one single court, called the court of common pleas. This court was constantly held at Charleston, where all civil business was transacted, and the public records preserved. But when the country increased in population, the people began to experience inconveniences.

To put an end to complaints on this head, the province was, in 1767, divided into seven districts. The judges of the court of common pleas were, at the same time, empowered to sit as judges of the court of sessions, invested with the powers of the court of king's bench, in England, in the criminal jurisdiction.

In 1785, county courts were established in several of the districts, and at present they are holden four times a year, in every county throughout the state. Besides these, there is also the superior court, to which an appeal lies from the courts below.

CONSTITUTION.] The legislative authority is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives. There are one hundred and twenty-four representatives, and thirty five senators, appointed among the several districts. The representatives are chosen for two years, must be free white men, twenty one years old, and have been inhabitants of the state three years. If resident in the district, they must have a freehold of five hundred acres of land, and ten negroes, or real estate worth one hundred and fifty pounds sterling, clear of debt; if non resident, must have a freehold in the district worth five hundred pounds sterling clear of debt. The senators are chosen for four years, and divided into two classes, one class being chosen every second year. They must be free white men, thirty years old, and have been inhabitants five years. If resident in the district, they must have a freehold worth three hundred pounds sterling, clear of debt; if non-resident, a freehold worth one thousand pounds sterling, clear of debt. Every free white man, twenty-one years old, having been an inhabitant of the state two years, and been a freeholder of fifty acres of land, or town lot, six months, or having been a resident in the district six months, and paid a tax of three shillings sterling, has a right to vote for members of the legislature. The general assembly is chosen on the second Monday of October, and meets on the fourth Monday in November annually. Each house chooses its own officers, judges of the qualifications of its members, and has a negative on the other. A majority of each makes a quorum, and may compel the attendance of members. They are protected, in their persons and estates, during the session, and ten days before and after; except in cases of treason, felony, and breach of the peace. They are paid out of the public treasury, from which no money is drawn but by the legislative authority. Revenue bills originate in the lower house, but may be altered or rejected by the senate. Army and navy contractors, and all officers, excepting those in the militia, justices of the peace, and of the courts, who have no salary, are excluded from the general assembly. The clergy are excluded from civil offices. The executive authority is vested in a governor, chosen for two years, by both houses of assembly jointly but he cannot be re-elected till after four years. He must be thirty years old, have been an inhabitant of the state ten years, and have an estate in it, worth fifteen hundred pounds sterling, clear of debt. He can hold no other office, except in the militia. A lieutenant-governor is chosen in the same manner, for the same time, and possessing the same qualifications; and holds the office of governor in case of vacancy. The governor is commander in chief of the military force, has power to remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachment, to require information of executive officers, to convene the general assembly on extraordinary occasions, and to adjourn them to any time not beyond the fourth Monday in November next ensuing, in case they cannot agree on the time themselves. He must inform the general assembly of the condition of the state, recommend such measures as he shall judge expedient, and take care that the laws are faithfully executed in mercy. The legislature has power to vest the judicial authority in such court, as it shall think proper. The judges hold their commissions during good behaviour. Those of superior courts are elected by the joint ballot of both houses of assembly, have a stated salary, and hold no other office. All officers take an oath of fidelity to their duty, and to the constitution of this state, and of the united states; and, for malconduct, may be impeached by the house of representatives, and tried by the senate.—This constitution asserts the supreme power of the people, liberty of conscience, trial by jury, and subordination of the military to the civil power. It excludes *ex post facto* laws, bills of attainder excessive bail, titles of nobility and hereditary distinctions.

The legislature has power, under certain regulations, to make amendments to the

constitution. And a convention may be called by vote of two-thirds of both branches of the whole representation.

This constitution was ratified June 3d, 1790.

HISTORY.] In the year 1662, Edward, earl of Clarendon, and some other adventurers, formed a project for planting a colony in South-Carolina. They applied to Charles the second for a charter, upon which he granted them all the lands lying between the 31st and 36th degrees of north latitude. Two years afterwards, by a second charter, he enlarged their boundaries from the 29th degree north latitude to 36° 30, and from these points on the sea-coast westward in parallel lines to the Pacific ocean. Of this immense region, Charles constituted them absolute lords and proprietors, saving to himself and successors the sovereign dominion of the country.

Agreeably to the powers with which the proprietors were invested by their charter, they began to frame a system of laws for the government of their colony. A model of government, consisting of an hundred and twenty different articles, was framed by Mr. John Locke.

Notwithstanding these preparations, several years elapsed before the proprietors of Carolina made any serious efforts to establish a settlement. In 1669, William Sayle, appointed the first governor, came over and took possession of a neck of land between Ashley and Cooper rivers, the place where Charleston now stands.

Many and various were the difficulties, which the first settlers had to encounter in this desolate wilderness. For, besides the frequent attacks from the hostile Indians, they were also distressed by pirates, and engaged in wars with the French and Spaniards, who frequently invaded their coasts with fleets and armies; and, in addition to these misfortunes, they had also internal broils and quarrels among themselves. Finding the fundamental principles of Locke's constitution inapplicable to their situation, their government afterwards consisted of a disconnected set of rules, laws and resolves, very little better calculated to promote the prosperity of the people.

They therefore quarrelled with the government, and with those who administered it.

But a circumstance happened, which occasioned greater uneasiness, than any thing else, and created more violent dissensions among the colonists. The establishment of the church of England in Carolina, was an object, which the proprietors earnestly wished to accomplish; and at last, by force and intrigue, they effected their purpose; and thus excluded the dissenters from a seat in the legislature. This unjust and impolitic regulation among a people who had recently fled from persecution created the bitterest animosities, and the most implacable resentment. The act, however, was at length repealed; but the rancour and hatred produced by a sense of its injustice, did not readily subside. They still differed among themselves, and were extremely uneasy under the proprietary government.

In this situation, and constantly labouring under the before mentioned difficulties, the colony continued about fifty years; when, in the year 1728, a revolution was accomplished, and the government was given up to the crown of England. About this time also, the territory, contained under the original charter, was divided into North and South-Carolina.

After this change, Francis Nicholson was appointed first governor; and upon his arrival, in South Carolina, the people in general congratulated each other upon the prospect of future peace and prosperity. The voice of murmur and discontent, together with the fear of danger and oppression, was now banished from the province.

Under a mode of government similar to that of England, the province continued to increase in population, agriculture and commerce, for a number of years; till

at length, in the order of events, the time had arrived, when a total separation was to happen between these colonies and the British empire.

Amid the general suffering, which attended the great and virtuous struggle for liberty, in the late revolution, South-Carolina had her full share. Charleston, the capital, was in possession of the enemy; and the whole country was ravaged and laid waste by the British troops. From the sea-shore to Ninety-Six a distance of one hundred and sixty miles, every thing exhibited a striking picture of the direful effects of a destructive war, stalking, like a giant over the face of the earth, and sweeping away, like a hurricane, the fruits of the planter's industry.

Many of the inhabitants either joined the enemy, and fought against their country, or took protection under them, to save their property; while the true republicans fought with incredible bravery, and endured every hardship, to procure for themselves and their posterity, the inestimable blessings of liberty. Great were the losses of the state in point of property, and still greater by the death of many of its worthiest citizens. But the issue of the contest was favourable; and no price is too great to be paid for the acquisition and establishment of liberty.

Ten years have elapsed since the conclusion of the war; but the marks of its destructive influence are not yet wholly obliterated; though great have been the exertions of the citizens to recover from its effects. Much however has been done, Agriculture has been diligently attended to. Commerce is flourishing. Arts and sciences are promoted, and the time is fast approaching, when this state will exhibit a scene of wealth and importance, far superior to what it would probably have attained under the British Government.

GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles		Degrees,
Length 600	} between	{ 5 and 16 west longitude.
Breadth 250		{ 31 and 35 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED, on the north, by South Carolina and by land ceded to the united states by that state; on the east, by the Atlantic ocean; on the south, by Florida; and on the west, by the Mississippi.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] Georgia, at the time of the census, in 1791, contained eleven counties, the population of which is stated in the following table.

	COUNTIES.	Principal Towns.	Free white males of 16 & upward	Free white males under sixteen year.	Free white females.	Other free persons.	Slaves.	Total of each county.	Total of each district
Lower District.	Camden	St. Mary's	81	44	96	14	70	205	21566
	Glynn	Brunwic	70	36	87	5	215	413	
	Liberty	Sunbury	426	264	1613	27	4052	5355	
Middle District.	Chatham	SAVANNAH, lat. 32° 5'	846	480	130	112	8201	10709	25336
	Effingham	Ebenezer.	627	336	711		750	2424	
	Richmond	AUGUSTA, lat. 33° 30'	1894	1925	3343	39	4116	11317	
	Burke	Waynesburg	1808	1841	3415	11	2392	967	
Upper District.	Washington	Golphinton	947	1024	1885	21	694	4552	37946
	Wilkes	Washington	5152	5740	2160	180	7268	31500	
	Franklin	Carnesville	225	243	417		156	1041	
	Greene	Greensburg	1027	1111	1882	8	1377	5495	
Total,			13103	14044	25739	386	29264		82548

Since which time, there have been nine new counties laid off, viz.

Columbia, Hancock, Briar,
 Elbert, Warren, M'Intosh,
 Oglethorpe, Scriver, Montgomery.

RIVERS.] The Savannah river, which washes the northern part of this state, takes its rise in two branches, called Tugulo, and Keowee, in the Cherokee mountains and after a serpentine course of about five hundred miles, discharges its waters into the Atlantic ocean, seventeen miles below the town of Savannah.

The general course of the river is from north-west to south-east. It is navigable for large vessels as far as Savannah; and for boats that carry eighty or ninety hogsheds of tobacco, as far as Augusta.

About three miles above Augusta, you meet with considerable falls, which, however, in high freshets, do not obstruct the boats from coming down with tobacco. The experiment is dangerous, and the motion of the boats extremely rapid; but they frequently pass the falls with twenty or thirty hogsheds, and arrive safe at Augusta. At this place, the river is about two hundred and fifty yards wide, and from ten to fifteen feet deep. The transportation up and down this river is attended with considerable danger and difficulty, on account of the logs and stumps, which are concealed under water; and which frequently overfet the boats loaded with tobacco. The clearing the navigation, which would not be very expensive, is an object that deserves the attention of the legislature. In the year 1790, nearly two hundred hogsheds of tobacco were lost going down this river. At its entrance, which is called Tybee bar, in latitude 31°, 57', there is sixteen feet of water at half tide.

The Ogechee is a river twenty miles south of the Savannah, and runs nearly parallel with it. It is a shallow river; but at many seasons of the year, the waters are sufficiently deep for the conveyance of tobacco, and other produce, in boats, from the Great Shoals, as they are called, about one mile above Georgetown, to the ocean. It takes its rise in the high lands in Greene county, and interlocks with the head branches of Little River. At the mouth of this river, Ogechee, is laid out a town called Hardwick, a port of entry, which bids fair in time to be a place of consequence. This river empties itself into the ocean at Waffaw Sound.

The Alatomaha is about forty miles south of the Ogechee, and runs nearly parallel with it and the Savannah river. It is a large, extensive, and very fine river, with abundance of most excellent land on its banks. It derives its source from the mountains, between the head waters of the Savannah and Appalachian rivers. It is formed by two large branches, the Ockmulgee on the south, and the Oconee on the north, each of which receives several very considerable rivers, passing through a vast body of extremely rich land. The junction of these two rivers is about one hundred miles distant from the sea. From the source of the Oconee to the mouth of the Alatomaha, is not less than three hundred and thirty miles in a direct course, and above five hundred along the meanders of the river. It discharges its waters by several mouths into the ocean.

Between the Alatomaha and St. Mary's river, there are the Turtle, Little Sitilla, Great Sitilla, and Crooked rivers, all too inconsiderable to merit particular description. St. Mary's is a deep and noble river, and forms a part of the southern boundary of the united states of America. It empties itself into Amelia sound, in lat. 30° , 44° , and is navigable for large vessels to the distance of nearly one hundred miles from its mouth. The lands upon this river produce vast quantities of live oak and red cedar, suitable for ship-building, which are carried to the West-Indies and the northern states, for that purpose.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] From the river Savannah to that of St. Mary's, which, on the east, includes the whole breadth of the state, and from the Atlantic ocean to the distance of about fifty miles westward, the country is extremely flat and level, broken neither by hills, mountains, rocks, nor stones; but one continued plain, covered with large pitch pines. As you advance farther into the state, to the westward, the country becomes a little broken, and you are alternately presented with hills and vales, but none of them of considerable height or extent, and only sufficient to relieve the tediousness of perpetual uniformity. This is the appearance, with some little increase in the hills and vallies to the distance of one hundred miles from the flat country. The upper part of the state is more uneven and mountainous; but there is no mountain which merits a particular description, except that vast and lofty main, which extends through North America, known by the name of the Alleghany mountains, which terminates in this state, about sixty miles south of its northern boundary line; and to the southward lies a level, fertile country, extending to the gulf of Mexico.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] The soil, in many places, is rich and fertile; in others, poor and barren. There is much of each kind; but a considerable portion of that which is called pine barren, though a shallow soil, is found by experience, when first cleared, to produce Indian corn for several years.

The island on the sea coasts, in their natural state, are covered with a plentiful growth of pine, oak, and hiccory, live oak and red cedar. The soil is a mixture of sand and black mould, composing what is commonly called a grey soil. A considerable part of it, particularly that whereon grow the oak, hiccory, and live oak, is very fertile, and yields, on cultivation, good crops of indigo, cotton, corn, and potatoes. These islands are surrounded by navigable creeks, between which and the main land is a large extent of salt marsh, fronting the whole state, not less, on an average, than four or five miles in breadth, intersected with creeks in various directions, admitting, through the whole, an inland navigation, between the islands and the main land, from the north east to the south-east corners of the state. The soil of the main land, adjoining the creeks and marshes, is very much of the same quality with that of the islands, except that which borders on those creeks and rivers. On these, immediately after you leave the falls, begin the valuable rice swamps, which on cultivation, amply compensate the industrious planter, and afford a principal staple

of commerce. The most of the lands which have been cultivated for the production of rice, lie on rivers, which, as far as the tide flows, are called tide-lands, or on creeks, and particular branches of water, flowing in some low parts of the land, which are called inland swamps, and extend back into the country from twenty to twenty-five miles, beyond which very little rice has hitherto been cultivated; though some few experiments have proved, that it may be cultivated with tolerable success, to the distance of one hundred and thirty miles from the sea. In all the flat country, in the intermediate spaces between the creeks and rivers, except a parcel which lies on the river St. Mary's, which is more fertile, the lands are of an inferior quality, covered principally with pines, and called pine barrens. Those lands, however, as the trees are not thick, produce a kind of wild grass and small reeds, and afford an excellent range for feeding and raising of cattle, where they are well supported both summer and winter.

It is not uncommon, even in the months of December and January, to bring young cattle from these ranges to the slaughter-house; and the beef, though not very fat, is nevertheless tolerably good. Some few ridges are found interspersed among these barren lands, the soil of which is better calculated for the production of corn and indigo, and the timber is principally oak and hickory; but these are very little elevated above the circumjacent grounds. The lands adjoining all the above-mentioned rivers, are nearly level, and, for the distance of one hundred miles from the mouths of the rivers, preserve a breadth from two to four miles; and wherever the hills and ridges come into contact with the banks of the rivers on one side, you always find low lands and swamps extending equally far on the other. This seems to be uniformly the case, till you come to that part where the rivers cut the mountains. At the distance of thirty or forty miles from the sea, as you proceed westward, the soil changes from a grey to a red colour, and here the timber consists of an intermixture of pine, oak and hickory. In some places it is gravelly, but fertile, and so continues for a number of miles, gradually deepening the reddish colour of the earth, till it changes into what is called the mulatto soil, consisting of black mould and red earth. Higher up in the country, the soil is nearly black, and extremely fertile. The timber consists of oak, hickory, walnut, maple, mulberry, &c.

A considerable part of the upper country is well adapted to the culture of wheat, cotton, tobacco, Indian corn, and indigo; but the emigrants to this part of the state have hitherto turned their principal attention to the culture of tobacco which at present is the staple of the western country. But as the cultivation of this plant soon exhausts the richness and strength of the best land, we may reasonably expect that it will soon be declined, and the production of wheat, in a great measure, substituted in its room. Upon a survey of this state in general, the following are the articles of produce to which the farmers and planters direct their attention, viz. wheat, rye, Indian corn, tobacco, indigo, rice, and cotton; among these tobacco, in the upper country, and rice, in the low country, are the objects of the greatest attention, and superior to any in America. Besides these, they cultivate potatoes, oranges, peaches, apples, and pomegranates. The brandy, which is distilled from peaches, when it has age, is an excellent liquor, milder than even French brandy. Of apples, there are but few raised in this state; but the hilly country being well adapted to this kind of fruit, the planters may in time, turn their attention to rearing of orchards. In many parts of the state are produced as fine water-melons as can be found in any part of the world; some of them weighing forty-five and fifty pounds.

From some experiments lately made, it cannot be doubted, that the soil and climate are finely calculated to compensate, liberally, those who may turn their attention to the culture of vines.

In every part of this state are raised crops of sweet potatoes, a very wholesome ve-

getable, from which is made, by distillation, a kind of whiskey, tolerably good but inferior to that of rye. Pumpkins grow here in great abundance. The poorer kind of people make use of them as a part of their food. They are pleasantly tasted, nutritious and wholesome. By properly beating and washing the potatoe, a sediment, or starch, is made, which has obtained the name of sago, and answers all the purposes of the India sago. Most of the tropical fruits would flourish in this state with proper attention. The rice plant has been, and the tea plant, of which such immense quantities are consumed in the united states, undoubtedly may be transplanted with equal advantage. The soil and temperature of climate, indicate success to future experiments. On the whole, considering the latitude, the richness of the soil, and the mildness of the climate, we look forward to the time, when this will be one of the most flourishing of the united states.

CLIMATES, AND ITS EFFECTS.] From the latitude and situation of this state, it will readily be conceived, that it must necessarily experience a very considerable degree of heat. The almost vertical rays of the sun act with powerful influence through a long and scorching summer. But these effects are mitigated and intercepted by refreshing breezes, which generally spring up about nine o'clock in the morning, and by frequent thunder showers, which cleanse and purify the air. The winters, in general, are extremely mild and pleasant. Snow seldom falls in any part of the state, except on the mountains in the northern part; yet on the 27 of December, 1792, a snow fell at Augusta upwards of eight inches deep, which continued upon the ground for several days, before it wasted away. But instances of this kind are extremely rare. In the coldest nights in December, ice is seldom seen half an inch thick, even on standing water, and the running streams are never frozen. In short, though vegetation, during the winter season, is considerably checked, the frosts are never sufficiently severe to prevent the growth of cabbages, lettuce, radishes &c. in the gardens. At Christmas, the inhabitants generally plant their early peas, and they are fit to gather in March and April. In some parts of the state, near the rice swamps and stagnant waters, the air is not salubrious; but in the hilly country, the air is generally pure, and the water wholesome. At the south-east part of the state, which lies nearest to the tropical regions, the atmosphere is more or less agitated by the effects of the trade winds. At Savannah, in the middle of the day, during the hottest part of the season, the mercury, in Fahrenheit's thermometer, placed in the shade, generally rises to ninety-eight degrees. It has been said, that an egg may be roasted in the sand, on the banks of the Savannah river, in seven minutes and an half. It may seem improbable, to those who have not made the experiment, but it is true as strange, that the summer nights, in this state, are more pleasant, and considerably cooler, than are experienced at the same season, in any of the states to the north of the Potowmac. The effect of all warm climates upon the inhabitants, is generally to produce an aversion to labour; and the necessity of labour being in some measure superseded by the liberal bounties of nature, the inhabitants have more leisure for social amusements, and sometimes greater inclination to indulge in scenes bordering on luxury and extravagance. But these indulgences are generally followed by diseases, which while they punish the offender, in some measure correct the evil. The diseases, which are the effect of the climate here, are generally bilious, intermittent and nervous fevers, pleuritis, &c. The putrid noxious exhalations, from the stagnant waters, are very injurious to health; hence near the swamps and low lands, the inhabitants are the most sickly; and, in many places, the water being bad, necessity, aided, perhaps, by habitual inclination, has made it customary to use large quantities of spiritous liquors; and these often produce diseases, and prove injurious to the constitution.

But, on the whole, it may with truth be asserted, that writers, in general, have exaggerated the noxious effect of this climate in producing diseases, and that it is

by no means so unhealthy as it has generally been represented, or conceived, by any persons inhabiting more northern latitudes.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Augusta is the seat of government, and the capital town of this state. It is situated upon the south western bank of the Savannah river, on a beautiful, extensive plain, five miles in length, and one and a half in breadth. It is one hundred and twenty miles north-west of the town of Savannah by land, and two hundred and fifty from the mouth of the Savannah river, including its meanders. The town is regularly laid out, the streets all crossing at right angles. It contains about two hundred and fifty houses, and upwards of eleven hundred inhabitants. It was incorporated in the year 1760, by an act of the legislature, and is now under the direction of a mayor and several aldermen. The public buildings are, an academy, a large court-house, which, likewise, is made use of for the purposes of legislation, a market house, a new stone jail, a church, government house, where the governor, secretary of state, and other public officers, transact their business, and three large ware-houses, capable of containing ten thousand hogheads of tobacco. The academy, in the year 1791, was under the direction of two tutors and a professor of oratory, and contained between eighty and ninety students. Its external government is conducted by a board of trustees, who are a body corporate in law. They have large funds for the benefit of the institution, consisting of lands, houses, and money, to the amount of several thousand pounds sterling. From the advantages that this institution enjoys, it is probable it will hereafter become very respectable.

This town is the seat of much commercial business: being situated in the centre of the state, it commands the trade of the whole upper country. Hither the planters resort for the sale of their produce, and carry home, in return, American, European, and West-India goods. In 1791, upwards of six thousand hogheads of tobacco were inspected at this place. Opposite the centre of the town is erected a large bridge, nineteen feet wide, across the Savannah river, which unites Georgia and South Carolina. This bridge will prove of great commercial benefit to the town of Augusta, by inducing the planters in the upper part of Carolina, to bring their produce to this market. In 1785, on the spot where the town now stands, there were not five houses: it has risen into existence with astonishing rapidity, and is still fast increasing in buildings, commerce, and every kind of improvement. Augusta has the advantage of a most beautiful situation; and as it enjoys a good climate, and is surrounded by fertile lands, it will one day become of great importance.

Savannah, the former seat of government in this state, and which may now be considered as its commercial capital, is situated upon the south bank of the river of the same name, seventeen miles from its mouth. It stands on a high sandy bluff, which is elevated fifty feet above the water; the land on the opposite side is low. It is regularly built in the form of a parallelogram, and contains about two hundred and forty dwelling houses, one episcopal church, a German Lutheran church, a presbyterian church, a synagogue, and court-house. The number of inhabitants, exclusive of the blacks, amounts to upwards of nine hundred. In Savannah, and within a circumference of about ten miles from it, there were, in the year 1787, about two thousand three hundred inhabitants. Of these one hundred and ninety two were above fifty years of age, and all in good health. The ages of a lady and her six children then living in the town, amounted to three hundred and eighty five years. This computation, which was actually made, serves to show, that Savannah is not really so unhealthy as has been generally represented.

Washington is the seat of justice in Wilkes county. It is situated in the upper country, fifty miles to the westward of Augusta. It contains about thirty houses, a court house and jail. It stands in a high and healthy country, where the waters are good, and is the resort of many invalids from the low country during the sickly

months, which are, August, September, and October. Sunbury is a sea port town, favoured with a safe and convenient harbour. Several small islands intervene and partly obstruct a direct view of the ocean, and interlocking with each other, render the passage out to sea winding but not difficult. It is a very pleasant healthy town, and is the resort of many persons, during the sickly months, from the more unhealthy parts of the adjacent country. It was burnt by the British during the American war, but is again increasing slowly in populousness and importance. Brunswick, in Glynn county, latitude 31° , $10''$, is situated at the mouth of Turtle river, at which place this river empties itself into St. Simon's sound. Brunswick has a safe harbour, sufficient to contain the largest fleet; and the bar, at the entrance of it, has water deep enough for vessels of any size. The town is regularly laid out; but not yet built. From its advantageous situation, and the fertility of the back country, it is probable this will, in some future day, become one of the greatest commercial towns in the state in Georgia. Frederica is a pleasantly situated town, upon the island of St. Simon, latitude 31° , $15''$, north. The mouth of the river Altamaha washes the western side of this agreeable island, forms a kind of bay before the town, and is navigable for vessels of the greatest burden, which lie along the wharf in a secure and safe harbour. The town of Louisville, which is designed for the future seat of government in this state, and where the convention are to meet in May, 1795; to revise the constitution, is laid out on the great Ogechee river, about seventy miles from its mouth; but very few buildings are yet erected. Probably it will be a considerable length of time before the government will be removed from Augusta to this place.

COMMERCE.] The commerce of this state is increasing with very great rapidity. The numerous emigrations hither since the war, have settled the country with industrious planters, who have increased the staple commodities to a great degree. Not many years ago, there were not more than six or seven hundred hogsheads of tobacco, raised in the whole state; whereas, at this time, not less than seven or eight thousand are shipped annually to Europe and the northern states. Besides tobacco, the exported articles consist of rice, indigo, cotton, bees-wax, corn, sweet potatoes, lumber, naval stores, leather, deer-skins, snake-root, live stock, &c. In return for the various exported articles are imported, all kinds of European and East-India goods; likewise, from the northern states, they import fish, potatoes, cyder, and apples, cheese, porter, shoes and hats, with sundry articles of farming utensils. The farmer and planters, especially in the low country, depend almost entirely on the imports, for wearing apparel for themselves and their negroes; as likewise for many implements of agriculture. For in this as in every other infant settlement, the population is so small, and the attention of the inhabitants so much, and so necessarily, turned towards agriculture, that it is not to be expected manufactures could gain much ground. Extensive manufactures are generally the result of a superabundance of population.

The value of the exports from this state, in 1772, was one hundred and twenty-one thousand, six hundred and seventy-seven pounds sterling. The number of vessels employed that year, was two hundred and seventeen.

The following statement shows the value, in sterling money, of the exports of Georgia, for twenty-three years, and likewise the number of vessels which cleared out each year.

Anno.	£.	Ves.	Anno.	£.	Ves.	Anno.	£.	Ves.
1750	2004	8	1758	8613	21	1766	81228	154
1751	3810	11	1759	12694	48	1767	67092	154
1752	4841	17	1760	20852	37	1768	92284	186
1753	6303	23	1761	15870	46	1769	86480	181
1754	9507	42	1762	27021	57	1770	99383	186
1755	15744	52	1763	47551	92	1771	106387	185
1756	16766	42	1764	55025	115	1772	121677	217
1757	15649	44	1765	73426	143			

For a number of years, succeeding the last mentioned date, it is impossible to give any accurate account of commercial transactions ; indeed an almost entire chasm presents itself to our view. For the American war commencing soon after, in which Georgia was a great sufferer, threw every thing into a state of confusion, and nothing was meditated but the safety of the country, and the establishment of an honourable independence. Subsequent to the conclusion of the war, and previous to the establishment of the federal constitution, a term of about six years, the attention of the inhabitants was powerfully attracted to repair the injuries of a long and calamitous contest, and no authentic documents are found to ascertain the exact amount of the exports or imports for any one year. Since the establishment of the general government, things have received a new accession of strength and order ; and system and prosperity have been the result.

The amount of the exports from this state, commencing on the 1st of October, 1790, and ending on the 30th of September, 1761, was four hundred and ninety-one thousand four hundred and seventy-two dollars, and eighty-six cents ; and from October 1st, 1792, to September 30, 1793, five hundred and one thousand three hundred and eighty-three dollars. The exports are increasing—immense resources of commercial wealth will be opened and improved, and Georgia promises eventually to attain a high degree of importance among her sister states.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] The inhabitants of this state are composed of emigrants from England, Ireland, Scotland and Germany, with some French ; and likewise emigrants from almost every one of the middle and eastern states of North America : but the greatest number is from the state of Virginia. From these circumstances, it will be easy for the reader to perceive the difficulty of drawing any portrait of the character and manners of these people, which will not be liable to numerous exceptions. Some distinguishing features may be marked, and some singularities noticed. People grow more and more alike by habitual connexions. Their character, their sentiments, their manners and customs become similar ; and even their feelings and modes of thinking are assimilated by frequent and social intercourse. And although, as in the present instance, a society may be formed of persons from several different nations of the world, yet necessity induces that kind of reciprocal connexion and intercourse which unavoidably and insensibly destroy the previous peculiarities of national character.

In Georgia the manners of the people indicate a hearty welcome to the stranger. This inspires him with confidence ; makes him easy with himself, and pleased with his company ; it likewise begets an inclination to catch the leading manners of a people thus calculated to inspire confidence and produce social happiness.

The effects of a warm and relaxing climate, the advantage resulting to the proprietors of unconditional servants, and the ease with which subsistence is acquired where nature opposes no inclemencies to human industry, all conspire to produce a

strong aversion to that kind of laborious exercise, which is so necessary in the more unkind regions of the earth.

A haughty tone of command is pretty general among those who possess slaves, and is, perhaps, a natural consequence of slavery in all countries. This extends to the young, as well as the old, and is often attended with injurious consequences to the temper and disposition of the rising generation.

Their diversions are dancing, playing at billiards, cards and back gammon, horseracing, cock-fighting, and hunting. The latter is often performed in a very agreeable manner. A party is formed, consisting of sixteen or twenty men, with servants furnished with bread and spiritous liquors sufficient for the consumption of the day: and, being all well mounted on horseback, with light fowling pieces, they enter the woods, and direct their course to the well-known haunts of the deer. Here the gentle men arrange themselves in such a manner, that if a deer is started, it is almost impossible for him to escape being shot by some one of the company. And as these animals are plenty in this country, it is not long before one is brought dead to the place of the intended repast, which is under some lofty oak, by the side of the nearest spring. Here he is barbecued, and the company regale themselves through the rest of the day in a truly sociable and agreeable manner.

Uniform hospitality to strangers, obliging kindness to the sick, whether rich or poor, easy and polite manners, and a manly generosity in their social entertainments, are among the virtues of the Georgians, increase the happiness of their society, and smooth the rough paths of human life.

[RELIGION.] The different religious sects, inhabiting this state, are episcopalians, presbyterians, baptists, methodists, Roman catholics, quakers and Jews. The baptists and methodists are the most numerous, and inhabit the upper part of the state. Of presbyterians and episcopalians, there is perhaps about an equal number scattered thro' different parts of the state. Of the catholics there is only one society in Georgia. The quakers likewise are not numerous, and the Jews have only one synagogue, which is in Savannah. In Augusta there is a meeting-house or church, which has generally been free for ministers of every denomination.

In Midway there is a society of christians established on what is called the congregational plan, which is very little different from that of the presbyterians. Their ancestors were emigrants from the state of Massachusetts. They settled, at first, in South Carolina; but afterwards removed and settled at Midway. It is said that they retain, in a great measure, the principles and manners of their ancestors, the first settlers of New-England.

[LITERATURE.] No great attention has hitherto been paid to the promotion of literature, in any part of the state, except at the seat of justice in each county. The flourishing state of the academy of the town of Augusta has already been described.

In Chatham, Liberty, and Wilkes counties, academies are established, and rising fast into usefulness and importance.

A college, with ample and liberal endowments, from the legislature, is instituted in Louisville, the intended capital of the state, in a high and healthy part of the country, near the centre of the state.

There is also provision made for the institution of an academy in each county, to be supported from the same funds and considered as parts and members of the same institution, under the general superintendance and direction of a president and board of trustees, appointed from the different parts of the state, and invested with the customary powers of corporations. The institution thus composed, is denominated "*The university of Georgia.*"

The governor, the speaker of the house of representatives, and the chief justice of the state, are associated with the board of trustees, in some of the more important duties of their office, such as making the laws, appointing the president, settling the property, and instituting academies. Thus associated, they are denominated "The senate of the university," and hold a regular annual meeting, at which the governor of the state presides. The senate appoint a board of commissioners in each county, for the particular management and direction of the academy, and the other schools in each county, who are to receive their instructions from and are accountable to the senate. The rector to each academy is an officer of the university, to be appointed by the president, with the advice of the trustees, and commissioned under the public seal, and is attended, with the other officers, at the annual meeting of the senate, to deliberate on the general interest of literature, and to determine on the course of instruction for the year, in the university. The president has the general charge and inspection of the whole, and is, from time to time, to visit them, and to examine into their order and performances. The funds for the support of these seminaries are principally in lands, amounting, in the whole, to above fifty thousand acres; a great part of which is of the best quality, and at present very valuable.

The funds, which the academy in Augusta possesses, have been mentioned in the description of the town. There is also public property, to the amount of one thousand pounds sterling, in each county, set apart for the purposes of building and furnishing their respective academies. This property has been brought into useful operation in several of the counties, and the time is fast approaching when its beneficial effects will appear in those more recent and unimproved. The funds originally designed to support the literary orphan-house, founded by the rev. George Whitefield, are chiefly in rice plantations and negroes; and have been in a very unproductive situation, but the legislature, in 1792, on the demise of the countess of Huntingdon, to whom Mr. Whitefield bequeathed this property, passed a law vesting it in thirteen commissioners, with independent powers, to carry the original intention of Mr. Whitefield into execution; and, in compliment to the countess, the seminary is stiled Huntingdon college. The funds are now in a productive state; and the commissioners are paying off the debts contracted by former agents, and by the clergy whom the countess sent from England, in whose hands the institution was going fast to ruin.

CURIOSITIES.] On the banks of Little river, in the upper part of the state, are visible many monuments of the power and industry of the ancient inhabitants of this country. There is a stupendous conical pyramid, or artificial mount of earth, with tetragon terraces, and a large sunken area of a cubical form, encompassed with banks of earth; and certain traces of a large Indian town, the work of a powerful nation, whose period of grandeur perhaps long preceded the discovery of this continent. In the county of Wilkes, within a mile and a half of the town of Washington, is a medicinal spring, which rises from an hollow tree, four or five feet in length. The inside of the tree is covered with a coat of nitre, and the leaves around the spring, are incrusted with a substance as white as snow. It is said to be a sovereign remedy for the scurvy, scrophulous disorders, consumptions, gouts and many other diseases, arising from humours in the blood. A person who had a rheumatism in his right arm, having, in the space of ten minutes, drank two quarts of water, experienced a momentary chill, and was thrown into a perspiration, which in a few hours, left him entirely free from pain, and in perfect health. This spring, situated in a fine, healthy part of the state, in the neighbourhood of Washington, where are excellent accommodations, will, no doubt, prove a pleasant and salutary resort for invalids from the maritime and unhealthy counties of this and the neighbouring states. About ninety miles from the sea, in Burke, there is a very remarkable bank of oyster-shells, of an uncommon size. They run in a direction nearly parallel with the sea-coast, in three

different ridges near each other and occupy, in the whole, a space of seven miles in breadth. The ridges commence at the Savannah-river, and have been traced to the northern branches of the Alatamaha. They are found in such quantities, that the indigo planters carry them away in large boat-loads, for the purpose of making lime-water, to be used in the manufacture of indigo. There are many thousands of tons still remaining. They are an inexhaustible source of wealth and convenience to the inhabitants; as from these are made their lime for building, and for the making of indigo, in which it is indispensably necessary.

ISLANDS.] The whole coast of this state is bordered with islands, affording, with few interruptions, an inland navigation from the river Savannah to St. Mary's.

The principal islands are Skiddaway, Wassaw, Ofsabaw, St. Catharine's, Sapelo, Frederica, Jekyl, Cumberland, and Amelia.

CONSTITUTION.] The present constitution of the state of Georgia was adopted and ratified by a convention of delegates from the people, on the 6th of May, 1789. It is formed upon a plan similar to the federal constitution of the united states. All legislative power is vested in two distinct branches, a senate and house of representatives, both chosen by the people at large, and styled the general assembly. The members of the senate are chosen for the term of three years; the house of representatives are chosen annually. The senate has the whole power of trying all impeachments, and the house of representatives of impeaching. No money is drawn out of the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law. No clergyman, of any denomination, is permitted to be chosen a member of the legislature. The executive power is vested in the hands of the governor, who holds his office during two years. He is chosen by the legislature, and must have been twelve years a citizen of the united states, and six years an inhabitant of Georgia. He must be thirty years of age, and possess five hundred acres of land, or other property to the amount of one thousand pounds sterling. He has a negative on all laws, unless they are afterwards re-passed by two-thirds of each branch of the legislature. In case of disagreement between the senate and house of representatives, in respect to adjournment, the governor may adjourn them to such time as he thinks proper. He shall receive, at stated times, a compensation for his services, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he is elected; neither can he receive, during that period, any other emolument from the united states, or any of them, or from any foreign power. He is commander in chief in and over the state, and of the militia. The electors of the members of both branches of the legislature must be citizens of the state, twenty one years of age, have paid taxes for the year preceding the election, and have resided six months within the county. All elections must be by ballot, and all appointments of the state officers by the legislature; except militia officers, and secretaries of the governor, who are appointed by the governor alone. But the general assembly may vest the power of appointing inferior officers, in the governor, or the courts of justice. Freedom of the press and trial by jury shall remain inviolate, and all persons shall be intitled to the writ of *habeas corpus*. All persons shall have the free exercise of religion, without being obliged to contribute to the support of any religious profession but their own. Estates shall not be entailed; and when a person dies intestate, leaving a wife and children, the wife shall have a child's share, or her dower, at her option: if there be no wife, the estate shall be equally divided among the children and their legal representatives of the first degree.

A superior court is to be holden in each county, twice in every year, in which shall be tried all causes civil and criminal; except such as may be subject to the federal court, and such as may by law be referred to inferior jurisdictions. Courts-merchant shall be held, subject to legislative regulation; and all causes shall be tried in the

county where the defendant resides; except in cases of real estate, which shall be tried in the county where such estate lies, and in criminal cases, which shall be tried in the county where the crime has been committed. The judges of the supreme court, and the attorney-general shall have a salary established by law; and hold their commissions for three years.

The senate consists of one member from each county, and the house of representatives of thirty-four members. A senator must have attained the age of twenty eight, must have been nine years a citizen of the united states, and three years a citizen of Georgia. He must possess, in his own right, two hundred and fifty acres of land, and property to the amount of two hundred and fifty pounds. A member of the house of representatives must be twenty-one years of age. He must have been seven years a citizen of the united states, and two years an inhabitant of Georgia. He must possess two hundred acres of land; or other property to the amount of one hundred and fifty pounds. One-third of the members of each house may proceed to business. Elections are by ballot.

[ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.] This state is divided into two districts, called the upper and lower circuit; and there are only two Judges appointed to sit in the superior court. One rides the lower, and the other the upper circuit, both commencing at the same time; so that there is only one judge upon the bench in the trial of the most important causes, unless occasionally, when a junction happens at the seat of government, at the conclusion of the circuits.

These judges are invested with limited chancery powers, and can hold courts of chancery, within such limitation, at any time when occasion requires. Besides the superior court, there is an inferior court, or court of common pleas, established in each county, which sits twice in a year, with five judges appointed by the legislature. The mode of process is extremely simple, and unincumbered with the tedious complication and delay of English rules.

All actions in the county courts are commenced by a simple petition, addressed to the judges of the court, praying redress of grievances, and stating in few words the nature and cause of the action.

A writ issues from the clerk's office, which brings the defendant before the court, and in due time, the merits of the case are investigated and determined by a jury. The county courts have no jurisdiction of criminal causes, which can be tried only in the superior court. Besides these, there is the sheriff's court, and courts held by the justices of the peace, in every part of the state.

[INDIANS.] The Muskogee or Creek Indians inhabit the middle part of this state, and are the most numerous tribe of Indians within the limits of the united states. Their whole number, some years since, was seventeen thousand two hundred and eighty, of which five thousand eight hundred and sixty were fighting men. They are composed of various tribes, who, after bloody wars thought it good policy to unite and support themselves against the Chactaws, &c. They consist of the Appalachies, Alibamas, Abecas, Cowetas, Coofas, Conshacks, Coofachees, Chacshoomas, Natchez, Oconies, Oakmulgies, Okohoy, Pakaras, Taenus, Talepoofas, Weetumkas, and some others. Their union has rendered them victorious over the Chactaws, and formidable to all the nations around them. They are a well made, expert, hardy, sagacious, politic people, extremely jealous of their rights and averse to parting with their lands. They have an abundance of tame cattle and swine, turkeys, ducks, and other poultry; they cultivate tobacco, rice, Indian corn, potatoes, beans, peas, cabbage, melons, and have plenty of peaches, plums, grapes, strawberries, and other fruits. They are faithful friends, but inveterate enemies—hospitable to strangers and honest and fair in their dealings. No nation has a more contemptible opinion of the white men's faith in general, than these people; yet they place great confidence in the

united states, and wish to agree with them upon a permanent boundary, over which the southern states shall not trespass.

The country which they claim, is bounded, northward, by about the 34th degree of latitude; and extends from the Tombeckbee, or Mobile river, to the Atlantic ocean, though they have ceded a part of the tract on the sea coast, by different treaties, to the state of Georgia. Their principal towns lie in latitude 30° and longitude 11° 20' W. from Philadelphia. They are settled in a hilly but not mountainous country. The soil is fruitful in a high degree, and well watered, abounding in creeks and rivulets, from whence they are called the Creek Indians.*

The Chactaws, or Flat heads, inhabit a very fine and extensive tract of hilly country, with large and fertile plains intervening, between the Alabama and Mississippi rivers, in the western part of this state. This nation had, not many years ago, forty-three towns and villages, in three divisions, containing twelve thousand one hundred and twenty-three persons, of whom four thousand and forty-one were fighting men.

The Chickasaws are settled on the head branches of the Tombeckbee, Mobile and Yazoo rivers in the north-west corner of the state. Their country is an extensive plain tolerably well watered with springs, and of a pretty good soil. They have seven towns, the central one of which is in latitude 34° 23' and longitude 14° 30' west. The number of persons in this nation has been formerly reckoned at one thousand seven hundred and twenty-five, of whom five hundred and seventy-five were fighting men.

[HISTORY.] In the year 1732, the settlement of a new colony, between the rivers Savannah and Altamaha, was projected in England for the further security of Carolina, and also under the idea of granting relief to indigent families. For this purpose, certain persons applied to George II. and obtained letters patent, bearing date June 9, 1732†, for legally carrying into execution what they had projected. They called the new province Georgia, in honour of the king. A corporation, consisting of twenty one persons, was constituted, by the name of trustees, for settling and establishing the colony of Georgia. The trustees, having first set an example themselves, by largely contributing towards the scheme, undertook to solicit benefactions, and to apply the money towards clothing, arming, and transporting such poor people as should consent to go over and begin a settlement, and purchase utensils for them to cultivate the land. They, however, did not confine these views to the subjects of Britain but generously opened a door for oppressed and indigent protestants from other nations. To prevent any misapplication or abuse of charitable donations, they agreed to deposit the money in the bank of England.

About the middle of July, 1732, the trustees for Georgia held their first general meeting; and, in November following, one hundred and sixteen settlers embarked for Georgia, having their passage paid, and being furnished with necessary supplies for building and for cultivating the soil. James Oglethorpe, one of the trustees, an active promoter of the settlement, embarked as the head and director of the settlers. They arrived early the next year at Charlestown, where they met with a friendly reception from the governor and council. Mr. Oglethorpe, shortly after his arrival,

* General McGillivray, the celebrated chief of the Creeks, was a half-blooded Indian, his mother being a woman of high rank in the Creek nation. He was so highly esteemed among them, that they, in a formal manner elected him their sovereign, and vested him with considerable powers. Several of his sisters are married to leading men among the Creeks. He would gladly have become a citizen of the United states; but, having served under the British during the late war, his property in Georgia, which was considerable, was confiscated. This circumstance induced him to retire among his friends, the Creeks, where, till his death, he remained an active and zealous partizan in their interests and politics.

† See History of South-Carolina and Georgia, vol. ii. p. 16.

accompanied by William Bull, made a visit to Georgia, and after examining the country, marked the spot where Savannah now stands, as the most proper situation upon which to begin their settlement. Here they erected a small fort and other necessary accommodations. The people were set to work in clearing the ground, and at stated times, were exercised in military duty. A treaty of friendship was concluded with the neighbouring Indians, and every circumstance was regulated in the best manner possible to promote the future prosperity of the colony.

In the mean time, the trustees for Georgia had been employed in forming a plan of settlement, and establishing such public regulations as they judged most proper to answer the great end of the corporation.

In this general plan, they considered each inhabitant both as a planter and a soldier, who must be provided with arms and ammunition for defence, as well as with tools for cultivation. As the strength of the province was their chief object, they agreed to establish such tenures of land as were most favourable to military establishment. Accordingly, lands were granted on feudal principles, and could descend only to the heirs male; and in case the heirs male became extinct, the land reverted to the corporation. No man was permitted to depart the province without licence. All forfeitures for non-residence, felonies, &c. went to the trustees for the use of the colony. The use of negroes was absolutely prohibited; and also the importation of rum. None of the colonists were to be permitted to trade with the Indians, unless by a special licence for that purpose.

These were some of the fundamental regulations established by the trustees of Georgia, and perhaps the imagination of man could scarcely have invented a system of rules, worse adapted to the circumstances and situation of the poor settlers, and of more pernicious consequence to the future prosperity of the province. Yet, although the trustees were greatly mistaken, with respect to their plan of settlement, it must be acknowledged, that their intentions were benevolent.

Besides the large sums of money which the trustees had expended for the settlement of Georgia, the parliament of England had also granted, during the two last years, thirty six thousand pounds sterling, towards carrying into execution the humane purpose of the corporation. But, after a representation and memorial from the legislature of Carolina reached Britain, the nation considered Georgia to be of great consequence, and began to make more vigorous efforts for its speedy population.

The first embarkations of poor people from England, being collected from towns and cities, were found equally idle and useless members of society abroad as they had been at home. A hardy, bold race of men, inured to rural labour and fatigue, were highly necessary for enterprises of this kind. To find men of this description, the trustees turned their attention to Germany and the Highlands of Scotland, and resolved to send over a number of Scotch and German labourers to their infant province. When the terms were known at Inverness, one hundred and thirty Highlanders immediately accepted them, and were transported to Georgia. About the same time one hundred and seventy Germans embarked with James Oglethorpe, so that, in the space of three years, Georgia received above four hundred British subjects, and one hundred and seventy foreigners. Afterwards several adventurers, both from Scotland and Germany, followed their countrymen, and added further strength to the province; and the trustees flattered themselves with the hopes of seeing it in a prosperous situation.

However, notwithstanding all that Britain had done for its population and improvement, it still remained in a poor and languishing condition. From the impolitic restrictions of the trustees, these settlers had no prospects during life, but those of hardship and poverty; and of consequence, at their decease, of bequeathing a number of orphans to the care of Providence. The want of credit, likewise, was an insur-

mountable obstacle to its progress in every respect. At length the trustees, finding that prosperity was not likely to be the result of their regulations, and wearied out with the complaints of the people, in the year 1752, surrendered the charter to the king, and Georgia was made a royal government. In consequence of which, George II. appointed John Reynolds governor of the province, and a legislature similar to the other royal governments in America, was established in it.

In a few years after this, the province began to flourish, and its population, agriculture and commerce greatly increased.

From the time when Georgia became a royal government, in 1752, till the peace of Paris, in 1763, she struggled under many difficulties, arising from the want of credit and the frequent molestations of enemies.

But, after the year 1763, the wisdom and exertions of governor Wright gave a new spring to industry, and the province began to increase and flourish with great rapidity. To form a right judgement of the progress of the colony, we need only to attend to its exports.

In the year 1763, the whole exports of Georgia amounted only to twenty-seven thousand and twenty-one pounds sterling; but, afterwards, the colony increased so rapidly, that in the year 1773, it exported staple commodities to the value of one hundred and twenty-one thousand six hundred and seventy-seven pounds sterling.

Soon after the last mentioned period, the war between Britain and America commenced, and presents to our view all the calamities and devastations incident to such scenes. The British army ravaged the state of Georgia, laying waste the fields and plantations, and destroying every thing in their way. Many of the inhabitants fled to the neighbouring states for a place of safety; while many others united with the English in their unjust attack upon the country. But a majority of her citizens kept together in the field, and formed a body of militia admitted, at that day, to be equal, if not superior, to any in the union. Driven from their habitations, and having lost their property by British plunderers, the camp became their home; and, irritated by those injuries, added to the aggravating circumstances of indelicate treatment to their families, many of whom were sent into South-Carolina with scarcely clothes sufficient to cover them, after having been subjected to many indecencies, they frequently wreaked their vengeance on British parties, and were sometimes, perhaps justly, charged with cruelty in giving no quarters. At the conclusion of the war, blowing a man's brains out, and a Georgia parole, were synonymous terms.

The sufferings of this state, during the war, were at least as considerable as those of any other state, in proportion to its wealth, and greater in proportion to its numbers. St. George's parish, now Burke county, previous to the revolution, could muster one thousand fighting men. In July, 1782, when general Wayne took possession of Savannah, the whole number of fighting men, belonging to the state, did not exceed five hundred.

The Georgians signalized themselves at the Enoree, at Blackstock's, on Tiger river, the iron works of Pacolet, and the Cowpens, all in South Carolina, exclusive of several severe actions, in their own state, under the command of their colonels Clache, Twiggs and Jackson. Generals McIntosh and Elbert had early distinguished themselves as patriots and soldiers in the continental line of the state, which was totally cut to pieces, or captured (and afterwards sacrificed to want and disease on board British prison ships) at the taking of Savannah, and the subsequent battle of Briar creek. General Scriven was killed while gallantly opposing an invasion of Georgia from Florida; and congress, in consideration of his services and merit, ordered a monument to be erected in the town of Sunbury, to his memory.

Since the conclusion of the war, population, agriculture, and commerce, have increased with great rapidity; but these have been retarded by the wars and disputes

with the Creek Indians, who have made frequent, though perhaps not in all instances unprovoked, attacks upon the frontier inhabitants. On the 13th of August, 1790, a treaty of peace and friendship was concluded, ratified, and confirmed, between the united states, and the head warriors of the Creek nation of Indians. Since that time, immigrations have been frequent, and the state is fast increasing in wealth, population, and every kind of improvement. Wilkes county, which, in 1782, was little better than a wilderness, contained in 1790, when the census of the united states was taken thirty one thousand and five hundred persons.

Under this head, it may not be improper to take some notice of the rev. George Whitefield, who, in the year 1740, founded an orphan house academy in Georgia, about twelve miles from Savannah. For the support of this, he collected large sums of money from all denominations of christians, both in England and America. A part of this money was expended in erecting proper buildings to accommodate the students, and a part in supporting them. In 1768, it was proposed that the orphan house should be erected into a college. Whereupon, Mr. Whitfield applied to the crown for a charter. In consequence of some dispute, the affair of a charter was given up, and Mr. Whitfield made his assignment, as we have already observed, of the orphan house, in trust to the countess of Huntingdon. He died at Newburyport, in New-England, September 30th, 1770, in the 56th year of his age, and was buried under the presbyterian church in that place.

TERRITORY N. W. OF THE OHIO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 900	between [37 and 50 north latitude. 6 and 23 west longitude.]	411,000
Breadth 700		

BOUNDARIES.] **T**HIS extensive tract of country is bounded north, by part of the northern boundary line of the united states; east, by the lakes, and Pennsylvania; south, by the Ohio river; and west, by the Mississippi. Mr. Hutchins, the late geographer of the united states, estimates, that this tract contains two hundred and sixty three million, forty thousand, acres of which forty-three million, forty thousand, are water; this deducted, there will remain two hundred and twenty million of acres, belonging to the federal government, to be sold for the discharge of the national debt; except a narrow strip of land bordering on the south of Lake Erie, and stretching one hundred and twenty miles west of the western limit of Pennsylvania, which belongs to Connecticut.

But a small proportion of these lands is yet purchased of the natives, and to be disposed of by congress. Beginning on the meridian line, which forms the western boundary of Pennsylvania, seven ranges of townships have been surveyed and laid off, by order of congress. As a north and south line strikes the Ohio in an oblique direction, the termination of the seventh range falls upon that river, nine miles above the Muskingum, which is the first large river that falls into the Ohio. It forms this junction one hundred and seventy two miles below Fort Pitt, including the windings of the Ohio; though in a direct line it is but ninety miles.

On the lands in which the Indian title is extinguished, and which are now purchasing under the united states, several settlements are commencing one at Marietta,

at the mouth of Muskingum, under the direction of the Ohio company—another between the Miami rivers, under the direction of colonel Symmes; and a French settlement at Gallipolis. There are several other tracts, which have been granted by congress to particular companies, and other tracts for particular uses, which remain without any American settlements.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] That part of this territory in which the Indian title is extinguished, and which is settling under the government of the united states, is divided into four counties, as follow :

<i>Counties.</i>	<i>When erected.</i>	<i>Counties.</i>	<i>When erected.</i>
Washington,	1788, July 26th.	St. Clair,	1790, April 17th.
Hamilton,	1790, Jan. 2d.	Knox,	1790, June 20th.

These counties have been organized with the proper civil and military officers. The county of St. Clair is divided into three districts, viz. the district of Cahokia the district of Prairie-du rochers, and the district of Kaskaskias. Courts of general quarter-sessions of the peace, county courts of common pleas, and courts of probate, are to be held in each of these districts, as if each was a distinct county; the officers of the county to act by-deputy, except in the district where they reside.

RIVERS.] The Muskingum is a gentle river, confined by banks so high as to prevent its overflowing. It is two hundred and fifty yards wide at its confluence with the Ohio, and navigable by large batteaux and barges to the Three-Legs; and, by small ones, to the lake at its head. From thence, by a portage of about one mile, a communication is opened to lake Erie, through the Cayahoga, which is a stream of great utility, navigable its whole length, without any obstruction from falls. From Lake Erie, the avenue is well known to the Hudson, in the state of New-York.

The Hockhocking resembles the Muskingum, though somewhat inferior in size. It is navigable for large boats about seventy miles, and for small ones much further. On the banks of this very useful stream, are found inexhaustible quarries of freestone, large beds of iron ore, and some rich mines of lead. Coal mines, and salt springs, are frequent in the neighbourhood of this stream, as they are in every part of the western territory. The salt, that may be obtained from those springs, will afford an inexhaustible store of that necessary article. Beds of white and blue clay, of an excellent quality, are likewise found here, suitable for the manufacture of glass, crockery and other earthen wares. Red bole, and many other useful fossils, have been observed on the branches of this river.

The Scioto is a larger river than either of the preceding and opens a more extensive navigation. It is passable for large barges for two hundred miles, with a portage of only four miles to the Sandusky, a good navigable stream, that falls into Lake Erie. Through the Sandusky and Scioto lies the most common pass from Canada to the Ohio and Mississippi; one of the most extensive and useful communications that are to be found in any country. Prodigious extensions of territory are here connected; and from the rapidity with which the western parts of Canada, Lake Erie, and the Kentucky countries, are settling, we may anticipate a great intercourse between them. The lands on the borders of these middle streams, from this circumstance alone besides their natural fertility, must be rendered vastly valuable. The flour, corn, flax, hemp, &c. raised for exportation, in that great country, between the Lakes Huron and Ontario, will find an outlet through Lake Erie and these rivers, or down the Mississippi. The Ohio merchants can give a higher price than those of Quebec, for these commodities; as they may be transported from the former to Florida, and the West-India islands, with less expense, risk, and insurance, than

from the latter; while the expence from the place of growth to the Ohio, will not be one fourth of what it would be to Quebec, and much less than even to the Oneida lake. The stream of the Scioto is gentle, no where broken by falls. At some places, in the spring of the year, it overflows its banks, providing for large natural rice plantations. Salt springs, coal mines, white and blue clay, and free stone, abound in the country adjoining this river.

The little Miami is too small for batteaux navigation. Its banks are good land, and so high as to prevent, in common, the overflowing of the water.

The Great Miami has a very stoney channel, and a swift stream, but no falls. It is formed of several large branches, which are passable for boats a great distance. One branch comes from the west, and rises in the Wabash country; another rises near the head waters of Miami river, which runs into Lake Erie; and a short portage divides it from another branch of Sandusky river. It also interlocks with the Scioto.

The Wabash is a beautiful river, with high and fertile banks. It empties into the Ohio, by a mouth two hundred and seventy yards wide, one thousand and twenty miles below Fort Pitt. In the spring, summer, and autumn, it is passable with batteaux drawing three feet water, four hundred and twelve miles, to Ouiatanon, a small French settlement, on the west side of the river; and for large canoes, one hundred and ninety-seven miles further, to the Miami carrying-place, nine miles from Miami village. This village stands on Miami river, which empties into the south west part of Lake Erie. The communication between Detroit, and the Illinois and Ohio countries, is up Miami river, to Miami village, thence by land nine miles, when the rivers are high, and from eighteen to thirty when they are low through a level country, to the Wabash, and through the various branches of the Wabash, to the places of destination.

A silver mine has been discovered about twenty-eight miles above Ouiatanon, on the northern side of the Wabash. Salt springs, lime, free stone, blue, yellow, and white clay, are found, in plenty, upon this river.

The rivers Au Vase and Kaskaskias empty into the Mississippi from the north east; the former is navigable for boats sixty, and the latter about one hundred and thirty miles. They both run through a rich country, which has extensive meadows.

Between the Kaskaskias and Illinois rivers, which are eighty-four miles apart, is an extensive tract of level, rich land, which terminates in a high ridge, about fifteen miles before you reach the Illinois river. In this delightful vale are a number of French villages, which together with those of St. Genevieve and St. Louis, on the western side of the Mississippi, contained in 1778, one thousand two hundred and seventy-three fencible men.

One hundred and seventy-six miles above the Ohio, and eighteen miles above the Missouri, the Illinois empties into the Mississippi, from the north-east, by a mouth about four hundred yards wide. This river is bordered with fine meadows, which in some places, extend as far as the eye can reach. It furnishes a communication with lake Michigan, by the Chicago river, between which and the Illinois, are two portages, the longest of which does not exceed four miles. It receives a number of rivers from twenty to a hundred yards wide, and navigable for boats from fifteen to a hundred and eighty miles. On the north-western side of this river is a coal mine, which extends for half a mile along the middle of the bank of the river; and, about the same distance, below the coal mine, are two salt-ponds, one hundred yards in circumference, and several feet in depth. The water is stagnant and of a yellowish colour; but the French and natives make good salt from it. The soil of the Illinois country is, in general, of a superior quality. Its natural growth consists of oak, hickory, cedar, mulberry, &c. hops, dying drugs, medicinal plants, of several kinds, and excellent wild grapes. In the year 1769, the French settlers made one hundred and ten hogsheads of strong wine from these grapes.

There are many other rivers of equal size and importance, with those we have been describing, which are not sufficiently known for accurate descriptions.

POPULATION.] The number of souls in this large tract of country has not been ascertained. From the best data, the population may be estimated as follows,

Indians, (suppose)	- - - - -	65,000*	1792;
Ohio Company's purchase,	- - - - -	2,500	do.
Col. Symmes' settlements,	- - - - -	2,000	do.
Galliopolis, (French settlement) opposite the	Kanhawa river,	1,000	do.
Vincennes and its vicinity, on the Wabash,	- - - - -	1,000	do.
Kaskaskias and Cahokia,	- - - - -	680	1790;
At Grand-Ruisseau of St Phillip, and Prairie-du-rochers,	- - - - -	240	do.

Total, 72,920

In 1790, there were, in the town of Vincennes, about forty American families, and thirty one slaves; and on the Mississippi, forty American families and seventy-three slaves, all included in the above estimate.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS. } To the remarks on these heads, interspersed in the description of the rivers, we will add some observations from an anonymous pamphlet, published not long since, which we presume are the most authentic, respecting that part of the country, which has been purchased of the Indians, of any that have been given.

“ The undistinguished terms of admiration that are commonly used in speaking of the natural fertility of the country on the western waters of the united states, would render it difficult without accurate attention in the surveys, to ascribe a preference to any particular part or to give a just description of the territory under consideration, without the hazard of being suspected of exaggeration: but in this we have the united opinion of the geographer, the surveyors and every traveller that has been intimately acquainted with the country, and marked every natural object with scrupulous exactness—that no part of the federal territory unites so many advantages, in point of health, fertility, variety of production, and foreign intercourse, as that tract which stretches from the Muskingum to the Scioto and the Great Miami rivers.†

“ Colonel Gordon, in his journal, speaking of a much larger range of country, in which this is included, and makes, unquestionably, the finest part, has the following observation:—the country on the Ohio, is every where pleasant, with level spots of rich land, and remarkably healthy. One general remark of this nature, will serve for the whole tract comprehended between the western skirts of the Alleghany mountains; thence running south westwardly to the distance of five hundred miles, to the Ohio falls then crossing them northerly to the heads of the rivers that empty themselves into the Ohio; thence east, along the ridge that separates the lakes and Ohio streams, to French Creek. This country may, from a proper knowledge, be affirmed to be the most healthy, the most pleasant, the most commodious, and most fertile spot of earth, known to the European people.

* The tribes, who inhabit this country, are the Pianias, on both sides the Mississippi—the Casquerasquias, on the Illinois—the Piankaslaws and other tribes on the Wabash—the Shawanese, on the Scioto—the Delawares—the Miamis—the Ouiscons, Mascontens, Sakies, Sieux, Mekekouakis—the Pilans, Powtowatamis, Messagues, Otrawas, Chipewas, and Wiandots. The whole amounting to the above number.

† A gentleman who has visited this country, supposes this account a little too highly embellished. He acknowledges that it is a very fine country, but thinks that there are other parts of the western unsettled country which unite at least as many, if not more, advantages than the tract above mentioned.

“ The lands on the various streams above-mentioned, which fall into the Ohio, are now more accurately known, and may be described with confidence and precision. They are interspersed with all the variety of soil which conduces to pleasantness of situation, and lays the foundation for the wealth of an agricultural and manufacturing people. Large level bottoms, or natural meadows, from twenty to fifty miles in circuit, are every where found bordering the rivers, and variegating the country in the interior parts. These afford as rich a soil as can be imagined, and may be reduced to proper cultivation with very little labour.

“ The prevailing growth of timber and the more useful trees are, maple or sugar-tree, sycamore, black and white mulberry, black and white walnut, butternut, chestnut; white, black, Spanish, and chestnut oaks, hickory, cherry, buckwood, or horse chestnut, honey locust, elm, cucumber tree, lynn tree, gum tree, iron wood, ash, aspen, sassafras, crab-apple tree, paupaw, or custard apple, a variety of plumb trees, nine-bark spice and leather wood bushes. General Parsons measured a black walnut tree, near the Mulkingum, whose circumference, at five feet from the ground, was twenty-two feet. A sycamore, near the same place, measured forty-four feet in circumference, at some distance from the ground. White and black oak, and chestnut, with most of the above mentioned timbers, grow large and plenty upon the high grounds. Both the high and low-lands produce vast quantities of natural grapes of various kinds from which the settlers universally make a sufficiency of rich red wine for their own consumption. It is asserted, in the old settlement of St Vincent, where they have had opportunity to try it, that age will render this wine preferable to most of the European wines. Cotton is the natural production of this country, and grows in great perfection.

“ The sugar maple is a most valuable tree for an inland country. Any number of inhabitants may be forever supplied with a sufficiency of sugar by preserving a few trees for the use of each family. A tree will yield about ten pounds of sugar a year and the labour is very trifling: the sap is extracted in the months of February and March, and granulated, by the simple operation of boiling, to a sugar equal in flavour and whiteness to the best Muscovado.

“ Very little waste-land is to be found in any part of this tract of country. There are no swamps but such as may be readily drained, and made into arable and meadow land; and, though the hills are frequent, they are gentle and swelling, no where high or incapable of tillage. They are of a deep, rich soil, covered with a heavy growth of timber, and well adapted to the production of wheat, rye, indigo, tobacco, &c.

ANIMALS, &c.] “ This country is well stocked with wild game of every kind: innumerable herds of deer, and wild cattle, are sheltered in the groves, and fed in the extensive bottoms that every where abound: an unquestionable proof of the great fertility of the soil. Turkeys, geese, ducks, swans, teal, pheasants, partridges, &c. are here in great plenty.

“ The rivers are well stored with fish of various kinds, and many of them of an excellent quality. They are generally large, though of different sizes. The cat fish, which is the largest, and of delicious flavour, weighs from six to eighty pounds.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] The number of old forts, found in the Kentucky country are the admiration of the curious, and a matter of much speculation. They are mostly of an oblong form, situated on strong, well chosen ground, and contiguous to water. When, by whom, and for what purpose they were thrown up, is uncertain. They are undoubtedly very ancient; as there is not the least visible difference in the age or size of the timber growing on or within these forts, and that which grows without; and the oldest natives have lost all tradition respecting them. Dr. Cutler, who has accurately examined the trees on these forts, and which he thinks, from appearances, are the second growth, is of opinion that they must have been built upwards of one thousand years ago. They must have been the efforts of a people

much more devoted to labour than our present race of Indians; and it is difficult to conceive how they could be constructed without the use of iron tools. At a convenient distance from these, always stands a small mound of earth, thrown up in the form of a pyramid, which seems, in some measure, proportioned to the size of its adjacent fortification. On examination, they have been found to contain a chalky substance, supposed to have been bones, and of the human kind.

Under this head we may mention the extensive meadows, or, as the French call them, prairies, which answer to what, in the southern states, are called savannas. They are rich plains, without trees, and covered with grass. Some of these, between St. Vincennes and the Mississippi, are thirty or forty miles in extent. In passing them, as far as the eye can reach, there is not a tree to be seen; but there is plenty of deer, wild cattle, bears, and wolves, and innumerable flocks of turkeys: these with the green grass form a rich and beautiful prospect:

FORTS.] The posts established for the protection of the frontiers, are as follow: Franklin on French creek—Harmar on the mouth of Muskingum—Steuben, at the rapids of the Ohio—Fayette, Hamilton, Knox, Jefferson, St. Clair, Marietta, St. Vincennes, and Fort Recovery.

GOVERNMENT, &c.] By an ordinance of congress, passed on the 13th of July, 1787, this country, for the purposes of temporary government, was erected into one district, subject, however, to a division, when circumstances shall make it expedient.

In the same ordinance it is provided, that congress shall appoint a governor, whose commission shall continue in force three years, unless sooner revoked.

The governor must reside in the district, and have a freehold estate therein, in one thousand acres of land, while in the exercise of his office.

Congress, from time to time, are to appoint a secretary, to continue in office four years, unless sooner removed, who must reside in the district, and have an estate of five hundred acres of land, while in office.

The business of the secretary is, to keep and preserve the acts and laws of the legislature, the public records of the district, and the proceedings of the governor, in his executive department; and to transmit authentic copies of such acts and proceedings, every six months, to the secretary of congress.

The ordinance provides that congress shall appoint three judges, possessed each of five hundred acres of land in the district in which they are to reside, and to hold their commissions during good behaviour, any two of whom shall form a court, which shall have a common law jurisdiction. The governor and judges are authorized to adopt and publish in the district, such laws of the original states, criminal and civil, as may be necessary and best suited to the circumstances of the district, and report them to congress, and if approved, they shall continue in force till the organization of the general assembly of the district, who shall have the authority to alter them. The governor is to command the militia, and appoint and commission their officers, except general officers, who are to be appointed and commissioned by congress.

Previously to the organization of the assembly, the governor is to appoint such magistrates and civil officers, as shall be deemed necessary for the preservation of peace and order.

So soon as there shall be five thousand free male inhabitants, of full age, in the district, they shall receive authority to elect representatives, one for every five hundred free male inhabitants, to represent them in the general assembly; the representation to increase progressively with the number of free male inhabitants till there be twenty five representatives; after which, the number and proportion of the representatives shall be regulated by the legislature. A representative must possess, in fee simple two hundred acres of land, be a resident in the district—and have been a citizen of the united states; or a resident in the district, three years preceding his election.

An elector must have fifty acres of land in the district, have been a citizen of one of the states, and be a resident in the district, or possess the same freehold, and have been two years a resident in the district. The representatives, when duly elected, are to continue in office two years.

The general assembly, or legislature, shall consist of the governor, legislative council, and house of representatives. The legislative council shall consist of five members, to continue in office five years, unless sooner removed by congress. Three make a quorum. The council are to be thus appointed: the governor and representatives, when met, shall nominate ten persons, residents in the district, and each possessed of a freehold in five hundred acres of land, and return their names to congress, who shall appoint and commission five of them to serve as aforesaid.

All bills, passed by a majority in the house, and in council, shall be referred to the governor for his assent; but no bill or legislative act, whatever, shall be of force without his assent. The governor shall have power to convene, prorogue and dissolve the general assembly, when, in his opinion, it shall be expedient.

The legislature, when organized, shall have authority, by joint ballot, to elect a delegate to congress, who shall have a seat in congress, with a right of debating, but not of voting, during this temporary government.

“ And; for extending the fundamental principles of civil and religious liberty, which form the basis whereon these republics, their laws and constitutions, are erected; to fix and establish those principles as the basis of all laws, constitutions, and governments, which forever hereafter shall be formed in the said territory; to provide also for the establishment of state and permanent government therein, and for their admission to share in the federal councils on equal footing with the original states at as early periods as may be consistent with the general interest:

“ It is hereby ordained and declared by the authority aforesaid, That the following articles shall be considered as articles of compact, between the original states, and the people and states in the said territory, and forever remain unalterable, unless by common consent, to wit:

“ Article 1st. No person, demeaning himself in a peaceable and orderly manner, shall ever be molested, on account of his mode of worship, or religious sentiments, in the said territory.

“ Article 2d. The inhabitants of the said territory shall always be entitled to the benefit of the writ of habeas corpus, and of the trial by jury, of a proportionate representation of the people in the legislature, and of judicial proceedings, according to the course of the common law: all persons shall beailable, unless for capital offences, where the proof shall be evident or the presumption great: all fines shall be moderate, and no cruel or unusual punishment shall be inflicted; no man shall be deprived of his liberty or property but by the judgment of his peers, or of the law of the land; and should the public exigencies make it necessary for the common preservation, to take any person's property, or to demand his particular services, full compensation shall be made for the same; and in the just preservation of rights and property, it is understood and declared, that no law ought ever to be made, or have force in the said territory, that shall in any manner whatever interfere with, or affect private contracts or engagements, *bona fide* and without fraud, previously formed.

“ Article 3d. Religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged; the utmost good faith shall always be observed towards the Indians; their lands and property shall never be taken from them without their consent; and in their property, rights, and liberty, they shall never be invaded or disturbed, unless in just and lawful wars, authorized by congress; but laws founded in justice and hu-

manity, shall from time to time be made, for preventing wrongs being done to them, and for preserving peace and friendship with them.

“ Article 4th. The said territory, and the states which may be formed therein shall forever remain a part of this confederacy of the united states of America, subject to the articles of confederation; and to such alterations therein as shall be constitutionally made; and to all the acts and ordinances of the united states, in congress assembled, conformable thereto. The inhabitants and settlers in the said territory, shall be subject to pay a part of the federal debts contracted, or to be contracted, and a proportionable part of the expenses of government, to be apportioned on them by congress, according to the same common rule and measure, by which appointments thereof shall be made on the other states; and the taxes for paying their proportion, shall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the legislature of the district or districts, or new states, as in the original states within the time agreed upon by the united states, in congress assembled. The legislatures of those districts, or new states, shall never interfere with the primary disposal of the soil by the united states, in congress assembled, nor with any regulations congress may find necessary for securing the title in such soil to the *bona fide* purchasers. No tax shall be imposed on lands the property of the united states; and in no case shall non-resident proprietors be taxed higher than residents. The navigable waters leading into the Mississippi and St. Lawrence, and the carrying-places between the same, shall be common highways, and forever free, as well to the inhabitants of the said territory, as to the citizens of the united states, and those of any other states that may be admitted into the confederacy, without any tax, impost or duty therefor.

“ Article 5th. There shall be formed in the said territory, not less than three, nor more than five states; and the boundaries of the states, as soon as Virginia shall alter her act of cession and consent to the same, shall become fixed and established as follows, viz. The western state in the said territory shall be bounded on the Mississippi, the Ohio and Wabash rivers; a direct line drawn from the Wabash and Post Vincents, due north to the territorial line between the united states and Canada, and by the said territorial line to the Lake of the Wood and the Mississippi. The middle state shall be bounded by the said direct line, the Wabash, from post Vincennes to the Ohio; by the Ohio, by a direct line drawn due north from the mouth of the Great Miami to the said territorial line, and by the said territorial line. The eastern state shall be bounded by the last mentioned direct line, the Ohio, Pennsylvania, and the said territorial line: provided, however, and it is further understood and declared, that the boundaries of these three states shall be subject so far to be altered, that if congress hereafter shall find it expedient, they shall have authority to form one, or two states, in that part of the said territory which lies north of an east and west line drawn through the southerly bend or extreme of lake Michigan; and when any of the said states shall have sixty thousand free inhabitants therein, such state shall be admitted by its delegates into the congress of the united states, on equal footing with the original states, in all respects whatever; and shall be at liberty to form a permanent constitution and state of government: provided the constitution and government so to be formed, shall be republican, and in conformity to the principles contained in these articles; and so far as it can be consistent with the general interest of the confederacy, such admission shall be allowed at an earlier period, and when there may be a less number of free inhabitants in the state than sixty thousand.

“ Article 6th. There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted: provided always, that any person escaping into the same, from whom labour or service is lawfully claimed in any one of the original states, such fu-

gitive may be lawfully reclaimed and conveyed to the person claiming his or her labour as aforesaid."

Such is the government of the Western Territory, and such the political obligations of the adventurers into these fertile and delightful parts of the united states.

The settlement of the country has been checked, for a number of years past, by an unhappy and destructive Indian war—the history of which we leave to the pen of some future historian. From the late successes of the Federal army, under the brave general Wayne, we may hope for an honourable peace.

The first and present governor of this territory, is the hon. Arthur St. Clair.

KENTUCKY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Length 250	Between $\left[\begin{array}{l} 80^{\circ} \text{ and } 15^{\circ} \text{ west long. from Philad.} \\ 36^{\circ} 30' \text{ and } 36^{\circ} 30' \text{ north latitude.} \end{array} \right]$	5,000
Breadth 200		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the north and west by the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, on the south by a parallel of latitude which divides it from the Tennessee government, and eastward by the Cumberland mountain and Great Sandy river.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] Kentucky originally consisted of but one county, called Kentucky, established in 1777, by the legislature of the state of Virginia, of which it then made a part. It has since, at different times, been subdivided into fifteen counties, viz. Jefferson, Lincoln, Fayette, Nelson, Mercer, Maddison, Woodford, Bourbon, Mason, Shelby, Scott, Clark, Logan, Green, and Franklin.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Frankfort, the capital of the state, is situated on the north bank of Kentucky river in Franklin county. The legislature and supreme courts of the state hold their sessions here. It is a flourishing town, regularly laid out, and containing many good houses. The capitol or state house, which is built of stone, is a very large and elegant building.

Lexington, the largest town in the state, is situated in Fayette county about twenty-four miles east of Frankfort, in the centre of a large body of the most fertile lands in the united states. It contains from fifteen hundred to two thousand inhabitants, and is increasing rapidly. This town affords a very agreeable society, being the residence of many genteel families. It contains upwards of forty stores with large assortments of dry goods. A college is established here.

Washington is situated in Mason county, about sixty miles northeast of Lexington. It is a flourishing town, and contains eight hundred inhabitants.

Louisville is at the rapids of the Ohio, in a fertile country, in Jefferson county. It has been made a port of entry, and promises to be a place of great trade, when the free use of the navigation of the Mississippi river shall be obtained. The situation is remarkably beautiful; but its unhealthiness, owing to some ponds of stagnated water in its neighbourhood, has considerably retarded its growth.

Beardstown, in Nelson county; Danville, and Harrodsburgh in Mercer; Georgetown in Scott county; and Versailles, in Woodford county, are towns established by law, and increasing fast.

RIVERS.] The river Ohio washes the northwest side of Kentucky, in its whole ex-

tent except about thirty miles, which is bounded by the Mississippi. Its principal branches, which water this fertile tract of country, are Sandy, Licking, Kentucky, Salt, Green and Cumberland rivers. These again branch in various directions, into rivulets of different magnitudes, fertilizing the country in all its parts. At the bottom of these water-courses, the lime-stone rock, which is common to this country, appears of a greyish colour, and where it lies exposed to the air, in its natural state, it looks like brown freestone. On the banks of the rivers and rivulets, this stone has the appearance of fine marble, being of the same texture, and is found in the greatest plenty.

Sandy, Licking, and Kentucky rivers, rise near each other, in the Cumberland mountains. Of these, Sandy river only breaks through the mountain.

Licking river runs in a northwest direction upwards of one hundred miles, and is about one hundred yards broad at its mouth.

Kentucky is a very crooked river, and after running a course of more than two hundred miles, empties into the Ohio, by a mouth one hundred and fifty yards broad.

Salt river rises at four different places near each other. The windings of this river are curious. The four branches, after a circuitous course round a fine tract of land, unite; and after running about fifteen miles from their junction empty into the Ohio, twenty miles below the falls. Its general course is westward—its length about ninety miles—and at its mouth it is one hundred yards wide.

Green river pursues a western course upwards of one hundred and fifty miles, and by a mouth, one hundred yards wide, falls into the Ohio, one hundred and twenty miles below the rapids.

Cumberland river interlocks with the northern branch of Kentucky, and rolling round the other arms of Kentucky, among the mountains, in a southern course, one hundred miles—then in a southwestern course for above two hundred more—then in a southern and southwestern course for about two hundred and fifty more, finds the Ohio, four hundred and thirteen miles below the falls. At Nashville, this river is two hundred yards broad, and at its mouth three hundred. This river in about half its course, passes through the territory south of the Ohio.

These are navigable for boats, almost to their sources, for the greatest part of the year. The little rivulets, which checker the country, begin to lessen in June, and some of them quite disappear in the months of September and October. The autumnal rains, however, in November, replenish them again. Mills are generally plentifully supplied with water nine months in the year, and many of them at all times. The country is generally well supplied with good springs; where there is a deficiency, good water can easily be procured by sinking wells.

The banks of the rivers are generally high and composed of lime stone. After heavy rains, the water in the rivers rises from ten to thirty feet.

SPRINGS.] Salt springs are already found in almost every part of the state. From these springs or licks, with proper management, salt may be made in sufficient quantities for the consumption of all the inhabitants the western country could support. Notwithstanding the high price of labour, and the imperfect manner in which the business of making salt has been carried on, yet the average price of that necessary article, at those licks, has, for several years past, been from one to two dollars per bushel. The most noted of these springs, or licks, are, one on Salt Lick creek near the Ohio, the upper and lower Blue Springs, on Licking river; Drennon's Lick on Kentucky river; Big Bone Lick, Long Lick, Bullett's Lick, and Mann's Lick. The method of procuring water from those Licks is, by sinking wells from twenty to forty feet deep. The water, drawn from these wells, is as strongly impregnated with salt, as sea water.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, } This whole country, as far as has yet been discovered,
 SOIL AND PRODUCE. } lies upon a bed of lime-stone, which, in general, is about six feet below the surface, except in the vallies, where the soil is much thinner. A tract of about twenty miles wide, along the banks of the Ohio, is hilly land, interspersed with many fertile spots. The rest of the country is agreeably uneven, gently ascending and descending at no great distances. The angles of ascent are from eight to twenty four degrees, and sometimes more. The vallies, in common are narrow, and the soil in them is of an inferior quality; and that along the ascending ground is frequently not much better; for, where you see a tree blow up, you find the roots clinging to the upper parts of the rock. The soil on these agreeable ascents, (for they cannot be called hills) is sufficiently deep, as is evident from the size of the trees. The soil is either black, or tinged with a lighter or deeper vermilion, or is of the colour of dark ashes. In many places, there are appearances of potters' clay, and coal in abundance. In Nelson county, northwest of Rolling fork, a branch of Salt river, is a tract of about forty miles square, mostly barren, interspersed with plains and strips of good land which are advantageous situations for raising cattle, as the neighbouring barrens, as they are improperly styled, are covered with grass, and afford good pasturage. The lands east of Nolin creek, a branch of Green river, are in general of an inferior quality; but the banks of Green river afford many desirable situations.

The country towards the head waters of Kentucky river, which interlock with the waters of Cumberland and Sandy rivers, eastward and southward, is broken, mountainous and almost impenetrable; and from the description given by hunters, it is much doubted, whether it will ever be practicable to make a passable road from Kentucky, across to Winchester, in Virginia, on the east side of the mountains, which, on a straight line, is not perhaps more than four hundred miles, and the way now travelled is six hundred.

Elkhorn river, a branch of the Kentucky, from the southeast, waters a country fine beyond description. Indeed, the country east and south of this, including the head waters of Licking river, Hickman's and Jessamine creeks, and the remarkable bend in Kentucky river, may be called an extensive garden. The soil is deep and black, and the natural growth, large walnuts, honey, and black locust, poplar, elm, oak, hickory, sugar-tree, &c. Grape-vines run to the top of the trees; and the surface of the ground is covered with clover, blue grass, and wild rye. On this fertile tract, the Licking river, the waters of Salt river and Dick's river, are the principal settlements in this country. The soil, within a mile or two of Kentucky river, is generally of the third and fourth rates; and as you advance towards the Ohio, the land is hilly.

Dick's river runs through a great body of first rate land, and affords many excellent mill seats. Salt river has good lands on its head waters, but for twenty five miles before it empties into the Ohio, the land on each side is level and poor, and abounds with ponds.

Cumberland river, so much of it as passes through Kentucky, traverses, some parts excepted, a hilly poor country.

Green river overflows its banks a considerable way up, at the season when the Ohio swells, which is in April. The swell in Green river occasions several of its branches to overflow and cover the low grounds with water, leaves, and vegetable substances, which in summer become noxious and unhealthy. Its banks are fine and fertile. There is a great body of good land near the rapids in the Ohio, on a creek called Bare grass; but the climate is rendered unhealthy by ponds of stagnated water, which may be easily drained.

This country in general is well timbered. Of the natural growth which is peculiar to it, we may reckon the sugar, the coffee, the papaw and the cucumber tree. The two last are soft wood, and bear a fruit of the shape and size of a cucumber. The

coffee tree resembles the black oak, and bears a pod, which encloses a seed, of which a drink is made not unlike coffee. Besides these, there is the honey locust, black mulberry, and wild cherry, of a large size. The buck-eye, an exceedingly soft wood, is the horse chestnut of Europe. The magnolia bears a beautiful blossom, of a rich and exquisite fragrance. Such is the variety and beauty of the flowering shrubs and plants which grow spontaneously in this country, that, in the proper season, the wilderness appears in blossom.

The accounts of the fertility of the soil in this country, have, in some instances, exceeded belief, and probably been exaggerated. That some parts of Kentucky, particularly the high grounds, are remarkably good, all accounts agree. The lands on the first rate are too rich for wheat, and will produce fifty and sixty, and in some instances, it is affirmed, one hundred bushels of good corn, an acre. In common, the land will produce thirty bushels of wheat or rye an acre. Barley, oats, cotton, flax, hemp and vegetables of all kinds, common in this climate yield abundantly. The old Virginia planters say, that if the climate does not prove too moist, few soils known, will yield more or better tobacco : and experience has proved, that the climate is not too moist. Great quantities of this article have been exported to France and Spain, through New-Orleans; and it is a well known fact, that Philadelphia is a profitable market for the Kentucky planter, notwithstanding all the inconveniences and expenses of re-shipment at New-Orleans, under a Spanish government. What advantages then may not this country expect, from a free navigation of the Mississippi, unrestrained by Spanish policy!

In the rivers are plenty of buffalo, pike and catfish of uncommon size, salmon, mullet, rock, perch, garfish, eel, suckers, sunfish, &c.—Shad have not been caught in the western waters.

Swamps are rare in Kentucky; and of course, the reptiles which they produce such as snakes, frogs, &c. are not numerous. The honey bee may be called a domestic insect, as it is said not to be found but in civilized countries. It was first imported into Kentucky, in 1780, and has since increased astonishingly.

The quadrupeds, except the buffalo, are the same as in Virginia and the Carolinas.

CLIMATE.] Healthy and delightful, some few places, in the neighbourhood of ponds and low grounds, excepted. The inhabitants do not experience the extremes of heat and cold. Snow seldom falls deep, or lies long.—The winter which begins about christmas, is never longer than three months, and is commonly but two, and is so mild that cattle can subsist without fodder.

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] The first settlement of this country commenced in the fall of the year 1775. By the census, taken by order of congress, in 1790, this state was returned as containing only seventy three thousand six hundred and seventy seven souls; but from the imperfect manner in which that enumeration was made, from the rapid increase of population, and from the continual migration from the other states to this country, it cannot be doubted, but that, in January, 1795, its inhabitants amounted to more than double that number. At least twenty thousand migrated there in the year 1794. These people, collected from different states, of different manners, customs, religions, and political sentiments, have not been long enough together to form a uniform national character. Among the settlers, there are many gentlemen of abilities, and many genteel families, from several of the states, who give dignity and respectability to the settlement. They are, in general, more regular than people who commonly settle new countries.

RELIGION.] All religions, that are consistent with the peace and order of society, are upon an equal footing here. The most numerous sects, are the presbyterians, baptist and methodists.

CONSTITUTION.] By the constitution of this state, formed and adopted in 1792, the powers of government are divided into three distinct departments; legislative,

executive, and judiciary. The legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives; the supreme executive in a governor; the judiciary, in the supreme court of appeals, and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The representatives are chosen annually, by the people; the senators and governor are chosen for four years, by electors appointed for that purpose; the judges are appointed during good behavior, by the governor, with advice of the senate. An enumeration of the free male inhabitants, above twenty-one years old, is to be made once in four years. After each enumeration, the number of senators and representatives is to be fixed by the legislature, and apportioned among the several counties, according to the number of inhabitants. There can never be fewer than forty, nor more than one hundred representatives. The senate at first consisted of eleven members; and for the addition of every four representatives, one senator is to be added. The representatives must be twenty-four years old; the senators twenty-seven; the governor thirty, and all of them must have been inhabitants of the state two years. The governor can hold no other office; the members of the general assembly none but those of attorney at law, justice of the peace, coroner, and in the militia. The judges, and all other officers, must be inhabitants of the counties for which they are appointed. The governor, members of the general assembly, and judges, receive stated salaries out of the public treasury, from which no money can be drawn but in consequence of appropriation by law. All officers take an oath of fidelity to discharge the duties of their offices, and are liable to impeachment for misconduct. Elective officers must swear that they have not used bribery in obtaining their elections. All free male citizens, twenty-one years old, having resided in the state two years, or in the county where they offer to vote, one year, have a right to vote for representatives, and for electors of senators and governor, and are privileged from arrests in civil actions, while attending that business. The general assembly meets on the first Monday in November, in each year, unless sooner convened by the governor. Each house chooses its speaker and other officers, judges of the qualifications of its members, and determines the rules of its proceedings, of which a journal is kept and published weekly, unless in cases where secrecy is requisite. The doors of both houses are kept open. The members of the legislature, while attending the public business, are privileged from arrests in civil actions, and may not be questioned elsewhere for any thing said in public debate. Impeachments are made by the lower house, and tried by the upper. All revenue bills originate in the house of representatives, and are amendable by the senate, like other bills. Each bill, passed by both houses, is presented to the governor, who must sign it if he approve it; if not he must return it, within ten days, to the house in which it originated; if it be not returned, or if, when returned, it be re-passed by two thirds of both houses, it is a law without his signature. The governor has power to appoint most of the executive officers of the state; to remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachment; to require information from executive officers; to convene the general assembly on extraordinary occasions, and adjourn them in case they cannot agree on the time themselves. He must inform the legislature of the state of the commonwealth; recommend to them such measures as he shall judge expedient; and see that the laws are faithfully executed. The speaker of the senate exercises the office of governor in cases of vacancy. The legislature has power to forbid the farther importation of slaves, but not to emancipate those already in the state, without the consent of the owner, or paying an equivalent. Treason against the commonwealth consists only in levying war against it, or in adhering to its enemies, or giving them aid and comfort.

The declaration of rights asserts the civil equality of all, their right to alter the government at any time; liberty of conscience, freedom of elections, and of the press; trial by jury; the subordination of the military to the civil power: the right

of criminals to be heard in their own defence ; the right of the people to petition for the redress of grievances, to bear arms, and to emigrate from the state. It prohibits unreasonable searches and seizures ; excessive bail ; confinement of debtors, unless there be presumption of fraud ; suspension of the *habeas corpus* writ unless in rebellion or invasion ; *ex post facto* laws ; attainder by the legislature ; standing armies ; titles of nobility and hereditary distinctions.

LITERATURE.] The legislature of Virginia, while Kentucky belonged to that state, made provision for a college in it, and endowed it with very considerable landed funds. Therev. John Todd gave a very handsome library for its use. Schools are established in the several towns and, in general, regularly and handsomely supported.

USEFUL ESTABLISHMENTS.] In this state are two printing offices. There is one newspaper published, and another projected. There are erected iron works, a paper mill, oil mills, fulling mills, saw mills, and a great number of valuable grist mills. They have established several excellent tanneries, in different parts of the country ; also, an extensive nail manufactory, in Lexington. Their salt works are more than sufficient to supply all the inhabitants, at low price. Considerable quantities of sugar are made from the sugar trees.

CURIOSITIES.] The banks, or rather precipices of Kentucky and Dick's river, are to be reckoned among the natural curiosities of this country. Here the astonished eye beholds three or four hundred feet of solid, perpendicular rock, in some parts, of the limestone kind, and in others of fine greyish coloured marble, curiously checkered with strata of astonishing regularity. These rivers have the appearance of deep artificial canals. Their high rocky banks are covered with red cedar groves.

Caves have been discovered in this country, of several miles in length, under a fine limestone rock, supported by curious arches and pillars. Springs, that emit sulphureous matter have been found in several parts, of the country. One is near a salt spring in the neighbourhood of Boonsborough. There are three springs or ponds of bitumen near Green river, which do not form a stream, but empty themselves into a common reservoir and, in lamps, answer all the purposes of the best oil. Copperas, allum, lead, and iron ore are among the minerals of Kentucky. Near Lexington are found curious sepulchres full of human skeletons. The remains of regular fortifications apparently of great antiquity, are frequently to be met with here. And bones of an enormous size, found in the Big Bone lick, and supposed to be the bones of the mamouth, are among the curiosities of Kentucky.

HISTORY.] This country was well known to the Indian traders many years before its settlement. They gave a description of it to Lewis Evans, who published his first map of it as early as the year 1752. James Macbride, with some others, explored this country in 1754. Col. Daniel Boon visited it in 1769. A few years after, col. Boon and his family, with five other families, who were joined by forty men from Powle's valley, began the settlement of Kentucky, which is now one of the most growing colonies, perhaps, in the world, and was erected into an independent state, by act of congress, December 6th, 1790, and received into the union, June 1st, 1792.

TERRITORY SOUTH OF THE OHIO,

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
 Length 400]
 Breadth 104] between [6° 20' and 16° 30' west long. from Philad
 [35° and 63° 3' north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by Virginia and Kentucky on the north; by North-Carolina on the east; by South-Carolina and Georgia on the south; and by the river Mississippi, which separates it from the Spanish province of Louisiana, on the west.

DIVISIONS.] It is divided into three districts, Washington, Hamilton, and Mero, containing ten counties, Washington, Sullivan, Greene, Hawkins, Knox, Jefferson, Sevier, Davidson, Sumner, and Tennessee.

RIVERS.] There are few countries so well intersected by creeks and rivers; the principal are the Mississippi, Tennessee, Cumberland, Holston, Clinch, Wolf, Hatchee, Forked Deer, Obion, and Reel-foot.

The Tennessee, called by the French "Cherokee," is the most considerable river that empties into the Ohio, about sixty miles above its junction with the Mississippi. It rises in South Carolina, runs northwardly to meet the Holston, then takes a westwardly direction, and again a northern one to its mouth. It is navigable for vessels of great burden to Muscle Shoals; at these shoals the river is very wide, and forms a number of islands, and can only be navigated in small boats; but higher up, it is navigable, for a considerable distance, by large boats. At the place where this river runs through the Cumberland mountain, there is a kind of whirlpool occasioned by the narrowness of the river, and by the rapidity of its current striking against a point of the mountain, which makes a bend, and forces the water back.

Holston the largest northern branch of the Tennessee, heads in Virginia, and receives before its junction with the Tennessee, the waters of several considerable rivers, viz. Nollichucke, Watauga, French-broad, and Little river. It is navigable at a great distance above Knoxville.

Clinch runs into Tennessee below the mouth of Holston. Emery river is a branch of Clinch.

Elk river empties into the Tennessee above the muscle Shoals, and Duck river below them.

Cumberland river, formerly called "Shawnee," and by the French, "Shavanon," discharges its waters in the Ohio, ten miles above the mouth of the Tennessee; it is navigable for large vessels to Nashville, and from thence to the mouth of Obed's river. The Caine fork, Harpeth, Stone river, Red river, and Obed's river, are branches of the Cumberland, some of them navigable a great distance up.

Wolf, Hatchee, Forked-deer, Obion, and Reel-foot rivers discharge themselves immediately into the Mississippi. These rivers in general are deep, flow with a gentle current, and are unincumbered with rocks and rapids; most of them have exceedingly rich low grounds, at the extremity of which is a second bank, as on most of the lands of the Mississippi. Besides these rivers, there are several smaller ones, and innumerable creeks, some of which are navigable; in short, there is hardly a spot in this country which is upwards of twenty miles distant from a navigable stream.

MOUNTAINS.] Yellow, Bald, Iron, and Uncka mountains, adjoining to one another, form the eastern boundary of the territory, and separate it from North-Carolina; their direction is nearly south-west.

Clinch mountain divides the waters of Holston and Clinch rivers, and Cumberland mountain separates the western inhabitants of this government from the eastern ones.

TOWNS.] Knoxville, the capital and seat of government, established by William Blount, esquire, first governor of the territory, is situate in a beautiful spot, on the north bank of Holston river, a few miles below the mouth of French-broad. At this town a treaty was held by governor Blount, in 1791, with the chiefs and head warriors of the Cherokee nation; it is the residence of the public officers of government; a printing office is established here, and the inhabitants enjoy the advantage of a communication with every part of the united states by post. The superior court of law, the court of equity for Hamilton district, and the court of common pleas and quarter sessions for Knox county, are held in this town, which is in a very flourishing situation.

Nashville, on the south bank of Cumberland river, is the district town of Mero; the courts of the district and of the county of Davidson, are held here; it has also an academy, very richly endowed, called the Davidson academy.

Jonesborough, the capital of Washington district, is the seat of the courts of the district and county of Washington.

There are several other small towns, as yet not of sufficient importance to merit enumeration.

POPULATION.] By the returns made to congress, of the census taken in the summer of 1791, the number of inhabitants was carried to thirty five thousand six hundred and ninety one: but from the greater numbers of people migrating annually to this country, from various parts of the united states, it is generally believed that its population amounts now to upwards of fifty thousand.

GOVERNMENT.] This territory was, until lately, immediately under the government of the congress of the united states. A governor, who is also superintendent of the southern Indians, is appointed, for three years, by the president of the united states.

A secretary of the territory, and three judges of the superior courts of law, are appointed in the same manner. All these officers are paid out of the treasury of the united states:

The laws of North-Carolina, enacted before the year 1790, are here in force, as also the ordinance of congress of 1787, for the government of the territory north-west of the Ohio; besides, the governor, with the judges, had the power to adopt, from time to time, such ordinances and regulations, in force in any of the states, as they might deem necessary for the better government of the territory, copies of which were sent to congress, and had the force of laws, if not disapproved. But since the establishment of the assembly, legislation rests with this body, who elect a delegate to congress, with the right of debating, but not of voting, during the temporary government.

The judges hold two superior courts of law, and two courts of equity, in each of the three districts, annually. There are, besides, quarterly courts of pleas and quarter sessions, in each county: we are informed, that in no part, of the united states is justice better administered, or courts held with greater decorum.

ROADS.] From Knoxville to Philadelphia, six hundred and fifty miles—by Rogersville, Rofs' furnace, Abingdon, English's ferry, on New river, Big-lick, Peytonburg, Rockbridge, Lexington, Staunton, New Market, Winchester, Frederick town, York and Lancaster.

From Knoxville to Richmond in Virginia, four hundred and forty-nine miles—

Long-Island, on Holston,	100 miles.	Liberty town,	28 miles.
Abingdon,	43	New-London,	15
Fort Chiffel,	64	Floods,	34
English's ferry, on new river,	24	Powhatan court-house,	65
Montgomery town,	11	Richmond,	32
Big-lick,	33		

There are very good waggon roads, and the price of transportation of goods, from Richmond to Knoxville, does not usually exceed four dollars per hundred weight.

From Knoxville to Nashville, one hundred and eighty-three miles——

South-west Point garrison, on Clinch,	35 miles.	
Big Salt-lick garrison, on Cumberland,	80	—No waggon road this distance.
Bledsoe-lick,	32	
Nashville,	36	

From Nashville to Lexington, in Kentucky, one hundred and ninety miles——

Three forks of Red river,	28 miles.	Danville,	50 miles.
Big Barren river,	32	Lexington,	35
Green river,	45		

A very good road might be opened from Nashville to New-Orleans, the country being generally level, and the distance would not be above four hundred and fifty miles; but as the greatest part of this country is not yet settled, there is at present only a path for pack-horses, leading through the Chickasaw and Choctaw nations, who have always been very friendly and hospitable to the boatmen from the Ohio and Cumberland, returning from New-Orleans by land.

It would be a very easy matter to cut a waggon-road from Nashville to the mouth of Ocochappo, or Bear creek, that empties into the Tennessee, just below the Muscle Shoals, and from thence to the settlements on Mobile river. A tract of land at the mouth of Ocochappo was ceded to the united states by the southern Indians, at the treaty of Hopewell, in 1786, for the special purpose of holding treaties, and of establishing trading posts. It is about four hundred and fifty miles by water from Nashville to the Illinois villages; the voyage is commonly made in nine days.

TREES AND PLANTS.] The general growth is poplar, hickory, black and white walnut, all kinds of oaks, buck-eye, beach, fycamore, black and honey locust, ash, hornbeam, elm, mulberry, cherry, dogwood, sassafras, and the sugar tree. The under-growth in many places, and especially in low grounds, is cane, some of which is upwards of twenty feet high, and so thick as to prevent any other plant growing; there are also Virginia and Seneca snake-root, ginseng, angelica, spice wood, wild plum, crab-apple, pappaw, sweet anise, red bud, ginger, spikenard, wild hope, and grape vines. The glades are covered with wild rye, wild oats, clover, buffaloe grass, strawberries and pea vines. On the hills, at the head of rivers, and in some high cliffs of Cumberland, are found majestic red cedars; many of these trees are four feet in diameter, and forty feet clear of limbs.

GAME AND FISH.] Buffaloe, elk, deer, and bear, are numerous; as also beavers, otters, panthers, wild-cats, musk rats, raccoons, foxes, wolves and squirrels; pheasants, partridges, pigeons, swans, wild turkies, ducks and geese in great abundance. The rivers are well stocked with all kinds of fresh-water fish; among which are, the trout, perch, cat-fish, buffaloe-fish, red horse, eels, &c. Some cat-fish have been caught, that weighed upwards of one hundred pounds; and the western waters being generally more pure and clear than the eastern rivers, the fish are in the same degree more firm and savoury to the taste.

SPRINGS, SALINES, MINES, } This country is well provided with springs of the
AND MINERALS. } purest limestone water. Some are found in caves and natural grottos, others descend in cascades from high mountains. Salt springs and salt licks are found in every part of this country. Several salt works have been erected, but not having been as yet judiciously managed, the salt made at these works does not sell for less than one dollar per bushel. When these works shall be improved, it is probable salt will be sold at nearly the same price as within fifty or sixty miles from the sea ports.

The country abounds with iron-ore; a capital furnace and several bloomeries have been erected on Holston; there are also several lead mines, one in particular on French Broad, that produces seventy-five per cent. in pure lead.

Some of the Indians know of a very rich silver mine in the neighbourhood of Cumberland mountain; but it has been impossible to prevail upon them to discover it.

On the waters of French Broad river, is a fine large clear medicinal warm spring. Numbers of persons, from the Carolinas and the southern parts of Virginia, have experienced its salutary effects in various complaints. When the virtue of its water shall be more extensively known, this spring will probably be as much resorted to as those of the back parts of Virginia, being more convenient to the southern states. The heat of the water is such, that at first going into it, it is hardly supportable.

Saltpetre caves are found in many parts of the country, and copperas and allum fit for use, have been gathered in caves, in the neighbourhood of Knoxville.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] The soil is luxuriant, and produces tobacco, cotton, indigo, Indian corn, hemp, flax, rice, wheat, rye, oats, barley, and all kinds of vegetables, in the highest perfection. In short, this territory will produce every plant, vegetable and grain, the growth of any of the united states. The usual crop of cotton is eight hundred pounds to the acre; the staple is long and fine. They gather from sixty to eighty bushels of corn on an acre of ground. It is asserted, however, that the lands on the small rivers that run into the Mississippi, have a decided preference to those on the Cumberland river, for the production of cotton, rice, and indigo.

CLIMATE.] The climate is temperate and healthy; the summers are very cool and pleasant, in that part which is contiguous to the mountains that divide this territory from North-Carolina; but on the western side of the Cumberland mountain, the heat is more intense, which renders that part better calculated for the production of tobacco, cotton, and indigo.

The piercing northerly winds that prevail, during the winter, in the Atlantic states, seldom molest the inhabitants on Cumberland river; for they have no great mountains to the north or the westward. The inhabitants of the Atlantic states are also subject to sudden changes in the atmosphere, arising from their vicinity to the ocean. The air that comes from the surface of the sea, especially from the warm gulf stream in winter, must be very different in its temperature from the air that comes across cold and high mountains; but the great distance between the Cumberland settlers and the ocean, considering that many great mountains intervene, effectually secures them against the bad effects of those sudden changes. North-easterly storms never reach this country.

Other circumstances present themselves, by which we may account for the remarkable healthiness of this country. Limestone is common on both sides of Cumberland mountain. There are no stagnant waters; and this is certainly one of the reasons why the inhabitants are not afflicted with those bilious and intermitting fevers, which are so frequent and often fatal near the same latitude on the coast in the southern states. Whether it proceeds from the goodness of the water, the purity of the air, the temperature of the climate, or whatever may have been the cause, the inhabitants have certainly been remarkably healthy, ever since they settled on the waters of Cumberland river.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Besides the iron and salt works, already mentioned, there is a cotton manufactory, established in the neighbourhood of Nashville, under the direction of some capital workmen from Manchester; the country abounding in flax and cotton, the establishment will certainly prove of great consequence. The exports consist of all the productions of the soil, besides bar-iron, castings, lead, deer skins, and fur, ginseng, beef, cattle, flour, barrelled pork and beef, and very fine

waggon and saddle horses, which may be driven, as well as the cattle, to any of the markets of the united states.

This territory is more conveniently situated for the navigation of the Mississippi than any of the settlements of the united states, being much nearer to New Orleans, which will, at a future day, probably become, by its situation, the general emporium of all the western country.

HISTORY.] This territory was included within the limits of Carolina, by the charter granted by Charles the second. In the subsequent division of that province, it remained a part of North-Carolina. In 1776, there were hardly two thousand persons on the eastern side of Cumberland mountain. James Robertson, esq. now brigadier general of Mew district, in the year 1780, crossed over the Cumberland mountain, with a few families under his direction, whom he settled at the French Lick, now the town of Nashville. In 1783, the legislature of North-Carolina laid off a part of the lands on the western side of Cumberland mountain, for the officers and soldiers of the continental line, and included the infant colony of governor Robertson in it, allowing to each settler pre-emption rights. At the same session, they enacted a law, opening a land office for the sale of all the unappropriated lands, not within the military boundaries. In 1789, the state of North-Carolina, at the desire of the inhabitants, ceded to the united states all this rich and extensive territory, under the special restriction, that all appropriations, made by North-Carolina, should be confirmed to the proprietors.

I N D I A N A.

INDIANA, so called, is a tract of land lying on the Ohio river, in the state of Virginia, ceded to William Trent and twenty-two others, by the Six Nations and the Shawanese, Delaware and Huron tribes, as a compensation for the losses they had sustained by the depredations of the latter, in the year 1763. This cession was made in a congress of the representatives of the Six Nations, at Fort Stanwix, by an indenture, signed the 3d of November, 1768, witnessing, "That for and in consideration of eighty-five thousand nine hundred and sixteen pounds ten shillings and eightpence, York currency, (the same being the amount of the goods seized and taken by said Indians from said Trent, &c.) they did grant, bargain, sell, &c. to his majesty, his heirs and successors, for the only use of the said William Trent, &c. all that tract or parcel of land, beginning at the southerly side of the Little Kanhaway creek, where it empties itself into the river Ohio; and running then south-east to the Laurel-Hill; thence along the Laurel-Hill until it strikes the river Monongahela; thence down the stream of the said river, according to the several courses thereof, to the southern boundary line of the province of Pennsylvania; thence westwardly along the course of the said province boundary line, as far as the same shall extend; thence by the same course to the river Ohio, and then down the river Ohio to the place of beginning, inclusively." This indenture was signed by six Indian chiefs, in presence of sir William Johnson, governor Franklin of New Jersey, and the commissioners from Virginia, Pennsylvania, &c. making twelve in the whole.

Since the Indians had an undisputed title to the above limited territory, either from pre-occupancy or conquest, and their right was expressly acknowledged by the above deed of cession to the crown, it is very evident that Mr. Trent, in his own right, and as attorney for the traders, has a good, lawful and sufficient title to the land granted by the said deed of conveyance.

This matter was laid before congress in the year 1782, and a committee appointed to consider it; who, in May, reported as follows: "On the whole, your committee are of opinion, that the purchases of colonel Croghan and the Indiana company, were made *bona fide* for a valuable consideration, according to the then usage and customs of purchasing Indian lands from the Indians, with the knowledge, consent and approbation of the crown of Britain, the then government of New-York and Virginia, and therefore, do recommend, that it be

"Resolved, that if the said lands are finally ceded or adjudged to the united states in point of jurisdiction, that congress will confirm to such of the said purchasers who are, and shall be, citizens of the united states, or either of them, their respective shares and proportions of said lands, making a reasonable deduction for the value of the quit-rents reserved by the crown of England."

Notwithstanding this report of the committee, the question could never be brought to a decision before congress. The federal constitution has, however, made provision for the determination of this business before the supreme federal court. But previous to an appeal to this court, the proprietors thought proper, by their agent, colonel Morgan, (who is also a proprietor) to present a memorial to the legislature of Virginia, setting forth their claims, and praying that the business might be equitably settled. This memorial was presented in November, 1790; and thus the Indiana business rests for the present.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 500	} between	{	5 and 16 W. longitude from Phila.	} 100,000
Breadth 440				

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country is bounded by Georgia on the north; by the Mississippi, on the west; by the gulf of Mexico on the south; and by the Bahama straits on the east.

RIVERS.] The Mississippi, which forms the western boundary of Florida, is one of the finest rivers in the world, as well as the largest; for, including its turnings and windings, it is supposed to run a course of 4500 miles; but its mouths are in a manner choaked up with sands and shoals, which deny access to vessels of any considerable burden; there being, according to Mitchel's map, only twelve feet water over the bar (captain Pitman says seventeen) at the principal entrance. Within the bar, there is one hundred fathom water, and the channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain season, when, like the Nile, it overflows, and becomes extremely rapid. It is, except the entrance already mentioned, every-where free from shoals and cataracts, and navigable for craft of one kind or other almost to its source. The Mobile, the Apalachicola, and St. John's rivers, are also large and noble streams.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are, St. Bernard's, Ascension, Mobile, Pensacola, Dauphin, Joseph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Sancto, and Charles' bay.

The chief capes are, cape Blanco, Sambles, Anclote, St. Augustine, and cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninsula.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Though the air is here very warm, the heats are much allayed by cool breezes from the seas, which environ and wash a considerable part of this

country. The inland countries, towards the north, feel a little of the roughness of the north-west wind, which, more or less, diffuses its chilling breath over the continent of North-America; carrying frost and snow many degrees more to the southward in these regions, than the north-east wind does in Europe. That the air of Florida is pure and wholesome, appears from the size, vigour and longevity of the Floridian Indians, who, in these respects, far exceed their more southern neighbours the Mexicans; and, when the Spaniards quitted St. Augustine, many of them were of great age, some above ninety.

SOIL PRODUCTIONS, AND] Many of the disadvantages indiscriminately imputed
FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] to the soil of the whole country should be confined to East-Florida, which indeed near the sea, and for forty miles back, is flat and sandy. But even the country round St. Augustine, in all appearance, the worst in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a year. The garden vegetables are in great perfection. The orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation, to a larger size and produce better fruit than in Spain or Portugal. The inland country towards the hills is extremely rich and fertile, producing spontaneously the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinians; and is likewise favourable to the rearing of European productions. There is not, on the whole continent of America, any place better qualified by nature to afford, not only all the necessaries of life, but also all the pleasures of habitation, than that part of this country which lies upon the banks of the Mississippi.

From the climate of Florida and some specimen sent to England, there is reason to expect that cotton, sugar, wine, and silk would grow here as well as in Persia, India, and China, which are in the same latitudes. This country also produces rice, indigo, ambergris, cochineal, amethysts, turquoises, lapis lazuli, and other precious stones; copper, quick-silver, pit-coal, and iron ore: pears are found in great abundance on the coast, mahogany grows on the southern parts of the peninsula, but inferior, in size and quality, to that of Jamaica. It has been asserted, that a good saddle horse may be purchased for goods of five shillings value prime cost; and that there are instances of horses being exchanged for a hatchet per head. West Florida has already supplied Spain with considerable quantities of naval stores. It is said that no province can more profitably furnish Madeira with corn and pipe-staves than this and in return supply itself and other provinces with wines. The fisheries might likewise be rendered here very profitable; as might also the fur trade, and various other branches of commerce. The live oaks, though not tall, contain a prodigious quantity of timber. The trunk is generally from twelve to twenty feet in circumference, and rises ten or twelve feet from the earth, and then branches into four or five great limbs, which grow in nearly a horizontal direction forming a gentle curve. "I have stepped," says Bartram, "above fifty paces on a straight line from the trunk of one of these trees to the extremity of the limbs." They are ever green, and the wood almost incorruptible. They bear great quantity of small acorns, which is agreeable food when roasted, and from which the Indians extract a sweet oil, which they use in cooking homminy and rice.

POPULATION AND CHIEF TOWNS.] Notwithstanding the luxuriancy of the soil, the salubrity of the air, the cheapness and plenty of provisions, and the encouragement of the British government, the number of the English inhabitants here was never very considerable. Indeed the affairs of the colony appear to have been injudiciously managed.

The chief town, in West Florida, is Pensacola, N. lat. $30^{\circ} 22'$; W. lon. from Philadelphia, $12^{\circ} 20'$, which is seated within the bay of the same name on a sandy shore that can only be approached by small vessels. The road is however, one of the best in the gulf of Mexico, in which vessels may lie in safety against every wind; being surrounded by land on all sides. This place sent in skins, logwood, dying stuff, and silver in dollars, to the annual value of sixty-three thousand pounds, and received of British

manufactures, at an average of three years, to the value of ninety-seven thousand pounds.

St. Augustine, the capital of East-Florida, N. lat. $29^{\circ} 45'$; W. lon. $6^{\circ} 12'$, from Philad. runs along the shore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular streets crossing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with bastions, and enclosed with a ditch. It is likewise defended by a castle called Fort St. John; and the whole is furnished with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the North and South breakers, forming two channels, whose bars, at low tides, have eight feet water.

HISTORY.] The Floridas have experienced the vicissitudes of war, and frequently, changed Masters, belonging alternately to the French and Spaniards. West Florida, as far east as Perdido river, was owned and occupied by the French; the remainder, and all East Florida, by the Spaniards, previous to their being ceded at the peace of 1763, to the English, who divided this country into East and West Florida. During the last war, they were reduced by the arms of the king of Spain, and guaranteed to him by the definitive treaty of 1783.

L O U I S I A N A.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the Mississippi east; by the Gulf of Mexico south; by New Mexico west; and runs indefinitely north. Under the French government, Louisiana included both sides of the Mississippi, from its mouth to the Illinois, and back from the river, east and west indefinitely.

RIVERS.] It is intersected by a number of fine rivers, among which are, St. Francis, which empties into the Mississippi, at Kappas Old Fort, navigable about two hundred and fifty, or three hundred miles; its course is nearly parallel with the Mississippi, and from twenty to thirty miles distant from it. The Natchitoches, which empties into the Mississippi above Point Coupee, and the Adayes or Mexico river, emptying into the Gulf of Mexico, and the river Rouge; on which are said to be as rich silver mines as any in Mexico. This is supposed to be one principal reason, why the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi has been so much insisted on by Spain.

CAPITAL.] New-Orleans. It stands on the east side of the Mississippi, one hundred and five miles from its mouth, in latitude $30^{\circ} 2'$ north. It lately contained about eleven hundred houses, seven eighths of which were consumed by fire, in the space of five hours, on the 19th of March, 1788. It has been since re-built. But accounts are just received, as this sheet is going to press, of a second fire, which on the 8th of December, 1794, consumed about four hundred houses. Its advantages for trade are very great. Situated on a noble river, in a fertile and healthy country, within a week's sail of Mexico, by sea, and as near to the British, French, and Spanish West-India islands, with a moral certainty of its becoming the general receptacle for the produce of that extensive and valuable country, on the Mississippi and Ohio, these circumstances are sufficient to ensure its future growth and commercial importance.

RELIGION, GOVERNMENT, &c.] The greater part of the white inhabitants are Roman catholics. They are governed by a viceroy from Spain, and the number of inhabitants are unknown.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] Louisiana is agreeably situated between the extremes of heat and cold. Its climate varies as it extends towards the north. The southern parts, lying within the reach of the refreshing breezes from the sea, are not scorched like those under the same latitudes in Africa; and its northern regions are colder than those of Europe, under the same parallels, with a wholesome serene air. To judge of the produce to be expected from the soil of Louisiana, let us turn our eyes to Egypt, Arabia Felix, Persia, India, China, and Japan, all lying in corresponding latitudes. Of these, China alone has a tolerable government; and yet it must

acknowledged, they all are, or have been, famous for their riches and fertility. From the favourableness of the climate two annual crops of Indian corn may be produced; and the soil with little cultivation would furnish grain, of every kind, in the greatest abundance. Their timber is as fine as any in the world, and the quantities of live oak, ash, mulberry, walnut, cherry, cypress, and cedar, are astonishing. The neighbourhood of the Mississippi, besides, furnishes the richest fruits in great variety. The soil is particularly adapted for hemp, flax, and tobacco; and indigo is at this time, a staple commodity, which commonly yields the planter three or four cuttings, a year. In a word, whatever is rich and rare in the most agreeable climates in Europe, seems to be the spontaneous production of this delightful country. The Mississippi and the neighbouring lakes, furnish, in great plenty, several sorts of fish, particularly perch, pike, sturgeon, and eels.

In the northern parts of Louisiana, forty-five miles below the mouth of the Ohio river, on the west bank of the Mississippi, a settlement has been attempted by colonel Morgan, of New-Jersey, under the patronage of the Spanish king. The spot on which the city is proposed to be built is called New-Madrid, after the capital of Spain, and is in north latitude 36° 30'.

HISTORY.] The Mississippi, on which the fine country of Louisiana is situated, was first discovered by Ferdinand de Soto, in 1541. Monsieur de la Salle was the first who traversed it. He, in the year 1682, having passed down the mouth of the Mississippi, and surveyed the adjacent country, returned to Canada, from whence he took passage to France.

From the flattering accounts which he gave of the country, and the advantages that would accrue from settling a colony in those parts, Louis XIV. was induced to establish a company for that purpose. Accordingly, a squadron of four vessels, amply provided with men and provisions, under the command of Monsieur de la Salle, embarked with an intention to settle near the mouth of the Mississippi. But he unintentionally failed a hundred leagues to the westward of it, where he attempted to establish a colony; but through the unfavourableness of the climate, the most of his men miserably perished; and he himself was murdered, not long after, by two of his own men. Monsieur Iberville succeeded him in his laudable attempts. He, after two successful voyages, died while preparing for a third. Crozat succeeded him, and in 1712, the King gave him Louisiana. This grant continued but a short time after the death of Louis XIV. In 1763 Louisiana was ceded to the king of Spain, to whom it now belongs.

NEW-MEXICO INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles,	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length, 2000 Breadth, 1600	between [19 and 51 W. long. from Philad.] [23 and 43 N. latitude.]	600,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by unknown lands on the north; by Louisiana, on the east; by Old-Mexico, and the Pacific ocean, on the south; and by the same ocean, on the west.

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
New-Mexico Proper - - -	SANTA FE, W. lon. from Philad. 29°; N. lat. 36°.
Apacheira, - - - - -	St. Antonio.
Sonora, - - - - -	Tuape.
California, a peninsula, - -	St. Juan.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] These countries lying, for the most part, within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable; and the soil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California, however, the heat is great in summer, particularly towards the sea coast; but in the inland country, the climate is more temperate, and, in winter, even cold.

FACE AND PRODUCE OF THE COUNTRY.] The natural history of these countries is yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themselves know little of the matter, and that little they are unwilling to communicate, being jealous of revealing the natural advantages of these countries, which might be an inducement to other nations to form settlements there. It is certain, however, that in general, the provinces of New-Mexico and California are extremely beautiful and pleasant, the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, intersected by rivers and adorned with gentle eminences, covered with various kinds of trees, some producing excellent fruit. With respect to the value of the gold mines, nothing positive can be asserted. These provinces have undoubtedly enough of natural productions to render them advantageous colonies to any industrious nation. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, remaining on the rose leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having all the sweetness of refined sugar, without its whiteness. There is also another very singular natural production; in the heart of the country there are plains of salt, quite firm and clear as crystal, which, considering the vast quantities of fish found in its coasts, might render it an invaluable acquisition to an enterprising nation.

INHABITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT,] The Spanish settlements here are comparatively weak, though they are increasing every day in proportion as new mines are discovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spanish missionaries have, in many places converted to christianity and to a civilized life; and taught to raise corn and wine, which they now export to Old-Mexico. California was discovered by Cortez, the conqueror of Mexico. Sir Francis Drake took possession of it, in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king, or chief of the whole country. This title, however, the government of Great Britain has not hitherto attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably situated for trade, and on its coasts has a pearl fishery of great value. The inhabitants and government do not materially differ from those of Old Mexico.

OLD-MEXICO OR NEW-SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000] between [8 and 35 W. lon. from Philad. 8 and 30 N. lat.] 318,000
Breadth 600		

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by New-Mexico, or Granada, on the north; by the Gulf of Mexico, on the north east: by Terra Firma, on the south-east; and by the Pacific Ocean, on the south-west. It contains three audiences.

Audiences.

Provinces.

Chief Towns.

I. GALICIA.

- 1. Guadalajara,
- 2. Zacatecas,
- 3. New Biscay,
- 4. Cinolea,
- 5. Culiacan,
- 6. Charmetlan,
- 7. Xalisco,

- Guadalajara.
- Zacatecas.
- St. Barbara.
- Cinolea.
- Culiacan.
- Charmetlan.
- Xalisco.

II. MEXICO.

- 1. Mexico,
- 2. Mechoacan,
- 3. Panuco,
- 4. Tlascala,
- 5. Guaxaca,
- 6. Tobasco,
- 7. Jucatan,
- 8. Chiapa,
- 9. Soconusco,

- Mexico, Acapulco.
- Mechoacan.
- Tampico.
- Tlascala, Vera Cruz.
- Guaxaca.
- Tobasco.
- Campeachy.
- Chiapa.
- Soconusco.

III. GUATIMALA.

- 1. Verapaz,
- 2. Guatimala,
- 3. Honduras,
- 4. Nicaragua,
- 5. Costa Rica,
- 6. Veragua,

- Verapaz.
- Guatimala*.
- Valladolid.
- Leon.
- Nycoya.
- Santa Fee.

BAYS.] On the North Sea are the gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific Ocean, or South-Sea, are the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco, and Salinas.

CAPES.] These are Cape Sardo, Cape St. Martin, Cape Condecedo, Cape Catache, Cape Honduras, Cape Cameron, and Cape Gracias a Dios, in the North Sea. Cape Marques, Cape Spirit Santo, Cape Orientes, Cape Gallero, Cape Blanco, Cape Bu-rica, Cape Pruceos, and Cape Malta, in the South Sea.

WINDS.] In the Gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent seas, there are strong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail every-where at a distance from land, within the tropics. Near the coast, in the South Sea, they have periodical winds, viz. monsoons, and sea and land breezes, as in Asia.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Mexico, lying for the most part within the torrid zone, is excessively hot; and on the eastern coast, where the lands are low, is marshy, constantly flooded in the rainy seasons, and extremely wholesome. The inland country, however, assumes a better aspect, and the air is of a milder temperature; on the west-ern side, the land is not so low as on the eastern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The soil of Mexico, in general, has much variety, and would not refuse any sort of grain, if the industry of the inhabitants corresponded with their natural ad-vantages.

PRODUCE.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. The pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts, are here in the greatest plenty and perfection. Mexico produces also a prodigious quantity of sugar, especially towards the Gulf of Mexico, and the province of Gau-xaca and Guatimala. Cedar trees and log-wood flourish much, about the bays Cam-peachy and Honduras, as does the maho tree, which hath a bark with strong fibres,

* This city was swallowed up by an earthquake on the 7th of June, 1773, when eight thousand families instantly perished. New-Guatimala is built at some distance, and is well inhabited.

which they twist and make ropes of. They have also a tree, which is called light-wood, being as light as a cork, of which they make floats to carry their merchandise on the sea-coasts.

But the chief advantage of the country, and what first induced the Spaniards to settle upon it, are the mines of gold and silver. The chief of the former are in Vera-gua in New Granada, bordering upon Darien and Terra Firma. Those of silver, which are more rich and numerous, are found in several parts; but chiefly in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always discovered in the most barren and mountainous part of the country; nature making amends, in one respect, for her defects in another. The working of the gold and silver mines depends on the same principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of several heterogeneous substances, mixed with precious metals, it is broken into small pieces by a mill, and afterwards washed, by which means it is disengaged from the earth, and other soft bodies which adhered to it. It is then mixed with mercury, which, of all substances, has the strongest attraction for gold, and likewise a stronger attraction for silver than the other substances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore the gold and silver are first separated from the heterogeneous matter, and then, by straining and evaporating, they are disunited from the mercury itself. Of the quantity of gold and silver, which the mines of Mexico afford; opinions have been various. Those who have enquired most into the subject, compute the revenues of Mexico at twenty four millions sterling; and it is well known, that this, with the other provinces of Spanish America, supply the whole world with silver.

The other articles next in importance to gold and silver, are the cochineal and cocoa. The former is an insect peculiar to this country. It adheres to the plant called opuntia, and sucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimson colour. From this juice the cochineal derives its value, which consists in dyeing the finest scarlet, crimson and purple colours. It is also used in medicine as a sudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no less than nine hundred thousand pounds weight of this commodity. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, grows on a tree of a middling size, which bears a pod about the size and shape of a cucumber containing the cocoa. The Spanish commerce in this article is immense. This country likewise produces silk, but not in such abundance as to make any remarkable part of its export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and, on account of its lightness, is used in the manufacture of most of the articles in the common ware of the inhabitants.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, GOVERNMENT, AND MANNERS. } The present inhabitants may be divided into whites, Indians, and negroes. The whites are either born in Old Spain, or creoles, i. e. natives of Spanish America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade; and have nearly the same character with the Spaniards in Europe, but only a greater portion of pride; for they consider themselves entitled to great distinctions, as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The creoles are said to have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are descended; without that courage, firmness, and patience, which make the praise worthy part of the Spanish character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they are charged with dedicating the greatest part of their lives to inactive pleasures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expensive with great parade, and little convenience, their general character is no more than a grave and specious insignificance. From idleness and constitution, their chief business is amour and intrigue; and many of their ladies are not distinguished for their chastity or domestic virtues. The Indians, who, notwithstanding the devastations of the first invaders, remain in great numbers, are become, by continual oppression and indignity, a dejected, timorous, and miserable race. The blacks here, like all those in other parts of the world, are stubborn, hardy, and adapted for the gross slavery they endure.

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greatest part of Spanish America. The civil government is administered by tribunals, called audiences, which bear a faint resemblance to the former parliaments of France. In these courts the Spanish viceroy presides. His employment is the greatest trust and power which the king of Spain has in his disposal and is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. The greatness of the viceroy's office is diminished by the shortness of its duration. For as jealousy is the leading feature of Spanish politics, in American concerns, no officer is allowed to maintain his power for more than three years, which no doubt, may have a good effect in securing the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy consequences to the miserable inhabitants, who thereby become a prey to every new governor. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico : and it has been computed, that priests, monks and nuns of all orders, make a fifth of the white inhabitants here and in the other parts of Spanish America. The people are superstitious, ignorant, rich, lazy and licentious : it is not therefore extraordinary that the church should enjoy one-fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom.

COMMERCE, CITIES AND SHIPPING.] The trade of Mexico consists of three great branches, which extend over the world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, situated on the Gulf of Mexico ; with the East-Indies, by Acapulco on the South-Sea ; and with South-America by the same port. These Two sea-ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco are well situated for the commercial purposes to which they are applied. By means of the former, Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world ; and receives in return, the numberless luxuries and necessaries which Europe affords her and which the indolence of her inhabitants will hardly ever permit them to acquire for themselves. At this port, the fleet from Cadiz, called the flota, consisting of three men of war, as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ships, annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargo consists of almost every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and several nations have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who send out little more than wine and oil. The profit of these, with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the king, are the chief advantages which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods are landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities for Europe. Some time in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they sail to the Havannah, in the isle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy necessary for their safety, they steer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the sea port by which the communication is maintained between the different parts of the Spanish empire; in America and the East Indies. About the month of December, the great galeon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, annually, arrives here. The cargoes of the ships (for the convoy, though in an underhand manner, likewise carries goods,) consists of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the East. At the same time, the annual ship from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in and is computed to bring not less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quicksilver and other valuable commodities to be laid out in the purchase of the goods from the East. Several other ships, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the same occasion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, lasts thirty days. The galeon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with silver and such European goods as are thought necessary. The Spaniards, though this trade is carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but small gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, British, and other commercial states, to furnish the greater part of the cargo

of the flota; so the Spanish inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the same indolence which ruined their European ancestors, permit the Chinese merchants to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the galeon. Notwithstanding what has been said of Vera Cruz and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, and capital of the empire, ought to be considered as the centre of commerce in this part of the world; for here the principal merchants reside, and the greatest part of the business is negotiated. The East India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, also pass through the city. Hither all the gold and silver come to be coined; here the king's fifth is deposited; and here are wrought all those utensils and ornaments in plate, which are every year sent into Europe. The city itself breathes the air of the highest magnificence; and, according to the best accounts, contains about eighty thousand inhabitants.

S O U T H - A M E R I C A.

DIVISIONS.] SOUTH-AMERICA is an extensive peninsula, connected with North-America, by the isthmus of Darien, and divided between Spain, Portugal, France, Holland, and the Aborigines, as follows:

<i>Spanish Dominions.</i>	{	Terra firma,	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
		Peru,	Panama and Carthagena.
<i>Portuguese.</i>	{	Chili,	Lima.
		Paragua,	St. Jago.
<i>French.</i>	{	Brazil,	Buenos Ayres.
		Cayenne,	St. Salvador.
<i>Dutch.</i>	{	Surrinam,	Caen.
		Amazonia, Patagonia,	Paramaribo,
<i>Aborigines.</i>			

Of these countries we shall treat in their order.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH-AMERICA.

T E R R A F I R M A, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length, 1400	} between	{ 15 E. and 7 W. long. from Philad.	}	700,000
Breadth, 700				

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the North-Sea, (part of the Atlantic ocean,) on the north; by the same sea, and Surrinam, on the west; by the country of Amazons and Peru on the south; and by the Pacific ocean and New-Spain, on the west.

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Terra Firma Proper, or Darien,	Porto Bello, PANAMA.
3. Carthagena, - - - - -	Carthagena.
3. St. Martha, - - - - -	St. Martha.
4. Rio de la Hacha, - - - - -	Rio de la Hacha.
5. Venezuela, - - - - -	Venezuela.
6. Comana, - - - - -	Comana.
7. New-Andelusia, or Paria, - - - - -	St. Thomas.
1. New-Granada, - - - - -	Santa Fè de Bagota.
2. Popayan, - - - - -	Popayan.

ISTHMUS, RIVERS, BAYS, CAPES, &c.] The isthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello, in the north, to Panama on the South Sea, or rather a little west of these two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America; and here, the isthmus, or neck of land, is only sixty miles wide. The principal rivers are the Rio Grande, Darien, Charge, and the Oronoque.

The principal bays in Terra Firma are the bay of Panama, and the bay of St. Michael's in the South Sea; the bay of Porto Bello, the Gulf of Darien, Sino bay, Carthagena bay and harbour, the gulf of Venezuela, the bay of Maracaibo, the gulf of Trieste, the bay of Guaria, the bay of Curiaco, and the gulf of Paria, or Andalusia, in in the North Sea.

The chief capes are, Sablas Point, Point Cænoa, Cape del Agua, Swart point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points, and Cape Nassau; all on the north shore of Terra Firma.

CLIMATE.] The climate here, particularly in the northern divisions, is extremely hot; and Ulloa asserts, that the heat of the warmest day at Paris is continual at Carthagena; the excessive heats raise the vapour of the sea, which is precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive heat, so impregnates the air with vapours, that in several provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholesome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The soil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is extremely rich and fruitful. It is impossible to view without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the inland country, for the coasts are generally barren sand, and incapable of bearing any species of grain. The trees, most remarkable for their dimensions, are the caobò, the cedar, the maria, the balsam, and manchineel. The habella de carthagena is the fruit of a species of willow, and contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white, and extremely bitter. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never-failing remedy for the bite of the most venomous vipers and serpents, which are frequent in this country. There were formerly in Terra Firma rich mines of gold, which are now, in a great measure, exhausted. Silver, iron, and copper mines have been since opened; and emeralds, sapphires, and other precious stones, are sometimes found.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North-America, we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the southern parts. Among those peculiar to the south, the most remarkable is the sloth, or, as it is called by way of derision, the swift Peter. It bears a resemblance to an ordinary monkey in shape and size, but it is of a most wretched appearance, with its hams and feet bare, and its skin corrugated. He never stirs unless compelled by hunger; and is said to be several minutes in moving one of his

legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with such plaintive and disagreeable cry, as produces pity and disgust. In this cry consists the whole defence of this wretched animal. For on the first hostile approach, it is natural for him to attempt to move from danger, which is always attended with such disgusting howling, that his enemy quickly retreats, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noise. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pain for a tree well loaded, which he ascends with great easiness, moving, and crying, and stopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to save himself such another troublesome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree he gathers himself in a bunch, and with a shriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in these countries are very numerous; they herd together twenty or thirty in company, rambling through the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a single person, sometimes attempt to tear him in pieces; they hang themselves by the tail, on the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes, throwing sticks or stones at him; but where two or three people are together, they usually scamper away.

NATIVES.] Besides the Indians in this country, who fall under our general description of the Americans, there is another species, of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a smaller stature than the ordinary Indians. Their dispositions too are more soft and effeminate; but what principally distinguishes them, is their large weak blue eyes, which unable to bear the light of the sun, see best by moon-light, and from which they are called moon eyed Indians.

INHABITANTS, COMMERCE,] The inhabitants do not materially differ from those
AND CHIEF TOWNS.] of Mexico. It is only necessary to add, that the original inhabitants of Spain are variously intermixed with the negroes, and Indians. These intermixtures form different gradations; which are carefully distinguished, because every person expects to be regarded, in proportion as a greater share of Spanish blood runs in his veins. The first distinction, arising from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes; is that of the mulattoes, which is well known. Next to these are the tercerones produced from a white and mulatto. From the intermarriage of these and the whites, arise the quartérones, who, though still nearer the former, have a tint of the negro blood. But the issue of these and the whites are the quinterones, who it is said, are not to be distinguished from the real Spaniards, but by being of a still fairer complexion. The same gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes, and besides these, there are many others, hardly distinguishable by the natives themselves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Cartagena, and Porto Bello; which are three of the most considerable cities in Spanish-America. In them are held the annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandise of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coast, particularly, in the bay of Panama, are not the least considerable. The fishing for these, employs a great number of negro slaves, who have arrived at wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are sometimes, however, devoured by fish, particularly the sharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are crushed against the shelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is similar with that of Mexico.

P E R U.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1800] between	[the equator and 25 S. latitude.	[970,000.
Breadth 600		[15 E. and 6 W. long. from Phil.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Terra Firma, on the north; by the mountains or Cordelirias des Andes, east; by Chili, south; and by the Pacific Ocean, west.

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Quito, - - - - -	Quito, Payta.
Lima, or Los Reyes, - - - - -	LIMA, Cusko, and Callao.
Los Charcos, - - - - -	Potosi, Porco.

SEA, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only sea which borders on Peru, is the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuan-chaco, Cosma, Vermeio, Guara, Callao the port town to Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

RIVERS.] There is in this country a river whose waters are said to be as red as blood. The rivers Granáda or Cagdalená, Oronoque, Amazon, and Plate, rise in the Andes. Many other rivers rise also in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific Ocean, between the equator and eight degrees south latitude. The Amazon rises in Peru, but directs its course eastward, and after running between three or four thousand miles, affluents into the Atlantic Ocean, under the equator. This river annually overflows its banks, at which time it is one hundred and fifty miles wide at its mouth. It is supposed to be the largest river in the world, as to the length of its course, the depth of its waters, or its astonishing breadth.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet, having the South Sea on one side, and on the other the great ridge of Andes, it is not so incommoded with heat as other tropical countries. The sky, too, which is generally cloudy, shields them from the direct rays of the sun: but, what is extremely singular, it never rains in Peru. This defect, however, is sufficiently supplied by a soft kindly dew, which falls gradually every night on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grass, as to produce, in many places, the greatest fertility. Along the sea-coast, Peru is generally a dry barren land, except near the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS.] There are many gold mines in the northern part, not far from Lima. Silver is also produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are continually decaying, and new ones opening. The town shifts with the mines. That of Potosi, which is now much exhausted, once contained ninety thousand souls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter composed above five sixths. The northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. Wool is another article of its produce, and is no less remarkable for its fineness, than for the animals on which it grows; these they call lamas and vicuñas. The lama has a small head, resembling that of a horse and a sheep at the same time. It is about the size of a stag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare; through which, when enraged, it spits a kind of venomous juice, which enflames the part it falls on. The flesh of the lama is agreeable and wholesome, and the animal is not only useful

in affording wool and food, but also as a beast of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue and will travel over the steepest mountains with a load of sixty or seventy pounds. It feeds very sparingly, and never drinks. The vicunna is smaller and swifter than the lama, and produces wool of still finer quality. In the vicunna is found the bezoar stone, regarded as a specific against poison. The next great article is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jesuits bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug, grows principally in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The best bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds. The tree which bears it, is about the size of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit resembling the almond. Cayenne pepper grows, in the greatest abundance, in the vale of Arica, a district in the southern parts of Peru, from whence it is annually exported, to the value of six hundred thousand crowns. Peru is the only part of South-America that produces quicksilver. The principal mine is at a place called Guancavelica, discovered in 1567, where it is found in a whitish mass, resembling brick ill burned. This substance is volatilized by fire, and received in steam by a combination of glass vessels, where it condenses by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel, and forms a pure heavy liquid.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE AND CITIES.] We join these articles, because of their intimate connexion; for, except in the cities we shall describe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. Lima is the capital of Peru. Its situation in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by Pizarro, as the most proper for a city, which he expected would preserve his memory. It is so well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, command a stream, each for his own use. There are many very magnificent structures; particularly churches, in this city; but the houses in general are built of slight materials, the mildness of the climate, and want of rain, rendering stone houses unnecessary; and besides, it is found that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful in this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about sixty thousand inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a sixth part. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of the city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima, in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, amounting, it is said, to seventeen millions sterling. All travellers speak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, silver, and precious stones, which load with ornament even the walls. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru may stand in need of. The fleet from Europe, and the East Indies, land at the same harbour; and the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are bartered for each other. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for the injury arising from earthquakes, to which this place is subject. In the year 1747, a most tremendous one laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more terrible or complete. Of three thousand inhabitants, only one man was left to record this dreadful calamity; and he escaped by an accident the most extraordinary.—He happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, and perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, and buried the inhabitants for ever in its bosom; but the same wave which destroyed the town, drove a little boat to the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself, and was saved.

Cusco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, lies in the mountainous country, and at a distance from the sea : it has been long on the decline. But it is still a very considerable place, and contains about forty thousand inhabitants, three fourths Indians, and very industrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have also both here and at Quito, a particular taste for painting ; and their productions in this way, some of which have been admired even in Italy, are dispersed over South-America. Quito is next to Lima in populousness, if not superior to it. It is, like Cusco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly celebrated for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which supply the consumption of the kingdom of Peru.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND GOVERNMENT. It would be in vain to pretend saying any thing decisive with regard to the number of the inhabitants of Peru. The Spaniards themselves are remarkably silent on this head. It has been guessed by some writers, that in all Spanish America, there are about three millions of Spaniards and creoles ; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater ; though in no respect proportionable to the wealth, fertility and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole Spanish dominions ; we therefore refer the reader to an account of Mexico. In Lima, however, many of the first nobility are employed in commerce. The viceroy resides in this city : his authority extends throughout Peru, except Quito, which has lately been detached from it. He is nearly as absolute as the king of Spain ; but his territories are so extensive, that it is necessary he should part with a share of his authority to the several audiences or the courts established over the kingdom. There is a treasury court established at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

C H I L I

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length,	1200	between	[25 and 45 S. latitude. 10 E. and 10 W. L. from Phil.]		206,00
Breadth,	500				

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Peru, on the north ; by La Plata, on the east ; by Patagonia, on the south ; by the Pacific Ocean, on the west.

Provinces.
Chili Proper,
Cuyo, or Cutio,

Chief Towns.
] ST. JAGO, Baldivia, Imperial,
St. John de Frontierae.

LAKES.] The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren, besides which, there are several salt water lakes, that have a communication with the sea, part of the year. In stormy weather, the sea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fish.

SEA, RIVERS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only sea that borders on Chili is the Pacific ocean on the west. The principal rivers are, the Salado, or Salt river, Guasco,

Caquimbo, Bohio, and the Baldivia, scarcely navigable but at their mouths. They empty into the Pacific Ocean.

The principal bays, or harbours, are Copiapo, Coquimbo; Govanadore, Valpariso, Iata, Concepcion, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldiva, Brewer's haven and Castro.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] These are not remarkably different from the same in Peru; but if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is, indeed, no part of the world more favoured than this, with respect to the gifts of nature. For here, not only the tropical fruits, but all species of grain, of which a considerable part is exported; come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the same with those of Peru; and they have gold in almost every river, supposed to be washed down from the hills.

INHABITANTS.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The city and natives are yet in a great measure; unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preservation from the Spaniard's yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition with respect to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above twenty thousand; and the Indians, negroes and mulattoes, are not supposed to be thrice that number. However, there have lately been some formidable insurrections against the Spaniards; by the natives of Chili, which greatly alarmed the Spanish court.

COMMERCE.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama; and some parts of Mexico. To the former, they annually export corn sufficient for sixty thousand men. Their other exports are hemp, which, is raised in no other part of the South-Seas; hides, tallow, and salted provisions. They receive in return the commodities of Europe and the East-Indies; which are brought to the port of Calao.

P A R A G U A Y, OR, L A P L A T A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length, 1500	between	{ 12 and 37 S. latitude.	{ 25 E. and 0° from Phil.	1,000,000.
Breadth, 1000				

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Amazonia, on the north; by Brasil, east; by Patagonia, on the south; and by Peru and Chili, west.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Paraguay, - - -	Assumption.
Parana, - - - -	St. Anne.
Guaira, - - - -	Civdad Real.
Uragua, - - - -	Los Royes.
Tucuman, - - -	St. Jago.
Rio de la plata, - -	BUENOS AYRES.

BAY, CAPE, AND LAKES.] The principal bay is at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which stands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and Cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which, Caracoroes, is one hundred miles long.

RIVERS.] Besides an infinite number of small rivers, Paraguay is watered by three

principal ones, the Paraguay, Uragua, and Parana, which, united near the sea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate river, and annually overflow their banks; and on their recess, leave them enriched with a slime that produces the greatest plenty of whatever is committed to it.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This vast tract is far from being wholly subdued, or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts, in a great degree, unknown to them, or to any other people of Europe. The principal province, of which we have any knowledge, is that called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued plain for several hundred miles, extremely fertile, and produces cotton in great quantities, tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits. It contains prodigious rich pastures, in which are bred such numerous herds of cattle, that it is said the hides of the beasts are all that is properly bought, the carcase being in a manner given in the bargain.* A horse, some time ago, might be bought for a dollar; and the usual price of a bullock, chosen out of a herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But contrary to the general nature of America this country is destitute of woods. The air is remarkably sweet and serene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholesome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF CITY, AND COMMERCE.] The Spaniards first discovered this country, by sailing up the river La Plata in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, so called on account of the excellence of the air, on the south side of the river, fifty leagues within its mouth, where it is seven leagues broad. This is one of the most considerable towns in South America, and the only place of traffic to the southward of Brasil: Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru; but no regular fleet comes hither as to the other parts of South America; two, or at most three register ships make the whole of their regular intercourse with Europe. The returns are very valuable, consisting chiefly of the gold and silver of Chili and Peru, sugar, and hides. Those who have carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other. The benefit of this traffic is now wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose in such parts of Brasil, as lie near this country. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people are so similar to those of the rest of the Spanish colonies in South America, that nothing farther need be said on those articles.

But we cannot quit this country without mentioning that extraordinary species of commonwealth, which the Jesuits erected in the interior parts, about the middle of the last century. They represented to the court of Spain, that the want of success in their missions, was owing to the scandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their insolent behaviour excited in the Indians. They insinuated, that, were it not for those obstacles, the empire of the gospel might, by their labours, have been extended unto the most unknown parts of America; and that all those countries might be subdued to his catholic majesty's obedience, without expense and without force. This remonstrance met with success; the sphere of their labours was marked out and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders, not to interfere, nor to suffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale without licences from the fathers. They, on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to send a certain number to the king's works whenever they should be demanded, and the missions should become populous enough to supply them.

On these terms the Jesuits gladly entered upon the scene of action, and began by

* This circumstance, and numberless others in this book, rest on the credit of the London edition, as we have no means of ascertaining their truth or falsehood.

gathering together about fifty wandering families, whom they persuaded to settle, and thus united them into a little township. This was the slight foundation upon which they built a superstructure which has amazed the world, and added much power, at the same time that it occasioned much ill founded envy, against their society. For, when they had made this beginning, they laboured with such indefatigable pains, and such masterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the most savage nations; fixed the most rambling, and subdued to their government, those who had long disdained to submit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese. They prevailed upon thousands of various dispersed tribes to embrace their religion, and these soon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquility they enjoyed under the direction of the fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace, with precision, all the steps which were taken in the accomplishment of so extraordinary a conquest over the bodies and minds of men. The Jesuits left nothing undone that could confirm their subjection, or that could increase their number; and, it is said that above three hundred and forty thousand families lived in obedience, and expressed an awe, bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or constraint: that the Indians were instructed in the military art, and could raise sixty thousand men well armed: that they lived in towns; were regularly clad; laboured in agriculture, exercised manufactures; some even aspired to the regular arts; and that nothing could equal their submission to authority, except their contentment under it. Some writers have treated the character of these Jesuits with great severity; accusing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to such an excess, as to cause not only persons of both sexes, but even the magistrates, who were always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes, and by suffering persons, of the highest distinction, within their jurisdictions, to kiss the hem of their garments, as the greatest honour. The priests themselves possessed large property, all manufactures were theirs, the natural produce of the country was brought to them; and it has been said, that they annually remitted large treasures to the superior of the order, which seemed to evince, that zeal for religion was not the only motive for forming these missions. The fathers would not permit any, of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, mestizos, or even Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay. In the year 1757, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal in exchange for Saint Sacrament, to make the Uragua the boundary of their possessions, the Jesuits refused to comply with this division, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own consent. We were informed by the Spanish gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but notwithstanding the exactness of their discipline, they were easily, and with considerable slaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were sent to quell them; and in 1797, the Jesuits were removed from America, by royal authority, and their late subjects were put upon the same footing with the rest of the inhabitants of the country.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA, CONTAINING BRASIL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles
Length, 25000 } Breadth, 700 }	between [the equator and 35 south latitude.] [40 and 15 E. longitude from Philad.]	940,000

BOUNDARIES] **B**OUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the north ; by the same ocean, on the east ; by the mouth of the river Plata, south ; and by the chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of Amazons, on the west.

On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions in their voyage to the South Sea, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catharine's.

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Para, - - - - -	Para or Belim.
Marignam, - - - - -	St. Lewis.
Siara, - - - - -	Siara.
Petagues, - - - - -	St. Luc.
Rio Grande, - - - - -	Tignares.
Payraba, - - - - -	Payraba.
Tamara, - - - - -	Tamara.
Pernambuco, - - - - -	Olanda.
Serigippe, - - - - -	Serigippe.
Bahia, or the bay of All- Saints, - - - - - }	St. Salvador.
Ilheos, - - - - -	Paya.
Porto Seguro, - - - - -	Porto Seguro.
Spirito Sancto, - - - - -	Spirito Sancto.
Rio Janeiro, - - - - -	St. Sebastian.
St. Vincent, - - - - -	St. Vincent.
Del Rey, - - - - -	St. Salvador.

SEAS BAYS, HARBOURS,] The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast of Brasil on the
AND CAPES. } east and north east, upwards of three thousand miles,
forming several fine bays and harbours ; as the harbours of Pernambuco. All-Saints
Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the
harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north shore of the ri-
ver La Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St. Augustine, Cape Trio, and Cape
St. Mary, the most southerly promontory of Brasil.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR,] The name of Brasil was given to this country,
CLIMATE, AND RIVERS. } because it abounded with a wood of that name.

To the northward of Brasil, which lies almost under the equator, the climate is hot,
boisterous, and unwholesome, subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly
in the months of March and September, when there are such deluges of rain, with
storms and tornadoes that the country is overflowed. But to the southward, beyond the
tropic of capricorn, no part of the world enjoys more serene and wholesome air, re-
freshed with the soft breezes of the ocean on the one hand, and the cool breath of the
mountains on the other. The land near the coast is in general low but exceedingly plea-
sant, interspersed with meadows and woods ; on the west, far within land, are moun-

tains from which issue many noble streams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata, others running across the country from east to west till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the sugar mills belonging to the Portuguese.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] In general the soil is extremely fruitful, producing sugar, which, being clayed, is whiter and finer than muscovado. Also tobacco, indigo, ipecacuanha, balsam of Copaiba, Brazil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dying red, but not of the best kind.

The animals here are the same as in Peru and Mexico. The produce of the soil was found very sufficient for subsisting the inhabitants, until the mines of gold and diamonds were discovered; these with the sugar plantations, occupy so many hands, that agriculture lies neglected; and, in consequence, Brazil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The portrait given us of the manners and customs of the Portuguese in America, by the most judicious travellers is very far from being favourable. They are described as sunk in the most effeminate luxury. They are said to be dissemblers, insincere, lazy and proud. In their diet penurious; for, like the inhabitants of most southern climates, they are much more fond of shew, state, and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society, and of a good table; yet their feasts, which are rare, are sumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cause themselves to be carried in a kind of cotton hammocks, called serpentes, which are borne on the negroes' shoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long.

TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Portugal is conducted on the same exclusive plan on which the several nations of Europe trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly resembles the ancient Spanish method, in not sending out single ships, as the convenience of the several places and the judgement of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which sail at stated times from Portugal, and compose three flotas, bound to as many ports in Brazil; namely, to Pernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the southern extremity; and to the Bay of All-Saints, in the middle.

In this last, is the capital, which is called St. Salvadore, and sometimes the city of Bahia, and where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour. It is built upon a high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, and a lake forming a crescent, investing it almost wholly so as nearly to join the sea, on the other. The situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and there have been added to it very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond comparison, the most gay and opulent city in Brazil.

The trade of Brazil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprising, as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works, at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America; they being the only Europeans who have established colonies in Africa; and from hence they import between forty and fifty thousand negroes annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Brazil streets for Europe. Of the diamonds, there is supposed to be returned to Europe to the value of one hundred and thirty thousand pounds sterling.

This, with the sugar, tobacco, hides, and the valuable drugs for medicines and manufactures, may give some idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal; but to all the trading powers of Europe.

A fifteenth part of the chief commodities the European ships carry thither in return are not the produce of Portugal; they consist of woollen goods of all kinds, from

England, France, and Holland; linens and laces from Holland, France, and Germany; silks from France and Italy; silk and thread stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in these metals, from England, as well as salt fish, beef, flour and cheese. Oil they have from Spain, wine, with some fruit, is nearly all they receive from Portugal. England is at present most interested in the trade of Portugal, both for home-consumption and the use of the Brasils. However, the French have become very dangerous rivals to them in this, as in many other branches of trade.

Brasil is a very wealthy and flourishing settlement. Their export of sugar, within forty years, is much greater than it was, though anciently it made almost the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raised in such large quantities as in North-America. The northern and southern parts of Brasil abound with horned cattle: these are hunted for their hides only, of which no less than twenty thousand are sent annually to Europe.

The Portuguese had been long in possession of Brasil, before they discovered the treasures of gold and diamonds; which have since made it so valuable. Their fleets rendezvous in the bay of All-Saints; to the amount of one hundred sail of large ships, in May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treasures of the Spanish flota and galleons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions sterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony, and ivory.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT. This country was first discovered by Americus Vesputio, in 1498; but the Portuguese did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themselves at the bay of All-Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with some interruption at first from the court of Spain, who considered the whole continent in South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty, and it was agreed that the Portuguese should possess all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and La Plata, which they still enjoy. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very meridian of their prosperity, they fell under the dominion of Spain.

The Dutch, soon after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, not satisfied with supporting their independency by a successful defensive war, and flushed with the juvenile ardour of a growing commonwealth, pursued the Spaniards into the remotest recesses of their extensive territories and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the spoils of their former masters. They particularly attacked the possessions of the Portuguese; conquered almost all their fortresses in the East-Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brasil, where they took seven of the provinces; and would have subdued the whole colony, had not their career been stopped by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered forces. The Dutch were however, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brasil; but their West-India company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harrassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to relinquish their interest in that country, which was accepted; and the Portuguese have remained in peaceable possession of all Brasil from that time, till about the end of 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress called St. Sacramento, but by the treaty of peace, it was restored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

THE possessions and claims of the French before the war of 1756, as appears by their maps, consisted of almost the whole continent of North America; which vast country they divided into two great provinces; the northern of which they called Canada, comprehending a much greater extent than the British province, of that name, as it included a great part of the provinces of New-York-England and Nova-Scotia. The southern province they called Louisiana, in which they included a part of Carolina. This distribution, and the military dispositions which the French made to support it, formed the principal cause of the war between Britain and France, in the year 1756; the issue of which is well known. While the French were rearing their infant colonies, and with the most sanguine hopes, forming vast designs of an extensive empire, one wrong step in their politics left them the whole; for by commencing hostilities many years too soon, they were driven from Canada, and forced to yield to Britain, all that fine country of Louisiana eastward of the Mississippi. At the treaty of peace, however, they were allowed to keep possession of the western banks of that river, and the small town of New-Orleans, near the mouth of it; which territories, in 1769, they ceded to Spain.

The French therefore, from being one of the greatest European powers in that quarter, and to the American colonies a very dangerous neighbour and rival, have now lost all footing in North-America; but on the southern continent they have still a settlement which is called

CAYENNE, OR EQUINOCTIAL FRANCE.

IT is situated between the equator and fifth degree of north latitude, and between the 15th and 20th degree of east long. from Philadelphia. It extends two hundred and forty miles along the coast of Guiana, and near three hundred miles within land, bounded by Surinam on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, east; by Amazonia south and by Guiana, west. The chief town is Cayenne.

All the coast is very low; but within land, there are fine hills, very proper for settlements. The French have, however, not yet extended them so far as they might; but they raise the same commodities which they have from the West India islands, and in no considerable quantity. They have also taken possession of the island of Cayenne, on this coast, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about forty-five miles in circumference. It is very unhealthy; but having some good harbours, the French have here some settlements, which raise sugar and coffee.

DUTCH AMERICA.

SURINAM OR DUTCH GUIANA.

THIS province, the only one belonging to the Dutch, on the continent of America, is situated between 5° and 7° N. latitude, having the mouth of the Oronoko and the Atlantic on the north; Cayenne east; Amazonia south; and Terra Firma west.

The Dutch claim the whole coast, from the mouth of the Oronoko to the river Marowyne, on which are situated their colonies of Essequebo, Demerara, Berbice,

and Surinam. The latter begins with the river Saramacha, and ends with the Morowyne, including a length of coast of one hundred and twenty miles.

RIVERS.] A number of fine rivers pass through this country, the principal of which are Essequibo, Surinam, Demerara, Berbice, and Conya. Essequibo is nine miles wide at its mouth, and is more than three hundred miles in length. Surinam is a beautiful river, about three quarters of a mile wide; navigable for the largest vessels four leagues, and for smaller vessels sixty or seventy miles further. Its banks quite to the water's edge, are covered with evergreen mangrove trees which render the passage up this river very delightful. The Demerara is about three quarters of a mile wide, where it empties into the Surinam; is navigable for large vessels one hundred miles; a hundred miles further are several falls of easy ascent; above which it divides into the south-west and south-east branches.

CLIMATE.] In the months of September, October, and November, the climate is unhealthy, particularly to strangers. The common diseases are putrid and other fevers, the dry belly ache, and the dropy. One hundred miles back from the sea, the soil is different, the country hilly, the air pure, dry, wholesome, where a fire sometimes would not be disagreeable. Along the sea coast, the water is brackish and unwholesome—the air is damp and sultry,—The thermometer ranges from 75° to 90° through the year. A north-east breeze never fails to blow, from about nine o'clock in the morning through the day, in the hottest seasons. As the days and nights, throughout the year, are very nearly of equal length, the air can never become extremely heated, nor the inhabitants so greatly incommoded by the heat, as those who live at a greater distance from the equator. The seasons were formerly divided regularly into rainy and dry; but of late years, so much dependence cannot be placed upon them, owing probably to the country being more cleared; by which means a free passage is opened for the air and vapours.

WATER.] The water of the lower parts of the rivers is brackish, and unfit for use; and the inhabitants are obliged to make use of rain water, which is here uncommonly sweet and good. It is caught in cisterns, placed under ground, and before drinking, is set in large earthen pots to settle, by which means it becomes very clear and wholesome. These cisterns are so large and numerous that water is seldom scarce.

CHIEF TOWNS AND POPULATION.] Paramaribo, situated on Surinam river, four leagues from the sea, N. lat. 6° W.; longitude 20° from Philadelphia, is the principal town in Surinam. It contains about two thousand whites, one half of whom are Jews; and eight thousand slaves. The houses are principally of wood; some few have glass windows, but generally they have wooden shutters. The streets are spacious and straight, and planted on each side with orange or tamarind trees.

About seventy miles from the sea, on the same river, is a village of about forty or fifty houses, inhabited by Jews. This village, and the town abovementioned, with the intervening plantations, contain all the inhabitants in this colony, which amount to three thousand two hundred whites and forty three thousand slaves. The buildings on the plantations are, many of them, costly, convenient, and airy. The country around is thinly inhabited with the native Indians; a harmless, friendly set of beings. They are, in general, short of stature, but remarkably well made, of light copper colour, straight black hair, with beards, high cheek bones, and broad shoulders. In their ears, noses, and hair, the women wear ornaments of silver, &c. Both men and women go naked. One nation or tribe of them tie the lower part of the leg of the female children, when young, with a cord bound very tight, for the breadth of six inches about the ankle, which cord is never afterwards taken off, but to put on a new one; by which means the flesh, which should otherwise grow on that part of the leg increases the calf to a great size, and leaves the bone below nearly bare. This though it must render them very weak, is reckoned a great beauty by them. The language of the

Indians appears to be very soft. They are mortal enemies to every kind of labour; but nevertheless, manufacture a few articles, such as very fine cotton hammocks, earthen water pots, baskets, a red or yellow dye, called roucau, and some other trifles, all which they bring to town, and exchange for such articles as they stand in need of.

They paint themselves red, and some are curiously figured with black. Their food consists chiefly of fish and crabs, and cassava, of which they plant great quantities, and this is almost the only produce they attend to. They cannot be said to be absolutely wandering tribes, but their huts being merely a few cross sticks, covered with branches, so as to defend them from the rain and sun, they frequently quit their habitations, if they see occasion, and establish them elsewhere. They do not shun the whites, and have been serviceable against the runaway negroes.

Dr. Bancroft observes, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddish brown aboriginal natives. The promiscuous intercourse of these different people, has generated several intermediate casts, whose colour depends on their degree of consanguinity to either whites, blacks, negroes, or Indians.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, TRADE, &c.] Through the whole country runs a ridge of oyster shells, nearly parallel to the coast, but three or four leagues from it, of a considerable breadth, and from four to eight feet deep, composed of shells exactly of the same nature as those which form the present coast. From this and other circumstances there is great reason to believe, that the land, at that distance from the sea, is all now, land, rescued from the sea, either by some revolution in nature, or other unknown cause.

On each side of the rivers and creeks are situated the plantations, containing from five hundred to two thousand acres each, in number about five hundred and fifty in the whole colony, producing at present annually about sixteen thousand hogsheds of sugar, twelve million pounds of coffee seven hundred thousand pounds of cocoa, eight hundred and fifty pounds of cotton: all which articles (cotton excepted) have fallen off within fifteen years, at least one third, owing to bad management, both here and in Holland, and to other causes. Of the proprietors of these plantations, not above eighty reside here. The estates are, for the greatest part, mortgaged for as much or more than they are worth, which greatly discourages any improvements which might otherwise be made. Was it not for the unfortunate situation of the colony, in this and other respects, it is certainly capable of being brought to a great height of improvement; dyes, gums, oils, plants for medicinal purposes, &c. might, and undoubtedly will, at some future period, be found in abundance. Rum might be distilled here; indigo, ginger, rice, tobacco, have been and may be further cultivated; and many other articles. In the woods are found many kinds of good and durable timber, and some woods for ornamental purposes, particularly a kind of mahogany called copic. The soil is perhaps as rich and as luxuriant as any in the world. It is generally a rich, flat, clayed earth, lying in some places above the level of the rivers at high water (which rises about eight feet) and in most places below it. Whenever, from a continued course of cultivation for many years, a piece of land becomes impoverished (for manure is not known here) it is laid under water for a certain number of years, and thereby regains its fertility, and in the mean time, a new piece of woodland is cleared. This country has never experienced those dreadful scourges of the West-Indies, hurricanes: and droughts, from the lowness of the lands, it has not to fear, nor has the produce ever been destroyed by insects or by the blast. In short, by proper management, it might become equal to Jamaica. Land is not wanting; it is finely intersected by noble rivers, and abundant creeks; the soil is of the best kind: it is well situated, and the climate is not very unhealthy, and is growing better, and will continue so to do, the more the country is cleared of its woods, and cultivated.

ANIMALS, FISH, SERPENTS, &c.] The rivers abound with fish, some of which are

good; at a certain seasons of the year, there is plenty of turtle. The woods abound with deer, hares, and rabbits, a kind of buffaloe, and two species of wild hogs, one of which (the peccary) is remarkable for having its navel on the back.

The woods are infested with several species of tygers, but with no other ravenous or dangerous animals. The rivers are rendered dangerous by alligators, from four to seven feet long; and a man was, a short time since, crushed between the jaws of a fish, but its name is not known. There are here scorpions and tarantulas of a large size; and great venom, and other insects without number, some of them very dangerous and troublesome; the torporific eel also, the touch of which, by means of the bare hand, or any conductor, has the effect of a strong electrical shock; serpents also, some of which are venomous, and others has been asserted by many credible persons, from twenty-five to fifty feet long. In the woods are monkeys, the sloth, and parrots in all their varieties; also some birds of a beautiful plumage; among others, the flamingo, but few or no singing birds.

MILITARY STRENGTH. GOVERNMENT, &c.] The river Surinam is guarded by a fort and two redoubts at the entrance, and a fort at Paramaribo, but none of them of any strength; so that one or two frigates would be sufficient to subdue the whole colony; and never was there a people who more ardently wished for a change of government, than the inhabitants of this colony do at this time. The many grievances they labour under, and the immense burden of taxes, which almost threaten the ruin of the colony, have excited a general desire to change the Dutch for a British or French government. The colony is not immediately under the states general, but under a company in Holland, called the Directors of Surinam, (a company first formed by the states general, but now supplying its own vacancies) by them are appointed the governor, and all the principal officers, both civil and military. The interior government consists of a governor and a supreme and inferior council; the members of the latter are chosen by the governor, from a double nomination of the principal inhabitants, and those of the former in the same manner. By these powers, and by a magistrate presiding over all criminal affairs, justice is executed, and laws are enacted necessary for the interior governments of the colony; those of a more general and public nature are enacted by the directors; and require no approbation here by the court.

The colony is guarded farther by about sixteen hundred regular troops, paid by the directors. These troops, together with a corps of about two hundred and fifty free negroes, paid by the court here, and another small corps of chaffu's, and so many slaves as the court thinks fit to order from the planters from time to time, are dispersed at posts placed at proper distances on a Cordon, surrounding the colony on the land side in order, as far as possible, to defend the distant plantations and the colony in general, from the attacks of several dangerous bands of runaway slaves, which, from very small beginnings, have, from the natural profligacy of the negro race, and the continual addition of fresh fugitives, arrived at such an height, as to have cost the country very great sums of money, and much loss of men, without being able to do these negroes any effectual injury.

HISTORY.] This colony was first possessed by the French, as early as the year 1630 or 1640, and was abandoned by them on account of its unhealthy climate. In the year 1650, it was taken up by some Englishmen and in 1662, a charter was granted by Charles II. About this time it was considerably augmented by the settlement of a number of Jews, who had been driven out of Cayenne and the Brazils, whose descendants (with other Jews) compose, at present, one half of the white inhabitants of the colony, and are allowed great privileges. In 1667, it was taken by the Dutch, and the English

* The foregoing account of Surinam was principally taken from a letter of Mr. Aphthorp to his father. See American Apollo.

having got possession, about the same time of the then Dutch colony of New York, each party entertained its conquest. Most of the English planters retired to Jamaica, leaving their slaves behind them, whose language is still English, but so corrupted, as not to be understood at first by an Englishman.

A B O R I G I N A L A M E R I C A.

Or that part which the aboriginal Indians possess.

A M A Z O N I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length 1400 } between [the equator and 20°
Breadth 900 } [south latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by Terra Firma and Guiana; east by Brazil; south, by Paragua; and west, by Peru.

RIVERS.] The river Amazon is the largest in the known world. This river, famous for the length of its course, seems to be produced by innumerable torrents, which rush down, with amazing impetuosity, from the eastern declivity of the Andes, and unite in a spacious plain to form this immense river. In its progress of three thousand three hundred miles, it receives the waters of a prodigious number of rivers, some of which come from far, and are very broad and deep. It is interspersed with an infinite number of islands, which are too often overflowed to admit of culture. It empties into the Atlantic Ocean under the equator, and is there one hundred and fifty miles broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The air is cooler in this country than could be expected, considering it is situated in the middle of the torrid zone. This is partly owing to the heavy rains which occasion the river to overflow their banks one half of the year, and partly to the cloudiness of the weather, which obscures the sun a great part of the time he is above the horizon. During the rainy seasons, the country is subject to dreadful storms of thunder and lightning.

The soil is extremely fertile, producing cocoa nuts, pine apples, bananas, plantains, and a great variety of tropical fruits; cedar, redwood, oak, ebony, logwood and many other sorts of drying wood; together with tobacco, sugar canes, cotton, potatoes, balsam, honey, &c. The woods abound with tygers, wild boars, buffaloes, deer and game of various kinds. The rivers and lakes abound with fish. Here are also sea-cows and turtles, but the crocodiles and water serpents render fishing a dangerous employment.

WOMEN.] As early as the time of Hercules and Theseus, the Greeks had imagined the existence of a nation of Amazons; with this fable they embellished the history of all their heroes, not excepting that of Alexander; and the Spaniards, infatuated with this dream of antiquity, transferred it to America. They reported that a republic of female warriors actually existed in America, who did not live in society with men, and only admitted them once a year for the purposes of procreation. To give the more credit to this romantic story, it was reported, not without reason, that the women in America were all so unhappy, and were treated with such contempt and inhumanity,

by the men, that many of them had agreed to shake off the yoke of their tyrants. It was further said, that being accustomed to follow the men into the forests, and to carry their provisions and baggage when they went out to fight or to hunt, they must necessarily have been inured to hardships, and rendered capable of forming so bold a resolution. Since this story has been propagated, infinite pains have been taken to find out the truth of it, but no traces could ever be discovered.

NATIVES.] The natives, like the other Americans, are of a good stature, have handsome features, long black hair, and copper complexions. They are said to have a taste for the imitative arts, especially painting and sculpture, and to be good mechanics. Their cordage is made of the bark of trees, and their sails of cotton, their hatchets of tortoise shells or hard stones, their chisels, planes and wimbles, of the horns and teeth of wild beasts; and their canoes are trees hollowed. They spin and weave cotton cloth; and build their houses with wood and clay, and thatch them with reeds. Their arms in general are darts and javelins, bows and arrows, with targets of cane or fish skins. The several nations are governed by their chiefs or caciques; it being observable that the monarchical form of government has prevailed almost universally, both among the ancient and modern barbarians, doubtless, on account of its requiring a much less refined policy than the republican system. The regalia, which distinguish the chiefs, are a crown of parrots' feathers, a chain of tygers' teeth or claws, which hangs round the waist, and a wooden sword.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.] The mind of a good man is pleased with the reflection, that any part of South America has escaped the ravages of the European conquerors. This country has hitherto remained unspoiled. The original inhabitants enjoy their native freedom and independence.

P A T A G O N I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length, 1100 }
 Breadth, 350 } between [35° and 54° south latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north, by Chili and Paraguay; east by the Atlantic Ocean; south by the Straits of Magellan; west by the Pacific Ocean.

CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The climate is said to be much colder in this country than in the north, under the same parallels of latitude; which is imputed to its being in the vicinity of the Andes, which pass through it, being covered with eternal snow. It is almost impossible to say what the soil would produce, as it is not cultivated. The northern parts are covered with wood among which is an inexhaustible fund of large timber; but towards the south it is said, there is not a single tree large enough to be of use to mechanics. There are, however good pastures, which feed incredible numbers of horned cattle and horses, first carried there by the Spaniards, and now increased in an amazing degree.

INHABITANTS.] Patagonia is inhabited by a variety of Indian tribes, among which are the Patagons, from whom the country takes its name; the Pampas and the Coscoros. They all live upon fish and game, and what the earth produces spontaneously.

Their huts are thatched, and, notwithstanding the rigour of the climate, they wear no other clothes than a mantle made of a seal skin, or the skin of some beast, which they throw off when they are in action. They are exceedingly hardy, brave and active, making use of their arms, which are bows and arrows headed with flints, with amazing dexterity.

Magellan, who first discovered the straits which bear his name, and after him commodore Biron, have reported, that there exists, in these regions, a race of giants; but others, who have sailed this way, contradict the report. Upon the whole, we may conclude, that this story is like that of the female republic of Amazons.

The Spaniards once built a fort upon the straits, and left a garrison in it, to prevent any other European nation passing that way into the Pacific Ocean; but most of the men perished by hunger, whence the place obtained the name of Port Famine; and since that fatal event, no nation has attempted to plant colonies in Patagonia. As to the religion or government of these savages, we have no certain information. Some have reported that they believe in invisible powers, both good and evil; and that they pay a tribute of gratitude to the one, and deprecate the wrath and vengeance of the other.

WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.

BETWEEN North and South-America, lie a multitude of islands, which are called the West-Indies; and of which, such as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers; viz. Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark; as follow.

The British claim,

Jamaica,	Nevis,
Barbadoes,	Montserrat,
St. Christopher's,	Barbuda,
Antigua,	Anguilla,
Grenada, and the Grenadines,	Bermudas,
Dominica,	The Bahama islands.
St. Vincent,	

Spain claims,

Cuba,	Margaretta,
Part of St. Domingo, or Hispaniola,	Juan Fernandes, in the Pacific Ocean.
Porto Rico,	
Trinidad,	

The French claim,

Part of St. Domingo,	St. Bartholomew, Descada, and
Martinico,	Marigalante,
Guadaloupe,	Tobago.
St. Lucia,	

The Dutch claim,

The islands of St. Eustatia,	Curassou, or Curacoa,
Saba,	

Denmark claims,

The islands of St. Croix,	St. Thomas, and St. John's.
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As the climate in all the West-India islands is nearly the same, allowing for those accidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them in general, as well as mention some other particulars peculiar to the West-Indies. As they lie within the tropics, and the sun never recedes farther from any of them than about 30° to the south, they are continually subjected to an extreme of heat, which would be intolerable, if the trade-wind, rising gradually as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner as to enable the inhabitants to attend their concerns, even under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as night advances, a breeze begins, which blows smartly from the land, as it were from the centre, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once.

By the same remarkable providence, it is, that when the sun has made a great progress towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him such a vast body of clouds, as shield them from his direct beams; and, dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty with the long drought, which commonly predominates from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the West-Indies are extremely violent. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with prodigious impetuosity; the rivers suddenly rise; new rivers and lakes are formed, and, in a short time, all the low country is under water. Hence it is, that the rivers, which have their source within the tropics, swell and overflow their banks at a certain season: but so mistaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and scorched up with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reason uninhabitable, when, in reality, some of the largest rivers of the world have their course within its limits, and the moisture is often one of the greatest inconveniencies of the climate.

The rains make the only distinction of seasons in the West-Indies; the trees are green the whole year; they have little cold; no frosts, no snows, and but rarely some hail; the storms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hail-stones very great and heavy. Partly owing to this moisture, and partly to the greater quantity of a sulphureous acid, which predominates in the air, metals of all kinds rust and canker in a very short time; and these causes, perhaps as much as the heat itself, contribute to make the climate of the West-Indies unfriendly and unpleasant to European constitutions.

It is in the rainy season (principally in the month of August, more rarely in July and September) that they are assailed by hurricanes, which destroy, at a stroke, the labours of many years, and prostrate the most exalted hopes of the planter, often at the moment when he thinks himself out of the reach of fortune. They are sudden and violent storms of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with furious swellings of the seas, and sometimes with earthquakes; in short, with every circumstance which the elements can assemble, that is terrible and destructive. First, as a prelude to the ensuing havoc, whole fields of sugar-canes are whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country. The strongest trees of the forest are torn up with their roots, and driven about like stubble; the wind-mills are swept away in a moment; the utensils, fixtures, ponderous copper boilers, and stills of several hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; the houses yield no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blast; whilst the rain, which in an hour rises four or five feet, rushes in upon them with an irresistible violence.

The grand staple commodity of the West-Indies is sugar; a commodity not known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times, from whence the Europeans had their knowledge of it; but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request, as an article of universal luxury in Europe. It is not ascertained whether the cane, from which this substance

is extracted, be a native of America, or brought thither to the colony of Brazil, by the Portuguese, from India and the coast of Africa; but however that matter may be, in the beginning they made the most, as they still do the best sugars which are brought to market in Europe. The juice within the sugar cane, is the most lively, elegant, and least cloying sweet in nature; and when sucked raw, is extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the melasses rum is distilled, and from the scummings of the sugar a meaner spirit is procured. Rum finds a market in North-America, where it is consumed by the inhabitants. It is also employed in the African trade, or distributed to the fishery of Newfoundland, and other parts, besides what goes to Great Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of melasses is taken off raw, and brought to the united states to be distilled here. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for cattle, and the refuse of the cane after grinding, serve for fire; so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

It has been supposed, that when the business is well managed, the rum and melasses pay the charges of the plantation, and the sugars are clear gain. However the expenses of a plantation in the West-Indies are very great, and the profits, at the first view, precarious; for the chargeable articles of the wind-mill, the boiling, cooling, and distilling houses, and the purchase and subsistence of a suitable number of slaves and cattle, will not suffer any man to begin a sugar plantation of any consequence, not to mention the purchase of the land; which is very high, under a capital of at least five thousand pounds sterling.

The quality of rum and melasses exported from all the British West-India islands in 1787, 1788 and 1789, to all parts, was accurately, as follows,

	Gallons.		Gallons.	
1787 Rum	5,496,147.	of which	1,660,155	came to the united states.
Melasses	30,580	do.	4,200	do.
1788 Rum	6,770,332	do.	1,541,093	do.
Melasses	28,812	do.	3,928	do.
1789 Rum	9,492,177	do.	1,485,461	do.
Melasses	21,192	do.	1,000	do.

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it, some are subsisted in this manner; but others furnish their negroes with a certain portion of Indian corn, and a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork, a day. All the rest of the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profits of their labour yield fifty or sixty dollars annually. The price of male negroes, upon their first arrival, is from one hundred and fifty to one hundred and eighty dollars; women and grown boys, ten dollars less; but such negro families as are acquainted with the business of the islands, generally average above two hundred dollars; and there are instances of a single negro man, expert in business, being sold for seven hundred dollars. The wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

The West India islands lie in the form of a bow, or semi-circle, stretching from north to south, from the coast of Florida to the river Oronoque, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribees, from the first inhabitants; though this is a term that most geographers confine to the leeward islands. Sailors distinguish them into the windward and leeward islands, with regard to the usual courses of ships, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagen or New-Spain, and Portobello. The geographical tables and maps distinguish them into the Great and Little Antilles.

BRITISH WEST-INDIES.

J A M A I C A.

THIS island, the most valuable appendage to the British dominions in America, is one hundred miles long, and forty broad; of an oval form, lying between 18° and 19° north latitude, and between the meridian of Philadelphia, and 4° west; containing, according to Bryan Edwards, four millions and eighty thousand acres, of which in November, 1789, only one million nine hundred and seven thousand five hundred and eighty-nine were located, about one million whereof are under cultivation. The residue of the whole island, being above three millions of acres, are an unimproved, unproductive wilderness.

DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] Jamaica is divided as follows :

Counties.	Parishes.	Towns and Villages.	Inhabitants.
Middlesex	8	14	30,000 whites.
Surrey	7	10	250,000 negro slaves.
Cornwall	5	9	10,000 freed negroes.
			1,400 maroons.
<hr/>			<hr/>
Total, Three.	20	33	291,400

This island is intersected by a ridge of steep rocks, thrown, by the frequent earthquakes, in a stupendous manner upon one another. These rocks, though containing hardly any soil on their surface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flourishing in a perpetual spring; being nourished by the rains, which often fall, or the mists which continually brood on the mountains. From the rocks issue a vast number of small rivers, of pure wholesome water, which tumble down in cataracts, and, together with the very great height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a most delightful landscape. On each side of this chain of mountains, are ridges of lower ones, which diminish as they remove from it. Coffee grows on these in great plenty. The vallies or plains between these ridges are level beyond what is ordinary in most other countries, and the soil is very fertile.

The longest day in summer is about thirteen hours, and the shortest in winter about eleven. The air of this island is, in many places, excessively hot, and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cold sea-breezes, which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable; and the air upon the high-ground is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which, when it happens, is very terrible, and, in these violent storms, frequently does great damage: in February or March, earthquakes occur. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight together. In the plains are found several salt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spanish-town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most terrible endemial distempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the most valuable production of this island. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces also ginger, and the pimento, or, as it is called, Jamaica pepper; the wild cinnamon tree, whose bark is so useful in medicine; the manchineel, whose fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of

the worst poisons in nature; the mahogany, of the most valuable quality; but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear. There are also excellent cedars, of a large size, and durable; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardness of its wood; which, when dry, is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma, affording oil, much esteemed by the savages, both in food and medicine; the soap-tree, whose berries answer all the purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive bark, useful to tanners; the fustic and redwood for dyeing; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly, and the cotton tree is still, much cultivated: No sort of European grain grows here. Indian corn is raised, with Guinea corn, pease of various kinds, and a variety of roots. Fruits are, sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, mamees, fourlops, papas, pine-apples, custard apples, tar apples, prickly pears, allicada pears, melons, pumpions, guavas, and several kinds of berries; also good garden stuff in great plenty. The cattle, bred on this island, are but few; the beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; hogs are in great plenty; many plantations have hundreds of them, and their flesh is exceedingly sweet and delicate. Their horses are small, mettlesome and hardy, and often sell for one hundred and fifty to three hundred dollars. Jamaica furnishes guaiacum, sarsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and sea turtle, and the alligator. Here are various kinds of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other islands; besides parroquets, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea hens, geese, ducks, and turkies; the humming-bird, and many others. The rivers and bays abound with fish. The mountains breed numberless adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and gallewasp; but these last are not venomous. Among the insects is the ciror, or chego, which eats into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and sometimes infects the white people. These insects pierce into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as the person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, he picks them out with a needle, or the point of a penknife, taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They sometimes get into the toes, and eat the flesh to the very bone.

This island was originally a port of the Spanish empire in America. Several descents had been made upon it by the English, prior to 1656; but it was not till that year that they reduced it. Cromwell had fitted out a squadron, under Penn and Venables, against the Spanish island of Hispaniola, but there this squadron was unsuccessful. The commanders, to atone for this misfortune, made a descent upon Jamaica, without orders, and having carried the capital, St. Jago, soon compelled the whole island to surrender. Ever since it has been subject to the English. The established religion, too, is that of the church of England; though they have no bishop; the bishop of London's commissary being the chief religious magistrate in those parts.

About the beginning of this century, it was computed, that the number of whites in Jamaica amounted to sixty thousand, and that of the negroes to one hundred and twenty thousand. The present population we have already stated. A number of fugitives negroes, called maroons, have formed a sort of colony among the Blue Mountains, independent of the whites, with whom they make treaties, and to whom they send back run-away slaves.

The prosperity of the British West Indies particularly of the island of Jamaica, was formerly much greater than it is at present. Among the causes of the decline, the West-Indians complain of being deprived of the most beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spanish coast; of the low va-

lue of their produce, which they ascribe to the great improvements made in their sugar colonies, by the French, who have been able to undersell them, owing to the comparative smallness of their duties; of the trade carried on from Ireland and the united states to the French and Dutch islands, where they pay no duties, and are supplied with goods at an easier rate. Some of these complaints have been heard, and some remedies applied; others remain unredressed. Both the logwood-trade, and the contraband, have been the subject of much contention, and the cause of a war between Britain and the Spanish nation. The former was always avowed by the British and claimed as their right; and at the peace of 1763, it was confirmed to them. The latter was permitted; because they thought, and very justly, that if the Spaniards found themselves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lay upon them, to put a stop to it, by their guarda costas, which cruise in those seas, purposely to seize and confiscate such vessels and cargoes as are found in this trade. In this manner did the British court argue for a long time; till, at length, in compliance with the court of Spain, they thought proper to send English cruisers to the American coast, effectually to crush that lucrative trade, of which the whole body of British subjects in America loudly complained, as it put a stop to the principal channel which had enabled them to remit so largely to Britain.

Port-Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It stood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the sea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thousand sail of large ships, and of such depth as to allow them to load and unload with the greatest ease, weighed so much with the inhabitants, that they built their capital on this spot, though the place was a hot dry sand and produced none of the necessaries of life, not even fresh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the resort of pirates, made it a place of great consequence. These pirates were called buccaneers; they fought with an inconsiderate bravery, and then spent their fortune, in this capital, with an equally inconsiderate dissipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its size, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which shook the whole island to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, so as to leave, in one quarter, not even the smallest vestige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and swallowed up nine tenths of the houses, and two thousand people; the water gushed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but some of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houses, and were afterwards saved by boats. Several ships were cast away in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of sinking houses without upsetting, and afforded a retreat to some hundreds of people, who saved their lives upon her. An officer, who was in the town at this time, says, the earth opened and shut very quick in some places, and he saw several people sink down to their middle, others appeared with their heads just above ground, and were squeezed to death. At Savannah, above a thousand acres were sunk, with the houses and people in them; the place appearing for some time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houses were seen. In some parts, mountains were split; and at one place, a plantation was removed to the distance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city; but, ten years after it was destroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and again, in 1722, it was laid in rubbish by a hurricane, the most terrible on record. Such repeated calamities seemed to mark out this place as a devoted spot; the inhabitants therefore resolved to forsake it forever, and to reside at the opposite bay, where they built Kingston, which it at present the capital of the island.

Kingston consists of upwards of one hundred houses, many of them handsomely built, and in the taste of these islands, one story high, with porticoes, and every convenience for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingston, stands St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish-town, which, though at present inferior to Kingston, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is still the seat of government, and the place where the courts of justice are held.

On the third of October, 1780, a dreadful hurricane almost overwhelmed the little sea-port town of Savannah-la-Mer, and part of the adjacent country. Very few houses were left standing, and a great number of people were killed. Much damage was also done, and many lives lost, in other parts of the island.

The whole product of the island may be reduced to these heads. First sugars, of which they exported in 1753, twenty thousand three hundred and fifteen hogheads, some of them a ton in weight; which cannot be worth less in England than four hundred and twenty-four thousand seven hundred and twenty five pounds. Most of this goes to London, Bristol, and Glasgow, and some part of it to North-America, in return for the beef, pork, cheese, corn, peas, staves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from thence. Secondly, rum of which they export about four thousand puncheons. The rum of this island is generally esteemed the best, and is the most used in Britain. Thirdly, melasses, in which they made a great part of their returns for New-England, where there are vast distilleries. All these are the produce of the grand staple, the sugar cane. According to the late testimony of a respectable planter in Jamaica, that island hath two hundred and eighty thousand acres in canes, of which two hundred and ten thousand are commonly cut, and make from sixty-eight to seventy thousand tons of sugar, and four million two hundred thousand gallons of rum. Fourthly, cotton, of which they send out two thousand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now considerable; but some cocoa and coffee are exported, with a considerable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, sweet meats, mahogany, and manchineel planks. But some of the most considerable articles of their trade are with the Spanish continent of New-Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter, they carry on a very profitable trade. Even in time of war with Spain, the trade between Jamaica and the Spanish Main goes on, which it will be impossible for Spain to stop, while it is so profitable to the British merchant, and while the Spanish officers, from the highest to the lowest, show so great a respect to presents properly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, whilst they appear to live in such a state of luxury, as in most other places leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes. Their equipages, their clothes, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greatest wealth and profusion.

Learning is here at a very low ebb; there are, indeed, some gentlemen well versed in literature, who send their children to Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education, but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade or dissipation.

The misery and hardships of the negroes are truly moving, and though great care is taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive, so shortens their lives, that instead of increasing by the course of nature, many thousands are annually imported to the West-Indies to supply the place of those who pine and die through hard usage. It is pretended, they are stubborn and untractable for the most part, and that they must be ruled with a rod of iron; but surely they ought not to be crushed with it, or be regarded as beasts, without souls, as they appear to be by some of their masters, or overseers, though some of these tyrants are themselves the dogs of the British nation, and the refuse of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the hands of men of humanity, find their situation

easy and comfortable; and it has been observed that in North-America, and other countries where in general these wretches are better used, there is a less waste of negroes: they live longer, and propagate better. And it seems clear, from the whole course of history, that those nations which have behaved with the greatest humanity to their slaves, were always best served, and ran the least hazard from their rebellions. The slaves, on their first arrival from the coast of Guinea, are exposed naked to sale; they are then generally very simple and innocent, but they soon acquire vices, and commit crimes, through the force of example; and when they are whipped, excuse their faults by the conduct of the whites. They believe every negro returns to his native country when he dies. This thought is so agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burdens of life easy, which would otherwise, to many of them, be quite intolerable. They look on death as a blessing, and it is surprising, with what courage and intrepidity some of them meet it. When a negro is nearly expiring, his fellow slaves kiss him, wish him a good journey, and send their hearty good wishes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations, but with a great deal of joy, inter his body, believing he is gone home and happy.—When will the voice of humanity be properly attended to, and this opprobrium of cultivated nations cease!

Imports into Jamaica, in 1787.	Exports from Jamaica in the year 1787
From Britain, £758,932	Sugar, 840,458 wt.
From Ireland, 138,500	Rum, 2,543,025 gal.
From Africa, 213,800	Melasses, 6,416 gal.
From the British colonies } 30,000	Pimento, 616,444 lb.
in North-America. }	Coffee, 6,395 wt.
From the united states, 190,000	Cotton wool, 1,956,467 lb.
From Madeira and Te- } 15,000	Indigo, 27,623 lb.
neriffe, }	Ginger, 4,816 wt.
From the foreign West- } 150,000	Cacao, 82 cwt.
Indies }	Tobacco, 18,140 lb.
sterling 1,496,232	Mahogany, 5,878 tons.
	Logwood, 6,701 tons.
	Value of the whole, £2,136,442 sterling.

B A R B A D O E S .

THIS island, the most easterly of all the Carribbees, is situated in 16° west lon. from Philadelphia and 13° north lat. It is twenty-one miles in length, and in breadth fourteen. When the English, some time after the year 1625, first landed here, they found it the most rude and destitute place they had hitherto visited. It had not the least appearance of ever having been peopled even by savages. There was no kind of beast of pasture or of prey, neither fruit, herb, nor root, fit for supporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was good, and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortunes in England resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large, and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable support; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the soil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, answered tolerably. These prospects, together with the storm between the king and parliament, which was breaking out in England, induced many new adventurers to embark for this island. And what is extremely remarkable, so great was the increase of people in Barbadoes, in twenty-five years after its first settlement, that in 1650, it contained more than

fifty thousand whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian slaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they seized upon those unhappy men, without any pretence, in their neighbouring island, and carried them into slavery:—a practice, which has rendered the Caribbee-Indians' irreconcilable to British settlers ever since. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate sugar, which soon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of the slaves, therefore, was still augmented; and in 1676, it is supposed that they amounted to one hundred thousand; which, together with fifty thousand whites, made one hundred and fifty thousand on this small spot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world most renowned for numbers.

At this time Barbadoes employed four hundred sail of ships, which averaged one hundred and fifty tons, in its trade. Its annual exports in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron water, were above three hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling, and its circulating cash was two hundred thousand pounds. Such was the increase of population, trade and wealth, in the course of fifty years. But since that time, this island has declined, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French sugar colonies, and partly to the British establishments in the neighbouring isles. There are said to be at present, on the island, twenty thousand whites, and one hundred thousand slaves. Its commerce consists in the same articles as formerly, although to less extent. Its capital is Bridgetown, where the governor resides, whose employment is said to be worth five thousand pounds per annum. It has a college founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington; who has a native of this island. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has suffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague. On the 10th of October, 1780, a dreadful hurricane occasioned vast devastation in this island. Great numbers of the houses were destroyed, not one being wholly free from damage. Many persons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and great numbers were driven into the sea, and there perished.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.

THIS island, commonly called, by sailors, St. Kitts, is situated in 13 degrees east longitude, from Philadelphia, and 17 degrees north latitude, about fourteen leagues from Antigua, and is twenty miles long, and seven broad. It takes its name from the famous Christopher Columbus; who discovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it as unworthy of their attention; and, in 1626, it was settled by the French and English conjointly; but entirely ceded to the British by the peace of Utrecht. Besides cotton, ginger and the tropical fruits, it generally produces nearly as much sugar as Barbadoes. It is computed, that this island contains six thousand whites, and thirty-six thousand negroes. In February, 1782, it was taken by the French, but restored to England by the late treaty of peace.

A N T I G U A.

SITUATED in 14 degrees east longitude from Philadelphia, and 17 degrees north latitude, is of a circular form, nearly twenty miles over, each way. This island, which was formerly thought useless, has now attained a great degree of importance. It has one of the best harbours in the West-Indies, and its capital, St. John's, which, before the fire in 1669, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary seat of the governor of the Leeward islands. Antigua is supposed to contain about seven thousand whites, and thirty thousand slaves.

GRANADA AND THE GRANADINES.

GRANADA is situated in 12 degrees north latitude, and 13 degrees east longitude from Philadelphia, about thirty leagues south-west of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of New-Andalusia, or the Spanish Main. This island is said to be thirty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth. Experience has proved, that the soil is adapted for producing sugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole, it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flourishing a colony as any in the West-Indies, of its dimensions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the island, supplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours are round the island, some of which may be fortified with great advantages, which render it very convenient for shipping; and it has the happiness of not being subject to hurricanes. St. George's bay has a sandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour, or careening place, one hundred large vessels may be moored with perfect safety. This island was long the theatre of bloody wars between the Caribbees, or native Indians, and the French, during which the former defended themselves with the most resolute bravery: In the last war but one, when Granada was attacked by the English, the French inhabitants; who were not very numerous, were so amazed at the reduction of Gaudaloupe and Martinico, that they lost all spirit, and surrendered without making the least opposition; and the full property of this island, together with the small islands on the north, called the Granadines, which yield the same produce, were confirmed to Britain, by the treaty of Paris, in 1763. But in July 1779, the French made themselves masters of Granada, though it was restored to Britain by the late treaty of peace.

D O M I N I C A.

SITUATED in 16 degrees north latitude, and in 13 east longitude from Philadelphia, lies about half way between Gaudaloupe and Martinico. It is near twenty-eight miles in length, and thirteen in breadth. It received its present name from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The soil of this island is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of cotton than sugar; but the sides of hills bear the finest trees in the West-Indies, and the island is well supplied with rivulets of fine water.

S T. V I N C E N T.

SITUATED in 13 degrees north latitude, and 14 degrees east longitude from Philadelphia, fifty miles north-west of Barbadoes, and thirty miles south of St. Lucia; is about twenty-four miles in length, and eighteen in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a strong moal; the most proper for the raising of sugar, Indigo thrives here remarkably well; but this article is less cultivated than formerly throughout the West-Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, some of whom are fugitives, from Barbadoes and other islands. The Caribbeans were treated with so much injustice and barbarity, after this island came into possession of the English, to whom it was ceded by the peace, in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get possession of it again in 1779; but it was restored to Britain by the late treaty of peace.

N E V I S AND M O N T S E R R A T.

THESE islands, lying between St. Christopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding eighteen miles in circumference, are said to contain five thousand whites, and ten thousand slaves. The soil in these islands is light and sandy, but not

withstanding, fertile in a high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the sugar-cane. Both these islands were taken by the French, in 1782, but were restored to Britain at the peace.

BARBUDA,

SITUATED in 17 degrees 46 minutes north latitude, 13 degrees 10 minutes east longitude from Philadelphia, thirty-five miles north of Antigua, is twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth. It is fertile and has a good road for shipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in husbandry, and raising fresh provision for the use of the neighbouring isles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about fifteen hundred.

ANGUILLA.

SITUATED in 18 degrees north latitude, sixty miles northwest of St. Christopher's, is about fifty miles long, and ten broad. This island is a perfect level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themselves to husbandry, and feeding of cattle.

BERMUDAS OR SOMER ISLANDS.

THESE received their first name from their being discovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called the Somer islands, from sir George Somers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, on his passage to Virginia. They are situated at a vast distance from any continent, in 32° north latitude, and in 10° east longitude from Philadelphia. Their distance from the Land's end is computed to be near fifteen hundred leagues, from the Madeiras about twelve hundred, and from Carolina three hundred. The Bermudas are but small, not containing in all above twenty thousand acres; and are very difficult of access. Though the soil of these islands is adapted to the cultivation of the vine, the chief and only business of the inhabitants, who consist of about ten thousand, is the building and navigating of light sloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North-America and the West-Indies. These vessels are remarkable for their swiftness, as the cedar, of which they are built, is for its hard and durable quality. The inhabitants of the Bermudas have rendered themselves infamous by their late depredations on the American commerce.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is seated at the bottom of a haven in the island of the same name, and is defended by seven or eight forts and seventy pieces of cannon. It contains above one thousand houses, a handsome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAY'S OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.

THE Bahamas are situated to the south of Carolina, between 22 and 27 degrees north latitude, and 2 east and 6 west longitude from Philadelphia. They extend along the coast of Florida, to near the isle of Cuba; and are said to be five hundred in number, some of them only mere rocks; but twelve of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the soil of Carolina. They are, however, almost uninhabited, except Providence, which is two hundred miles east of Florida; though some others are larger and more fertile, on which the English have plantations. Between them and the continent is the gulf of Florida, through which the Spanish galleons sail in their passage to Europe.

These islands were the first fruits of Columbus's discoveries; but they were not known to the English till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his passage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a second time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The English, observing the advantageous situation of these islands, as being a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to settle them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky accidents prevented this settlement from being of any advantage; the isle of Providence became a harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time, infested the American navigation. This obliged the English government, in 1718, to send out captain Woodes Rogers, with a fleet to dislodge the pirates, and to make a settlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company stationed on the island. Ever since, these islands have been improving, though but slowly. In time of war, the inhabitants gain considerably by the prizes condemned there, and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and shelves.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

C U B A.

THE island of Cuba is situated between 19° and 23° north latitude, and between 1° E. and 12° W. lon. from Philad. one hundred miles to the south of Cape Florida, and seventy-five N. of Jamaica. It is near seven hundred miles in length, and generally about seventy miles in breadth. A chain of hills extends through the middle of the island from east to west: but the land near the sea is, in general, level, and flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical. This island is supposed to have the best soil for so large a country, of any in America. It produces all the commodities known in the West Indies, particularly ginger, long-pepper, and other spices, cassia, fistula, mastich, and aloes. It also produces tobacco and sugar; but owing to a scarcity of labourers, and the erroneous policy of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected. It is said that its exports do not equal in quantity those of the small island of Antigua.

The course of the rivers is too short to be of much consequence to navigation; but there are several good harbours in the island, which belong to the principal towns; as that of St. Jago, opposite Jamaica, well situated, and strongly fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah, also, which is the capital city of Cuba, and a place of great strength and importance, containing about two thousand houses, with a great number of convents and churches. Besides these, there is Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a considerable town, thirty miles east of the Havannah.

HISPANIOLA OR ST. DOMINGO.

THIS island was, at first, possessed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the most valuable, though the least extensive part has since been settled by the French. However, as the Spaniards were the original possessors, and still continue to have a share in it, Hispaniola is commonly regarded as a Spanish island.

It is situated between 17° and 21° north latitude, and 1° and 8° east longitude from Philadelphia, lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto Rico, and is four hundred and fifty miles long, with a variable breadth from one hundred and eighty miles to seven-

ty only. When Hispaniola was first discovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be, at least, one million. But such was the cruelty and want of just policy of the Spaniards, that they were reduced to sixty thousand in the space of fifteen years. The face of the island presents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers, and the soil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize and cassava root. The European cattle are so multiplied, in the Spanish part, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are sometimes hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the most barren parts of the rocks, silver and gold have been discovered. The mines however, are not worked now. The western part, which is in possession of the French, consists of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned, in vast abundance. This indeed is the best and most fruitful part of the best and most fertile island in the West Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The most ancient town in this island, and in all America, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name, it is said, in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole island is sometimes named. It is situated on a spacious harbour, though with an entrance for small ships only, and is a large, wellbuilt city, inhabited by a mixture of Europeans, creoles, mulattoes, mestizos, and negroes.

The French towns are, Cape St. Francois, the capital containing several years ago, about eight thousand whites and blacks, but at present little more than a heap of ruins. Port au Prince, though inferior in point of size, is a pretty good port, a place of considerable trade, and the seat of the French government in the island. They have two other towns, considerable for their trade, St. Marc and Les Cayes.

The following is said to be an exact statement of the product, population, and commerce of the French colony of Hispaniola, in the year 1788, and may serve to show the immense losses sustained by the late insurrection of the negroes.

POPULATION.] White people, twenty seven thousand seven hundred and seventeen; viz. nine thousand six hundred and ninety nine men; two thousand four hundred and one males above twelve years old; two thousand two hundred and ninety six under twelve years; one thousand two hundred and sixty-nine husbandmen of plantations; one thousand eight hundred and thirty-two plantation managers; three hundred and twenty five sugar refiners; three hundred and eight physicians; five hundred and ten mechanics; six hundred and fourteen clerks; two white servants; eight thousand five hundred and eleven women and girls.

Free people of colour, twenty one thousand eight hundred and eight; of whom three thousand four hundred and ninety three were men; two thousand eight hundred and ninety-two males above twelve years; two thousand eight hundred and ninety-two under twelve; two thousand seven hundred servants; nine thousand eight hundred and thirty-three women, or girls; slaves, four hundred and five thousand five hundred and twenty eight.

PLANTATIONS AND MANUFACTURES] Sugar, seven hundred and ninety two; indigo, three thousand and ninety seven; cotton, seven hundred and five; coffee two thousand eight hundred and ten; distilleries, one hundred and seventy-three; brick and potter's ware, sixty three; cocoa, sixty-nine; tanners, three.

Productions exported to France.

70,227,709 pounds of white sugar,	930,016 pounds of indigo.
93,177,518 do. brut do.	6,286,126 do. cotton.
68,151,181 do. coffee,	12,995 dressed skins.

Sold to American, English, and Dutch Smugglers.

25,000,000 pounds of brut sugars,	3,000,000 pounds of cotton.
12,000,000 do, coffee.	

The melasses, exported in American bottoms, valued at one million of dollars; precious wood, exported in French ships, two hundred thousand dollars.

TRADE.] Five hundred and eighty large ships, carrying one hundred and eighty-nine thousand six hundred and seventy-nine tons, in which the imports amounted to twelve millions of dollars, of which more than eight millions were in manufactured goods of France, and the other four millions in French produce.

The Spanish ships exported, in French goods or money, one million four hundred thousand dollars, for mules imported by them into the colony.

Ninety-eight French ships, carrying forty thousand one hundred and thirty tons, imported twenty-nine thousand five hundred and six negroes; which sold for eight millions of dollars.

The negroes in the French division of this island have, since the month of August, 1791, been in a state of insurrection. In the progress of these disturbances, which have not yet subsided, the planters and others have sustained immense losses. As this unhappy affair has engaged much of the attention of the public, we will give a summary statement of the causes of this insurrection, from a pamphlet published in 1792, entitled, "An enquiry into the causes of the insurrection of the negroes in the island of St. Domingo.

"The situation of the French colonies early attracted the attention of the constituent assembly. At this time all was as tranquil as such a state of oppression would permit. Political health can only be attributed to a country with a free constitution. The situation of the islands is that of a paralytic: one part is torpid, while the other is affected with the frantic motions of St. Vitus's dance.

"The first interference of the national assembly, in the affairs of the colonies, was by a decree of the 8th March, 1790, which declared, 'That all free persons, who were proprietors and residents of two years standing and who contributed to the exigencies of the state, should exercise the rights of voting, which constitute the quality of French citizens.'

"This decree, though in fact it gave no new rights to the people of colour, was regarded with a jealous eye by the white planters; who evidently saw, that the generality of the qualification included all descriptions of proprietors. They affected, however, to impose a different construction upon it. The people of colour appealed to common justice and common sense; it was to no purpose. The whites repelled them from their assemblies. Some commotions ensued, in which they mutually fell a sacrifice; the one party to their pride, the other to their resentment.

These disturbances again excited the vigilance of the national assembly. A decree was passed on the 12th day of October, 1790, by which the assembly declared, as a constitutional article, 'That they would establish no regulations respecting the internal government of the colonies, without the precise and formal request of the colonial assemblies.'

"Peace, however, was not the consequence of this decree. The people of colour it is true, had obtained a legal right of voting; but the unfortunate question still recurred; who should be permitted to exercise that right? On this head the decree was silent. New dissensions arose; each of the parties covered, under a pretended patriotism, the most atrocious designs. Assassination and revolt became frequent. Maudit, a French officer of rank, lost his life by the hands of his own countrymen. The unfortunate Oge, a planter of colour, who had exerted himself in France in the cause of his brethren, resolved to support their just pretensions by force. He landed in the Spanish territory of St. Domingo, where he assembled about six hundred mulattoes. Before he proceeded to hostilities, he wrote to the French general, that his desire was for peace, provided the laws were enforced. His letter was absurdly considered as a declaration of war. Being attacked and vanquished, he took refuge among the Spaniards, who delivered him up to his adversaries. The horrors of his death were the

harbingers of future crimes. These disturbances still increasing, the national assembly found it necessary, at length, to decide between the contending parties.

“On the 15th of May, 1791, a decree was passed, consisting of two articles, by the first of which the assembly confirmed that of the 12th of October, so far as respected the slaves in their islands. It is true that the word slave was cautiously omitted in this document, and they are only characterized by the negative description of “men not free,” as if right and wrong depended on a play of words, or a mode of expression.

“This part of the decree met with but little opposition; though it passed not without severe reprehension from a few enlightened members. The second article, respecting the people of colour, was strongly contested. Those who were before known by the appellation of patriots, divided upon it. It was, however, determined in the result, that the people of colour, born of free parents, should be considered as active citizens, and be eligible to the offices of government in the islands:

“This second article, which decided upon a right that the people of colour had been entitled to for upwards of a century, instead of restoring peace, may be considered as the cause, or rather the pretext, of all the subsequent evils that the colony of St. Domingo has sustained. They arose, not indeed from its execution, but from its counteraction by the white colonists. Had they, after the awful warnings they had already experienced, obeyed the ordinances of an assembly they pretended to revere—had they imbibed one drop of the true spirit of that constitution to which they had vowed an inviolable attachment—had they even suppressed the distates of pride in the suggestions of prudence—the storm that threatened them had been averted; and in their obedience to the parent state, they had displayed an act of patriotism, and preserved themselves from all possibility of danger.

“But the equalization of the people of colour stung the irritable nerves of the white colonists. No sooner had the decree passed, than deputies from the islands to the national assembly withdrew their attendance. The colonial committee, always under the influence of the planter, suspended their labours. Its arrival in the island struck the whites with consternation. They vowed to sacrifice their lives rather than suffer the execution of the decree. Their rage bordered upon phrenzy. They proposed to imprison the French merchants then in the island, to tear down the national flag, and to hoist the British standard in its place. Whilst the joy of the mulattoes was mingled with apprehensions and with fears, St. Domingo re-echoed with the cries of the whites, with their menaces, with their execrations against the constitution. A motion was made in the streets to fire upon the people of colour, who fled from the city, and took refuge in the plantations of their friends, and in the woods. They were at length recalled by a proclamation; but it was only to swear subordination to the whites, and to be witnesses of fresh enormities. Amidst these agitations, the slaves had remained in their accustomed subordination: Nor was it till the month of August, 1791, that the symptoms of insurrection appeared amongst them.

“A considerable number, both of whites and people of colour, had lost their lives in these commotions, before the slaves had given indications of disaffection. They were not, however, insensible of the opportunities of revolt afforded by the dissensions of their masters. They had learnt, that no alleviation of their miseries was ever to be expected from Europe; that in the struggle for colonial dominion, their humble interests had been equally sacrificed or forgotten by all parties: They felt their curb relaxed by the disarming and dispersion of their mulatto masters, who had been accustomed to keep them under rigorous discipline. Hopeless of relief from any quarter, they rose in different parts, and spread desolation over the island. If the cold cruelties of despotism have no bounds, what shall be expected from the paroxysms of despair?

“On the 11th of September, 1791, a convention took place, which produced the agreement called the Concordat, by which the white planters stipulated that they

would no longer oppose the law of the 15th of May, which gave political rights to the people of colour. The colonial assembly even promised to meliorate the situation of the people of colour, born of parents not free, and to whom the decree of the 15th of May did not extend. An union was formed between the planters, which, if it had sooner taken place, would have prevented the insurrection. The insurgents were every where dispersed, repulsed, and dispersed; and the colony itself preserved from total destruction.

“But, unfortunately, by a decree of the national assembly of the 24th of September, the people of colour were virtually excluded from all right of colonial legislation, and expressly placed in the power of the white colonists.

“If the decree, of the 15th of May, instigated the white colonists to the frantic acts of violence before described, what shall we suppose were the feelings of the people of colour on that of the 24th of September, which again blasted those hopes they had justly founded on the constitutional law of the parent state, and the solemn ratification of the white colonists? No sooner was it known in the islands, than those dissensions, which the revolt of the negroes had, for a while, appeased, broke out with fresh violence. The apprehensions entertained from the slaves, had been allayed by the effects of the Concordat; but the whites no sooner found themselves relieved from the terror of immediate destruction, than they availed themselves of the decree of the 24th of September; they formally revoked the Concordat, and treacherously refused to comply with an engagement to which they owed their very existence. The people of colour were in arms; they attacked the whites in the southern provinces; they possessed themselves of fort St. Louis, and defeated their opponents in several engagements. A powerful body surrounded Port au Prince, the capital of the island, and claimed the execution of the Concordat. At three different times did the whites assent to the requisition, and as often broke their engagement. Gratified with the predilection for aristocracy, which the constituent assembly had avowed, they affected the appellation of patriots, and had the address to transfer the popular odium to the people of colour, who were contending for their indisputable rights, and to the few white colonists who had virtue enough to espouse their cause. Under this pretext, the municipality of Port au Prince required M. Grimoard, the captain of the Boreas, a French line of battle ship to bring his guns to bear upon, and cannonade the people of colour, assembled near the town. He at first refused; but the crew, deluded by the cry of patriotism, enforced his compliance. No sooner was this measure adopted, than the people of colour gave a loose to their indignation; they spread over the country, and set fire indiscriminately to all the plantations; the greatest part of the town of Port au Prince soon after shared the same fate. Nothing seemed to remain for the white inhabitants but to seek their safety in quitting the colony.

“In the northern parts, the people of colour adopted a more magnanimous, and, perhaps, a more prudent conduct. “They began,” says Mr. Vergniaud, “by offering their blood to the whites. We shall wait,” said they “till we have saved you, before we assert our own claims.” They accordingly opposed themselves to the revolted negroes with unexampled courage. They endeavoured to soothe them by attending to their reasonable requisitions; and if the colony of St. Domingo be preserved to the French nation, it will be by the exertions of the people of colour.”

After this recital, we leave the effects of this dreadful insurrection to be described by the professed historian. He will probably relate how this flourishing colony has been ravaged by fire and sword; how, after the most horrible scenes that can be conceived, Cape Francois became the prey of devouring flames on the 22d of June, 1793; how the wretched fugitives, who escaped with difficulty from the horrors of conflagration, and the merciless attempts of their slaves, were, with more than Algerine barbarity, plundered of the sorry remnants of their shattered fortunes, by the British

privateers; how the English and the Spaniards, some months afterwards, seized upon several places in the French part of the island; how the wretched colonists, who, under the promise of protection from the Spaniards, returned from their exile in the united states, to Fort Dauphin, where they were infamously massacred by the troops of the negro Jean Francois, a general in the service of the king of Spain, and in sight of the Spanish troops; and, in fine, how the efforts of England and Spain have been so futile or so weakly directed, that a handful of French republicans, exciting and conducting the revolted slaves, threaten at the present time, to leave to those two nations, only the piercing regret of having held out to the aristocratic inhabitants, a protection not only vain, but even fatal to St. Domingo, as it has only served to hasten the destruction of those unfortunate people.

P O R T O - R I C O,

SITUATED between 8 and 11 degrees east from Philadelphia, and in 18 degrees north latitude, lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's, is one hundred miles long and forty broad. The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the same kind of fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers; but the island is unhealthful in the rainy seasons. It was on account of the gold mines, that the Spaniards settled here; but there is no longer any considerable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto-Rico, the capital town, stands on a little island on the north side, forming a capacious harbour. It is joined to the chief island by a causeway, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It is better inhabited than most of the Spanish towns, because it is the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the subjects of Spain.

V I R G I N I S L A N D S,

SITUATED at the east end of Porto-Rico, are extremely small.

T R I N I D A D,

SITUATED between 13 and 16 degrees east longitude from Philadelphia, and in 10 degrees north latitude, lies between the island of Tobago and the Spanish Main; from which it is separated by the straits of Paria. It is about ninety miles long, and sixty broad; and has an unhealthful climate, but fruitful soil, producing sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, some cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the island, and extorted money from the inhabitants.

M A R G A R E T T A.

SITUATED in 11 degrees east longitude, and 11 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, separated from the northern coast of New Andalusia, in Terra Firma, by a strait of twenty four miles, is about forty miles in length, and twenty four in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a most agreeable prospect. The island abounds in pasture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a scarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fishery on its coast, which is now discontinued.

There are many other small islands in these seas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention. We shall therefore proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the first Spanish island, of any importance, is Chiloe, on the coast of Chili, which has a governor, and some harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES,

LYING in 8 degrees west longitude, and 33 south latitude, three hundred miles west of Chili, is uninhabited; but having some good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for cruisers to touch at and water. This island is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It seems, one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotsman, was left ashore in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived some years, until he was discovered by captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had almost forgotten his native language, and could scarcely be understood, seeming to speak his words by halves. He was dressed in goats' skins, would drink nothing but water, and it was some time before he could relish the ship's victuals. During his abode in this island, he had killed five hundred goats, which he caught by running them down; and he had marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of these were caught, thirty years after, by lord Anson's people; their venerable aspect, and majestic beards, discovered strong symptoms of antiquity.

Selkirk, upon his return to England, was advised to publish an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is said to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication; but that writer, by help of those papers and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; so that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigested for publication, and Defoe might derive little from them, but those hints, which gave rise to his own celebrated performance.

FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE French were among the last nations who made settlements in the West-Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they pursued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they used in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate affords, and in contending against the difficulties which it threw in their way.

That the colonies might be as little burdened as possible, and that the governor might have less temptation to stir up troublesome intrigues, or favour factions in his government, his salary was paid by the crown; he had no perquisites, and was strictly forbidden to carry on any trade, or to have any plantations in the islands or on the continent; or any interest whatever, in goods or lands, within his government, except the house he lived in, and a garden for his convenience and recreation. All the other officers were paid by the crown, out of the revenues of the mother country. The fortifications were built and repaired, and the soldiers paid out of the same fund.

Their colonies in general paid no taxes but when, upon any extraordinary emergency, taxes were raised, they were always very moderate. The duties upon the export of their produce, at the West-India islands, or at its import into France, were next to nothing; in both places hardly making two per cent. The commodities sent to the islands paid no duties at all. Their other regulations, respecting the judges of the admiralty, law-suits, recovery of debts, lenity to such as had suffered by earthquakes, hurricanes, or bad seasons, the peopling of their colonies, number of whites

to be employed by the planters, and lastly, the management of negroes, cannot be sufficiently admired; and might have been imitated, with great advantage, by their neighbours.

We have already mentioned the French colony upon the Spanish island of Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, as the most important and valuable of all their foreign settlements. We shall next proceed to the islands of which the French claim the sole possession, beginning with the large and important one of

MARTINICO,

WHICH is situated between 14 and 15 degrees of north latitude, and in 14 degrees east longitude, lying about forty leagues northwest of Barbadoes, is about forty-five miles in length, and half as much in breadth: The inland part of it is hilly, and pours out, on every side, a number of agreeable and useful rivers, which adorn and enrich this island in a high degree. The produce of the soil is sugar, cotton, and such fruits as are found in the neighbouring isles. But sugar is here, as in all the West-India islands, the principal commodity, of which there is exported a considerable quantity annually. Martinico is the residence of the governor of the French windward islands in those seas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious; and so well fortified, that they often bade defiance to the English, till the year 1762, when this island was added to the British empire, but it was restored at the treaty of peace in 1763. Martinico was again taken by the English in the month of April, 1794.

GUADALOUPE,

SO called by Columbus, from the resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Spain, is situated in 16 degrees north latitude, and 13 east longitude, about thirty leagues north of Martinico, and almost as much south of Antigua; being forty-five miles long, and thirty-eight broad. It is divided into two parts, by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ships can venture; but the inhabitants pass it in a ferry-boat. Its soil is more fertile than that of Martinico, producing sugar, cotton, &c. This island is in a flourishing condition, and its exports of sugar are almost incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the English, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759, they reduced it, and restored it at the peace of 1763. Guadaloupe was again taken by the British forces in April, 1794; but the French republicans retook it about the end of the same year.

ST. LUCIA,

SITUATED in 14 degrees north lat. and in 14 degrees east lon. eighty miles north-west of Barbadoes, is twenty-three miles in length, and twelve in breadth. The English first settled here in 1637. From that time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; at length it was agreed on between the latter and the English, that St. Lucia, with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French before the war of 1756 commenced, began to settle these two latter islands; which, by the subsequent treaty of peace in 1763, were surrendered to Britain, and this island to France. The soil of St. Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds with pleasant rivers, and well situated harbours; and was declared a free port under certain restrictions. The English made themselves masters of it in 1778; but it was restored again to the French in 1783. This island was a second time reduced by the English in 1794, at the same time as Martinico and Guadaloupe.

T O B A G O .

THIS island is situated in 11 degrees odd minutes north latitude, one hundred and twenty miles south of Barbadoes, and about the same distance from the Spanish Main. It is about thirty-two miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not as hot as might be expected so near the equator; and it has been falsely said that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes, that have sometimes proved so fatal to the other West-India islands. It has a fruitful soil, capable of producing sugar, and indeed every thing else that is raised in the West-Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous springs; and its bays and creeks are so disposed, as to be very commodious for all kinds of shipping. It has been chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who defended their pretensions, against both England and France, with the most obstinate perseverance. By the treaty of Aix-la Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; though by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great-Britain; but in June, 1781, it was taken by the French, and ceded to them by the treaty of 1783. The English took it in 1793.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, AND MARIEGALANTE,

ARE three small islands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Christopher's; and of no great consequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give shelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy the British West-India trade. St. Bartholomew is now to be considered as belonging to the crown of Sweden, being ceded to it by France, in 1785.

The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated near Newfoundland, belonging to France, have been already mentioned with that island.

D U T C H I S L A N D S I N A M E R I C A ,

S T . E U S T A T I U S , O R E U S T A T I A .

SITUATED in $17^{\circ} 29''$ north lat. $11^{\circ} 50'$ east lon. and three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's, is only a mountain, about twenty-nine miles in compass: rising out of the sea, like a pyramid, and almost round. But though so small, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the industry of the Dutch has made it very valuable; and it is said to contain five thousand whites, and fifteen thousand negroes. The sides of the mountain are disposed in very pretty settlements; but they have neither springs nor rivers. They raise here sugar and tobacco; and this island, as well as Curassou, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade; and both places generally profit by their neutrality. But when hostilities were commenced by Great-Britain against Holland, admiral Rodney and general Naughan were sent, with a considerable land and sea force, against St. Eustatius, which being incapable of defence, surrendered at discretion, on the 3d of February, 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiscated with an infamous degree of rigour. The pretended reason was that the inhabitants of St. Eustatius had assisted the united fleets with naval and other stores. But on the 27th of November, the same year St. Eustatius was retaken by the French, under the command of the marquis de Bouille, though their force consisted of only three frigates and some small craft, and about three hundred men.

C U R A S S O U.

SITUATED in 12 degrees north lat. nine or ten leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is thirty miles long and ten broad. The island is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for its water, but the harbour was naturally one of the worst in America: yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect. There, have upon this harbour one of the largest and at the same time, the most elegant and cleanly town in the West-Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handsome: the private houses commodious; and the magazine large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; some of them so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock.

Though this island is naturally barren, the industry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a considerable quantity both of tobacco and sugar; it has, besides, good salt works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands, and the united states. But what renders this island of most advantage to the Dutch is, the contraband trade carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war, when the Dutch remain neutral.

The Dutch ships from Europe touch here for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spanish coast for trade, which they force with a strong hand, it being very difficult for the Spanish guarda-costas to take these vessels; for they are not only stout ships with a number of guns, but manned with large crews of chosen seamen, deeply interested in the safety of the vessel and the success of the voyage. They have each a share in the cargo proportioned to their respective ranks, and supplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime cost. This animates them with uncommon courage and they fight bravely, because every man fights in defence of his own property.

Curassou has numerous warehouses, almost always full of the commodities of Europe and the East-Indies. Here are all sorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, silks, ribbands, iron utensils, naval and military stores, brandy, the spices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch West-India, which is also their African company, annually bring three or four cargoes of slaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themselves come in small vessels, and carry off not only the best of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above sorts of goods; and the seller has this advantage, that the refuse of warehouses and mercers shops, and almost every thing that has grown unfashionable and unsaleable in Europe, meets a good market; every thing being sufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and silver, coined or in bars, cocoa, vanilla, jesuit's bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curassou, even in times of peace, is said to be annually worth to the Dutch no less than five hundred thousand pounds; but in time of war, the profit is still greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the West-Indies: it affords a retreat to ships of all nations, and at the same time refuses none of them arms and ammunition. The intercourse with Spain being then interrupted, the Spanish colonies have scarcely any other market from whence they can be well supplied either with slaves or goods. The French come thither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which are brought from the continent of North-America, or exported from Ireland; so that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this island flourishes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American settlements was originally carried on by the West-India company alone: at present such of the ships as engage in that trade, pay two and a half per cent. for their licenses: the company, however, reserve to them-

selves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American islands.

The other islands, Bonaire and Aruba are inconsiderable in themselves, and should be regarded as appendages to Curassou, for which they are chiefly employed in raising cattle and other provisions.

The small islands of Saba and St. Martin's, situated at a great distance from St. Eustatius, were both captured by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, at the time when Eustatius surrendered to the arms of Great Britain, but were afterwards retaken by the French.

DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS,

AN inconsiderable member of the Carribees, situated in 11 degrees east lon. and 11 north lat. about fifteen miles in circumference. It has a safe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ.

A SMALL and unhealthy island, lying about five leagues east of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadest. These islands, so long as they remained in the hands of the Danish West-India company, were ill managed, and of little consequence; but that wise and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's stock, and laid the trade open; and since that time, the island of St. Thomas, as well as this, has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of three thousand hogheads of sugar, of one thousand weight each, and other West India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for sale; and a great many vessels trade from hence along the Spanish Main, and return with specie or bullion, and valuable merchandise. As to Santa Cruz, from a perfect desert a few years since, it is now settling very fast. Several persons from the English islands, some of them of considerable property, have migrated thither, and have received very great encouragement.

NEW DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been considerably augmented by the late discoveries of the Russians, and British and American navigators, which have been numerous and important: and of these discoveries we shall therefore here give a compendious account.

NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

THIS consists of four groups of islands, lying between the eastern coast of Kamtschatka and the western coast of the continent of America. The first group,

which is called by some of the islanders *Salignan*, comprehends, 1. Beering's island; 2. Copper island; 3. *Otma*; 4. *Samyra*, or *Shemiya*; 5. *Anakta*. The second group is called *Khao*, and comprizes eight islands, viz. 1. *Immak*; 2. *Kiska*; 3. *Tchetcha*; 4. *Ava*; 5. *Kavia*; 6. *Tschangulhk*; 7. *Ulagama*; 8. *Amichidga*. The third general name is *Negho*, and comprehends the islands known to the Russians under the name of *Andreanoffski Ostrova*: sixteen of which are mentioned under the following names; 1. *Amarkinak*; 2. *Ulak*; 3. *Unalga*; 4. *Navotsha*; 5. *Uluga*; 6. *Anagin*; 7. *Kagulak*; 8. *Illask*, or *Illak*; 9. *Takavanga*, upon which is a volcano; 10. *Kanaga*, which has also a volcano; 11. *Leg*; 12. *Skeshuna*; 13. *Tagaloon*; 14. *Goreloi*; 15. *Otchu*; 16. *Amla*. The fourth group is called *Kavalang*, and comprehends sixteen islands; which are called by the Russians *Lyssie Ostrovo*, or the *Fox Islands*; and which are named, 1. *Amuchta*; 2. *Tschizama*; 3. *Tschegula*; 4. *Uniftra*; 5. *Ulaga*; 6. *Tauagulana*; 7. *Kagamin*; 8. *Kigala*; 9. *Skelmaga*; 10. *Umnak*; 11. *Agun-Alafhka*; 12. *Unimga*; 13. *Uligan*; 14. *Anturo-Leifsume*; 15. *Semidit*; 16. *Senagak*.

Some of these islands are only inhabited occasionally, and for some months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but some have a great number of inhabitants, who constantly reside on them. Copper Island receives its name from the copper which the sea throws upon its coasts. The inhabitants of these islands are in general, of a short stature, with strong and robust limbs, but free and supple. They have lank black hair, little beard, flatfish faces, and fair skins. They are, for the most part, well made, and of strong constitutions, suitable to the boisterous climate of their isles. The inhabitants of the two first groups, called the Aleutian isles, live upon roots which grow wild, and sea animals. They do not employ themselves in catching fish, though the rivers abound with salmon, and the sea with turbot. Their clothes are made of the skins of sea-otters and birds.

The Fox islands are so called from the great number of black, grey, and red foxes with which they abound. The dress of the inhabitants consists of a cap and a fur coat which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of party-coloured bird skins, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the forepart of their hunting and fishing caps, they place a small board, like a screen, adorned with the jaw-bones of sea bears, and ornamented with glass beads, which they receive in barter from the Russians. At their festivals and dancing-parties, they use a much more showy sort of caps. They feed upon the flesh of sea animals, which they generally eat raw. But when they dress their victuals, they make use of a hollow stone; having placed the fish or flesh therein, they cover it with another, and close the interstices with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two stones, and light a fire under it. The provisions intended for preserving, are dried without salt in the open air. Their weapons consist of bows, arrows, and darts; and for defence they use wooden shields.

The most perfect equality reigns among these islanders. They are said to have neither chiefs nor superiors, laws nor punishments. They live together in families, and societies of several families united, which form what they call a race, who, in case of attack, or defence, mutually help and support each other. The inhabitants of the same island always pretend to be of the same race; and every person looks upon this island as a possession, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the same society. Feasts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of the others. The men of the village meet their guests beating drums, and preceded by the women who sing and dance. At the conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake of the feast. They feed their children when very young with the coarsest flesh, and for the most part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the sea side, and whether it be summer or winter, holds

it naked in the water until it is quiet. This custom is so far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them against the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter, without the least inconvenience. They seldom heat their dwellings; but, when they are desirous of warming themselves, they light a bundle of hay, and stand over it; or else they set fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They have a good share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but when an injury, or even a suspicion rouses them from this phlegmatic state, they become inflexible and furious, taking the most violent revenge, without regard to consequences. The least affliction prompts them to suicide; even the apprehension of an uncertain evil often leads them to despair.

The discovery of an INLAND SEA, containing a great number of ISLANDS
 IN NORTH AMERICA.

FROM the observations made by captain Cook on the inhabitants of the western part of America, about the latitude of 64° north, it appeared that a strong similarity appeared between them and the Esquimaux on the eastern coast. Hence it was even then conjectured, that a communication by sea existed between the eastern and western sides of that continent.

In this part of America, however, a most surprising discovery has lately been made, which, when properly authenticated, cannot fail to be of the utmost utility, not only to science in general, but to the commercial and political interests of mankind; not to say, that it will undoubtedly contribute, by giving an opportunity for the advancement of civilization, to their moral interests also. This though not made by captain Cook himself, took place in consequence of his discoveries on the northwest coast of America. In these parts he found that such quantities of valuable furs might be purchased from the inhabitants, as promised to be a very profitable article of commerce, provided any regular connexion could be established between that part of the world, and the British settlements in the East-Indies. This talk was quickly undertaken by some spirited adventurers, who unluckily have found themselves opposed both by friends and foes, viz. the East-India company, and the Spaniards; the former pretending that they had no right to dispose of furs in the East Indies, and the latter that they had none to bring them from the western coast of America. Mr. Etches, who fitted out ships for this purpose, discovered that all the western coast of America, from the latitude of 48 degrees to 57 north, was not a continued tract of land, but a chain of islands which had never been explored, and that these concealed the entrance to a vast inland sea, like the Baltic, or Mediterranean in Europe, and which seems likewise to be full of islands. Among these, Mr. Etches' ship, the Princess Royal, penetrated several hundred leagues in a north-east direction, till they came within two hundred leagues of Hudson's Bay; but as the intention of their voyage was merely commercial, they had not time fully to explore the Archipelago, just mentioned, nor did they arrive at the termination of this new Mediterranean sea. From what they really did discover, however, it is probable, that there may this way be a communication with Hudson's-Bay, in which case, the northwest passage to the East-Indies will be found through seas much more navigable than those in which it has hitherto been attempted. The islands, which they explored, were all inhabited by tribes of Indians, who appeared very friendly, and well-disposed to carry on a commerce. Of these islands, upwards of fifty were visited, and we are informed, that

some ships are now fitting out at one of the ports of England for the same place, so that farther discoveries may soon be expected.

THE PELEW ISLANDS.

THE existence and situation of these islands were probably known to the Spaniards at a distant period; but, from a report among the neighbouring islands, of their being inhabited by a savage race of canibals, it appears, that there had never been the least communication between them and any of the Europeans, till the Antelope packet (belonging to the East-India company) was wrecked on one of them, in August 1783. From the accounts given of these islands, by captain Wilson, who commanded the packet, it appears, that they are situated between the 5th and 9th degrees north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of east longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a N. E. and S. W. direction; they are long, but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood; the climate temperate and agreeable; the lands produce sugar-cane, yams, cocoa-nuts, plaintans, bananas, oranges, and lemons; and the surrounding seas abound with the finest and greatest variety of fish.

The natives of these islands are a stout, well made people, above the middle stature; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is understood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two small aprons, one behind, and one before, made of the husks of the cocoa-nut, dyed with different shades of yellow.

The government is monarchical; and the king absolute; but his power is exercised more with the mildness of a father than as a sovereign. He occasionally creates his nobles, called rupacks or chiefs, and confers a singular honour of knighthood, called the *order of the bone*, the members of which are distinguished by wearing a bone on their arm.

The idea, which the account published by captain Wilson gives us of these islanders, is, that of a people, who though, naturally ignorant of the arts and sciences, and living in the simplest state of nature, yet possess all that genuine politeness, that delicacy and chastity of intercourse between the sexes, that respect for personal property, that subordination to government, and those habits of industry, which are so rarely united in the more civilized societies of modern times.

It appears, that when the English were thrown on one of these islands, they were received by the natives with the greatest humanity and hospitality: and, till their departure, experienced the utmost courtesy and attention. "They felt, our people were distressed, and, in consequence, wished they should share whatever they had to give. It was not that worldly magnificence that bestows and spreads its favours with a distant eye to retribution. It was the pure emotion of native benevolence. It was the love of man to man. It was a scene that pictures human nature in triumphant colouring, and whilst their liberality gratified the sense, their virtue struck the heart."

THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS.

ARE five in number, first discovered by Quiros in 1595; and their situation better ascertained by captain Cook in 1774. St. Dominica is the largest, about sixteen leagues in circuit. The inhabitants, their language, manners, and clothing, with the vegetable productions, are nearly the same as at the Society Isles.

OTAHEITE OR KING GEORGE'S ISLAND.

THIS island was discovered by captain Wallis, in the *Dolphin**, on the 19th of June, 1767. It is situated between the 17th degree 28 minutes, and the 17th degree 53 minutes, south latitude; and between the 74th degree 11 minutes, and the 74th degree 39 minutes, west longitude from Philadelphia. It consists of two peninsulas, of a somewhat circular form, joined by an isthmus, and is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form several excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almost any number of the largest ships. The face of the country is very extraordinary; for a border of low land almost entirely surrounds each peninsula, and behind this border, the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle of these divisions, and these form mountains that may be seen at sixty leagues distance. The soil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, forming the most delightful groves. The border of low land that lies between the ridges, and the sea, is in few places more than a mile and a half broad, and this, together with some of the vallies, are the only parts that are inhabited. Captain Wallis made some stay at this island: and it was afterwards visited again by captain Cook in the *Endeavour*, in April, 1769. That commander was accompanied by Joseph Banks

* The *Dolphin* was sent out, under the command of captain Wallis, with the *Swallow*, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expense of the British government, in August 1766, in order to make discoveries in the southern hemisphere. These vessels proceeded together, till they came within sight of the South Sea, at the western entrance of the strait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June 1767, captain Wallis discovered an island about four miles long, and three wide, to which he gave the name of *Whitsum Island*, it being discovered on Whitfun-eve. Its latitude is 19 deg. 26 min. south, and its longitude 62 deg. 56 min. west from Philadelphia. The next day he discovered another island, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Island*. The inhabitants of this island, captain Wallis says, were of a middle stature, and dark complexion, with long black hair, which hung loose over their shoulders. The men were well made, and the women handsome. Their clothing was a kind of coarse cloth or matting, which was fastened about their middle, and seemed capable of being brought up round their shoulders. This island is about six miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude 19 deg. 18 min. south, longitude 63 deg. 4 min. west. In the space of a few days after, he also discovered several other small islands, to which he gave the names of *Egnont Island*, *Gloucester Island*, *Cumberland Island*, *Prince William Henry's Island*, and *Osnaburg Island*.

On the 19th of the same month, he discovered the island of *Otaheite*; and after he had quitted that island, he discovered, on the 23th of July, 1767, another island about six miles long, which he called *Sir Charles Saunders's Island*;

and on the 30th of the same month another about ten miles long, and four broad, which he called *Lord Howe's Island*. After having discovered some other small islands, one of which was named *Wallis's Island*, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November, at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February, 1768, and his ship anchored safely in the Downs on the 20th of May following.

Captain Carteret, in the *Swallow*, after he had parted with captain Wallis, in the *Dolphin*, having passed through the strait of Magellan, and made some stay at the island of *Masafuero*, discovered, on the 2d of July, 1767, an island about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of *Pitcairn's Island*. It lies in latitude 25 deg. 2 min. south, longitude 53 deg. 21 min. west from Philadelphia, and about a thousand leagues to the eastward of the continent of America. The 11th of the same month he discovered another small island, to which he gave the name of the *Bishop of Osnaburg's Island*. The next day he discovered two other small islands, which he called the *Duke of Gloucester's Island*. The following month he discovered a cluster of small islands, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's islands*, and also three others, which he named *Gower's island*, *Simpson's island*, and *Carteret's island*. On the 24th of the same month he discovered *Sir Charles Hardy's island*, which lies in latitude 4 deg. 50 min. south, and the next day *Winchelsea's island*, which is distant about ten leagues, in the direction of S. by E. He afterwards discovered several other islands, and then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived in March, 1769.

and dr. Solander ; and these gentlemen, together with the captain, made a very accurate survey of the island. He again visited it 1773 and 1777.

Some parts of the island of Otaheite are very populous ; and captain Cook was of opinion, that the number of inhabitants on the whole island amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion ; the men are tall, strong, well-limbed, and finely shaped ; the women are of an inferior size, but very amorous, and indeed generally somewhat licentious. Their clothing consists of cloth or matting of different kinds ; and the greatest part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa-nuts, bananas, bread-fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit. - Those of their houses, which are of a middling size, are of an oblong square, about twenty-four feet long, and eleven wide, with a shelving roof supported on three rows of posts, parallel to each other, one row on each side, and one in the middle. The utmost height within, is about nine feet, and the eaves on each side reach to within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the rest is open, no part being enclosed with a wall. The roof is thatched with palm-leaves, and the floor covered some inches deep with soft hay, over which they lay mats ; upon these they sit in the day, and sleep at night. They have no tools among them made of metal ; and those they use are made of stone, or some kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otaheite are remarkable for their cleanliness ; for both men and women constantly wash their whole bodies in running water three times every day. Their language is soft and melodious, and abounds with vowels.

There are no tame animals on the island, but hogs, dogs, and poultry ; and the only wild animals are tropical birds, paroquets, pigeons, ducks, a few other birds, rats, and a very few serpents. The sea, however, supplies the inhabitants with a great variety of the most excellent fish, and by the kindness of the English and the Spaniards, they have now bulls and cows, sheep, goats, horses and mares, geese, ducks, peacocks, turkeys, and cats.

In other countries, the men cut their hair short, and the women pride themselves on its length ; but here the women always cut it short round their ears, and the men (except the fisheries, who are almost continually in the water) suffer it to spread over their shoulders, or tie it up in a bunch on the top. - They have the custom of discolouring the skin, by pricking it with a small instrument, the teeth of which are dipped into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, and this is called tattooing. This is performed upon the youth of both sexes, when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on several parts of the body and in various figures. Their principal manufacture is of cloth, of which there are three kinds, made of the bark of three different trees. The finest and whitest is made of the Chinese paper mulberry tree ; and this is chiefly worn by the principal people. Another considerable manufacture is matting, some of which is finer, and in every respect better, than any in America. The coarser sort serves them to sleep upon, and the finer to wear in wet weather. They are likewise very dexterous in making wicker-work ; their baskets are of a thousand different patterns, and many of them exceedingly neat. The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one supreme deity, but at the same time acknowledge a variety of subordinate deities : they offer up their prayers without the use of idols, and believe the existence of the soul in a separate state, where there are two situations, of different degrees of happiness. Among these people, a subordination is established, which somewhat resembles the early state of the European nations, under the feudal system. If a general attack happens to be made upon the island, every district is obliged to furnish its proportion of soldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are slings, which they use with great dexterity, and clubs of about six or seven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are constructed for war-like operations. Otaheite is said to be able to send out seventeen hundred and twenty war canoes, and fifty thousand fighting men.

Eimeo, Mataia or Osnaburg Island, and Fethuroa, are considered as islands dependent on Otaheite; the customs of the inhabitants of the two former nearly agreeing with the Otaheiteans.

THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.

OF the several islands, so called in honour of the royal society, which were discovered by captain Cook*, in the year 1769, the principal are, HUAHEINE, ULITEA, OTAHA, and BOLABOLA. HUAHEINE is about thirty one leagues to the north-

* At the close of the year 1767, it was resolved by the royal society, that it would be proper to send persons into some part of the south sea, to observe a transit of the planet Venus over the sun's disk, which according to astronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769: In consequence of these resolutions, it was recommended to George III. in a memorial from the society, dated February, 1768, that he would be pleased to order such an observation to be made; and, accordingly, a bark of three hundred and seventy tons, was prepared for that purpose. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who set sail from Plymouth, on the 26th of August, 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joseph Banks, esq. and dr. Solander. They made no discovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon island, two groups, Bird island, and Chain island; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April, 1769. During their stay there, they had an opportunity of making very accurate enquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants: and on the 4th of June, the whole passage of the planet Venus over the sun's disk was observed by them with great advantage. The result of their observations may be found in the Philosophical Transactions. After his departure from Otaheite, captain Cook discovered and visited the Society Islands and Oheteroa, and thence proceeded to the south till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees 22 minutes west; longitude 72 degrees 29 minutes west; and afterwards made an accurate survey of the coast of New-Zealand. In november, he discovered a chain of islands, which he called Barrier Islands. He afterwards proceeded to New-Holland, from thence to New-Guinea: and in September, 1770, arrived at the island of Savu; from thence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June, 1771.

Captain Cook, in a second voyage of discovery, was stopped in his progress by the ice, in the latitude of 71 degrees 10 minutes south, longitude 31 degrees 54 minutes west from

Philadelphia. He then proceeded to Easter Island, Marquesas Islands, where he arrived in March, 1774. He afterwards discovered four islands, which he named Palliser's islands, and again steered for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 22d of April, and made some stay, and also visited the neighbouring isles. In August he came to the New-Hebrides, some of which were first discovered by him. After leaving these islands, he steered to the southward a few days, and discovered New-Caledonia. Having surveyed the south-west coast of this island, he steered again for New-Zealand; from whence he directed his course to the south and east, till he arrived in the latitude of 55 degrees 6 minutes south, longitude 93 degrees 56 minutes west, without meeting with any continent: captain Cook gave up all hopes of discovering any in this ocean; and therefore came to a resolution to steer directly for the west entrance of the straits of Magellan, with a view of coasting and surveying the uttermost or south-side of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in latitude from 53 to 55, and steering nearly east, he arrived off the western mouth of the straits of Magellan, without meeting with any thing remarkable in this new route. In January 1775, he discovered a large and dreary island, to which he gave the name of *South Georgia*. He afterwards discovered various capes and elevated snow-clad coasts; to the *Southern Thule* as being the nearest land to that pole, which has yet been discovered. In February, he discovered *Sandwich Land*, and several islands covered with snow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July, 1775. Captain Furneaux, who was originally joined with capt. Cook in the voyage, but had been separated from him in a thick fog proceeded home round the Cape of Good Hope, without making any remarkable discovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by some of the savages of New-Zealand; so that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof, that cannibals really exist; and, indeed, in the course of those voyages of discovery, other evidence appeared of this fact. As to captain Cook, in the

west of Otaheite, and its productions are exactly the same, but appear to be a month forwarder. The inhabitants seem to be larger made, and more stout than those of Otaheite. Mr. Banks measured one of the men, and found him to be six feet three inches and a half high; yet they are so indolent, that he could not persuade one of them to go up the hills with him; for they said, if they were to attempt it, the fatigue would kill them. The women are fairer than those of Otaheite, and both sexes appear less timid and less curious; though in their dress, language, and almost every other circumstance, they are the same. Their houses are neat, and they have boat-houses that are remarkably large. *Ulitea* is about seven or eight leagues to the south-west of Huaheine, and is a much larger island, but appears neither so fertile nor so populous. The principal refreshments to be procured here are plantains, cocoa-nuts, yams, and fowls; but the two last are rather scarce. Otaha is divided from Ulitea by a strait, which, in the narrowest part, is not above two miles broad. This island affords two good harbours, and its produce is of the same kind as that of the other islands. About four leagues to the north-west of Otaha lies Bolabola, which is surrounded by a reef of rocks, and several small islands, all of which are no more than eight leagues in compass. To these islands, and those of Marua, which lie about fourteen miles westward of Bolabola, containing six in all, captain Cook gave the name of Society Islands. Tabooymanoo, or Saunder's Island, may be here mentioned also, being subject to Huaheine.

O H E T E R O A.

THIS island is situated in the latitude of 22 deg. 27 min. south, and in the long. 75 deg. 47 min. west from Philadelphia. It is thirteen miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither so populous nor fertile as some of the other islands in these seas. The inhabitants are lusty and well made, but are rather browner than those of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are long lances made of etoa-wood, which is very hard, and some of them nearly twenty feet long.

T H E F R I E N D L Y I S L A N D S.

THESSE islands were so named by capt. Cook, in the year 1773, on account of the friendship which appeared to subsist among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to strangers. Abel Janfen Tasman, an eminent Dutch navigator, first touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal islands. Captain Cook laboriously explored the whole cluster, which he found to consist of more than sixty. The three islands, which Tasman saw, he named New-Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburg. The first is the largest, and extends about twenty one miles from east to west, and thirteen from north to south. These islands are inhabited by a race of Indians, who cultivate the earth with great industry. The island of Amsterdam is intersected by straight and pleasant roads, with fruit trees on each side, which provide shade from the scorching heat of the sun.

The chief islands are Annamooka, Tangataboo (the residence of the sovereign and course of his voyage in the Resolution, he had made the circuit of the southern ocean, in a high latitude, and had traversed it in such a manner, as to leave not the least room for believing the existence of a southern continent, unless it were near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. It deserves to be remembered, in honor of that able commander, that with a company of an hundred and eighteen men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all climates, from fifty-two degrees north, to seventy-one degrees south, with the loss of only one man by sickness; and this appears, in a considerable degree, to have arisen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preserving the health of his men.

the chiefs), Lefooga, and Eooa. Lefooga is about seven miles long, and, in some places, not above two or three broad. It is in many respects superior to Annamooka.

The plantations are both more numerous and more extensive; and inclosed by fences, which, running parallel to each other, form fine spacious public roads, which would appear beautiful in countries where rural conveniencies have been carried to the greatest perfection. They are, in general, highly cultivated, and well stocked with the several roots and fruits which these islands produce, and captain Cook endeavoured to add to their number by planting Indian corn, and the seeds of melons, pumpkins, and the like.

Eooa, when viewed from the ship at anchor, formed one of the most beautiful prospects in nature; and very different from the other Friendly isles; which being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them: whereas here, the land rising gently to a considerable height, presents us with an extensive prospect, with groves of trees interspersed at irregular distances, in beautiful disorder; the rest is covered with grass, except near the shores, where it is entirely covered with fruit and forest trees; among which are the habitations of the natives. In order to have a view of as great a part of the island as possible, captain Cook and some of his officers walked up to the highest point of the island. From this place they had a view of almost the whole, which consisted of beautiful meadows of prodigious extent, adorned with tufts of trees, and intermixed with plantations. "While I was surveying this delightful prospect," says captain Cook, "I could not help flattering myself with the pleasing idea, that some future navigator may, from the same station, behold these meadows stocked with cattle, brought to these islands by the ships of England; and that the completion of this single benevolent purpose, independent of all other considerations, would sufficiently mark to posterity, that our voyages had not been useless to the general interests of humanity. The next morning," says our benevolent commander, "I planted a pine-apple, and sowed the seeds of melons, and other vegetables, in Taooa's plantation. I had indeed some encouragement to flatter myself that my endeavours of this kind also would not be fruitless; as I had this day a dish of turnips served up for my dinner, which was the produce of seeds I left here in my former voyage."

We are informed that the principal part of the people of these islands are satisfied with one wife, but the chiefs have commonly several women, though it appeared as if one only was looked on as mistress of the family. Though female chastity was frail enough in some, it is highly probable that conjugal fidelity is seldom violated; as it does not appear that more than one instance of it was known to our voyagers; and, in that, the man's life, who was the cause of it, paid the forfeit of his crime. When they are afflicted with any disorder, which they deem dangerous, they cut off a joint of one of their little fingers; fondly believing that the Deity will accept of that as a sort of sacrifice, efficacious enough to procure the recovery of their health. It was supposed, from some circumstances, that though they believe in a future state, they have no notion of future rewards or punishments for actions done here. They believe in a Supreme Being; but they believe also in a number of inferior ones; for every island has its peculiar god, as Every European nation has its peculiar saint. Captain Cook thinks he can pronounce, that they do not worship any thing which is the work of their own hands, or any visible part of the creation; and that they make no offering of hogs, dogs, or fruit, to the *Otooa*, as at *Otaheite*; but it is absolutely certain, that even this mild, humane, and beneficent people, use *human sacrifices*. The government, as far as the British could learn, appears to approach nearly to the feudal system, formerly established all over Europe. When persons of consequence die, their bodies are washed and decorated by some women, who are appointed on the occasion who according to their customs, are not to touch any food with their hands for ma-

ny months afterwards. The length of the time they are thus proscribed, is the greater, in proportion to the rank of the chief whom they had washed. Their great men are fond of a singular piece of luxury; which is, to have women beside them all night, and beat on different parts of their body until they go to sleep; after which, they relax a little of their labour, unless they appear likely to awake; in which case they redouble their drumming until they are again fast asleep.

NEW-ZEALAND.

THIS country was first discovered by Tasman, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it has been generally distinguished, in maps and charts by the name of New-Zealand, and was supposed to be part of a southern continent: but it is now known, from the late discoveries of captain Cook, who sailed round it, to consist of two large islands, divided from each other by a strait, four or five leagues broad. They are situated between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees south, and between the longitudes of 166 and 190 deg. east from Philadelphia. One of these islands is, for the most part, mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of sir Joseph Banks, and of dr. Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants would flourish here in the utmost luxurance. From the vegetables found here, it is supposed that the winters are milder than those of England, and the summers not hotter, though more equably warm; so that it is imagined, that if this country was settled by people from Europe, they would, with moderate industry, be soon supplied, not only with the necessaries, but the luxuries of life, in great abundance. Here are forests of vast extent, filled with very large timber trees, and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been described by the naturalists. The inhabitants of New-Zealand are stout and robust, and equal in stature to the largest Europeans. Their colour, in general, is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard, who has been exposed to the sun, and in many not so deep; and both sexes have good features. Their dress is very uncouth, and they mark their bodies in a manner similar to the inhabitants of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle-axes; and they have generally shown themselves very hostile to the Europeans who have visited them. As to their religious principles, they believe that the souls of such as are killed in battle, and their flesh afterwards eaten by the enemy, are doomed to perpetual fire; while the souls of those who die a natural death, or whose bodies are preserved from such ignominious treatment, ascend to the habitations of the gods. The common method of disposing of their dead is by interment in the earth; but if they have more slaughtered enemies than they can eat, they throw them into the sea. They have no such things as *morais*, or other places of public worship; nor do they ever assemble together with this view: but they have priests, who alone address the Deity, in prayer for the prosperity of their temporal affairs, such as an enterprise against a hostile tribe, a fishing party, or the like. Polygamy is allowed; and it is not uncommon for a man to have two or three wives.

THE NEW-HEBRIDES.

THIS name was given by captain Cook to a cluster of islands, the most northerly of which was seen by Quiros, the Spanish navigator, in 1606, and by him named Terra del Espiritu Santo. From that time, till Bougainville's voyage, in 1768; and captain Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1769, this land was supposed to be part of a great southern continent, called Terra Australis Incognita. But when capt. Cook had sailed round New Zealand, and along the eastern coast of New Holland:

his opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the Resolution, he resolved to explore those parts accurately; and accordingly, in 1774, besides ascertaining the extent and situation of these islands, he discovered several in the group, which were before unknown. The New-Zebrides are situated between the latitude of 14 degrees and 23 degrees south; and between 112 degrees and 121 degrees west longitude.

They consist of the following islands, some of which have received names from different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz: Terra del Espíritu Santo, Mallicollo, St. Bortholomew, Isle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitsuntide, Ambrym, Immer, Apee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorromanga, Ironan, Annatom, and Tanna.

Not far distant from the New-Hebrides, and south-westward of them, lies New-Caledonia, a very large island, first discovered by captain Cook, in 1774. It is about eighty seven leagues long; but its breadth is not considerable, nor any where exceeds ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of stout, tall, well-proportioned Indians, of a swarthy or dark chestnut brown. A few leagues distant are two small islands, called the Isle of Pinés, and Botany Island.

N E W - H O L L A N D .

THE largest island in the world, and formerly supposed to be a part of that imaginary continent, called Terra Australis Incognita, lies between $10^{\circ} 30'$ and 43° south latitude, and between 130° and $175^{\circ} 30'$ east longitude, extending in all as much as the whole continent of Europe, the eastern coast running no less than two thousand miles in length, from north east to south-west. Its dimensions from east to west have not been so exactly ascertained, as we are obliged to take our information concerning them from the accounts of navigators of different nations, who visited that part of the world at a time when the method of making observations, and finding the latitudes and longitudes of places, was less accurate than it is now. Different parts of the country have been called by the names of these discoverers, as Van-Diemen's Land, Carpentaria, &c.; and though the general appellation of the whole was New-Holland, it is now applied, by geographers, to the north and west part of the country. The eastern part, called New South-Wales, was taken possession of in the king of England's name by captain Cook, and now forms a part of the British dominions; a colony being very lately formed there, chiefly of the convicts sentenced to transportation.

The accounts of the climate and soil of this extensive country, now become an object of importance to Britain, are very various; and indeed, it cannot be expected otherwise, as different parts have been explored at different times, and at different seasons of the year. In general, however, the relations are by no means favourable; the sea coast, the only place on which any inhabitants have been discovered, appearing sandy and barren; and the inland parts which might reasonably be supposed more fertile, are now thought to be wholly uninhabited; but whether this proceeds from the natural sterility of the soil or the ignorance of the inhabitants, who know not how to cultivate it, is not yet fully discovered.

One thing we are assured of, by all who ever visited this country, that its coast is surrounded by very dangerous shoals and rocks, so that it is by no means easy to effect a landing upon it. A shoal, called Houtman's Shoal, from Frederic Houtman commander of a fleet of Dutch Indiamen, in 1618, lies on the western coast, on which Commodore Pelsart, a Dutch navigator, was wrecked in 1629. When his ship, the watavia, having on board three hundred and thirty men, struck on this shoal, there was no land in sight, excepting some small rocky islands, and one considerably bigger,

about three leagues distant. All these were explored in search of fresh water; but none being found, they were obliged to sail in their skiff to the continent, which they soon after discovered. But, on their approach, they found the coast so excessively rocky, that it was impossible to land. Continuing their course northward, for two days; they found themselves in 27° of south latitude; but still the shore was so extremely steep, that there was no possibility of approaching it. It presented the same appearance as far north as 24° ; but the men being now resolved to get on shore at any rate, six of them who were very expert swimmers, threw themselves into the sea, and with much difficulty arrived on land. Here they employed themselves in searching for fresh water; but, finding none, they were obliged to swim back again to their skiff. Next day they discovered a cape, from the extreme points of which ran a ridge of rocks for about a mile into the sea, with another behind it; but still no passage was found to the continent. Another opening appeared about noon the same day, into which they ventured, though the passage was extremely dangerous, even for a skiff, having only two feet water, with a rugged stony bottom. Here, however, they effected a landing; but though they made the most diligent search for fresh water, they could find neither rivulets, springs, nor even water that could be drunk, by digging of wells. The shoal, on which commodore Pelsart was wrecked, is placed, by Dampier, in 27° south latitude.

This navigator explored the coast of New-Holland in 1688 and 1699. In the last of these voyages, he fell in with the land in 26° south latitude; but could not land on account of the steepness of the shore. In $22^{\circ} 22'$ he found another shoal, which was the first he had met with since leaving Houtman's shoal, in 27° . In $20^{\circ} 21'$, he fell in with some rocky islands, which, from the nature of the tides, he supposed to extend in a range as far south as Shark's bay, in 25° and nine or ten leagues in breadth from east to west. In $18^{\circ} 21'$ he effected a landing; but the shore here, as in all other places, visited by this navigator, was so excessively rocky, at low water, as to render it impossible to land. At high water, however, the tides rise so high, that boats may get over the rocks to a sandy beach, which runs all along the coast.

The southern part of this island, visited by captain Tasman, in 1642, was found less difficult of access. He pursued the coast as far south as 44° , where it begins to run to the eastward; and from this time, this part appears not to have been visited by any Europeans, till the year 1770, when captain Furneaux, of the Adventure, reached the point we speak of, lying in $43^{\circ} 17'$ south, $139^{\circ} 24'$ west from Philadelphia. Several islands appeared to the north-west, one of which was named, by captain Cook, Eddystone, from its resemblance to the light house of that name; and he observes, that nature seems to have left these two rocks for the same purpose that the Eddystone light house was built by man; viz. to give navigators warning of their danger: for they are the conspicuous summits of a ledge of rocks under water, on which the sea, in many places, breaks very high. Their surface is white with the dung of sea fowls; which makes them conspicuous at a considerable distance.

Captain Cook spent upwards of four months in surveying the eastern coast, the extent of which, as has already been mentioned, is nearly two thousand miles. The bay in which he anchored, from the great quantity of herbs found on shore, was called Botany Bay, and is the place for which the convicts were originally destined; though now they are settled in another part of the island, about fifteen miles to the northward, named, by captain Cook, Port Jackson; the principal settlement being called Sydney Cove.

This was not visited or explored by captain Cook; it was seen at the distance of between two and three miles from the coast; but had fortune conducted him into the harbour, he would have found it much more worthy of his attention as a seaman, than Botany Bay, where he passed a week. From an entrance not more

than two miles broad, Port Jackson gradually extends into a noble and capacious bay, having foundations sufficient for the largest vessels, and space to accommodate, in perfect security, any number that could be assembled. It runs chiefly in a western direction, about thirteen miles into the country, and contains no less than one hundred small coves, formed by narrow necks of land, whose projections afford shelter from the winds.

Sidney Cove lies on the south side of the harbour, between five and six miles from the entrance. The neck of land that forms this cove, is mostly covered with wood, yet so rocky, that it is not easy to comprehend how the trees could have found sufficient nourishment, to bring them to so considerable a magnitude. The soil in other parts of the coast, immediately about Port Jackson, is of various qualities. This neck of land, which divides the south end of the harbour from the sea, is chiefly sand. Between Sydney Cove and Botany Bay, the first space is occupied by a wood, in some parts a mile and a half, in others three miles broad. Beyond that, is a kind of heath, poor, sandy, and full of swamps; but as far as the eye can reach to the westward, the country is one continued wood.

There are several parts of the harbour in which the trees stand at a greater distance from each other than in Sydney Cove; some of these, which have small runs of water, and a promising soil, the governor proposed to cultivate, as soon as hands could be spared; but the advantage of being able to land the stores and provisions, with so much ease immediately determined the choice of a place for the principal settlement; for, if they had but one mile to remove the stores from the spot where they were landed, the undertaking would probably have been fruitless; so many were the obstacles to land-carriage at the head of Sydney Cove, where governor Philip fixed the seat of his government. On the 7th of February, 1788, a regular form of government was established on the coast of New South Wales.

On a space previously cleared, the whole colony was assembled; the military drawn up under arms; the convicts stationed apart; and near the person of the governor, those who were to hold the principal offices under him. The royal commission was then read by Mr. David Collins, the judge advocate. By this instrument, Arthur Philip was constituted and appointed captain general and governor in chief, in and over the territory called Cape York, south latitude $10^{\circ} 30'$, to the southern extremity of the South Cape, south latitude $43^{\circ} 30'$, and all the islands adjacent in the Pacific Ocean, within the latitudes aforesaid; and of all the towns, garrisons, castles, forts, and fortifications, which may be hereafter erected in the said territory. The act of parliament establishing the courts of judicature was next read; and lastly, the patents under the great seal, empowering the proper persons to convene and hold their courts, whenever the exigency should require. A triple discharge of musquetry concluded this part of the ceremony.

At the very first landing of governor Philip, on the shore of Botany Bay, an interview took place with the natives. They were all armed, but, on seeing the governor approach with signs of friendship, alone and unarmed, they readily returned his confidence by laying down their arms.

They were perfectly devoid of clothing, yet seemed fond of ornaments, putting the beads and red baze that were given them, on their heads or necks, and appearing pleased to wear them.

Governor Philip found Botany Bay so ill calculated for a settlement, that he gave the preference to Sydney Cove, in port Jackson, where a plan was laid down for building a town, according to which were traced out the principal streets, the governor's house, main guard, hospital, church, store houses, and barracks. In some parts of this

space temporary barracks are erected, but no permanent buildings will be allowed, except in conformity to the plan laid down. Should the town be farther extended, the form of other streets is also marked out, in such a manner, as to ensure a free circulation of air. The principal streets, according to this design, will be two hundred feet wide; the ground to the southward, proposed for them, is nearly level, and is an excellent situation for buildings. It is proposed by the governor, that no more than one house be built on one allotment, which is to consist of sixty feet in front, and one hundred and fifty in depth. These regulations will preserve a kind of uniformity in the buildings, prevent narrow streets, and exclude many inconveniences, which a rapid increase of inhabitants might otherwise occasion. It has been also an object of the governor's attention to place the public buildings in situations that will be eligible at all times and particularly to give the store-houses and hospital sufficient space for future enlargement, should it be found necessary.

The first huts that were erected here, were composed of very perishable materials, the soft wood of the cabbage plant, quite green; being only designated for immediate shelter. The huts of the convicts were still more slight, being composed only of upright posts, wattled with slight twigs and plastered up with clay. Barracks and huts were afterwards formed of more lasting materials. Buildings of stone might easily have been raised, had there been any means of procuring lime for mortar. The stone which has been found, is of three sorts: a fine free stone, reckoned equal in goodness to that of Portland; an indifferent kind of sand-stone, or fire stone; and a sort which appears to contain a mixture of iron. But neither chalk, nor any species of limestone have yet been discovered. In building a small house for the governor on the eastern side of the Cove, lime was made of oyster-shells, collected in the neighbouring cove. The clay is very good, and some bricks have been made of it; but, in using it for building, the walls must be made very thick.

It is supposed, that metals of various kinds abound in the soil on which the town is placed. A convict, who had been used to work in the Staffordshire lead mines; declared very positively, that the cleared ground contains a large quantity of that ore: and copper is supposed to lie under some rocks which were blown up, in sinking a cellar for the publick stock of spirituous liquors. It is the opinion of the governor himself, that there are several metals in the earth thereabout, and that mines may hereafter be worked to great advantage; but at present he strongly discourages any search of this kind, very judiciously discerning, that in the present situation of his people, which requires so many exertions of a very different nature, the discovery of a mine would be the greatest evil that could befall the settlement. In some places where they dug, in making of wells, they found a substance which they concluded to be black lead. The kinds of pigment called by the painters Spanish brown, is found in great abundance; and the white clay with which the natives paint themselves, is still in greater plenty. The abbe le Receveur was of opinion, that this clay, if cleaned from the sand, which might easily be done, would make excellent porcelain.

The climate at Sydney Cove is considered, on the whole, as equal to the finest in Europe. The rains are never of long duration, and there are seldom any fogs. The soil, though in general light, and rather sandy in this part, is full as good as is usually found so near the sea side. All the plants and fruit-trees brought from Brasil and the Cape, which were not damaged in their passage, thrive exceedingly; and vegetables have now become plentiful; both the European sorts, and such as are peculiar to New-South Wales. In the governor's garden are excellent cauliflowers and melons, very fine of their kinds. The orange trees flourish, and the fig-trees and vines are improving still more rapidly. In a climate so favourable, the cultivation of the vine may, doubtless, be carried to any degree of perfection; and should not other articles of commerce divert the attention of the settlers from this

point, the wines of New South Wales may, perhaps, hereafter be sought with avidity, and become an indispensable part of the luxury of European tables.

The rank grass under the trees, unfortunately proved fatal to all the sheep purchased by governor Philip, on his own and on the public account. Those which private individuals kept close to their own tents, were preserved. Hogs and poultry increased very fast; and black cattle will, doubtless, succeed as well.

The natives of New Holland, in general, seem to have no great aversion to the new settlers: the only acts of hostility they ever committed, were on account of their occupying the fishing grounds, which the New-Hollanders justly supposed to belong to themselves. They are so ignorant of agriculture, that it seems probable they do not even know the use of corn, and therefore, perhaps more from ignorance than malice, set fire to that which the colonists had raised for their own use. To avoid such disagreeable incidents, a new settlement was begun on a small uninhabited island, named Norfolk Island, lying in south lat. 29° , and west long. $93^{\circ} 10'$, at the distance of twelve hundred miles from New-Holland. The party sent out to form this settlement consisted only of twenty-six persons, who took possession on the 14th of February, 1788. This settlement was found so eligible, that, in the following October, another party was sent thither, so that the new colony, at the time the last advices were received, consisted of forty-four men and sixteen women; who being supplied with eighteen months' provisions, will probably, be able to cultivate the soil in such a manner, as to enable them to form a granary, which will put those who settled on New-Holland entirely out of danger from their barbarous neighbours.

N E W - G U I N E A .

UNTIL the late discoveries, was thought to be the north coast of an extensive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but captain Cook discovered a strait between them, which runs north east, through which he sailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow island, extending north-east, from the 2d degree of south latitude to the 12th, and from 56 to 75 degree west longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country consists of a mixture of very high hills and vallies, interspersed with groves of cocoa nut trees, plantains, bread-fruit, and most of the trees, shrubs, and plants that are found in the other South sea islands. It affords from the sea a variety of delightful prospects. The inhabitants make nearly the same appearance as the New-Hollanders on the other side of the straits.

To the north of New Guinea, is New-Britain which is situated in the 4th degree of south latitude and 75 degrees 89 minutes west longitude from Philadelphia. It was supposed to be part of an imaginary continent, till captain Dampier found it to be an island, and sailed through a strait which divides it from New Guinea. Captain Carteret, in his voyage round the world, 1767. found that it was of much less extent than had till then been imagined, by sailing through another strait to the north, which separates it from a long island, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New-Britain, and it abounds with large and stately trees. To the eastward of New Britain, and in both the above straits, are many islands most of which are said to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa nut trees.

New-Ireland extends in length from the north east to the south east about 100 hundred and seventy miles, but is, in general, very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks and other birds. The inhabitants are black and woolly headed, like the negroes of Guinea, but have not flat noses or thick lips. North-Westward of New-Ireland, a cluster of islands was seen by

captain Carteret, lying very near each other; and supposed to consist of twenty or thirty in number. One of these, which is of very considerable extent, was named New-Hanover; and the rest of the cluster received the name of the Admiralty Islands.

S A N D W I C H I S L A N D S.

BESIDES the voyage of discovery already mentioned, another voyage was performed by captain Cook and captain Clerke, in the Resolution and Discovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in search of a north-west passage between the continents of Asia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New-Holland: in this course they discovered two islands, which captain Cook called Prince Edward's isles. The largest, about fifteen leagues in circuit, is in latitude 46-53 south, longitude 37-14 west: the other, about nine leagues in circuit, latitude 46-40 and longitude 36 52 west, both barren, and almosts covered with snow. From New-Holland they sailed to New Zealand, and afterwards visited the Friendly and Society isles. In January 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich isles, which are twelve in number, and are situated between 22 degrees 15 minutes, and 18 degrees 53 minutes north latitude. The air of these islands is, in general, salubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the same with those of the Friendly and Society isles. The inhabitants are of a middle size, stout and well-made, and their complexion, in general, a brown olive. O'why'hee is in circumference about three hundred English miles, and the number of inhabitants computed at one hundred and fifty thousand. The others are large and well-peopled. The natives are described as of a mild carriage, and friendly temper, and, in hospitality to strangers, not exceeded by the inhabitants of the Friendly isles. On the 7th of February, being nearly in latitude 44 degrees 33 minutes north, and longitude 49 degrees 24 minutes west they saw part of the American continent, bearing north-east.

Captain Cook afterwards discovered King George's Sound, which is situated on the north-west coast of America, and is extensive: that part of it where the ships under his command anchored, is in latitude 49 degrees 36 minutes north and longitude 5 degrees 32 minutes west. The whole found is surrounded by high land, which in some places, appears very broken and rugged, and is in general, covered with wood to the top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle size, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12 of May, they discovered Sandwich Sound, in latitude 59 degrees 54 minutes north. The harbour in which the ships anchored, appeared to be almost surrounded with high land, which was covered with snow and here they were visited by some of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the island of Unalafchka, and after their departure from thence, still continued to trace the coast. They arrived on the 20th of August, 1778, in latitude 70 degrees 54 minutes, longitude 90 deg. 5 min. west, from Philad. where they found themselves almost surrounded with ice, and the farther they proceeded, the closer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a storm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a consultation was therefore held on board the Resolution, as soon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was resolved, that, as this passage was impracticable for any useful purpose of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it should be prosecuted no farther; and especially on account of the condition the ships were in, the approach of winter, and their great distance from any known place of refreshment. The voyage, indeed, afforded sufficient evidence, that no practicable passage exists between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans towards the north; and this voyage also ascertained the western boundaries of the great continent of America. On

their return, it unfortunately happened, that the celebrated and able navigator, captain Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives, by an act of sudden resentment and fear, rather than from a bad disposition, on the island of O'why'hee, the largest of the Sandwich isles, on the 14th of February, 1779; and his death was universally regretted, not only in Britain, but throughout Europe and America, by those to whom his merits and public services were known. In his last voyage, he had explored the coast of America, from 42 degrees 27 minutes, to 70 degrees 40 minutes 57 seconds north. After the death of captain Cook, the command devolved on captain Clerke, who died at sea on his return to the southward, on the 22d day of August, 1779. The two ships returned home by the Cape of Good Hope; and, on the 5th of October, 1780, anchored at the Nore.

TERRA-INCIGNITA, OR UNKNOWN COUNTRIES.

NOTWITHSTANDING the amazing discoveries of navigators, and the progress made in geography, since the first voyage of Columbus, anno 1492, there still remain some countries, either absolutely unknown, or very superficially surveyed.

I N A F R I C A.

OF this quarter of the globe, the moderns are acquainted with little more than the sea-coasts, and these very imperfectly; the internal parts being unexplored: nor have we any satisfactory accounts of their inhabitants, their productions, or their trade. It is well known, however, that the rivers of Africa bring down large quantities of gold, and it is equally certain that the ancients drew prodigious riches from a country blessed with a variety of climates, some of them the finest in the world.

I n A M E R I C A.

IN North-America, towards the pole, are Labrador or New-Britain, New North and South Wales, New Denmark, &c. very little known. The inhabitants, like those of Nova Zembla, Greenland, Groenland, and the northern parts of Siberia, are few, and these savage; low in stature, and of an ugly appearance. They live upon the raw flesh of whales, bears, and foxes, &c. and go muffled in skins, the hairy sides next their bodies. In these inhospitable regions, the nights (as may be seen in the table of climates in the introduction), are from one to six months, and the earth is bound up in impenetrable snow; so that the miserable inhabitants live under ground great part of the year. Again, when the sun makes his appearance, they have a day of equal length.

All that vast tract on the back of the British settlements, from Canada and the Lakes to the Pacific Ocean, which washes America on the west, is altogether unknown to us, no traveller having ever explored it. From the climate and situation of the country, it is supposed to be fruitful; it is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom used to resort to the great fair of Montreal, even from the distance of one thousand miles, when that city was in the hands of the French.

In South-America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and bounded by the river Orinoco on the north, and the Amazons on the south, is unknown, except a slip along the coast, where the

French at Cayenne, and the Dutch at Surinam, have made some settlements; which, from the unhealthfulness of the climate, almost under the equator, and other causes, can hardly be extended any considerable way back.

The country of Amazonia is so called from the great river of that name, which rises in Quito, in 1 deg. west longitude, and discharges itself into the Atlantic Ocean; it is computed, that, with all its turnings and windings, it runs near five thousand miles, and is generally two or three leagues broad: five hundred leagues from the mouth, it is thirty fathoms deep, and near one hundred rivers fall into it on the north and south. The country has never been thoroughly explored; though it is situated between the European colonies of Peru and Brasil, and every where accessible by means of that great river and its branches. Some attempts have been made by the Spaniards and Portuguese; but always attended with such vast difficulties, that few of the adventurers ever returned back; and, no gold being found in the country, as they expected, no European nation has hitherto made any settlement there.

Patagonia, at the southern extremity of America, is sometimes described as part of Chili: but as neither the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies there, it is almost unknown, and is generally represented as a barren, inhospitable country. Some of the inhabitants are certainly very tall, to six and an half and seven feet high; but others, and the greater part, are of a moderate and common stature. Here, in fifty-two and a half degrees south latitude, we fall in with the straits of Magellan, having Patagonia on the north, and the islands of Terra del Fuego on the south. These straits extend, from east to west, one hundred and ten leagues, but the breadth, in some places, falls short of one. They were first discovered by Magellan, or Magelhean, a Portuguese, in the service of Spain, who sailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby discovered a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been since considered as the first navigator that sailed round the world, but having lost his life, in a skirmish with some Indians, before the ships returned to Europe, the honour of being the first circumnavigator has been disputed in favour of sir Francis Drake, who, in 1574, passed the same strait in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616, La Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the southward of these straits, discovered, in latitude fifty four and one-half, another passage, since known by the name of the Straits La Maire; and this passage, which has been generally preferred by succeeding navigators, is called, doubling Cape Horn. The author of Anson's voyage, however, from fatal experience, advises mariners to keep clear of these straits and islands, by running down to 61 or 62 degrees south latitude, before they attempt to set their faces westward, towards the South Seas; but the extreme long nights, and the intense cold in those latitudes, render that passage practicable only in the months of January and February, which is there the middle of summer.

TABLE CONTINUED.

N ^o .	Departments.	Ancient Provinces.	Popula.	Chief Towns & Cities.	Inhab.
38	Jura	Franche-Compte	267000	Lons le Saunier	5300
39	Landes	Gascogne	229000	Mont de Marfan	2900
40	Loir et Cher	Blaifois	197000	Blois	11600
41	Haute-Loire	Languedoc	210000	Le Puy	16800
42	Loire inferieure	Bretagne	365000	Nantes	75000
43	Loiret	Orleannois	272000	Orleans	38200
44	Lot	Guyenne	375000	Cahors, Montauban	29800
45	Lot et Garone	Idem	394000	Agen	4900
46	Lozere	Languedoc	119000	Mend	6500
47	Manche	Normandie	498000	Coutances, Cherbourg	25300
48	Marne	Champagne	281000	Chalons, Rheims	63500
49	Haute-Marne	Idem	283000	Chaumont	6500
50	Mayenne	Maine	234000	Laval	24300
51	Mayenne et Loire	Anjou	335000	Angers	28000
52	Meurthe	Lorraine	304000	Nanci, Luneville	50600
53	Meuze	Idem	251000	Bar-le-Duc, Verdun	23300
54	Mont-Blanc	Savoie	245000	Chamberi	17500
55	Mont-Terrible	Eveche de Basse	63000	Porentru	8500
56	Morbihan	Bretagne	385000	Vannes, L'Orient	25700
57	Mozelle	Lorraine	293000	Metz	40200
58	Nievre	Nivernais	221000	Nevers	13800
59	Nord	Flandre	513000	Douai, Lille, Dune libre	107500
60	Oise	Isle de France	326000	Beauvais	7300
61	Orne	Normandie	337000	Alencon	13200
62	Paris	Isle de France	900000	Paris	712000
63	Pas-de-Calais	Artois	514000	Arras	31000
64	Puy de Dome	Auvergne	523000	Clermont	25300
65	Hautes-Pyrenees	Bern et Navarre	174000	Tarbes	4600
66	Basses-Pyrenees	Idem	295000	Pau	10000
67	Pyrenees orient	Rouffillon	92000	Perpignan	15800
68	Bas-Rhin	Alsace	315000	Strafbourg	44500
69	Haut-Rhin	Idem	269000	Colmar	11300
70	Rhone et Loire	Forez	123000	St. Etienne	27000
71	Depart. affranchi	Lyonnois	308000	Ville affranchie (Lyon)	217000
72	Haute-Saone	Franche-Compte	235000	Vesoul	5800
73	Saone et Loire	Bourgogne	421000	Macon	9500
74	Sarthe	Maine	327000	Le Mans	13800
75	Seine et Oise	Isle de France	398000	Verfailles	35000
76	Seine inferieure	Normandie	412000	Rouen	80000
77	Seine et Marne	Isle de France	281000	Melun	5300
78	Deux Sevres	H. Poitou	183000	Niort	8300
79	Somme	Picardie	356000	Amiens, Abbeville	62300
80	Tarn	Languedoc	242000	Castres	8700
81	Var	Province	235000	Port de la Montagne T.	4500
82	Vaucluse	Avignonnais et Province	114000	Avignon	27000
83	Vendee	B. Poitou	83000	Fontenai	7300
84	Vienne	Haut Poitou	243000	Poitiers	17300
85	Haut-Vienne	Limoufin	254000	Limoges	21600
86	Vosges	Lorraine	258000	Epinal	3700
87	Yonne	Auxerrois	268000	Auxerre	9700
88	L'Isle de Corfe	L'Isle de Corfe	120000	Bastia	8000
89	Jemmape	Hainaut Autrichien	270000	Mons	30000
90	Cote Septentrionale	Flandre	450000	Gand	70000
91	Reunis a la Fran. 93	Eveche de Liege, &c.	240000	Liege	60000
92	1793	Comte de Namur	190000	Namur	40000
	Brabant, Marquisat	D'Anvers, Malinois	620000	Bruxels	150000
		Total,	27253000		

NAME AND CLIMATE.] France took its name from the Franks, or Freemen, a German nation, restless and enterprising, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants; and the Roman force not being able to repress them, they were permitted to settle in the country by treaty. By its situation, it is the most compact country perhaps in the world, and well fitted for every purpose, both of power and commerce; and since the beginning of the fifteenth century, the inhabitants have availed themselves of many of their neutral advantages. The air, particularly that of the interior parts, is, in general, mild and wholesome. In the northern provinces, however, the winters are more intensely cold.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excellent soil, which produces corn, wine, oil, and almost every luxury of life. Some of its fruits have a higher flavour than those of England, but neither the pasturage nor tillage are supposed to be equal. The heats in many places parch the ground, and destroy the verdure.

No nation is better supplied than France, with wholesome springs and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent use, by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniences of life. Of their canals and mineral waters distinct notice will be hereafter taken.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are, the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which separate it from Spain; Vauze, which divides Lorraine from Burgundy and Alsace; Mount Jura, which divides Franche Comte from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mount D'Or, in the province of Auvergne.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its course north and north west, being, with all its windings, from its source to the sea, computed to run about five-hundred miles. The Rhone flows, on the south-west, to Lyons, and then runs on due south, till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, soon after its rise, runs to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English channel at Havre. To these we may add the Saone, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; and the Charente, which rises near Havre de Grace, and discharges itself into the bay of Biscay at Rochfort. The Rhine, which rises in Switzerland, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the Sarte in its passage. The Somme runs north-west through Picardy, and falls into the English channel below Abbeville. The Var rises in the Alps, and runs south, dividing France from Italy, and falls into the Mediterranean, west of Nice. The Adour runs from east to west, through Gascoigne, and falls into the bay of Biscay, below Bayonne.

The vast advantage, both in commerce and convenience, which arises to France from those rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals, which are some small counterprize for the ambition, and the destructive policy of Lewis XIV. The canal of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and completed in 1680: it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the speedier passage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on at an immense expence, for an hundred miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not answered the end in view. By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of eighteen leagues to the immense benefit of the public. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation very commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomless. There is another at Issoire, in Auvergne;

and one at La Besse, into which, if a stone be thrown, it causes a noise like thunder.

MINERAL WATERS, AND REMARKABLE SPRINGS. } The waters of Bareges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have, of late, been preferred for salubrity to all others in France. The best judges think, however, that the cures performed by them, are more owing to their accidental success, with some great persons, and the dryness of the air and soil, than to the virtue of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach in Alsace, are said to cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the stone. At Bagueis, not far from Bareges, are several wholesome minerals and baths, to which people resort, as to the English baths, in spring and autumn. Forges, in Normandy, is celebrated for its mineral waters; and those of St. Amand cure the gravel and obstructions. It would be endless to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, as well as many remarkable springs: but there is one near Aigue, in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noise like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taste, yet possesses a poisonous quality, and the birds that drink of it are said to die instantly.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Languedoc is reported to contain veins of gold and silver. Alsace has mines of silver and copper, but they are too expensive to be wrought. Alabaster, black marble, jasper and coal, are found in many parts of the republic. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. At Laverdun, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which serves for melting metals, and for dying, particularly the best drab-cloths; and in the province of Anjou are several quarries of fine white stone. Some excellent turquoises, the only gem that France produces, are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-stone open all over the republic.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } France abounds in excellent roots, and in all kinds of seasoning and sallads. The province of Gasterois produces great quantities of saffron. One million six hundred thousand acres are laid out in vineyards. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Gascony, Bourdeaux, and other provinces of France, are universally known. They differ very sensibly in their taste and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly those of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontack, Hermitage, and Frontinac; and there are few constitutions, be they ever so valetudinary, to which some one or other of them is not adapted. Oak, elm, ash, and other timber, common in England, are found in France; but it is said, that the internal parts of the republic begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of salt is made at Rhee, and about Rochfort, on the coast of Saintoign. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which, when burnt, makes excellent barilla, or pot-ashes. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon.

The animals of France, wild and tame, are the same as those of England, of which we have already given a description. Their horses, black cattle, and sheep, are hardly equal to the English; nor is the wool of their sheep so fine. The hair and skins of the chamois, or mountain goats, are very valuable. There is hardly any difference between the marine productions of France and those of England.

FORESTS, VINEYARDS, &c.] Among the chief forests of France, are those of Orleans and Fontainebleau. They contain, each, about fourteen thousand acres of wood of various kinds. Near Morchismoir, there is a forest of tall straight timber, consisting of four thousand trees. In France, wood is almost the only fuel, so that the annual consumption is very great. The marquis de Mirabeau represents the forests and woodlands, as occupying thirty millions of arpents*. But Arthur Young, in his late travels through France, quotes another writer who reduces them to eight;

* Six arpents are equal to about five English acres.

and a third, who states them at only six millions of arpents. Mr. Young enters into a variety of calculations to ascertain the quantity of timber annually consumed. The result of his enquiries is, that the territories of France are proportioned as follows, viz.

	Acres.
Arable lands, - - - - -	70,000,000
Vines, - - - - -	5,000,000
Woods, - - - - -	19,850,000
Meadows, permanent pastures, such as do not produce wood ; } roads, rivers, ponds, &c. - - - - - }	36,872,711
Total number of acres in France,	131,722,711

The annual produce of the woods Mr. Young estimates, on a medium, at sixteen livres per acre, or thirteen millions eight hundred and ninety five thousand, three hundred and sixty pounds sterling. By this account, the seventh part of the country consists of forest land.

The extent of vineyards appears to be very uncertain, for some authors have computed them at sixteen hundred thousand arpents, and another raised them to eighteen millions. Mr. Young estimates them at five millions of acres, and the value of the crops, at eight hundred and seventy-five millions of livres per annum.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } The national convention caused an estimate to be taken of the number of people in France and some of its new acquisitions. They amount, by this estimate, to twenty-seven millions two hundred and fifty-three thousand. The number of people has gradually augmented, within the course of the present century, in spite of every sort of bad government.

The character of the French has afforded room for much speculation. It was a remark, among the ancient Romans, that the Gauls were more than men at the beginning of a battle, and less than women before the end of it. But this distinction may be explained without having recourse to any peculiarity of national character. The want of discipline among the Gauls, accounts equally for the impetuosity of their first attacks, and the facility with which they might, in the sequel, be cast into confusion, by the steady valour of the legionary veterans. That the Gauls were less than women, at the end of an engagement, may, however, be contradicted on the evidence of Julius Cæsar, who, in describing his battle with the Nervians, has expressed both his astonishment and alarm at their desperate contempt of death.

The manners of this nation have changed with their political condition. Under the Roman emperors, Tacitus describes their former love of war as converted into the most profound indolence. In modern ages, we see them fully delineated at the era of the reformation, by the duke of Sully, by Davila, and other eminent historians; and it will be difficult to point out any very material peculiarity in the outline of their dispositions. But, under Louis the fourteenth, when the whole people sunk into absolute slavery, their manners underwent a correspondent revolution. From anti-royalists of the most violent kind, they were converted into abject sycophants; and the verses of some of their eminent poets, in the end of the last century, form a durable monument of national fervility. The veneration paid to the grand monarch, and his family, resembled idolatry; nor was any other sovereign in Europe the object of such extravagant and despicable flattery. Their enthusiasm, on this head, has afforded much room both for amazement and for ridicule, to neighbouring nations.

The government was wrong in its first principles, for the rich were every thing, and the poor nothing. The latter, in general, groaned under the most enormous oppression, while the greater part of the former sunk into the most enervating luxury.

Authors, in attempting to describe the manners of the Parisians under the kingly government, present us with a picture of fantastical levity, of effeminate and artificial corruption which had no counterpart in any other country of Europe. This account does not depend on the credit of any single writer, or class of writers. It is attested by the unanimous voice of all authors, of all nations, who happened to handle the subject. In English, we need only mention Mr. Sterne, Dr. Moore, and the late Dr. Smollet. They were travellers of very different characters, and saw through different mediums; yet all agree in representing the manners of the fashionable Parisians as the most ludicrous and fantastical. To be grave on trifles, and trifling on serious matters, was the general character. To dance attendance upon the ladies was the principal employment of the men, and this assiduity sometimes degenerated into a familiarity, which, to foreigners, appeared gross and disgusting. A more minute detail would be rather unsuitable to the plan of this work, and could not, in itself, afford any materials for an agreeable narrative.

If, from the accounts of foreign writers, we turn to those of the French themselves, the prospect becomes infinitely darker, and more hideous. Among a croud of other intelligent and philosophical observers, we need only mention Voltaire and Rousseau. The mass of circumstances which they have related, and which they cannot be supposed to have invented, attest, in the most dreadful colours, the depravity of the government, the degeneracy of the higher classes, and the degradation of a great part of the people. Their faults, however, were rather hurtful to themselves, than directed against their neighbours. Rousseau, amidst all his invectives, acknowledges that the French hated no other nation, and even this confession argues much in favour of the goodness of their original dispositions. Mr. Hume remarks, that the hereditary hatred of England towards France was not returned by a similar aversion on the side of the latter. Dr. Moore also, in his last publication, observes, that the lower orders in Paris never mention the country of a foreigner, as a topic of reproach. The French have always been remarkable for politeness and good humour, and very few nations have submitted with so good a grace to the ridicule of their satirists.

As among the best descriptions of Paris, before the revolution, may be recommended *Tableau de Paris*, and Memoirs of the year two thousand five hundred. It is impossible to read those two performances without some degree of horror.

The present revolution has destroyed not merely the ancient government, but, in a great measure, the former manners of the people. For the last hundred years, the troops of France were at least not very eminent for their prowess in the field. The soldiers of the present republic are as distinguishable from the mercenaries who fought under the banners of the late monarchy, as the Mainotes of modern Greece are from the ancient Spartans. The revolution has converted the French into a nation of heroes, of enthusiasts, and of conquerors. The military tacticians of Germany, and the most intrepid veterans of Britain, shrink from the assault of an inflexible heroism, which despises all dangers and all consequences, and accepts of no medium between death and victory; while the various improvements, which, within the last three years, they have introduced into the art of war, prove, that, as men of science and philosophy, the French are acquiring an equal ascendancy over the rest of Europe.

RELIGION.] The established religion in France before the present revolution, was the Roman catholic, none other being tolerated. At present, there is established the most unlimited liberty respecting religious opinions.

ARCHBISHOPRICS, BISHOPRICS, &c.] In the whole kingdom there were seventeen archbishops, one hundred and thirteen bishops, seven hundred and seventy abbies for men, three hundred and seventeen abbies and priories for women, besides

a great number of lesser convents, and two hundred and fifty commanderies of the order of Malta. A proposal, however, has been made during the present revolution, for suppressing all the religious houses, so that it is difficult now to say any thing concerning them. The ecclesiastics of all sorts were computed at near two hundred thousand, and their revenues at about six millions sterling. The king had the power of nominating all archbishops, bishops, abbots, and priors, and could tax the clergy without a papal licence or mandate. Accordingly, not many years since, he demanded the twentieth penny of the clergy, and, to ascertain that, required them to deliver in an inventory of their estates and incomes; to avoid which, they voluntarily made an offer of the annual sum of twelve millions of livres, over and above the usual free gift, which they paid every five years. This demand was often repeated in time of war.

The archbishop of Lyons was count and primate of France. The archbishop of Sens had the title of primate of France and Germany. The archbishop of Paris was duke and peer of the realm; and the archbishop of Rheims, duke and peer, and legate of the holy see; but as all titles are now abolished, so consequently are those of these church dignitaries.

[LANGUAGE.] Louis XIV. encouraged every proposal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He succeeded so far as to render it the most universal of the living tongues of Europe; and his court and nation became thereby the school of arts, sciences, and politeness. The French language, at present, is chiefly composed of words radically derived from the Latin, with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks.

The Lord's prayer in French is as follows; *Notre Pere qui es aux cieux, ton nom soit sanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté soit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'hui notre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous nos offenses, comme nous pardonnons a ceux qui nous ont offensés. Et ne nous induit point en tentation, mais nous délivre du mal: car toi est le regne, la puissance, & la gloire aux siècles des siècles. Amen.*

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] No country in Europe has produced a greater number of literary compositions than France, and they are more universally read and admired, than those of any other modern nation. This superior popularity has arisen from various causes. France is situated in the centre of the most fertile and populous regions of Europe, and, from the enterprising character of its natives, has a more general and intimate correspondence with all its neighbours, than any other people have with all of theirs. Every government in christendom, that of the British islands excepted, has numbers of Frenchmen in its public service; and the whole nation are invariably distinguished by that partiality for their own country, which is frequently ridiculous, but never contemptible. In almost every court of Europe, excepting that of London, the French tongue is generally spoken; and this preference was of itself sufficient for giving an universal circulation to the writings of its authors.

An enquiry into the more early periods of French literature, can afford but little satisfaction. The French, like other European nations, were, for many centuries, immersed in barbarism. Abelard, so unfortunately famous, is said to have been the father of that kind of jargon which was entitled the learning of the schoolmen, and which hath long since deservedly sunk into oblivion. The Memoirs of Philip de Comines, who was one of the ministers of Louis XI. form one of the best books that had, at that period, appeared in the language. In point of time, he was preceded, and in merit he was far excelled, by the celebrated Froissart, whose chronicle commences with the accession of Edward III. and ends with the death of Richard II. comprehending a period of seventy-three years. Froissart does not describe a march, a battle, a siege, or a pursuit, but he places them before our eyes. By the first stroke of his art-lets, yet magic pen, we are transported into the tumult of action, and forward to forget

that we continue in the closet. Froissart deserves to be termed the Xenophon of his age. Replete with materials, it is true that he has inserted a multiplicity of particulars, which are no longer interesting at the distance of four centuries. But, wherever his subject rises equal to his abilities, full without redundancy, intelligent and instructive without ostentation, he charms us by that pathetic simplicity of manner, that minute but happy selection of circumstances, which animates the page of the admired Athenian.

In the reign of Francis the first, there arose a number of editors and commentators on the Greek and Roman classics, and this may be called the twilight of French learning. Rabelais flourished about this time, and his celebrity is a severe satire on the common sense of his cotemporaries. The grossest buffoonery, and the vilest obscenity, are the chief resources which he employs for exciting merriment. Montaigne, who was somewhat later, has received at least his due proportion of praise. A great part of his observations are borrowed from the ancients. His method is detultery, or rather he has no method. He speaks too often in the first person, and tells much of himself, that few of his readers wish to hear.

The civil wars of France produced a multitude of historians, among or rather *above* whom, the duke of Sully shines with distinguished lustre. His memoirs form one of those rare and valuable works, which are equally adapted to interest every class of readers. They set before us the most beautiful picture of prudence and fidelity, that the world has perhaps ever seen. Louis the fourteenth was himself illiterate, for his education is said to have been neglected though the jealousy of cardinal Mazarine. But he had sufficient natural good sense, to feel and regret his deficiencies. He bestowed pensions on many learned men, to the extent of more than fifty thousand dollars per annum; and this may be considered as almost the only real glory of his reign. To him we are indebted for the numerous editions of Latin authors, *In usum Delphini*, and though these are not always performances of the first rank, they are valuable and useful. In tragic poetry, Corneille and Racine have been much admired by the French, but their plays are little adapted to the taste of an English reader, who has previously become familiar with the tempestuous rapidity of Shakespeare. Moliere, the great comic poet, copied nature with more exactness than Corneille or Racine, and he has acquired a very high degree of reputation. Fontaine wrote fables and tales; and is admired for an inimitable simplicity of style; but his merriment is too frequently derived from a trite and vulgar source, which it is needless to mention. About thirty years ago, there was printed at London, a volume entitled *Crazy Tales, or Fables for grown gentlemen*, written by Mr. Hall. This poet, as far as we are able to judge, has a closer resemblance to Fontaine than any other author in the English language. His verses bear unusual marks of original genius, and cultivated taste, and in the turn of his style, he seems frequently to have directed the course of the well known Peter Pindar. Returning from this short digression, we shall observe that Boileau is the most celebrated satiric poet in the French republic of letters; but after all, it must be allowed, that he falls infinitely short of Juvenal or Buchanan. The former of these two poets he attempted to imitate. The latter he perhaps included in a general and absurd condemnation of all modern writers in Latin verse.

Eoſſiet, Bourdaloue, Flechier and Massillon, excelled in the eloquence of the pulpit. As an historian, De Thou has been highly extolled; but his work is not very frequently read. The Telemachus of Fenelon fully deserves all the praise which it has received. It is chiefly a concealed satire on the ordinary conduct of kings, and Louis the fourteenth had penetration enough to discover its real design; but instead of profiting by its lessons, he disgraced himself by attempting to disgrace its author. Montequieu has been celebrated to a degree of extravagance; but his reputa-

tion has reached its zenith. He is full of mistakes in point of fact; and in his reasonings, he is too fond of refinement.

The works of Voltaire fill, in the last edition, ninety-three volumes. He is reputed to be the greatest poet in the French nation. He omitted no opportunity of holding up to ridicule and detestation every species of opposition and despotism; and he must always be considered as one of those liberal and philosophical writers, whose productions prepared the minds of Frenchmen, for the destruction of the bastille. Like other men, he had numerous imperfections and faults, but if we except Lopez de Vega, no other author has discovered such an inexhaustible fecundity of original composition.

Before Newton appeared in England, Descartes was the greatest philosopher in modern times. He first applied algebra to the solution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical discoveries of Newton. Many eminent mathematicians have flourished in the present age, particularly Clairaut, Bezout, and D'Alembert; the latter of whom, to the precision of a geometrician, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the present century, the French have rivalled the English in natural philosophy. Buffon was a philosophical painter of nature; and, under this view, his natural history is the first work of its kind.

Their painters, Pouffin, Le Brun, and above all Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. France has, at present, none who can be compared with them in the more noble kinds of painting, but Mr. Greuse, for portraits and conversation pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in most other countries of Europe. Their engravings on copper plates have been universally and justly celebrated; but such a liberal patronage has been afforded to English artists, that they are now thought to excel their ingenious neighbours, and have rivalled them also in the manufacture of the paper proper for such impressions. Their treatises on ship-building and engineering stand unrivalled; but in the practice of both, they have been outdone by the English. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long superior to the English in architecture; though the latter now bid far to surpass them in this art.

We shall conclude this head with observing, that the French have now new modelled the Encyclopedia, or General Dictionary of Arts and Sciences, which was drawn up by the most able masters in each branch of literature, under the direction of messieurs D'Alembert and Diderot, and is the most complete collection of human knowledge that we are acquainted with.

UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC COLLEGES.] These literary institutions sustained a considerable loss by the expulsion of the Jesuits, who made the languages, arts, and sciences, their particular study, and taught them all over France. It is not within the plan of this work to describe the different governments and constitutions of every university or public college in France; but they were in number twenty-eight, as follow; Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Besancon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, La Fleche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Point Moulon, Richlieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg, Toulouse, Tournoise, and Valence. Several of them have been suppressed.

ACADEMIES.] There are eight academies in Paris, namely, three literary ones, the French academy, that of inscriptions, and that of the sciences; one of painting and sculpture, one of architecture, and three for riding the great horse, and other military exercises.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, }
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. }

VOL. II

Few countries, if we except Italy, can boast of more valuable remains of antiquity than

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France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and consequently, compared to them, those of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a most curious account of the sepulchres of their kings, which have been discovered so far back as Pharamond; and some of them, when broke open, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be seen triumphal arches; but the most entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones, by Caius Marius and Luctatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and sacred; some of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itself. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Chalons, and likewise at Vienna. Nismes, however, exhibits the most valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raised in the Augustan age, by the Roman colony of Nismes, to convey a stream of water between two mountains, for the use of that city, and the building is fresh to this day. It consists of three bridges, or tiers of arches, one above another; the height is one hundred and seventy four feet, and the length extends to seven hundred and twenty-three. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other stupendous aqueducts, to the ignorance of the ancients, that all streams will, when confined in pipes, rise as high as the fountain from which they proceed. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Nismes; but the chief, are the temple of Diana; the amphitheatre, which is thought to be the first and most entire of the kind of any in Europe; but above all, the house erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maison Carree. The architecture and sculpture of this building are so exquisitely beautiful, that it enchants even the most ignorant; and it is still entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havoc of war. At Paris, in La Rue de la Harpe, may be seen the remains of a palace, or thermæ, supposed to have been built by the emperor Julian, about the year 356, after the same model as the baths of Dioclesian. The remains of this ancient edifice consist of many arches, and within them a large saloon. It is fabricated of a kind of mastic, the composition of which is not now known, intermixed with small square pieces of free-stone and bricks.

At Arles in Provence is an obelisk of oriental granite, fifty two feet high, and seven feet in diameter at the base, and all but one stone. Roman temples and aqueducts are frequent in France. The most remarkable are in Burgundy and Guienne. The passage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of massy silver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty-one pounds, containing the story of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coeval with that general. It would be endless to recount the different monuments of antiquity to be found in France, particularly in the cabinets of the curious.

[CITIES AND TOWNS.] Lille in French Flanders, is thought to be the most regular and strongest fortification in Europe, and was the master-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garrisoned with above ten thousand regulars; and for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of silk, cambric, and camblots, are very considerable; and its inhabitants amount to about one hundred thousand. Every reader is acquainted with the history of Dunkirk, which the French were obliged, by the treaty of Utrecht, to demolish; but it is still a thorn in the side of the English, by being a harbour for their smugglers; and may now, by an article in the late treaty of peace, be put into what condition the French ministry may please. The rest of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very valuable manufactures.

The capital of the Isle of France, and of the whole republic, is Paris. The population of Paris does not exceed seven or eight hundred thousand persons.

It is divided into three parts; the city, the university, and that which was formerly called the Town. The city is old Paris; the university and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public munificence than utility. Its palaces are showy, and some of its streets, squares, hotels, hospitals, and churches superbly decorated with a profusion of paintings, tapestry, images, and statues. The tapestry of the Gobelines* is unequalled for beauty and richness. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture. The Thuilleries, the palace of Orleans, or, as it is called, Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are shown, the royal palace, the late king's library, the guild-hall, and the hospital for the invalids, are superb to the highest degree. Paris is said to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the late French noblesse at Paris took up a great deal of room with their court-yard, and gardens; and so did the convents and churches. The streets are very narrow, and the houses very high; many of them seven stories. The houses are built of stone. They generally contain a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is too far from the sea for the purposes of navigation, and is furnished with boats only for the purpose of passing from one side of the river to the other, in places distant from the bridges. The streets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches. The glittering carriages that dazzled the eyes of strangers were mostly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who visited that city; and in truth, the greatest part of the trade of Paris arose from the constant succession of strangers that arrived daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This ascendancy over other nations was undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their politeness and magnificence, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are open to the public; the cheapness of provisions, excellency of the French wines, and above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all these advantages, Paris, in general, will not bear a comparison with London, in the essential circumstances of a thriving foreign and domestic trade, the cleanliness of its streets, the elegance of its houses, especially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which it is said disagrees with strangers, as do likewise the French small wines. In the houses of Paris, most of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being sprinkled with water, and swept once a day. These brick floors, the stone stairs, the want of wainscoting in the rooms, and the thick party-walls of stone, are, however, good preservatives against fire, which seldom does any great damage in this city. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are covered with tapestry or damask. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented with testers and curtains; but bugs are here a most intolerable nuisance, which frequently oblige strangers to sleep on the floor, during the heat of the summer. The shop-keepers and tradesmen seldom make their appearance before dinner in any other than a morning dress. There is a remarkable contrast between this class of people and those of the same rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do most of the drudgery-business of the shop, while the husband loiters about, talks of the great, of fashions and diversions†, and the invincible force of the French arms. The splendor of the grand monarch used also to be with them a favourite topic of conversation, previous to the change in their political system. The Parisians, and the natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living; and to be intoxicated with liquor is considered as infamous. Bread, and all manner of butch-

* One Goblei, a noted dyer at Rhems, was the first who settled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the house has retained his name ever since; and here Colbert, about the year 1667, established that valuable manufactory.

† This above description must be understood as applying to Paris under the late government.

er's meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the summer season, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and small wine. The Parisians scarcely know the use of tea, but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris was formerly so well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, seldom happened; and strangers, from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever so uncommon, met with the most polite treatment. The streets were patrolled at night by horse and foot, so judiciously stationed, that offenders hardly could escape their vigilance. They likewise visited the publicans precisely at the hour of twelve at night, to see that the company were gone; for in Paris, no liquor could be had after that time. The public roads in France were under the same excellent regulation; which, with the torture of the rack, which was used till of late, prevented robberies; but when robberies did happen, they were generally attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller.

The environs of Paris are very pleasant, and contain a number of fine seats, small towns and villages; some of them, being scattered on the edges of lofty mountains rising from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Versailles, which stands twelve miles from Paris, though magnificent and expensive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furnish, is properly a collection of buildings, each of exquisite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and sublime of that art. The gardens, and water-works, which are supplied by means of prodigious engines across the Seine at Marli, about three miles distant, are highly worthy of a stranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Moudon, and other palaces, were laid out with taste and judgment; each had its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amusement of a luxurious court, but some of them were in a sorry condition, both as to repairs and cleanliness.

Brest is a small, but very strong town, upon the English channel, with a most spacious and strongly fortified road and harbour, the best and safest in the republic; yet its entrance is difficult, by reason of many rocks lying under water. At Brest is a court of admiralty, and academy for sea affairs, docks, and magazines for all kinds of naval stores, rope-yards, store-houses, &c. inasmuch, that it may now be termed the capital receptacle for the navy of France, and it is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a sea port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour, for the reception and protection of the royal navy. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ships pass from one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the spacious outer harbour. Its arsenal, established also by that king, has a particular store-house for each ship of war; its guns, cordage, &c. being separately laid up. Here are spacious workshops for blacksmiths, joiners, carpenters, locksmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk, of stone, is three hundred and twenty fathoms in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular storehouses, and contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV. Colbert, minister to Lewis XIV. may be called the father of French commerce and manufactures. Under him, there was a great appearance that France would make as illustrious a figure as a trading, as she did then as a warlike people; but the monarchical system of war and conquest, blasted the blossoms of domestic industry. By her situation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happiness of her soil, she must be always possessed of great inland and external trade, which enriches her, and makes her the most respectable power upon the continent of Europe. Her natural commodities have already been enumerated; to which may be added, her manufactures of salt-petre, silk, embroidery, silver, stuffs, tapestry, cambrics, lawns, fine laces, fine serges and

stuffs, velvets, brocades, paper, brandy, which is distilled from wine, a prodigious variety of toys, and other articles; many of which are smuggled into Britain, and paid for in ready money.

The silk manufacture was introduced into France so late as the reign of Henry IV. and in the age of his grandson Lewis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed eight thousand looms, and eight hundred mills. The city of Lyons then employed eighteen thousand looms; but after the impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulsion of the protestants; and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreased to four thousand; and their silk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French protestants took refuge, and were encouraged. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and stuffs, more especially at Abbeville, are said to be now little inferior to those of England and Holland. France was a gainer by her cession of Canada and part of Louisiana at the peace of 1763. But the most valuable part of Hispaniola, in the West-Indies, which she possesses, is a most improveable acquisition, and the most valuable of her foreign colonies. In the West-Indies, she likewise possesses the sugar islands of Gaudaloupe, St. Lucia, Tobago, Desada, and Marigalante.

The French possessions in the East Indies, are not very considerable; though, had their genius been more turned for commerce than war, they might have engrossed more territory and revenues than are now in possession of the English; but they overrated both their own power and their courage, and their East-India company never did much. "At present, (says Mr. Anderson) her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons—To Germany, through Metz and Strasburg—To the Netherlands, through Lisle—To Spain, (a most profitable one) through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the western ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to the great advantage of France, more especially respecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports, more particularly from Marseilles, with Turkey and Africa, has long been very considerable. The negro trade from Guinea supplies her sugar colonies, besides the gold, ivory and drugs got from thence." These remarks were made before the revolution.

In 1789, France was in the zenith of her commerce. Favoured by Spain, and dreaded by most of the other powers of Europe, her fleets covered the ocean; but she trusted too much to her own self-importance. Cardinal de Fleury, who then directed her affairs, took no care to protect her trade by proper naval armaments; so that the greater it was, it became the more valuable prey to the English when war broke out. One great disadvantage to the commerce of France, before the revolution, was, that the profession of a merchant was not so honourable as in England, and some of the countries; so that the French nobility thought it below them. A great number of the cities of France had the privilege of coinage, and each of them a particular mark to distinguish their respective pieces; which must have been very embarrassing, especially to strangers.

[PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] The institution of public trading companies to Canada or New-France and the East and West Indies, formerly cost the French government immense sums; but we know none of them now subsisting: their West-India trade is, still, very considerable, especially in sugar.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In speaking upon this article, we must rather confine ourselves to a history of the past constitution and government of this republic, than presume to give any circumstantial account of them at present. The late changes have been great and remarkable, and matters are far from being settled.

The ancient government of France was a feudal aristocracy. The long wars

with England pointed out the necessity of employing a standing army; and in the reign of Charles VII. a body of twenty-five thousand men were accordingly raised. By degrees, and by the medium of this instrument, Lewis XI. converted the monarchy into an absolute despotism. In the succeeding reign, the nobility resumed their influence, and during the civil wars of France, in the sixteenth century, maintained a considerable independence of the crown. The states general appear to have been very seldom assembled. They met once in the reign of Henry the IV, and Sully speaks of their character and proceedings with very great contempt. They knew no more of the business of legislation, than so many recruits do of military discipline, before they have learned their manual exercise. But experience would soon have made them familiar with this employment. The only other time of their being called together till the year 1789, was in 1617, when they were convoked, but to very little purpose. Cardinal Richieu finally annihilated the military power, though not the civil privileges and influence, of the French nobility. He paved the way for the *greatness*, as it has been called, of Louis XIV. From the time when the latter assumed the reigns of government, till the beginning of the late revolution, France had by far the most firmly established government, in Europe. The king possessed almost unlimited authority, which rested on the surest of all foundations, the enthusiastic attachment of the people. It is a vulgar error to say, as has been frequently done, since the present changes, that the French had, *for centuries*, been distinguished by respect to their sovereigns. The uncommon veneration for royalty commenced with the grandeur of Louis XIV.

A parliament of France had no analogy with that of Britain. It was originally instituted to serve as a kind of law assistant to the assembly of the states, which was composed of the great peers and landholders of the kingdom; and ever since it continued to be a law, and, at last, a money court; and the members had the courage, of late, to claim a kind of negative on the royal edicts, which they affirmed could be of no validity till registered by them. The kings often tried to invalidate their acts and to intimidate themselves; but never ventured to inflict any farther punishment, than a slight exile or imprisonment.

France was divided into thirty governments, over each of which was appointed a king's lieutenant general, a superintendent, who pretty much resembled the lord-lieutenants in England, but his executive powers were far more extensive. Distributive justice in France was administered by parliaments, chambers of accounts, courts of aid, presidial courts, generalities, elections, and other courts. The parliaments were in number fifteen; those of Paris, Toulouse, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Rheims, Pau, Metz, Besançon, Douay, Perpignan, Colmar, and Arras. Several of these parliaments, however, united in one. The parliament of Paris was the chief, and took the lead in all national business. It was divided into ten chambers. The grand chamber was appropriated chiefly for the trial of peers. The Tournelle Civile judged in all matters of property of the value of one thousand livres. The Tournelle Criminelle received and decided appeals from inferior courts in criminal cases. Besides these three capital chambers, there were five of requests, for receiving the depositions of witnesses and determining causes, pretty much in the same manner as bills and answers in chancery and the exchequer in England.

The next court of judicature in France was, the chamber of accounts; where all matters of public finances were examined, treaties of peace and grants registered, and the vasallages due from the royal fiefs received. The chambers were in number, twelve, and held in the cities of Paris, Rouen, Dijon, Nantes, Montpellier, Grenoble, Aix, Pau, Blois, Lisle, and Dole.

The third court of judicature was the court of aid, where all matters that relate to the royal revenue, and raising of money, were determined.

The next courts were the generalities, which proportioned the taxes to be raised in their districts, according to the sum appointed to be levied. They likewise took cognizance of matters relating to the crown-lands, and certain branches of the revenue. These courts were in number twenty-three, each consisting of twenty-three persons; and they were distributed over the kingdom for the more convenient dispatch of business.

Subject to these generalities, were the courts of elections, which settled the smaller proportion of taxes to be paid by parishes and inferior districts, and how much each individual in them was to pay. This was done by a collector, who returned the assessment to the court of generalities. Besides the above courts, the French had intendants of Justice, police, and finances.

Many of the taxes and revenues in France, were let out for a time to farmers-general, whose underlings made no scruple of fleecing the people most unmercifully.

Since the nation began to assert its freedom, two constitutions have been successively framed and ratified. The first one by the national assembly, and presented to the king, on the 3d of September, 1791. The second was agreed to by the convention on the 23d of June, 1793. We shall attempt to give a sketch of some of the principal clauses in each of them.

By the former, the national assembly declares, that "there is no longer any nobility, nor peerage, nor hereditary distinctions, nor difference of orders, nor feudal government, nor patrimonial jurisdiction, nor any of the titles, denominations, and prerogatives, which are derived from them; nor any of the orders of chivalry, corporations, or decorations, for which proofs of nobility were required; nor any kind of superiority, but that of public functionaries, in the exercise of their functions. No public office is henceforth hereditary, or purchasable. No part of the nation, nor any individual, can henceforth possess any privilege or exception from the common rights of all Frenchmen. There are no more wardenships or corporations in professions, arts, or trades. The law recognizes no longer any religious vows." We give this passage in the exact words of the instrument itself, as a specimen of the comprehensive brevity and perspicuity of its style.

Property, destined to the expense of worship, and to all services of public utility, belongs to the nation, and shall at all times be at his disposal. This clause was aimed at ecclesiastical property, which had been loosely computed as worth six millions sterling per annum. The regal and ecclesiastical plunder, seized by the nation, is esteemed at four thousand millions of livres, which, at five livres to the dollar, is eight hundred millions of dollars. Citizens are to have the right of choosing their own clergymen, and there is established, or implied, an universal right of conscience.

The kingdom is divided into eighty-three departments; every department into districts, and each district into cantons. The constitution is *representative*. The representatives are the legislative body, and the king. The national assembly consists of one chamber only, is elected once every two years, and cannot be dissolved by the king. The representatives for the eighty-three departments, are seven hundred and forty-five, independent of those that may be granted to the colonies. They are distributed among the departments, according to their three proportions of *territory*, of *population*, and of *direct contribution*. Two hundred and forty-seven are attached to the *territory*. Of these, each department names three, except that of Paris, which names only one. Two hundred and forty-nine representatives are attached to the *population*, and as many to the *direct contribution*. For this purpose, the total mass of active population, is divided into two hundred and forty-nine parts; and each department nominates as many members as it contains parts of the population. The sum total of the *direct contribution*, is also divided into two hundred and forty-nine parts; and each department nominates as many deputies as it pays parts of the contribution. Every citizen of the

age of twenty five years, is, under certain specified restrictions, entitled to vote in the primary assemblies of the people, for an elector. The electors choose the deputies. The powers of the king occupied a separate chapter in this very short lived constitution. His office was to be worth thirteen or fourteen hundred thousand pounds sterling, or between five and six millions of dollars per annum; though the sum is not specified in this political ephemeron. The exercise of the legislative and executive powers is likewise defined at great length.

By the second constitution, France is declared to be a *Republic*. The people, for the exercise of sovereignty, are divided into primary assemblies of cantons. "Every man born and resident in France, of the age of twenty-one years complete, every foreigner aged twenty-one years complete, who has resided a year in France, who has acquired property, married a French woman, adopted a child, maintained an aged person; in short, every foreigner who shall be judged by the legislative body, to have deserved well, by his humanity, shall be admitted to exercise the rights of a French citizen." The people shall immediately name the deputies, without the intervention of electoral assemblies. This makes a material difference from the constitution of 1791. The people nominate electors for the choice of administrators, public arbitrators, criminal judges and judges of appeal. By another article, they are to deliberate on laws. Population is declared to be the sole basis of representation. There is one deputy for every forty thousand individuals. Each reunion of primary assemblies, resulting from a population of from thirty-nine to forty-one thousand souls, nominates directly one deputy. The legislative body is chosen for a year. It meets on the first of July. The assembly cannot be constituted, unless it consists of one more than the half of the deputies. The sittings are public. Its minutes are printed. It cannot deliberate unless two hundred members, at least, are present.

There is also to be an executive council, composed of twenty-four members. The electoral assembly of each department nominates one candidate. The legislative body chooses the members from the general list. One half of this council is renewed by each legislature, in the last month of each session. It is charged with the direction and superintendance of the general administration. It acts only in execution of the laws and decrees of the legislative body. This council appoints agents for managing the national treasury. These agents are superintended by commissioners named by the national assembly, but who cannot be chosen from its members. These commissioners are liable to punishment for abuses which they are acquainted with, and do not divulge.

The accounts of the agents of the national treasury, and administrators of public money, are given in annually to responsible commissioners, nominated by the executive council, and these again are superintended by a second class of commissioners, whom the legislative body nominates, but who cannot be members of it. As to the military establishment, all the French males are soldiers. They are all exercised in the use of arms. There is no generalissimo.

The legislative body is bound to convoke all the primary assemblies of the republic, to know if there be ground for a national convention, in the following case, viz. if in one more than the half of the departments, the tenth part of the primary assemblies of each, regularly formed, demand the revision of the constitutional act. The majority of these tenth primary assemblies may form only perhaps about a twentieth part of the half of the members of these departments, while, in the whole number of departments, there may only be a majority of one department, where such a tenth primary assembly exists. The conclusion is, that the fortieth part, or thereabouts, of the French citizens may obtain the assembling of a convention to revise the constitutional act.

By one clause of this act, it is declared, that "the French people is the Friend and natural ally of every free people. It does not interfere in the government of other

nations. It does not suffer other nations to interfere in its own. It gives an asylum to foreigners, banished from their country for the cause of liberty; it refuses refuge to tyrants." The republic does not make peace with an enemy who occupies any part of its territory.

These are some of the outlines of the last constitution. The convention who formed it are still sitting; so that this new system has not yet been reduced to practice.

REVENUES.] It is not easy to say any thing certain concerning the revenues of the French kings as they commanded the purses of all their subjects. In 1716, the whole piece of France, in gold and silver, was computed to be about seventeen millions sterling; and though the crown was then doubly a bankrupt, being in debt about one hundred millions sterling, or two thousand millions of livres, yet, by seizing almost all the current money in the kingdom, and by arbitrarily raising or lowering the value of coins, the duke-regent of France in four years time, published a general state of the public debts, by which it appeared, that the king scarcely owed three hundred and forty millions of livres. This being done by a national robbery, we can form no idea but that of despotism, of the means by which so great a reduction was effected. The French court has not since that time blushed to own, as towards the conclusion of the former war, and also in 1769, that their king was bankrupt; and his ministers have pursued measures pretty much similar to those practised by the regent, to recruit the royal finances.

The following state of the revenues and expenses of France for 1787, is extracted from an account printed by order of the late Lewis XVI.

R E V E N U E.		EXPENSES OF GOVERNMENT.	
	Livres,		Livres.
General	574,000,000	Interest of national debt	211,000,000
Particular	32,000,000	Army and Ordnance	105,000,000
ISLANDS.		Navy	45,200,000
Dominique	6,940,000	Pensions	26,000,000
Martinique	1,100,000	Sundries, viz. encouragement	347,800,000
Gaudaloupe	900,000	of commerce, agriculture, &c.	
Cayenne	60,000		
	<hr/>		
	Total 615,000,000		Total 735,000,000
			Or, 33,400,000l. sterling.
	<hr/>		
	Or, 28,000,000l. sterling.		

From this account it appears, that the revenue of France amounted, in the year 1787, to twenty eight millions of pounds sterling, (allowing twenty-two livres to the pound sterling) and the expenses were thirty-three millions four hundred thousand pounds sterling, of which nine millions five hundred and ninety thousand pounds sterling is the interest of national debt; so that the expenses exceeded the national income by five millions four hundred and fifty four thousand pounds. The collection of this revenue cost two millions seven hundred thousand pounds, which is at the rate of about ten per cent. Of the present state of the finances of the republic, it is impossible to speak with certainty.

The taxes were raised by the taille, or land-tax; by the tallion, which the nobility were obliged to pay as well as the commons, and which was another land tax; by aids; which we call customs, on merchandize: by gabels, which are taxes upon salt; by a capitation, or poll tax; by the tenths of estates and employments; by the sale of all offices of justice; by confiscations and forfeitures: and by a tenth, or free gift of the clergy, exclusive of the annual sum of twelve millions of livres, which that body of late advanced to the king,

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] There is no nation in Europe, where the art:

of war, particularly that part of it relating to gunnery and fortification, is better understood than in France. Besides other methods for cultivating it, there was a royal military academy established, for training up five hundred young gentlemen, in the several branches of this destructive art. In time of peace, the crown of France maintained two hundred and twenty-eight thousand four hundred and ninety-seven men, but at a very small comparative expence, the pay of the common men being little more than two-pence half penny sterling per day. In time of war, four hundred thousand have been brought into the field; but those raised from the militia, were very indifferent troops. In 1784. the standing military force amounted to two hundred and twelve thousand nine hundred and twenty-four. In the reign of Lewis XVI. the French had at one time one hundred ships of the line, which was almost equal to the marine force of all Europe besides. The French have, however, at sea, been generally defeated by the English. The engagement at La Hogue, which happened in 1692, gave a blow to the French marine, which it was long before it recovered. Lewis XV. more than once, made prodigious efforts towards re-establishing his navy; but his officers and sea-men were so much inferior to those of England, that he seemed, during the war of 1756, to have built ships of force for the service of Britain, so frequent were the captures made by the English. However, after the commencement of hostilities between Britain and France, on account of the conduct of the latter in assisting the revolted American colonies, it appeared, that the French navy had become more formidable than at any preceding period, their ministry having exerted their utmost efforts to establish a powerful marine. The present navy of France consists of about one hundred ships of the line, besides a great number of frigates.

FOREIGN AND COLONY TRADE.] France has very important fisheries. About fifty thousand tons of herrings are caught annually by the French fishermen; the fishery of anchovies is said to be worth two millions of livres. The French fisheries on the North-American coasts, were estimated, before the year 1744, at one million of pounds sterling; they have since decreased; but it is likely that they are worth nearly as much as before, in consequence of the cessions made to the French by the peace of 1763. In 1768, the French sent one hundred and fourteen vessels to Newfoundland, which brought home a cargo of cod, worth three millions of livres; but the profits, arising from this branch of fishery, are not very considerable.

To enumerate the many manufactures of articles of luxury established in France, would exceed the limits of this work; it is sufficiently known, that France has long ago taken the lead in fashions, and has seen hers adopted by most other nations of Europe. This pre-eminence was a very great source of profit. In the year 1773, there were in France fifteen hundred silk mills, twenty-one thousand looms for silk stuffs, twelve thousand for ribands and lace, twenty thousand for silk stockings; and the different silk manufactures employed two millions of persons.

As a commercial state, France follows immediately after England and Holland. Her trade is carried on with all Europe; that branch of it which was carried on publicly with England, was hitherto not very considerable. She exported to England, in the year 1785, goods to the value of one hundred and seventeen thousand three hundred and sixty six pounds sterling, and imported from England to the value of three hundred and fifty-eight thousand two hundred and forty-four pounds sterling. But the smuggling trade, between both countries, is carried on to a great amount. It was publicly stated, in the house of commons, that only sixty thousand kegs of spirits paid the duties, and three million of kegs were smuggled; the greatest part of which were French spirits. The French have made themselves masters of the greatest share of the Levant trade; they export the produce of their manufactures, chiefly woollens and West-India goods, from Marseilles to Constantinople, Smyrna, Syria, and Egypt. They

take, however, such large quantities of the produce of these countries in return, that they are obliged to pay a balance in ready money. The French enjoy some valuable commercial privileges in Turkey. Their African and East-India trade is unprofitable; but their West-India possessions, which were well cultivated and governed, made ample amends for these losses, by the many articles of commerce that they supplied, which were valued at one hundred and twenty-five millions of livres. Before the late American war the balance of commerce, in favour of France, was estimated at seventy millions of livres, and it is said, that it has not diminished since. Inland trade is greatly facilitated by numerous navigable canals in several parts of the kingdom, Some of the principal trading towns are, Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, Bourdeaux, Nantes, Rouen, St. Malo, Rochelle, Havre de Grace, and Dunkirk.

The West-India islands, before the late disturbances, produced annually, on an average, of sugar, two hundred and twenty-four millions of pounds; coffee, sixty-two millions of pounds; cotton, seven millions seven hundred thousand pounds; indigo, two millions two hundred thousand pounds, with many other articles. Total value of West-India products, one hundred and ninety millions of livres, or about thirty-seven millions of dollars. France exports to the amount of one hundred and two millions of livres, which, deducted from one hundred and ninety millions of livres, (the whole value) leaves eighty-eight millions of livres.

The Newfoundland fisheries employ, annually, two hundred and sixty-four ships, containing twenty-seven thousand four hundred and thirty-nine tons, and nine thousand four hundred and three men. Total value of the fishery, six millions of livres, or about two hundred and seventy thousand pounds sterling.

The East-India importation is valued at eighteen millions of livres, or eight hundred thousand pounds sterling.

Total exports of France, 332,000,000 livres, or £.15,000,000 sterl.
Imports 256,000,000 livres, or £.11,640,000

Balance in favour of France, £. 3,360,000

CALENDAR.] In autumn, 1793, the national convention determined to alter the style. Their year now begins on the 22d of September. It consists of twelve months, of thirty days each, with five intercalary days, which are dedicated to a national festival, and are on that account, called *Sans-culottides*. Each month is divided into three decades, or portions of ten days each, and the day of rest is appointed for every tenth day, instead of the seventh. The intercalary day of every fourth year, is to be called La Sans-culottide; on which there is to be a national renovation of their oath, "to live free or die." The following table will be found extremely convenient, as there is at present a perpetual recurrence to French dates.

	Names of Months,	English.	Term.
Autumn.	Vindemaire, - - -	Vintage month, - -	From September 22 to October 21.
	Brumaire, - - -	Fog month, - - -	October 22 to November 20.
	Frumaire, - - -	Sleet month, - - -	November 21 to Decemb. 20.
Winter.	Nivose, - - -	Snow month, - - -	December 21 to January 19.
	Pluivose, - - -	Rain month, - - -	January 20 to February 18.
	Ventose, - - -	Wind month - - -	February 19 to March 20.
Spring.	Germinal, - - -	Sprouts month, - -	March 21 to April 19.
	Floreale, - - -	Flowers month, - -	April 20 to May 19.
	Praireal, - - -	Pasture month, - -	May 20 to June 18.
	Messidor, - - -	Harvest month - -	June 19 to July 18.
	Thermidor, - - -	Hot month, - - -	July 19 to August 17.
	Fructidor - - -	Fruit month - - -	August 18 to September 16.

THE FIVE ODD DAYS ARE,

<i>Names of Days.</i>	<i>Englsh.</i>	<i>Term.</i>
Les Vertus, - -	The Virtues, -	September 17.
Le Genie - - -	Genius, - - -	September 18.
Le Travail, - - -	Labour, - - -	September 19.
L'Opinion, - - -	Opinion - - -	September 20.
Les Recompenses,	Rewards - - -	September 21.

In consequence of the change in the divisions of a month, another has taken place in the names of the days. They are as follows: 1. Primidi, 2. Duodi, 3. Tridi, 4. Quartidi, 5. Quintidi, 6. Sextidi, 7. Septidi, 8. Octodi, 9. Nonodi, and 10. Decadi, which is to be the day of rest. Some time after this alteration in the style, a commissioner in the provinces wrote to the convention that he had imprisoned several people for the observance of Sunday. It is not, however, likely that such cruel measures will receive any countenance from the convention.

HISTORY.] This country was formerly known by the name of Gaul. It was conquered by Julius Cesar, about half a century before the christian era. In the fifth century, it was subdued by the northern barbarians, and from one of their tribes, the Franks, it derives its modern appellation. The first christian monarch of the Franks was Clovis, who began his reign in the year 481. About the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, became master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy. He was crowned king of the Romans by the pope, and by his will, divided his empire among his sons. Soon after, the Normans, a northern tribe, conquered Normand and Bretagne, and in 1066, William, one of their dukes, conquered England.

From this time forward, a great part of the history of France consists of its wars with England. In these, the latter country was almost constantly the aggressor. Neither Edward III. nor Henry V. had any just foundation, even according to the common scale of political justice, for advancing their claims; and if they had ultimately succeeded in the reduction of France, England itself would have been converted into a provincial appendage of that country. Of this truth, even the English nation appears to have at length become sensible, since their parliament exhibited occasionally a parsimonious jealousy of the progress of their monarchs.

Francis the first is one of the most distinguished sovereigns of France in latter ages. He was, in the year 1520, a competitor with Charles V. for the imperial crown of Germany. He had already a much greater extent of territory than he could properly govern. The money that he expended for purchasing votes in the electoral college, might have been employed, with the greatest propriety, in promoting and improving the manufactures and agriculture of France. He lost his election; and Charles who carried it, obtained nothing by the prize, but fatigue, vexation, an empty title, and an opportunity of committing a multitude of crimes, which would otherwise have been beyond his power. This contest laid the foundation for a series of long and bloody wars between Charles and Francis, in which the former was distinguished by his cunning and perfidy, the latter by his want of prudence, and both by their utter insensibility to the miseries of their subjects. In the year 1524, Francis was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia; at which time he wrote the laconic letter to his mother, which has been so frequently quoted. "Madam we have lost every thing except our honour." Indeed this part of his character had been lost already, which is evident from his previous treatment of his relation, the constable Bourbon. He drove this nobleman into exile and rebellion, by the grossest ill treatment. Of this misconduct, he found afterwards full leisure to repent; as Bourbon, a person of the greatest military talents, entered into the service of the emperor, and had a principal share in gaining the battle of Pavia. Francis was kept a prisoner for a year and ten

months, and at last obtained his liberty by subscribing and swearing to a multiplicity of conditions, which he never intended to perform. Two of his sons were left as hostages for the execution of this treaty. As soon as he entered his own territory, he cried out several times, *I am still a king!* During his reign, the reformation began in Germany; and Francis, to distress his rival Charles, gave some assistance to the protestants. At the same time, some symptoms of protestantism began to break out in Paris; and Francis condemned to the flames six persons who adhered to the new doctrines. They were burned alive by being fastened to a machine which alternately let them down into the flames and raised them again; so that their sufferings were prolonged to an extreme degree. Francis himself assisted at the scene, and declared publicly to the spectators, that if he thought his right hand infected with heresy, he would cut it off with the left. Much has been said of the refined taste and munificence of this prince, and of his generosity to men of learning. It is not likely that all his benefactions of this sort put together ever cost him half as much as one of his favourite mistresses. In his reign began the political connexion between the court of France and the Turks. To distress Charles, he invited the Turks to invade the coast of Spain and Italy. Francis died, in 1547.

Henry II. succeeded to his father Francis, and was more fortunate in his wars with Germany, Spain, and England, than his predecessor had been. He recovered Calais from England. He was killed, in 1559, by an accident at a tilting match. His son Francis II. succeeded him at the age of only thirteen years. He was a weak and sickly boy, and died in 1560. His brother Charles IX. was then a minor, and the sole direction of affairs fell into the hands of the queen-mother, Catharine of Medicis. She was an enterprising, ambitious, and unprincipled woman. Her regency was a continued series of treachery and murder. The protestants in France had by this time become numerous, and though they were not perhaps more than a sixth part of the nation, the abilities and invincible intrepidity of their leader, the admiral Coligni, rendered them very formidable. Three civil wars succeeded each other. At last the court pretended to grant a very advantageous peace to the Hugonots. The chiefs of the party were invited to Paris to assist at the nuptials of Henry, the young king of Navarre. This produced the horrible massacre on St. Bartholomew's day, in 1572. Coligni, and several thousands of the Hugonots, were butchered. The duke of Sully, at that time a boy, escaped with difficulty. This brought on a fourth civil war. A peace was concluded in 1573. It was broken next year.

Charles died without heirs. He was succeeded by his brother Henry III. This prince, while a private person, had behaved with some degree of conduct and of courage. He had the disgrace of being perhaps chief author of the massacre at Paris; but, after his accession to the throne, he sunk into sloth and voluptuousness. The princes of the house of Guise, equally remarkable for the magnitude of their abilities and the stupendous atrocity of their crimes, engrossed the government of the kingdom. Henry became, in their hands, a mere cypher; but though he wanted courage or influence to preserve his power, he possessed a sufficient degree of subtlety and resentment to revenge, very fully, the loss of it. He invited the duke of Guise and his brother the cardinal of Lorraine, to an amicable conference. They were both murdered. Upon this, the discontented party in France adopted measures still more violent against their sovereign. This assassination happened in 1588; and Henry himself was murdered in the next year.

Henry, the young king of Navarre, was next heir to the crown; but, being a protestant, his succession was opposed by the greatest difficulties. He himself was at that time engaged, at the head of the Hugonot party, in a war, with the great body of the French nation. Paris was the centre and the soul of the opposition to Henry. The citizens had formed what they called a holy league, in defence of

the catholic religion; and, in this league, were united most of the principal cities in the kingdom. To support them, Philip II. king of Spain, remitted into France immense sums of money. In 1593, Henry went publicly to mass, as a sign of his conversion to the church of Rome. This measure was extremely hazardous, as he thus lost the confidence of one party without acquiring that of the other. However, it succeeded so far as to disarm his revolted subjects, who universally submitted to his government. At last, in 1598, he published the edict of Nantes, which secured to the protestants the free exercise of their religion. He was assassinated in 1610. The history of the civil wars in France has been written by Davila, with so much candour, perspicuity, and completeness, that the most inquisitive reader is informed of almost every circumstance that he would wish to know, while the most negligent can hardly point out a passage that he could desire to be omitted.

The Memoirs of Sully, favourite minister to Henry IV. contain a multitude of interesting particulars. The merit of this book is so great and so universally known, that we need not give any farther account of it. Louis XIII. son to Henry IV. was but nine years of age at the death of his father. As he grew up, he discarded the ministers who had been chosen by his mother, to whom the regency had been entrusted. In their room he selected cardinal Richlieu. This man, remarkable, even among statesmen, for his superior inhumanity, gave the last blow to the protestant interest, and to the liberties of the French nation. He thus put an end to the French civil wars, on account of religion. It has been computed, that these struggles cost France above a million of lives. Richlieu died a few months before Louis XIII. who, in 1643, left his son Louis XIV. to inherit his kingdom. During the minority of the late prince, France was convulsed by the factions of the great, for the most trifling causes, and upon the most despicable principles: The queen mother promoted cardinal Mazarine to the office of her first minister. This man was an Italian, and possessed an uncommon degree of coolness and cunning. By flattering the pride of Oliver Cromwell, he excited that formidable tyrant to turn his arms against Spain. Having thus freed himself from the danger of foreign enemies, he in a few years effectually quelled the storms of domestic faction. Louis XIV. at his accession, found himself more absolute than any monarch that had ever sat on the throne of France. He was a kind of half resemblance to Henry IV.; but he had neither the personal courage, the dignity of soul, the benevolence, nor the noble simplicity of his grand father. In 1685, he revoked the edict of Nantes, and drove five hundred thousand protestants out of his dominions. This gigantic act of folly weakened his power more completely than it could have been by the loss of ten pitched battles. He had before this time been engaged in several wars. They were commenced not with more injustice, but with much more insolence, than is common among the kings of Europe. He had once nearly completed the conquest of Holland, but missed, by the very worst management, the accomplishment of his project. This acquisition would have enabled him to set his rivals at defiance. In 1689, William III. king of England, placed himself at the head of an alliance against the king of France. This combination consisted almost entirely of the same powers, who are at present combined against the French republic, viz. Spain, England, Holland, the Emperor, and the duke of Savoy. Louis resisted them for about nine years. Seven hundred millions sterling were spent, and eight hundred thousand men perished; yet none of the parties gained one penny of more, or almost one foot of territory. A peace was concluded in 1697. But Charles II. king of Spain, having died without children, a quarrel arose between the king of France and the emperor about the succession to the crown of Spain. Louis, the king of England, and the republic of Holland, had entered into successive treaties for dividing the Spanish dominions. In each of these treaties, the parties had reserved a large portion for the emperor, who, as male representative to the family of Austria, claimed

the whole succession. Louis had married one of the sisters of Charles, and consequently his eldest son, the dauphin of France, had the nearest right in point of blood. Of the sequel of this war, the reader has already seen a statement under the article SPAIN. Louis died on the 1st of December, 1715, after a reign of more than seventy years. This prince has been the object both of excessive panegyric and reproach; and both, as usual, exceeded the bounds of truth. To the title of *great*, bestowed on him by sycophants, he certainly had no claim.

Louis was succeeded by his grandson, Louis XV. who reigned to the 10th May, 1774. These two monarchs, between them, filled the throne of France for above an hundred and thirty-one years. Two successive reigns of equal length, have never been heard of, at any other period, either in history or fable. Louis XV. fell behind his predecessor in abilities; he was an indolent, good-natured, voluptuous man. The misfortunes and disgraces of his reign are, like those of his grandfather, chiefly to be ascribed to the wretched construction of the French government. To require that a young prince, bred in the lap of luxury, effeminacy, and tyranny, should at once assume the stern virtues of an Alfred, or a Sully, is to demand from human nature what neither candour nor experience entitle us to expect. Thro' the greatest part of his reign Louis XV. was governed by his mistresses. He was engaged in several wars, which have already been mentioned, under the articles of GERMANY and ENGLAND. In 1757, Francis Damien attempted to assassinate the king of France, who escaped with a slight wound. The man proved to be a frantic enthusiast, and a much more proper object for a mad house than a court of justice. He expired under tortures, which demonstrated that his judges were still more lost than himself to the feelings of humanity*. Indeed, the punishment of breaking on the wheel, and of putting prisoners to the rack, that they might be compelled to confess their guilt, were two customs under the old monarchy of France, alike repugnant to every idea of reason and of justice.

During the war of 1756, France was in reality governed by madam Pompadour, who sold every office, and conducted the administration upon the most extensive scale of profligacy and corruption. The army of Hannibal, commanded by Elagabalus, would not have gained the battle of Cannae; and in this contest, it would be more proper to say that the English minister, Mr. Pitt, conquered madam Pompadour, than that Britain conquered France. The expulsion of the Jesuits, which happened about the year 1761, was one of the most remarkable events in this reign. The reduction of Corsica was but a poor compensation to France for the numerous defeats and disasters that she had encountered in her late contest with Britain. This acquisition, like most others of the same kind, cost the conqueror an hundred times its real value.

Louis XVI. began his reign by several judicious regulations, which seemed to promise much felicity to his subjects and to himself. One singular circumstance was the appointment of Mr. Neckar, a Swiss and a protestant, to the management of the French finances. The benevolent designs of Louis towards his people were early blasted by his interference in the quarrel between Britain and this country. It has been said that Louis himself was almost the only person in France, who was heartily averse to this war. Mr. Neckar has published a memorial in vindication of his own conduct. In the paper he says, that in 1776, when he entered upon the administration, the disbursements exceeded the revenue by at least a million sterling per annum. By numerous reforms, he affirms that, by the year 1789, he had converted this deficiency into an annual excess of four hundred and forty five thousand pounds. Savings of this kind were absorbed in the enormous expenses of the war with Britain. The monarchical system was reduced to exactly the same situation with that of a merchant, who can no

* When the late king of Prussia had detected one of his servants in an attempt to poison him, he contented himself by committing the criminal to confinement for a few years.

longer support his credit. The subsequent revolution must be almost entirely ascribed to the ruinous public debts contracted in the war of 1780.

We have been credibly informed, that previous to the extinction of the late government, about an hundred and thirty thousand excise men, custom-house officers, and other subordinate satellites of taxation, were employed in France. Yet, so bad had been the management of the court, that the annual revenue was by some millions sterling short of the annual expenditure. On this head, there is, as well might be supposed, a wide difference of opinion, or at least of assertion, between the persons concerned in the administration; but one fact is unquestionable, that the deficiency was too great to have been relieved by any efforts, which the French government was capable of making. The public creditors were a numerous, an alarmed and a powerful body. Previous to the accession of Louis XVI. the king of Prussia, in his posthumous memoirs, computes that a national bankruptcy in France, would ruin forty thousand families. Their number had since that time multiplied immensely, and they could no longer, but with difficulty, obtain their annuities or the interest of their debts. The courtiers, through all their classes of venality, apprehended, in many partial reductions of the pension list; an utter extinction of useless salaries. The army itself, extending to at least two hundred thousand mercenaries, was in danger of losing its pittance of wages. Louis, though universally and not undeservedly beloved, did not possess those superior talents which had conducted Henry IV. with honour through a situation as desperate as his own. Fresh taxes were proposed, and the people, exhausted in every vein, refused to pay them. The machine of arbitrary power at once stood still, by the same mechanical necessity which stops the wheels of a watch, when the spring is broken.

After every expedient of ministerial artifice had failed, the court was compelled to summon an assembly of the states general. This body had not been convened since the year 1617. They consisted of twelve hundred deputies; three hundred from the clergy, three hundred from the nobility, and six hundred from the third estate, that is, the rest of the nation: They met at Versailles, on the 5th of May, 1789. The privileges or claims of each of the three orders were in direct opposition to those of the others. In an assemblage of such discordant materials, a contest was inevitable; and the commons, or third order, embraced the first opportunity to commence it.

The great object of this party was, that the whole three orders of the states general should assemble in one hall, and vote in one body, without the distinction of separate houses, or privileges, as is the practice in the parliament of Britain. By this means, the commons would, in reality, be masters of the proceedings, as their numbers would enable them to carry every question. To this measure, the nobles and clergy refused their assent; and they continued, for six or seven weeks, in a state of contention. The king, upon the 23d of June, 1789, called a meeting of the three orders; and the representatives of the people, before they could obtain admittance to the hall where the nobility and the dignified clergy had been convened, were forced to remain without, for more than an hour, exposed to a shower of rain. Louis blustered but in vain. The commons obtained their demand, and the management of the assembly fell, of course, into their hands.

Thus virtually expired the old government of France, a system of legislation that was in almost every respect, a reproach to human nature. Respecting the internal administration of the French monarchy, much useful intelligence may be found in Dr. Smith's Inquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations. Mr. Arthur Young, who about this time, visited France, has also cast much light on this melancholy subject. A whole library would be requisite to afford an adequate idea of its enormities.

Under the royal government, France had been exposed to frequent famines, because

agriculture groaned under great and exclusive oppression. At the critical period, when, as we have seen, the commons forced the other two estates to sit and vote in conjunction with them, a scarcity of provisions prevailed in Paris, which is only distant twelve miles from Versailles, where the states general were sitting. The republicans are willing to believe that this dearth was artificially produced for the most odious purposes, by the aristocracy and the court. When mobs had formerly assembled, on such emergencies, the common method of dispersing them was by firing point blank upon the croud with musket ball and cannon shot; and as want excited some tumults in the metropolis, the latter afforded an admirable pretence for assembling around the capital bodies of troops, from all quarters of the kingdom. Thirty-five thousand mercenaries were accordingly soon collected in the neighbourhood of Versailles and Paris. Camps were marked out, for a still greater force. The lines of fortification were already drawn upon every eminence near Paris, and almost every pass was occupied which commanded that city, or the high roads that communicate with it. But the popular party had been busy in soliciting the attachment of the soldiers. It had been a clause of the instructions to the representatives of the third estate from their constituents, to demand that the pay of the private soldiers should be increased. This augmentation corresponded with three great ends. It tended to free the country from the rapacity of an half-starved army, to increase the difficulties of the crown in supporting a standing army, and to attach the soldiers themselves to the cause of the people. The indifference of the troops to actual service, whatever was the cause of it, proved one of the principal reasons why the French revolution was, in its first stages, effected almost without bloodshed. Hence, though fifty thousand men, with an hundred pieces of cannon, soon collected before Paris, this assemblage contained within itself the seeds of dissolution. The states general, at Versailles, requested the king to disperse these dangerous hirelings; instead of which Louis endeavoured to disperse the states general. He dismissed his minister, Neckar, who, in spite of his being a foreigner and a protestant, had obtained as well as deserved the confidence of the French nation. The national assembly, and the inhabitants of Paris, were in equal alarm and consternation. The dismissal of Neckar took place on the 11th of July, 1789, and on the next day, the royal forces attempted to enter Paris. Their general, the prince de Lambesque, struck an old man with a sabre, and this incident was the signal of revolt. An alarm instantly spread through the city, and the cry *to arms* resounded in every quarter. The French guards joined the populace, and the assailants were repulsed. Next morning, the 13th of July, the citizens, to the number of sixty thousand men, embodied themselves under different commanders, and the guards, as military preceptors, were distributed among the several companies. The standards of the city were displayed; trenches were thrown up, and barricades formed in different parts of the suburbs. On this day, thirty thousand of the insurgents surrounded the hospital of the invalids, which was surrendered. In that place they found thirty thousand muskets, and twenty pieces of cannon. Another repository of arms belonging to the crown, was likewise ransacked, and supplied the national guards, as the people termed themselves, with an immense quantity of all kinds of military weapons. For the same purpose, about eleven o'clock in the forenoon of the same day, a deputy from the citizens waited on the governor of the Bastille. Instead of giving admittance to the citizens, he fired on a numerous body, whom he had suffered to enter the first court of the castle. It was instantly attacked by an immense multitude. Part of the fortifications were stormed. The garrison surrendered at discretion, and their lives were only saved by the interposition of the royal guards. The governor himself instantly fell by a thousand wounds; and his head, fixed on a pike, was carried in triumph through the streets of Paris.

The news immediately reached Versailles, and Louis next morning appeared in the national assembly, but without the pomp and parade of despotism. He informed the members, that he had directed the removal of his troops from the vicinity of Paris. The new ministry of the king were soon after dispersed, and Neckar resumed his office. Monsieur Foulon had concealed himself in the country. He was pursued and discovered by his own vassals, and on the 22d of July, he was conducted to Paris, with a bundle of hay at his back. It was said, that he had formerly boasted, if ever it should be his good fortune to become minister of France he would make the French people subsist upon hay. The leaders of the revolution attempted to save his life, till he could be brought to a regular trial; but the people superseded the trouble of that ceremony. He was dragged to execution; and some other sacrifices were made in the same summary way. Insurrections ensued in some of the provinces. On the 4th of August, the assembly, on a motion by the viscount de Noailles, commenced the demolition of the feudal system. By the laws of some cantons, the vassals were subjected to be yoked to the carriage of their lords like beasts of burden; in some, the tenants were obliged to pass whole nights in beating the ponds, that their rest might not be disturbed by the croaking of frogs; they were likewise compelled to maintain their hounds. The farmers were prohibited from sowing a particular kind of pease, because they might chance to discolour the flesh of such partridges as should happen to pick them. There was another law which indeed had become obsolete, but which betrays in its proper colours the true spirit of the feudal nobility. In certain districts, the lord, on his return from hunting, was authorised to rip open the bellies of two of his vassals, that he might foment his feet in their warm bowels by way of refreshment. The sale of offices, the right of rabbit warrens, and of fisheries, the suppression of dove-cotes, and of the game laws, were among the first sacrifices on the altar of national justice. The property of the clergy was taken under the administration of the national assembly. The sequel of this affair was, that the income of the superior clergy was very much reduced, and that of the inferior clergy was at the same time augmented to a decent subsistence, while a prodigious reversion was appropriated to the discharge of the national debt. Immense sales of the lands of the church took place soon after. The city of Paris, as it has been reported in the public newspapers, made purchases to the extent of eighteen or nineteen millions sterling. Large sales likewise took place to other cities of France, and to numerous individuals of all parties.

We pass over the declaration of rights, and the detail of other proceedings which took place about this time in the national assembly. In October, the king, queen, their children, and the national assembly, removed to Paris. This removal was followed by the flight of the aristocratic members of the assembly, from the French dominions. The whole kingdom was not long after divided into eighty three districts, and the number of representatives in future was fixed at seven hundred and forty-five. The parliaments of France were suspended from the exercise of their functions, and all distinction of orders in the state was by another decree utterly abolished. The island of Corsica was united to France, as a constituent part of the empire. In other words, it was restored to the enjoyment of liberty. The famous general Paoli and his companions in exile, who had supported so memorable, and so glorious a contest in defence of their country, were in the most hospitable and flattering terms, invited, after an expulsion of twenty years, to return and settle in Corsica. A great number of taxes were abolished, and the trade to the East Indies, was declared free and open to the whole nation. A committee was appointed for the purpose of enquiring into the expenditure of public money in pensions and donations. On the 15th of March 1790, a register, termed the red book, was laid before the assembly, containing a list of every pension or gift, entered in the hand writing of one of the ministers of finance, and checked by the king

himself. This invaluable monument of royal economy was delivered by Neckar to the committee, with injunctions of secrecy. It was instantly committed to the press; and, when Neckar complained of this breach of trust, the committee replied "that, as to the assembly, they were certain of its approbation; and, as to the king, they were not his representatives." By this book it was discovered, that the two brothers of Louis had, within a very short period, cost the public treasury almost two millions sterling, besides their immense revenue, which extended, by the common report, for each of them, to about two hundred thousand pounds sterling per annum. Count d'Artois, the younger of these two brothers, was still in debt, to the amount of almost another million sterling. Six hundred thousand pounds sterling had been bestowed, by desire of the queen, upon one Polignac, and were stated to be given for important services. The nature of these services is too disgraceful to admit of an explanation.

On the 11th of June, 1790, the states general went into mourning, for three days, on account of the death of dr. Franklin. About the same time, they settled the salary of Louis at twenty-five millions of livres, or nearly eleven hundred thousand pounds sterling. But mr. Thomas Christie, a candid and informed writer, states its real amount at thirteen or fourteen hundred thousand pounds sterling. The jointure of the queen, in case of her surviving the king, was fixed at about one hundred and seventy-five thousand pounds sterling. Titles of nobility were at the same time abolished. It has been said that the class of nobles consisted of above twenty thousand persons; and, including their families, to between two and three hundred thousand.

The affairs of the French West-Indies proved a source of inexhaustible vexation to the national assembly. The negroes of St. Domingo revolted against their masters. Horrid massacres ensued. The whites also quarrelled with the mulattoes, or the people of colour as they were termed. The latter, the descendants of Frenchmen and negroes, were, many of them, persons of property, or education, and of abilities, at least not inferior to any of the white people. Thus the French West-Indies, by a peculiar fatality, became liable to a variety of civil wars at the same time. The whites were divided among themselves, into royalists and republicans, who destroyed each other without mercy. Both parties were, at the same time, hostile to the claims of the people of colour, while the negroes extirpated the whole in great numbers. Since the court of London declared war against France, the misfortunes of the French West-Indies have been, if possible, augmented. Many desperate engagements have been fought, of which to comprise even a summary would require a large volume. At present (April, 1795,) the British, by the latest accounts, retain possession of Martinico.

On the night of the 20th of June, 1791, Louis and his family fled from Paris. He left behind him a paper, revoking all his protestations of attachment to the new government. This renunciation involved him in a charge of perjury, as he had taken the civic oath, and sworn to support the revolution. He was taken at Varennes, and conducted back to Paris. The assembly forgave the desertion of his office; and accepted as sincere his declaration that he had never intended to quit the kingdom. On the 30th of September following, the assembly dissolved itself, after having completed the new constitution, and after an uninterrupted session of two years and four months.

A new assembly met soon after; and it was immediately discovered that their talents and characters were entirely unequal to the task of conducting the infant republic through the critical situation in which it was involved. The court of Vienna and the king of Prussia soon after became involved in a quarrel with France; and, on the 24th of April, 1792, the latter declared war against Francis II. king of Hungary and Bohemia. The causes of this rupture were numerous and obvious. All the neighbouring princes had afforded a refuge to the fugitive aristocracy of the new republic. They likewise considered France as incapable of defending itself and imagined that,

by exciting a civil war in its bosom, they might obtain a favourable opportunity for dismembering some of its provinces. It was thought that the confusion produced by the revolution, had, in some measure, annihilated the power of France; and Edmund Burke remarked, in the British house of commons, that when he cast his eye over a map of Europe, he discovered nothing but an immense blank where the kingdom of France had once been. Indeed, it was generally supposed, that, in the open field, the troops of France were no match for those of Germany. Frederic, who had fought against them, speaks of their military character with very little respect. The command of many regiments was hereditary in particular families; and, by a very natural consequence, degenerated into a mere job. But, besides the great inferiority in point of discipline, the French armies were at this time extremely disorganized by the desertion of their officers, who, being generally attached to royalty, emigrated in immense numbers from the territory of the republic. Thus, between the original defect of discipline, and the loss of their officers, the French army was reduced to a state of the utmost weakness and confusion. They began, however, an attack upon Austrian Flanders, but were defeated, or, rather, fled at the first approach of the enemy. Their commander, Theobald Dillon, was butchered by the fugitives. In the month of July, the court of Vienna published a declaration explaining the causes of the war, and retorting on the French nation some of the heavy charges contained in the declaration of war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, now emperor of Germany. On the 26th day of the same month, the Prussian monarch issued a concise exposition of the reasons which determined him to take up arms against France. He pleaded his alliance with the emperor, and that, as sovereign of a German state, he was bound to interfere to prevent the violation of the rights of the German princes of Alsace and Lorraine, and the invasion of the territories of others; and he candidly concluded by avowing, that it was his intention to repress the too great liberty of France, which might afford a dangerous example to the neighbouring countries. At the same time the duke of Brunswic, general of the combined armies of Austria and Prussia, published, at Coblentz, a declaration to the inhabitants of France, conceived in the most haughty and presumptuous terms. He declared his intention of putting a stop to the anarchy which prevailed in France and of restoring the king to his power; and yet he afterwards expressed his design not to interfere in the internal government. It is unnecessary to dwell on the other insolent parts of this memorial, in which France was already regarded as a conquered country, and the most pre-emptory directions were given to the magistrates, national guards, and inhabitants at large. He declared, that, in case the least outrage should be offered to the king, queen, or royal family, the city of Paris should be given up to military execution.

The excesses of the night between the 9th and 10th of August, we relate with pain. At midnight, the alarm bell sounded in every quarter of Paris. The drums were beat, and the citizens flew to arms. The palace of the Tuilleries was attacked by the multitude; and the king, queen, and royal family, were forced to take refuge in the national assembly. At first the Swiss guards repelled the populace, but they being reinforced by the Marseillois, and federates from Brest, bodies which the Jacobins seemed to have brought to Paris to balance the Swiss, and the national guards, the gates of the palace were burst open. The artillery joined the assailants. The consequences were, that, after a slaughter of about four hundred on each side, the Swiss guards were exterminated, and the place ransacked. The 2d of September was distinguished and disgraced by another massacre. Above a thousand persons, confined in the prisons of Paris, on a charge of being disaffected to the revolution, were inhumanly butchered. The king by his flight from the capital excited an incurable jealousy in the minds of the French nation; and a national convention was about this time summoned, chiefly perhaps with a view to determine upon the justice of the accus-

tions brought against him. This body met on the 24th of September 1792; and on the first day of their meeting, they unanimously decreed the abolition of royalty in France. Next day it was ordered, that all public acts should be dated in the first year of the French republic, one and indivisible. The Austrian and Prussian armies, at the same time, had entered France. The latter, under the duke of Brunswick, took Longwy and Verdun by capitulation; but Dumourier, with inferior forces, obliged them to retreat with the loss of about half their numbers. The Austrians also who had laid siege to Lisle, were compelled to quit their enterprize.

General Custine at the head of a French army, broke into Germany, and on the 30th of September, 1792, he took Spire. Worms followed soon after. Ample supplies of provisions and ammunition were found in those cities. Custine, pursuing his course along the left shore of the Rhine, next captured Mentz, and afterwards Frankfurt. He was eager to proceed to Coblenz, that noted seat of the counter-revolutionists; but the Prussians and Austrians, at length, indicated a renewal of hostilities by garrisoning that town, and encamping in the adjacent country. The conquest of the Austrian Netherlands forms the next grand object. Dumourier had promised to pass his christmas at Brussels; and what was regarded as an idle vaunt, proved very modest, for that city was in his hands by the 14th of November. This able general entered the Netherlands on the first or second of that month, with an army of forty thousand men. For the first five days, he had repeated engagements with the Austrian army, which exceeded not twenty thousand men. At length, on the 6th of November, a decisive battle was fought at Gemappes, which determined the fate of the Netherlands. The cannonade began at seven in the morning. Dumourier ordered the village of Cavignon to be attacked, because he could not attempt the heights of Gemappes, till he had taken that village. At noon, the French infantry formed in columns, and rapidly advanced to decide the affair by the bayonet. After an obstinate defence, the Austrians, at two o'clock, retired in the utmost disorder. Dumourier immediately advanced, and took possession of the neighbouring town of Mons, where the French were received as brethren. The tidings arriving at Brussels, the court instantly fled to Ruremond. Tournay surrendered to a detachment on the 8th of November. Dumourier, having refreshed his troops at Mons, advanced to Brussels, where, after an indecisive engagement between his vanguard and the Austrian rear, he was, on the 14th of that month, received with acclamations. Ghent, Charleroi, Antwerp, Louvain, Ostend, Namur; in short all the Austrian Netherlands, except Luxembourg successively followed the example of the capital.

Many of the priests, who were banished, came to England, and were received with great hospitality. This was followed by the decree of the national convention against the emigrants, by which they are declared dead in law, their effects confiscated and themselves adjudged to immediate death, if they appear in France. Another decree, of the 19th of November, 1792, attracted the attention of every nation in Europe. It is in the following terms: "The national convention declare, in the name of the French nation, that they will grant fraternity and assistance to all those people who wish to procure liberty; and they charge the executive power to send orders to the generals, to give assistance to such people, and to defend citizens who have suffered, or are now suffering in the cause of liberty." This decree and others of a similar tendency, seemed to institute a political crusade against all the powers of Europe. The French very soon became sensible of the impropriety of this decree; and by the hundred and nineteenth clause of the constitution, since published, it has been virtually revoked.

No sooner had Antwerp yielded to the French arms, than, in order to conciliate the Belgians, the opening of the navigation of the Scheldt, shut up by the treaty of Munster, in 1648, was projected and ordered. This measure served, in a short time after,

as one of the pretences for the interference of Britain in the war against the republic.

The trial of the king began, about the end of the year 1792, to engross general attention. In various public examinations, before the convention, Louis discovered a degree of judgment, and presence of mind, which neither his friends nor his enemies had imagined him to possess. On the 26th of December, he was again introduced to the assembly, and informed by the president, that he was to be definitively heard on that day. His defence was read by one of the advocates who were appointed to plead his cause. The discussion was closed on the 19th of January, 1793. Out of seven hundred and twenty one votes, in the convention, three hundred and sixty-six were for death, three hundred and nineteen for imprisonment during the war, two for perpetual imprisonment, and eight for a suspension of death, till after the expulsion of the Bourbons, an expression that we do not perfectly understand. Twenty three were for not putting him to death, unless the French territory should be invaded by some foreign power, and one was for death, but with commutation of punishment. Thomas Paine did not vote, but sent his opinion in writing to the president. He observed, that if Louis had been the son of a farmer, he would have been a good sort of man; and that his execution would hurt the feelings of a great part of the citizens of America, who regarded him, as their deliverer and benefactor. He recommended, that Louis should be kept in confinement till the end of the war, and at that time be banished, with his family, to this country. During the agitation of the sentence, the assembly were surrounded by an outrageous mob, who menaced the lives of those members, who should refuse to vote for death, which was finally declared by the president to be the sentence. Under the circumstances in which the suffrages were given, it is surprising that the majority for death was so extremely small. Had the members been at perfect freedom, in declaring their opinions, the life of Louis would most certainly have been preserved. Before the passing of this sentence, the court of Spain, by the medium of its minister, had made an amicable interference in behalf of Louis, but it was rejected with disdain. The king protested against the decision, and appealed to the nation. One of his counsellors expostulated with the convention on the temerity of executing so important a measure, on a majority of only *five* voices. The counsellors of Louis objected strongly to the passing of the sentence, by so small a majority. One of them, M. Tronchet, honestly and boldly told the convention, that they must have forgotten the indulgence which the law allowed to criminals, by requiring a majority of two-thirds of the voices to constitute a decision. On the 21st of January, 1793, the king was beheaded. He met his fate with fortitude.

The king of Sardinia had, from the beginning of the French revolution, been regarded as one of its enemies. He was among the first to encourage and assist the emigrants. He acceded to the treaty of Pilnitz. He arrested the French ambassador, on the frontiers, on pretences allowed afterwards to be groundless. He increased his armaments in Savoy, and filled the fortress of Montmelian with troops; and after the affair of the 10th of August, he held a congress of the foreign ministers, to deliberate on a plan for invading France. It was for these reasons, that, upon the 16th of September, 1792, the national assembly declared war against him. About the 20th general Montequieu entered Savoy. He was received with joy by the people. A deputation from Chamberry, the metropolis of the province, waited on him almost as soon as he passed the boundary, and on the 21st, he took possession of that city. The municipality waited for him at the gate, to deliver up the keys; and testified, in warm terms, the esteem in which the Savoyards held the French nation. The whole duchy submitted without resistance. General Anselm, who had quitted the church for the camp, crossed the Var, at the head of another French army, and on the 29th of September, took possession of the town of Nice. The whole county of Nice submit-

ted to his arms. Some gross excesses were soon after committed by his soldiers, for which the general was displaced and committed to prison. Admiral Truguet, who supported the operations of Anselm, with nine sail of the line, cast anchor, on the 23^d of October, in the harbour of Oneglia. He sent a boat with a flag of truce towards the shore, by one of his officers, with a proclamation, inviting the inhabitants to an union with France. The people of the country, at first appeared disposed to receive the boat with friendship; but when the officer was about to address them at a small distance from the beach, they fired a shower of musketry, by which seven of the French were killed, and two others wounded. As a just reward for this act of perfidy, the town was plundered and burnt.

The conquest of Savoy alarmed the neighbouring cantons of Switzerland, and still more the little republic of Geneva. A garrison of sixteen hundred Swifs were sent for by one of the parties into which Geneva has always been divided. This gave umbrage to the French partisans in that city, and Montesquieu, by orders from the executive council of France, presented himself before the place. A compromise was made by the dismissal of the Swifs, and the retreat of the French. Montesquieu was not long after accused of accepting a bribe in this business. He escaped from his army into Switzerland. Savoy was incorporated with France, and formed into an eighty fourth department. The county of Nice constitutes another.

In January 1793, admiral Truguet was ordered to bombard Cagliari, the capital of Sardinia. A descent was likewise made with four thousand five hundred land forces. But the attacks were conducted without judgment or vigour; and were both unfortunate. Some disturbances have arisen in the island, among the natives themselves, who have the utmost reason to wish for a change of masters. We have, in a former part of this work,* observed that a person may travel fifty miles in Sardinia without seeing a house, and that the ignorance and poverty of the people are extreme. As this island lies in the very jaws of the republic, there can be little doubt of its being reduced before the end of the war. The French within the last two years, have made considerable progress in the continental dominions of the king of Sardinia, and have defeated his troops in many engagements. But the brevity of our plan obliges us to quit this part of the history of the present war.

The execution of the king of France was pretty generally disapproved all over Europe, and no where, perhaps, more sincerely, than in the British kingdom. The former friends of the French revolution felt themselves altogether abashed, while the court party, who, from the beginning, had feared its conclusion, exulted in this catastrophe, as ratifying all their previous predictions with regard to the consequences of a change in the French form of government. It is still an object of dispute, in Britain, whether France did not give the first provocation to begin hostilities; and a summary of the arguments that have been employed on each side of this question would require a large volume. The truth appears to be shortly this. The court of England justly dreaded the French revolution, as a most dangerous example, that might produce, at no distant period, a similar convulsion in her own dominions. We have been privately assured, that a subscription, to the extent of five hundred thousand pounds sterling, was raised in England, to defray part of the expenses of the Prussian expedition to Paris, and that the duke of Marlborough, whose name closed the list, subscribed ten thousand pounds. On a false report, that the army of Dumourier had surrendered to that of Brunswic, the court party, in Britain, expressed the greatest exultation. Mr. Pitt hath since declared, in the house of commons, that he considered the retreat of the duke of Brunswic as the greatest misfortune, which could have befallen mankind. Edmund Burke, a few days before the declaration of

* Vol. 1, Page 558.

war, said, in the house of commons, that he only pardoned ministers for their slowness in beginning the war, on account of the necessity of waiting till the public temper was inflamed to a sufficient pitch to second them effectually. Mr. Fox headed a very diminutive party in parliament, who condemned, indeed, the execution of Louis, but at the same time, opposed, with all their power, those measures which would lead to a French quarrel. Mr. Fox was insulted in the grossest terms, on the floor of the house of commons. Mr. Powis told him, that his conduct was exactly such as an advocate of the convention would pursue; and in the print shops of London, he was represented as a French advocate, with a brief and a fee in his hand. In January last (1795) Mr. Fox justly remarked to the house, that on the former occasion, they had bestowed on him every token of disrespect, except expulsion. Mr. Dundas declared, in parliament, that the French convention was a *receptacle of infamy*, and the language of his whole party corresponded exactly with this stile; which is hardly to be preceded in the history of the government of a civilized nation. Monsieur Chauvelin, the French minister at London, was incessantly and shamefully abused in *the Sun*, a newspaper, under the professed direction of George Rose, a member of administration. At all former periods, a foreign ambassador was the only person in England absolutely secure from abuse of that nature. During the American war, when the newspapers teemed with reproaches against the cabinet, they unfortunately happened to publish some severe reflexions on the Russian ambassador. Six or seven of the editors were instantly apprehended and severely punished. As no such notice was taken of the invectives discharged against Chauvelin, this was of itself an unequivocal mark of the unfriendly designs of the cabinet. Even after the British ambassador had been, a considerable time, recalled from Paris, the French authorized Chauvelin to remain at London. The execution of Louis served as a torch, for at once lighting into a conflagration the hatred of the British nation. The opening of the navigation of the Scheldt was one of the causes most loudly dwelt upon by Mr. Pitt, for engaging in a French war; and yet all the world knows that the Dutch would rather have submitted to this innovation than have run the hazard of a struggle with France. Holland also was ripe for a political convulsion. The stadtholder was little better than a vassal to the kings of Britain and Prussia, who supported him in his office, in opposition to the wishes and efforts of a majority of the Dutch nation. He had not, therefore a choice in the matter: else it is likely that he also would have wished to decline so hopeless a contest.

From these details and many others, which might be adduced, it is clear that Britain was, in reality, the aggressor in this war, though the French republic was the first of the two nations that declared hostilities. On the 1st of February, 1793, the convention, on the motion of Brissot, declared, "that George, king of England, had never ceased, since the revolution of the 10th of August, 1792, from giving the French nation proofs of his enmity, and of his attachment to the concert of crowned heads; and that he had drawn into the same league, the stadtholder of the united provinces; that, contrary to the first article of the treaty of 1783, the English ministry have granted protection and succour to the emigrants, and others, who have openly appeared in arms against France; that on the news of the execution of Louis Capet, they were led to commit an outrage against the French republic, by ordering the ambassador of France to quit Britain; that the English have stopped divers boats and vessels laden with corn for France, whilst, at the same time, contrary to the treaty of 1786, they continue the exportation of it to other countries; that in order to thwart more efficaciously the commercial transactions of the republic with England, they have, by an act of parliament, prohibited the circulation of assignats. The convention, therefore, declare, that, in consequence of these acts of hostility and aggression, the French republic is at war with the king of England, and the stadtholder of the united provinces."

General Dumourier soon after invaded Holland, and published a manifesto, inviting the people at large to cast off the yoke of the stadtholder, and become a free nation. The Dutch government made vigorous preparations for defence; and a body of troops, under the duke of York, were embarked instantly from England to their assistance. It was expected, that Holland would be reduced by Dumourier, with as much ease as the Austrian Netherlands had been. Breda and Gertruydenberg surrendered with little resistance; and the French general boasted that he would soon approach to Amsterdam.

In the mean time, general Miranda, who was by birth a Créole, had besieged Maestricht. He was attacked and defeated by prince Frederic of Brunswic. The commissioners of Belgium, in a letter from Liege, dated the 3d of March, 1798, informed the convention, that their cantonments on the river Roer had been forced; and that general Valence had been compelled to evacuate that city. On the 15th of March, Cobourg and Clairfait, at the head of an Austrian army, engaged Dumourier, near Tirlemont. After an obstinate dispute, which lasted for several days, the French were finally forced to retreat, and the Netherlands were lost with as much rapidity as they had been acquired. There was a misunderstanding between the convention and their general, in consequence of which, they neglected to send his army the requisite supplies. This was the cause of his defeat.

Dumourier was extremely dissatisfied with the execution of the king, which he had endeavoured to prevent. This moderation excited a jealousy in the victorious party of the convention, which led them to thwart his measures. It does not appear, however, that he had the smallest intention of deserting them, till they attempted, by commissioners dispatched for that purpose, to arrest him, which was, in reality, but another name for his execution. He returned the compliment by arresting them, on the 1st of April, 1793; and, finding his life in the utmost danger, and his present situation no longer tenable, he entered into a secret treaty with the prince of Cobourg, to whom he delivered the commissioners, as hostages for the safety of the royal family of France. He had always professed abhorrence for the massacre of the preceding September, which was of itself sufficient to have prevented any real confidence from subsisting between him and the actors in that scene. He now formed a plan for leading his troops to Paris, to restore the constitution of 1789; and Cobourg, in concert with him, issued a conciliatory proclamation, addressed to the people of France. Only four days after, on the 8th of April, the Austrian general was ordered to revoke this manifesto. The scheme of seducing the French army had totally failed, on the part of Dumourier, and he escaped, with difficulty, to the enemy. When he found that the plan of restoring the constitution of 1789, was not their object, he deserted them also, and retired. There is much less reason to blame Dumourier than has commonly been supposed. To have gone to Paris with the commissioners, was, walking into the jaws of death. He has published memoirs of his life, a work of considerable merit. He there unveils the true causes of his defeat in the Netherlands. "To retard and crush my success," says he, "the minister Pache, supported by the criminal faction, to whom all our evils are to be ascribed, suffered the victorious army to want every thing, and succeeded in disbanding it by famine and nakedness. The consequence was, that more than fifteen thousand men were in the hospitals, more than twenty five thousand deserted through misery and disgust, and upwards of ten thousand horses died of hunger."

About this time, a considerable body of royalists assembled on the banks of the Loire, and many actions took place between them and their countrymen. The republic has of late offered an indiscriminate pardon to every one of them, and they are now said to have almost entirely submitted. On the 2d of April, Paoli, the general of Corsica, was accused by the popular society of Toulon, as a supporter of despo-

tism, and ordered to the bar of the convention. This treatment very naturally drove him into the arms of England; and to it must be, in the first instance, ascribed the revolt of Corsica, and its subsequent annexation to the British crown. Dampierre succeeded Dumourier in the command of the army on the frontier of the Netherlands. Several indecisive actions took place. Spain, on the 23d of March preceding, had declared war against the republic. The finances of the emperor were, at this time, in such disorder, that he was forced to borrow money at an interest of eight and a half per cent.

On the 8th of May, there was a well-fought action near St. Amand, between the French and the combined armies. The affair was claimed as a victory, by the latter. About two thousand French and as many Austrians were killed. The English troops were also engaged, but their loss has never been published. The Coldstream regiment of foot suffered severely. Dampierre was mortally wounded. General Custine, on the 18th of May, fought a battle at Carlberg, with the Prussians, and gained some advantage. On the 23d, an engagement happened at Famars, between the combined armies and the French, who, after a severe action, were driven from their camp. It is said however, that their loss was inferior to that of the enemy. The English troops were roughly handled. By this victory, the garrisons of Conde and Valenciennes were left to their fate.

The convention itself was, in the mean time, rent by the most furious factions. A very alarming tumult took place at Paris, on the 31st of May. Part of the convention were in some danger of being massacred, and the scene closed by the arrest of a number of the members. On the 23d of June, a new constitution was published by the convention.

On the 9th of June, the French to the number of eight thousand men, under general Laage, attacked the Austrians, at Arlon, and after a desperate attack, drove them from their entrenchments. By this victory, the republicans gained eight thousand sacks of wheat, and a large quantity of flour.

On the 20th of June, the king of Prussia began to lay close siege to Mentz, which he had blockaded for many months. On the 22d of July, the garrison surrendered. They had been reduced to the greatest extremity for want of almost every necessary. Many had been forced to subsist entirely on horse-flesh. The garrison marched out with arms, baggage, drums beating, and colours flying, and carried with them every thing except their heavy artillery. They were not, for the space of a year, to serve against the allies. The French had taken this important city without the loss of a man. In the beginning of July, general Custine, who had been removed to the command of the army of the north, was attacked by the enemy, who, after a bloody action, were repulsed. The garrison of Conde, compelled by famine, surrendered to the prince of Cobourg, on the 10th of July. On the 25th* of that month, Valenciennes, which had been besieged from the 23d of May, capitulated to the duke of York for the emperor. It is said that the garrison had consisted but of four thousand men. They marched out with their side arms only, under the stipulation, that they were not, during the rest of the war, to serve against the allies. This siege had almost exclusively occupied the exertions of about an hundred and thirty thousand of the allied troops for two months; and the commander, general Ferrand, had exerted the utmost skill and bravery in defence of the town. He was accused of treachery by his countrymen, and was, on his return to Paris, committed to the Abbaye. If we are not mistaken, he was acquitted. On the 7th of August,

* One account says, that it was on the 20th, and we have not an opportunity to decide between these two dates. Other inaccuracies of this kind will perhaps occur, which must be submitted to the candour of the reader.

the convention solemnly decreed, that Mr. Pitt, prime minister of England, was an enemy to the human species. On the 8th of August, the French army of the north were driven from a strong situation behind the Scheldt, called Cæsar's camp. The French did not make much resistance, and the loss on both sides was not considerable. An attack upon Dunkirk was soon after made by the duke of York, with a detachment from the combined armies. This was a scheme of the British ministry. The towns which had hitherto been taken, were received in the name of the emperor. The British naturally thought, that it was proper to have conquests for themselves, and they contemplated the capture of Berg, Dunkirk, Graveline, and Calais, in the name of their own sovereign. The Austrian generals objected very strongly; but as Britain was the general paymaster, the proposal was adopted. On the 22d of August, the duke of York marched from Furns to attack the French camp at Ghivelde, which was abandoned on his approach, and he took up the ground which it was his intention to occupy during the siege. On the 24th, he drove the French outposts into the town. In this action, general Dalton, an Austrian officer of some distinction, was killed. A British fleet was expected to assist in the siege; but by some blunder that has been loudly complained of, it did not appear. The besiegers were extremely harrassed by French gun boats. The London Gazette says, that, on the 7th of September, the allied army before Dunkirk was attacked by the enemy, who were repulsed; but that upon the 8th, they renewed the attack upon every point, and succeeded in forcing the centre of the line. The writer acknowledges that the loss was *very severe*; that many gallant officers had fallen, and that thirty-two of the heavy guns, and part of the stores provided for the siege, were left behind, there being no means of carrying them off. He computes that fifteen hundred men were killed, wounded, or missing; but it is very probable that they amounted to at least five or six times this number. It is impossible, from the various accounts which have hitherto reached this country, to form any regular narrative of this series of battles, which lasted, in whole, during four or five days. But there is no question that the allies were completely defeated. In the confusion of their flight, marshal Freytag and Adolphus, one of the sons of the king of England, were taken prisoners, but afterwards rescued. The young prince was wounded in the head and arm. The magistracy of Dunkirk, in a letter to that of Gravelines, say, that the besiegers, among other articles, left behind them fifty-two thousand sacks of earth, and six thousand twenty-four pounder balls.

This action was the most decisive hitherto fought in the present war. The check was very sensibly felt by that party in Britain, who vindicated the commencement of hostilities. They had been much elated by the capture of Mentz, Conde, and Valenciennes, without reflecting that these towns cost more to the allies than their utmost worth.

General Houchard, commander of the French, in the victory of Dunkirk, was soon after arrested, conducted to Paris, tried, and executed. His alledged crime was, neglecting to prosecute, with proper alacrity, his advantage over the duke of York. Custine was likewise dispatched in the same manner. The venerable marshal Luckner became another of these victims. Trials and executions of French officers began to be so frequent, that all Europe was filled with astonishment and horror, and it became an object of amazement how the republic was able to find men who would accept the command of her armies. If the convention had been ambitious to commit an act of ingratitude and infamy, which they never should have it in their power to equal, they could not have thought of any thing worse than the execution of Custine, a faithful and fortunate general, and who, by defeating the Austrians, at Spire, on the 30th of September, 1792, had given to the world a *first* specimen of the victories of the French republic. On the 13th of July, Marat, a member of the convention, whose very name is synonymous with murder, had been stabbed to the heart by Charlotte

Corde, a young lady from Caen in Normandy. On her trial, her intrepidity and presence of mind astonished the whole court. She died glorying in having delivered the world from the most execrable of all monsters. The funeral of Marat was celebrated with extravagant pomp. His bust was placed in the pantheon, beside that of Brutus*. When the executioner had struck off the head of Charlotte Corde, he gave it a slap on the cheek, for which he was immediately condemned to twelve years of imprisonment in irons.

France was, during the summer of 1793, equally menaced with dangers from without and within. The cities of Marseilles, Lyons, and Toulon, entered into a formidable union against the existing authorities. Lyons was besieged and taken, with great slaughter. The commissioners of the army state, in a letter to the convention, dated the 25th of August, that, in a bombardment of two nights, the damage to Lyons was computed at two hundred millions of livres, or about thirty nine millions of dollars. They add, that among the slain, one third part were always found to be priests. At Marseilles, a battle was fought in the streets, between the royalists and republicans: On the 24th of August, at ten o'clock in the forenoon, Carteaux, at the head of the army of the republic, attacked a Marseilloise column, entrenched on the heights of Septunes. They were totally defeated. Carteaux, next morning, entered Marseilles; and the scaffold, as usual, streamed with blood. As an example of the vicissitudes of fortune, we shall just remark, that this Carteaux, after having performed many important services to the republic, was accused and arrested as a traitor; and the last notice which we have of him, is a letter from himself to the convention, soliciting a speedy trial, and stating, that he had been, for seventy-four days, a prisoner in irons. The commissioners of the convention, in their letter, relating the reduction of Marseilles, subjoin, that the Toulonese had just entered into a negotiation with the English admiral, lord Hood. He took possession of the town and shipping: in the name of Louis XVII. and under the express and positive stipulation, that he was to assist in restoring the constitution of 1789. This treaty produced much ridicule in Britain. The war was, however, at first, highly popular in that country, and it was opposed in parliament by the most diminutive minority that has been seen for many years.

The French animated by their success at Dunkirk, not only drove the enemy entirely out of their territories on that side, but advanced into Flanders, and possessed themselves of Furnes and Menin. The Dutch troops, who formed the cordon of West-Flanders, were, on the 13th of September, attacked at Hallain and Werwick; by an infinitely superior force. This is the expression of their commander, the hereditary prince of Orange, in a letter to the states of Holland. The Dutch were routed, with the loss of twelve hundred taken prisoners, and driven back to Degrise and Ghent. On the same day, Quésnoy capitulated to general Clairfait. The garrison, five thousand six hundred men, were made prisoners of war. The French, on the preceding day, had attempted to relieve it. Their army, to the number of eight thousand men, were defeated; and, it is said, that eighteen hundred were killed and sixteen hundred made prisoners. On the ramparts of Quésnoy, there were, at the beginning of the siege, fifty pieces of serviceable cannon. Forty-seven of them were dismounted in the course of it. On the 15th, Beaulieu, after a long engagement, forced the French to abandon Menin. In this extraordinary war, battles crowd upon us with such rapidity, that it is difficult to preserve a chronological series. On the 12th of September, the French troops, at Weissembourg, attacked the Austrians in several quarters; and were, by their own account, every where victorious. A letter, dated next day, from the com-

* The last advices from France inform us, that this monument of folly has been removed, and that the Parisians have begun to term its original, an apostle of butchery.

missioners with the army of the Rhine, to the convention, say, that two thousand of the enemy were slain. "We made," they say, "thirty prisoners, among whom is a *ci-devant* marquis de Mouy, an emigrant. He will be shot this day." They relate, that the action began at four o'clock in the morning, and lasted till eight in the evening; and that, with ten thousand additional men, they would have cut in pieces the whole Austrian army. On the 14th of September, the French stormed the post of Limbach, the only one from which the Austrians had not been driven by the victory two days before. Duviéan, the French adjutant general, in one of his dispatches, says, that the loss of the enemy in men was considerable; and that two pieces of cannon, and sixteen hundred muskets were taken. He computes the collective force of the Austrians at fifty thousand men. It may here be convenient to anticipate the order of the narrative, by relating the transactions of the following month, at Weiffembourg. On the 13th of October, the lines, at that post, were attacked by the allies, under general Wurmsfer, and the duke of Brunswic. The action lasted for eleven hours. The French were forced from their entrenchments, with great slaughter on both sides. The conqueror boasted of having taken nineteen hundred prisoners, and an hundred and sixty-eight pieces of heavy cannon. The latter circumstance demonstrates, that there must have been a dreadful carnage in defending such works for a space of eleven hours. We now return to the transactions of the army in Flanders. After the capture of Quefnoy, the next object with the prince of Cobourg was to invest Maubeuge, where the French had a fortified camp. His army crossed the Sambre, on the 29th of September, in three columns; and surprised and drove in the advanced posts of the French, with a very trifling loss on either side. The London Gazette magnifies this affair into an important advantage: Cobourg and Clairfait, at the head of seventy thousand men, laid siege to Maubeuge. A letter from the deputies in the French army, to the convention, says that Cobourg had employed seventeen days in casting up entrenchments, which were exceedingly strong, in order to secure his position. On the 14th of October, the corps under Clairfait was first attacked by the republicans, under Jourdan. After an obstinate struggle, which lasted till night, the French retreated. Next morning under cover of a thick fog, they returned to the charge. Two national representatives appeared, sword in hand, at the head of their countrymen. Behind the first line of the republicans, an immense number of women, without fear or disorder, supplied the soldiers with ammunition, distributed brandy, and carried off the wounded. The engagement commenced with such a dreadful cannonade on both sides, that the oldest German officers, who had been in the war of seven years, and the Turkish wars, agreed that they had never seen any thing equal to it. The fire of musketry was equally terrible. The French soldiers sung revolutionary airs, in the midst of the carnage with which they were surrounded. The Austrians fought with their wonted bravery; but they were finally driven from the village of Wattigwies, and, by the loss of this post, a retreat became necessary. On the morning of the third day, the French were preparing for a third battle, when they discovered, that the enemy had, during the night, abandoned their works, and retired across the Sambre. The London Gazette reckons the loss of the Austrians at two thousand men, killed and wounded, and speaks as if they had gained a kind of victory. A letter from Brussels estimated their loss at five thousand killed and wounded; but, if we consider the length of the conflict, and the great number of the combatants, the real amount of loss on the side of the vanquished, can hardly have been less than fifteen or twenty thousand. The number of the two armies was about equal. The French deputies, in their letter to the convention, only say, that when they entered the camp of Cobourg, it was strewed with carcases. They add, that the enemy, in their flight, committed the most horrible devastations, and burnt almost all the villages. The deputies placed two hundred thousand livres at the disposal of the district of Avesnes, for a temporary relief to the sufferers. The conduct of the Dutch troops, in this battle, was said to have been

not the most splendid. The same observation had been made on their behaviour at Dunkirk. The Dutch have universally betrayed the utmost aversion to the war, and to their pretended allies and protectors.

On the 1st of August, 1793, Marie Antoniette, late queen of France, was conveyed from her place of confinement in the Temple, to the Conciergerie, a prison destined for common malefactors. She was there confined in a room or vault, eight feet square. Her bed was of straw. On the 14th of October, she was brought to trial, before the revolutionary tribunal. She was accused of a multiplicity of crimes. One of these was, that, even before the late revolution, she had a political correspondence with "a man called the king of Hungary and Bohemia," to whom she had transmitted millions of the public money. Another of the accusations was of a nature too absurd to be credited, and too indecent to be mentioned. On Wednesday, the 16 of October, about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, she was conducted in a cart, with her arms tied behind her, to the spot where her husband had previously suffered. The populace, who crowded the streets as she passed, betrayed no marks of pity or compunction. She met her fate with firmness and composure, in the thirty eighth year of her age.

On the 24th of October, the convention brought to trial, Brissot, and twenty-one other deputies, who had been arrested about the beginning of June. Among these, were some of the most able and respectable men in France. They were all found guilty, and condemned to death. Valaze, one of their number, stabbed himself, in the court. The rest were beheaded about noon, on the 30th of October. Every heart sickens at the incessant repetition of such horrid scenes. The late duke of Orleans, alias Philip Egalite, was not long after tried, condemned, and executed, abhorred by all parties. The delivering up of Toulon had offered much exultation to the combined powers. A report from its neighbourhood, dated the 11th of October, was read in the convention, and stated, that the garrison consisted of two thousand English troops, two thousand Spaniards, five thousand Neapolitans, two thousand Slavonians, and fifteen hundred Savoyards, besides two hundred cannoneers, detached from the ships of war in the harbour. These formed, in whole, a body of twelve thousand seven hundred men. The report adds, that large reinforcements were daily expected. The tree of liberty, that had been erected in Toulon, was converted into a gibbet for the republicans. On the 30th of November, the garrison made a sally, in order to destroy some batteries which the republicans were erecting upon certain heights, within cannon-shot of the city. The French were surprised, and fled. The allies rushed forward, in pursuit of the fugitives, when they were unexpectedly encountered by a fresh and considerable force. At this moment, general O'Hara, the commander in chief, at Toulon, arrived upon the spot, and while attempting to bring off his troops, was wounded and made prisoner. The allies are said to have lost near a thousand men killed, wounded, or taken prisoners, on this occasion. On the morning of the 19th of December, Toulon was attacked by the republicans. Their efforts were chiefly directed against fort Mulgrave, which was defended by more than three thousand men, twenty pieces of cannon, and seven mortars. It was stormed before six o'clock in the morning. The French, by their own statement, lost two hundred men killed, and five hundred wounded. The whole garrison were cut to pieces, except five hundred who were taken. Among the prisoners, there was a Neapolitan prince, nephew to the queen of France. The representatives of the people rushed among the French columns, and conducted them to the attack. The allies, alarmed by this misfortune, evacuated the other forts, and began to take measures for removing their ships beyond the reach of the shot and shells, which the republicans were incessantly pouring upon them. More than four hundred oxen, sheep and hogs, with large quantities of forage, and provisions of all sorts, and above an hundred

pieces of cannon, fell into the hands of the victors. Two hundred Spanish horses, were found saddled and bridled, which could not be embarked.

The town was bombarded from noon, till ten o'clock in the same evening, when the allies, and part of the inhabitants, having first set fire to the town and shipping, precipitated their flight. Two vessels filled with fugitives, were sunk to the bottom, by the batteries. A great part of the ships and property fell into the hands of the French. When the inhabitants observed the preparations for flight, they crowded to the shore, and demanded the protection which had been promised to them, on the faith of the king of England. A scene of confusion, riot, and plunder ensued. Efforts were made to transport thousands of these people aboard the shipping; but thousands of others were left to the vengeance of their enraged countrymen. The sequel produced a scene of horror, that has not been surpassed since the siege of Jerusalem. Many of the Toulonese plunged into the sea, and were drowned, in attempting to swim on board the ships. Others, in despair, were seen to shoot themselves on the beach. During all this time, the flames were spreading in every direction, and the ships that had been set on fire, were threatening every instant to explode, and blow all around them, into the air. The Spaniards, by mistake, set fire to the Iris frigate, instead of sinking her, as they had been ordered. She had on board several thousand barrels of gunpowder, and blew up, with a terrible shock. Two English boats, near her, were shaken to pieces, and some of the men, on board one of them, were killed. Not long after, a powder vessel blew up, with a still greater explosion.

On board of the combined fleets, the scene was scarcely less dreadful. They were loaded with the most discordant mixture of all nations; with aged men, women, and infants, with the sick from all the hospitals, and with mangled soldiers, from the posts, just deserted, and whose wounds were still undrest, while every ear was deafened with the shrieks of agony and distraction, for husbands, fathers, wives and children left on shore. If any circumstance could add to the mass of misery, it was that this mixed and helpless multitude were in want of provisions and other necessaries. Had the wind proved unfavourable, they must have remained at the mercy of the conquerors.

The name of Toulon, was, by a decree of the convention, forever suppressed. It was to be called, *Port de la Montagne*, in honour, of the party, at that time, triumphant in the convention, who termed themselves, *the mountain*. By our last advices from France, the ancient name of Toulon, has been restored.

We now proceed with the military operations on the Rhine, which closed the year 1793. A series of obstinate engagements were fought on that part of the frontier of France, between the Austrians and Prussians, on one side, and the republicans on the other. It appears that for the greater part of a fortnight, in the end of November, every day was distinguished by a bloody battle. In relating them, the opposite writers, as usual, mutilate, magnify and distort their narratives, in such a manner, that a considerable time must elapse, before it is possible to form a relation, that has any pretence to consistency. This explanation must serve as an apology, for the very imperfect account, which we are at present able to give of the conflicts upon the Rhine. It seems, that on the 16th of November, the Prussians were repulsed, in an attempt to carry by storm, the town of Bitche. Eight hundred of them are said to have been killed, and thirteen hundred wounded. On the 17th, the French attacked Bliescastle. The duke of Brunswic succeeded in turning their right wing, and they were repulsed. On the 18th, another battle was fought, in the vicinity of Strasbourg, between the French, and the Austrians, under general Wurmsfer. The only account which we have seen of this affair, is, that the loss was extremely severe on both sides. On the 21st, the French again attacked Wurmsfer, in all his positions. A letter from Brusfels computes the loss of the Austrians at six thousand killed and wounded. The

writer adds, that the French had been compelled to retire; but that, by later accounts, Wurmser himself had retreated to Hagenau; that the French had taken Bliccastle, had entered the duchies of Deuxponts, and Luxembourg, and carried off immense plunder. Another letter from Brussels, dated the 10th of December, relates, that the duke of Brunsvic had gained three successive victories over the French, on the 28th, 29th and 30th of November. The account says, that, in these three actions, the French had eighteen thousand killed, as many wounded, and five thousand made prisoners; and that the victory cost the enemy sixteen thousand slain, or wounded. Among the former, were an hundred and thirty eight Saxon, Prussian, and imperial officers, besides two hundred and twelve wounded, of whom three were generals. It farther appears, that, on the 1st of December, there was a fourth, and on the 2d, a fifth battle. In these, the French were again the assailants, though they are represented as having just before been thrice defeated by the duke of Brunsvic. They attacked at the same time, all the Austrian posts, from Wangenau; to Hagenau, Brumpt and Hockfelden, and with much difficulty, they were repulsed. In the latter battles, an Austrian general, count Keglevitch, and twenty three other officers were killed, with fifteen hundred privates, and an equal number wounded. This is one of the Austrian accounts, by which it is stated that the French lost five thousand men. It is plain, that little dependence can be placed on these details; but it is evident that the slaughter must have been very dreadful. This is perhaps, the first instance in history, where the same troops have fought five general battles, in the space of five days. The campaigns of Hannibal or Frederic offer nothing parallel.

The next account, which we have of the military operations, is in a letter, dated Frankfort, December 29th. It says, that the imperialists, posted near Hagenau, though attacked incessantly, had been able to maintain their ground, until the 22d of December. On that day, the republicans attacked them with such a tremendous artillery, and so irresistible a superiority of numbers, that, after a vigorous resistance, they were driven with precipitation from Hagenau, and retreated to Sultz, near Weiffembourg. The French pursued their victory, and a series of new engagements appear to have taken place, on the 23d, 24th, 25th, and 26th of December.

During these transactions, a misunderstanding arose between the duke of Brunsvic and general Wurmser, which ended, not long after, in the resignation of the former, and the recall of the latter. Landau had been besieged by the allies, and Fort Louis had been taken by the Austrians. The siege of the town was raised, and the fort was abandoned. The imperial army passed the Rhine, on the 30th of December, and the Prussians at the same time fell back, to take a situation for the security of Mentz. Immense quantities of military stores of all kinds were taken by the French. At Spire, in the cellars of the canons, they found an hundred thousand pitchers of wine. The granary of the fathers was stocked in proportion. A letter was read in the convention, which stated, that during the siege of Landau, the enemy said that they had cast forty thousand shells into the town. The defenders of the place computed the number of shells at only twenty five thousand. For three weeks, the garrison had been eating horses and cats. Ammunition bread was sold for fourteen livres, per pound, sugar, for eighteen livr s. and a goose cost an hundred*. All accounts agree in affirming, that throughout this dreadful contest, the French displayed profound skill in military tactics, and the most invincible contempt of death. As the relief of Landau was one of the principal objects of this winter campaign, the soldiers in marching to it, exhibited an enthusiasm, which it will be vain to seek for, in the annals of mere mercenary armies. They were in want of shoes. When told by their officers, that shoes were about to be distributed, they replied, that *republicans did not require to be shod, in order to fight bravely*. Such a tone may be regarded as extravagant, but it

* Note. A livre is about one fifth of a dollar.

becomes extremely formidable in the day of battle. When they advanced to charge the enemy, their lines resounded with the cry of, *Landau or death*. The oldest German officers were astonished at their obstinate bravery.

For the expenses of the ensuing year, the British minister represented that nineteen millions nine hundred and forty thousand pounds sterling were necessary. Of this sum, he said that eleven millions two hundred and fifty-two thousand pounds were extraordinary, above the peace established. So enormous is the expense of a modern war! The regulars, militia, and tentibles, in the service of Britain, were to exceed an hundred and forty thousand. For the naval service, eighty-five thousand men were voted. The continental troops, in British pay, amounted to between thirty and forty thousand; so that the number of the whole was about two hundred and sixty thousand men. On the 30th of April, the minister made a farther demand on parliament, for two millions and an half sterling, to subsidize the king of Prussia, for the year 1794. The sum was granted.

Executions continued, during the winter, to be frequent in France. In March, a party in the convention called the *Herbertists*, were, to the number of twenty, arrested, tried; condemned; and executed, for an alleged conspiracy. A few days after, another party shared the same fate. Among the latter was Danton, a man distinguished for his promptness to bloodshed, and who had, but a very short time before, been one of the most popular and powerful leaders of the convention. The exit of these two classes of real or supposed conspirators excited but little sympathy, as all or most of them had been of a sanguinary character.

The king of Prussia, about the beginning of April, published a curious manifesto, wherein he assigned his reasons for withdrawing from the combination against France. He painted, in the most formidable colours, the military prowess of the republicans; and acknowledged, that he sustained very severe disasters, in attempting to check their career. The British subsidy brought him back to the scene, though with a tardy and reluctant step. He had, in the course of the winter, entered into a kind of scribbling contest against the emperor, before the diet of Ratisbon; and it was easy to discover that the tie which held him to the confederacy was of the weakest texture.

The 26th of April was one of the first days on which any material action took place, in the campaign of 1794. It appears, that this was the time appointed by the French to attack all their enemies at once upon the frontier between Treves and the sea. At Moucron, the forces under general Clairfait were totally defeated by the French under Pichegru. Six thousand of the vanquished are said to have been left dead on the field. Sixty pieces of cannon, with a large quantity of military stores, fell into the hands of the victors. Menin and Courtray also came into their possession and a general consternation spread over all that part of Flanders. They likewise, on the same day, attacked the British and Hanoverian army, near Cateau, with twenty-eight thousand men. At twelve o'clock on the preceding night, they had marched out of Cambray. At day break, they formed their line under the cover of a fog, and advanced. General Otto was detached by the duke of York, with the cavalry of the right wing, to turn the French on that flank. The duke diverted their attention from this movement, by a cannonade in front. The manœuvre of general Otto had the desired effect. The republicans were defeated with a loss of twenty-two pieces of cannon. They also made an attack upon the army, in the same neighbourhood, under the command of the emperor; but were repulsed. The allied troops had laid siege to Landrecy. These disasters disheartened or disabled the garrison from farther resistance, and they surrendered to the number of about five thousand men. The campaign thus began, on the part of monarchy, with some auspicious omens. About this time, however, general Beaulieu was defeated near Luxembourg. Four battles were thus fought in the course of a few days. A letter from Beaulieu,

dated the 1st of May, claims a victory gained on the preceding day. Amid such a labyrinth of actions, and such imperfect and contradictory accounts of them, it is sometimes difficult to distinguish to what particular engagement a relation applies. On the 10th of May, the duke of York was attacked, at Tournay, by thirty thousand French, who were repulsed. On the 17th, early in the morning, the combined armies, under the command of the emperor and the duke of York, advanced in five columns to attack the French. The project of the allies is conjectured to have been to cut off the communication between Lisle and Courtray, at which latter place the French, having advanced, had established themselves. The separate accounts published from the authority of the emperor and the duke are imperfect, confused, and in a degree unintelligible. The substance of their details is, that the French had anticipated their design, and attacked, with considerable force, that column under the command of York. The engagement between the two armies lasted till the evening of the 18th. A letter from Brussels says, that the British and Hanoverian column lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, three thousand men, and forty three pieces of cannon. This account does not materially differ from that of the duke himself. In his letter, it is acknowledged that eight hundred and thirty-two of the British officers, and rank and file were killed, wounded, or missing, and that part of the artillery was left behind. Of the German troops in his column, the duke does not specify the loss. The imperial narrative is still more incomplete, and acknowledges, that on the evening of the 18th, no account whatever had been received of the column under the command of Clairfait. A note, by order of the emperor, was published at Brussels, on the 19th, warning the citizens against false alarms of danger; and the humble tone of this production leaves no room to doubt the allies were completely defeated. The duke of York was, on the 18th, surrounded by the French, and escaped with difficulty. A letter from Chodieu, representative of the people, dated Lisle, May 18th, says that the enemy, on the first day, had the advantage, but were on the second, defeated with the loss of a thousand men, and fifty pieces of cannon. The writer says that the allies attacked the French with sixty thousand men. It is incredible that so numerous an army should have been defeated with so small a loss. A subsequent letter which was read in the Jacobin club, says that Clairfait, on the 17th of May, lost sixty five pieces of cannon, and fifteen hundred prisoners. An account from the French army, commanded by general Fromentin, dated the 22d of May, says that his troops had crossed the Sambre, in several points, and that the divisions acted with concert and success. On this same 22d of May, at six o'clock in the morning, the combined armies were attacked, in their camp near Tournay, by the whole force that the French could bring against them. The action lasted till half past nine at night, and the republicans were compelled to retreat. It is computed by the duke of York, that the assailants were not less than an hundred thousand men. A letter from this duke dated the 26th of May, says, that on the 24th, general Kaunitz had routed the army of Fromentin, who lost five thousand men, and fifty pieces of cannon, and retreated back again over the Sambre. An account soon after appeared, that Kaunitz had been routed by Fromentin, in a second engagement, and dismissed from the service by the emperor for misconduct. On the 21st of May, an Austrian army threw a bridge over the Rhine, near Holzhof, and passed it on the 22d, to the amount, as the newspapers report, of eighty thousand foot, and four thousand cavalry. On the same day, and supported by a body of Prussians, they engaged with the French troops in that quarter, and seemed to have gained some advantage, though after an obstinate struggle. Another victory is mentioned, as having been gained over the French by the Austrians, in Flanders, on the 2d of June, when all the French posts between the Meuse and the Sambre were attacked and carried. Immediately after, we find that the French were besieging Ypres; and that the obstinate Fromentin,

though a second time driven across the Sambre, had a second time repassed it, at the head of a formidable army. Jourdan also, we observe, to have been, about this time, master of Bouillon and Arlon, at the head of another of the armies of the republic; and, in his letters to the convention, he promises speedy conquests. Michaud, a French general of the army on the Moselle, in a letter to the convention, dated the 24th of May, says, that at three o'clock on the morning of the 23d, the allied powers attacked him on all points. In the left wing, they were, he says, completely beaten, but on the right, they were victorious. Kaiserlautern, and several other towns had, in consequence, been taken by the allies; and at the first of these places, the French had been treated with peculiar severity. This produced, or was employed as one of the pretences for passing a decree in the convention, that British and Hanoverian soldiers, should receive no quarter. The generosity of the French troops prevented the execution of this order, which was soon revoked. The siege of Ypres continued; and, by a letter dated the 18th of June, we are told that Clairfait suffered three defeats in five days, in attempting to relieve it. In one of these actions, on the 14th of June, the legion of royal emigrants was reduced to forty-one men fit for service. Cobourg was also disappointed in an attempt to relieve it. Charleroi was likewise besieged, by the republicans, who on the 16th of June, were forced from their entrenchments, and driven over the Sambre, by an army, under the prince of Orange. A second account, dated Brussels, June 24, said, that this victory had been over-rated, and that on the 18th of June, the siege of Charleroi was renewed. On the 18th, Ypres capitulated. In attempting to relieve Charleroi, Cobourg was severely beaten; and this town surrendered on the 25th. Cobourg did not come up till the 26th, the day after the town was taken; he was supported by the Dutch, under the prince of Orange, but in vain. This was the battle of Fleurus; a name that hath since been often repeated with exultation by the republicans. Cobourg was ignorant of the capture of Charleroi. The army that protected the siege was reinforced by the other which had carried it on. To this Cobourg ascribes the propriety of his retreat; for he does not admit that he was beaten, and says, that his loss did not exceed fifteen hundred men. The prince of Orange, in a letter to the states general, acknowledges, that he lost one hundred; but, in reality, this battle seems to have determined the fate of Flanders. Cobourg, immediately, sent off his baggage; and the whole country fell into the greatest alarm. About thirty thousand people fled from Brussels, in the course of a few days, taking with them their most valuable effects.

It has been already noticed that a British subsidy, of two millions and an half sterling, had been granted to the king of Prussia, to prevent his secession from the cause of the allies. The insurrection in Poland, this summer, afforded to Frederic William a cause or pretence for withdrawing his forces, after having received a considerable part of the money. It is said that the circumstance of accepting a subsidy was highly unpopular among the Prussian troops.

A reinforcement of British troops from England, under earl Moira, formerly lord Rawdon, were disembarked in Flanders, in the close of June. They were too few to oppose the French, before whom their antagonists, on every side, gradually retreated. Several engagements were fought, which, in the narrative of any former military contest, might have been interesting and important. Valenciennes, Conde, Quesnoy, Landrecy, Ostend, Antwerp, in a word, the whole of Austrian Flanders, fell, within a few weeks, into the hands of the French.

To counterbalance this torrent of defeats and disappointments by land, England acquired, by sea, an important advantage. On the 1st of June, lord Howe, with twenty-five ships of the line, engaged the French admiral with twenty-six. The republicans behaved with great bravery, but they were far from being a match for the British fleet.

The gallant Suffrein, the celebrated antagonist of admiral Hughes, was dead, and the republic possessed no naval officer, who could be compared, for experience, to lord Howe. This was the first general action, at sea, which had been fought, during the present war, between the two rival nations. It is likely that the arrangement and discipline of the French navy were in the same state of confusion and imbecility as that of their army was, when, in April, 1792, they invaded the Austrian Netherlands. The engagement began between seven and eight o'clock in the morning, and, in less than an hour, "the French admiral," says lord Howe, "crowded off; and was followed by most of the ships of his van, in condition to carry sail after him, leaving with us about ten or twelve of his crippled or totally dismasted ships." As only seven of this number were taken, it follows, that the English fleet had suffered severely in their masts and rigging. The republicans lost two vessels of eighty guns, and five of seventy four. One of these, the Vengeur, sunk almost immediately on being taken possession of. Her sinking was so sudden that adequate assistance could not be given to the crew; but lord Howe says that many were saved. A regular statement of the British loss, in killed and wounded, has not been published, but it must have been considerable. Captain Montague was slain, and captain Harvey died of his wounds. Rear admirals Bowyer and Paisley, and captain Huit, lost each a leg. As the whole of the English admirals and captains in the engagement did not exceed about thirty, we should infer, from these particulars, that one-sixth part of the crews were either slain or dangerously wounded. The news of this success was received at London with extreme triumph. A general illumination took place, and a riot ensued, that lasted two or three days. The windows of a great number of gentlemen were broken, and themselves insulted by the mob. Carriages, coming into town, were surrounded by gangs of ruffians, who compelled the passengers to give them money, under the pretence of drinking an oblation for the victory. The outrages of the rabble were understood to be partly under the direction of some persons of superior rank. The windows of earl Stanhope, and some other gentlemen, though illuminated, were broken. The windows of mr. Wickes, composed of painted glass, had long been admired as one of the greatest and most elegant curiosities in London. They were demolished by the mob. It was proposed to create earl Howe, a marquis; but an incivility from mr. Pitt, induced him to decline this distinction. By this action, the French obtained one important object. A fleet of an hundred and seventeen sail from this country, laden chiefly with provisions, reached France in safety.

It has been already observed, that general Paoli was cited by the convention to appear at their bar, and answer for his conduct, and that, as this summons was equivalent to a sentence of death, he had been compelled to seek the protection of the king of England. On the 1st of May, 1794, he published an address to his countrymen, stating the injuries they had sustained from the French, and inviting them, by their deputies, to assemble, on the ensuing 8th of June, at Corte, to choose a form of government. This meeting accordingly took place. The king of England was elected king of Corsica. A new constitution was framed and ratified, and sir Gilbert Elliot, formerly commissioner for the government of the ill fated acquisition of Toulon, was appointed by George III. his viceroys. The French were, by degrees, forced to leave the island.

In addition to the Austrian Netherlands, the republic acquired the bishopric of Liege. The people had long been among the very worst governed in Europe, and they felt towards their episcopal sovereign, no sentiment, but that of detestation. Even before the French armies, after the battle of Fleurus, had time to march to their support, they broke out into a premature insurrection, which was suppressed.

The prince of Saxe-Cobourg effected his retreat across the Meuse, with little molestation, and the French, being occupied in seizing and securing their conquests in the

Netherlands, relaxed for some weeks, the ardour of their exertions. In another quarter, their efforts were undiminished. Frederic William had withdrawn the quota of Prussian troops, which were to be supplied for the British subsidy; but his proportion, as a German prince, which is estimated at about twenty thousand men, were permitted to remain. Whether these forces were employed to defend Kaiferslautern, or whether any other corps of Prussians had been stationed to protect this post, we have not yet learned. All we know is, that from Wednesday, the 9th, to Wednesday, the 16th of July inclusive, the French attacked them with their usual impetuosity, and without intermission, either night or day. The Prussians were finally forced from their entrenchments with a terrible carnage. It is said, that, in the latter part of the attack, the French rushed upon the Prussian batteries, with as much indifference, as if they had not been loaded; carried them at the point of the bayonet, and almost annihilated the Prussian army. By another account, we learn, that the Austrians and the troops of the empire were also included in this series of attacks; and that, in the course of three weeks, this allied army, consisting of at least seventy thousand men, was almost totally destroyed. Some reports stated the allies, as amounting to an hundred thousand.

On the 30th of July, 1794, prince Cobourg published a general address to the German nation, dated from his head quarters at Fouron le Comte. This piece contained a violent invective against the French republic. He termed them, "an infuriated nation, to whom the life and welfare of men, religion, duty, and the social ties of society, were become a sport." In the most earnest language, he entreated the Germans to rise in arms, in defence of their altars, their dwellings, their emperor, and their liberty. He exhorted them to seize the treasures of their churches, and bring them and their own silver plate to the emperor, "that they may serve to pay his defenders. You will receive, by way of compensation, his obligatory acknowledgements in due form." This address had little or no effect, and is only interesting, as it serves to show the extremity of alarm, which was now felt by the members of the Germanic body. The emperor likewise addressed to the convention, of the upper Rhine, a long declaration, dated the 12th of August, 1794; and couched in the most unqualified language of despair: He observed that the enemy were victorious in every quarter; that the spiritual and temporal communities were still possessed of treasures, which remained untouched; and that if the imperial court was to be abandoned, at this decisive crisis, the destruction of the empire was unavoidable. Such confessions and entreaties could only be extorted by great distress. Their sincerity cannot be denied. Government itself depends on reputation; and nothing can be so destructive to the credit of strength, as an acknowledgement of weakness. These two state papers form a striking and desirable contrast, to the two sanguinary and insolent manifestoes, published by the duke of Brunswic, on the 25th and 27th of July, 1792, wherein the city of Paris was menaced with military execution. Cobourg, not long after, resigned his command.

In the course of their operations in Flanders, during this campaign, the French reduced to practical utility, the discovery of the air balloon. Officers were, on some emergencies, sent up a considerable height in the air, and transmitted their successive remarks on the numbers and manœuvres of the allies, to the French generals.

The stadtholder on his part, addressed the states of Holland and West Friesland, in a memorial, dated the 4th of August, 1794. He stated, that the present war was more expensive than any former one; that "the enemy with whom they had to contend, counted for nothing, her colonies, commerce, agriculture, and national prosperity, if, in exhausting all the forces of her country, she could reduce her rivals to the same state of privation." He recommended the most vigorous measures, but with as little success, as the prince of Cobourg.

On the 8th of August, general Michaud, having received orders from the convention to take Treves, at any price, attacked the entrenchments before that town. The allies were driven out of it with considerable slaughter. The electoral throne was conveyed to Paris.

A list appeared in August 1794, in the London newspapers, by which it seems, that from the beginning of the war, up to that date, the French had captured six hundred and eighty eight vessels, the English three hundred and eighty, the Spaniards thirty, and the Dutch two. French assignats were openly forged in England, to the extent of many millions of livres. They were distributed in the territories of the allies, to be disposed of on the French frontiers. When Ostend was taken, in the summer of 1794, two millions two hundred and seventy thousand livres of forged assignats, manufactured in England, were found in that city. With a chest full of this commodity, there were found two passports, signed by the imperial officers of Brussels and Ostend, enjoining that it should be suffered to proceed free of all duties. Barrere made a report of this affair, to the convention, wherein he observed that this was a noble example of justice and probity, to give the world. The opposition prints in London made also very loud clamours on this pitiful scheme, but without effect.

On the twenty-sixth of August, Sluys was taken by the republicans. The garrison, consisting of two thousand men, were sent prisoners to Dunkirk. The siege is said to have cost the French an equal number of men. While the armies of France were thus annihilating its external enemies on every side, a convulsion happened in its centre, that filled all Europe with momentary surprise and astonishment. From the time of the execution of Danton and his party, Robespierre, with a few associates, had seized the absolute government of the country. The surviving friends of their antagonists became natural objects of jealousy; and this jealousy produced a multiplicity of trials and executions before the revolutionary tribunal. The committee of public safety, as they were called, became in a fact a committee of public destruction. Nothing stopped their career. They boldly legislated for the nation; nor were they satisfied with dictating the measures to be taken, and with regulating the great concerns of the state; they aimed at concentrating the powers of execution and superintendance. The more powers that they assumed, the more despotic that they became, the greater was the number of abuses which they had to punish, and consequently, they were obliged to assume the application of punishment into their own hands, of which the revolutionary tribunal became the nominal instrument. The committee believed that it would facilitate their operations, to condemn to death for all crimes; and by this rule they only made enemies. They attempted to suppress murmurs by stifling the public voice, and they only increased the fermentation. It was impossible to reduce a lively, intelligent, and ironical people, such as the French, to the gloomy silence of an oriental harem. Paris in particular, was inflexible, and the struggle produced a profusion of judicial murders, which impressed foreign nations with horror. Since the quarrel on the 31st of May, 1793, about two hundred members of the convention had either been imprisoned, exiled, or assassinated. The most eminent leaders had gradually been expelled or destroyed. To fill their places was the task allotted to the convention. It is the practice in France, that when a member is elected, a number of substitutes are chosen to supply, in case of accident, his place. The committee of Robespierre assumed the real direction in cases of this kind, and thus the convention began to be filled with persons devoted to their will, or disposed to obey it. The Jacobin club, likewise, the municipality of Paris, were two of the pillars on which the power of this party rested. But the same cause which has ruined many other political cabals, overthrew that of Robespierre. The party dis-

agreed among themselves; or rather the leader of the committee of public safety seems to have become tired of them. In concert with St. Just and Couthon, two of its members, he formed a plan for seizing upon its authority. For six weeks preceding the 26th of July, 1794, he had absented himself from it, that is, from the time when he found that the other members would not submit to his direction. During that period, both he and his agents were busy, at the Jacobin club, and over all Paris, in vilifying the committee, and holding forth the necessity of another revolution, and a new purification of the convention, or, in other words, a new proscription of the members. Having secured, as he thought, the Jacobin club, the mayor and municipality of Paris, and the armed force, he, on the 26th of July, came down to the convention, where he delivered a speech arraigning the conduct of the committee of public safety, the committee of finance, and the whole system of government. Barrere, Billaud Varennes, and others, replied, and recriminated in the most hostile tone. The convention who saw no end to this trade of accusation and proscription, had long since been deeply alarmed; and despair, perhaps, inspired them with a degree of confidence. Nothing important happened on this day. On the 27th, St. Just came to the convention, and began to deliver a speech to the same effect as the former by Robespierre. St. Just and he were both interrupted by the convention. Accusations of Robespierre were now heard with the loudest applause; and whenever Robespierre attempted to vindicate himself, the majority of the convention and the galleries vociferated "Away, away with the tyrant!" Tallien moved that the sitting should not break up, and that Henriot, commandant of the national guard, should be arrested. Both motions were instantly adopted, as well as several others, for seizing the associates of Robespierre, and for securing the safety of the convention and the peace of the city.

In the evening, all the persons who had been apprehended, were rescued. The Jacobins, the mayor of Paris, and the municipality, declared in favour of Robespierre. The greater part of the national guards were seduced by Henriot to the same side of the question. This man, as he was running about and calling to arms, was taken into custody, but soon after rescued, the croud surrounded the place where the committee of general safety used to meet. The doors were forced open, but the members were all at the convention. In the mean time, Robespierre and his confederate had repaired to the municipality, who were depositing and appointing public officers, issuing orders to the sections, arresting the messengers of the convention, and exercising various other functions of sovereign power. The department of Paris, and the forty-eight sections, declared in immediately for the convention. The committees of public and general safety acted with promptitude and vigour. The measures that they proposed were instantly sanctioned by the convention, and, in a few hours, the people were every where prepared to defend their representatives. The armed force followed their example, and, at three o'clock in the morning of the 28th of July, the chiefs of the conspirators were taken. Robespierre attempted to shoot himself, and, it has been said, that the pistol ball broke his under jaw. He was, in the evening of the same day, conducted to the scaffold, amidst the execrations and insults of the populace, who but a few days before, had universally venerated his virtues, or trembled at his frown. Nineteen of his accomplices were executed with him. Among these were, his brother, St. Just, Couthon, Henriot, commander of the national guard, Dumas, president of the revolutionary tribunal, Vivier, president of the Jacobin club, Simon, preceptor to the son of the late king, and L'Escot, mayor of Paris. On the 29th, sixty-eight of the municipal officers, who had collected themselves in the hall of the commune, and declared for Robespierre, likewise suffered death. At the same time, a deputy of the convention, who had been a commissioner to the army, lost his head. He had been convicted as accessory to the plots of Robespierre.

This conspiracy was crushed with less bloodshed than might have been expected

since only a few lives were lost, besides those abovementioned. There was not the smallest disturbance, either in the provinces or the armies. Numerous addresses of congratulation were presented to the convention. It is affirmed, that on the 25th, 26th, and 27th of July, one hundred and thirty-five persons were condemned by the revolutionary tribunal, and executed. Among these at the age of seventy four, was baron Trenck, famous all over Europe, for his writings and his sufferings: It is needless to enquire into the crimes, real or imaginary, of these prisoners. Many people were about this time beheaded for no alleged guilt, but that of censuring the tyranny of Robespierre. A petition has lately been presented to the convention from a family at Strasburg, who represented, that their father was put to death by St. Just, for refusing to give him a carp that he had bought: The convention put a stop to these horrid executions. On the 7th of August, seven hundred prisoners were released from their confinement at the Luxembourg. On the 10th, the actors of the French theatre, and seven hundred other prisoners, confined by the late usurpers, were also discharged. It was computed that there were in prison at Paris, eight thousand persons, of whom, one half were esteemed entirely innocent. A print was published, representing the French people in the square of the revolution, without heads, and the executioner in the act of guillotining himself.

On the 16th of August, Barrere related in the convention a curious discovery, whereby the news of the capture of Quesnoy had reached Paris within half an hour after the French troops entered into the place. This invention is since known by the name of the *telegraphe*: Its construction and its uses are too familiar to the reader for any farther account of them to be requisite in this place. On the 1st of September, a letter was read in the convention from general Scherer, announcing the capture of Conde. This event has already been mentioned; but the quantity of stores deposited in this town deserves notice. One hundred and sixty-one pieces of cannon, six thousand muskets, besides those of the garrison, three hundred thousand pounds weight of powder, an hundred thousand balls, bombs, and shells, fifteen hundred thousand cartridges, six hundred thousand pounds weight of lead, and provisions of all kinds, were found in Conde: This curious detail demonstrates the enormous expense of modern war; and the astonishing resources of a republic that has overcome such opposition. On the 30th of September, Cambon, in the name of the committee of finances, gave in an account of the sums imposed and received in the Netherlands. Thirteen million of livres had been paid in ingots, or in French or foreign coins. The total contribution exacted was about fifty-two millions.

The French continued to pursue their advantages in the Netherlands, after the retreat of Cobourg. The British army, notwithstanding the natural strength of the country, was constantly forced to retire before the superior forces of Pichegru. On another side, Jourdan pressed on the remnant of the imperial army, who were attacked near Maestricht, by this commander, upon the 15th of September. The conflict was successively renewed for five days; and, on the 20th, the Austrians were finally driven from their posts. Jourdan, in a letter dated the 17th of September, informed the convention, that he had defeated eighteen thousand Austrians, entrenched at Emeux and Sprement. Two thousand were found killed or wounded on the field. The French took seven hundred prisoners and twenty-six pieces of cannon. The Austrian camp, at Chartres, were also abandoned: On the 18th, Reekham and Stockham were forced: Maestricht was soon after invested by the French at every point. Fifteen vessels, with cargoes worth a million of livres, were captured at its investment. On the 22d of September, the convention received intelligence of the capture of Crevecoeur and Kaiserslautern. The capitulation of the former town gave great alarm in Holland; as the resistance was not proportioned to the means of defence; and as it commanded the sluices of Bois le-Duc, on the right side of the Meuse. Kaiserslautern had been

taken a few days before, by prince Hohenloe, at the head of the Prussian troops; it was almost immediately recovered. The date of either of the two actions, at this post, we have not, at present, been able to learn with accuracy. Similar mistakes have undoubtedly occurred in our attempt to form a regular narrative of this labyrinth of battles.

We have not, in this sketch, attempted hitherto, any detail of the military proceedings in Spain. The king was exceedingly embarrassed in his finances, and if the same force that has operated against Flanders, had been directed by the French against his dominions, Charles the fourth would, probably, by this time, have been erased from the catalogue of sovereigns. About the month of August, Fontarabia, one of the strongest places in the north-east part of Spain, was taken, after a trifling resistance. On the 19th of September, the Spaniards attacked the French near Bellegarde, a strong place in Roussillon, on the frontiers of Catalonia. The former fled, and left on the field six hundred men, and four pieces of cannon. On the 24th, the French were attacked, near St. Sebastian's, by six thousand Spaniards, who were likewise defeated. St. Sebastian's itself, had sometime before been taken by the republicans.

Clairfait, with the Austrian army, retired, after his defeat, on the 20th of September, to the opposite side of the river Rhoer, and there entrenched himself with between sixty and eighty thousand men. On the 2d of October, at five o'clock in the morning, Jourdan crossed the river with his troops, in four columns, and attacked the enemy. The passage of the river was attended with considerable difficulty, as bridges were to be made under the fire of the Austrian artillery. The Rhoer had been swollen by continued rains for ten days, and the places where it was fordable had been planted with chevaux de frize. The impetuosity of the republicans were irresistible. The column under general Kleber, too impatient to wait for the construction of bridges, rushed through the stream, ascended the opposite bank, and carried the entrenchments in that part, at the point of the bayonet. In less than two hours, the Austrians were totally defeated, and took shelter under the fortifications of Juliers. At midnight, they began a retreat, and a thick fog prevented its being discovered till eight o'clock in the morning of the 3d of October, when they were seen in full flight towards Cologne. Jourdan, in a letter dated the day after the battle, estimates the loss of the enemy at four or five thousand men killed or wounded, besides between seven and eight hundred prisoners. The French were, at this time, in pursuit. Neither Gillet, representative of the people, nor Jourdan himself, in their respective letters to the convention, mention the capture either of cannon, or of standards. This omission leaves room to suspect, that Clairfait had made previous arrangements for a retreat, with more than usual attention. During the night between the 2d and 3d, Jourdan planted a battery of howitzers opposite to Juliers; and, as soon as the fog in the morning permitted the army to discern the place, some shells were thrown into the fort's. The magistrates immediately came out, and delivered their keys. Gillet says that the place was stronger than Landrecy; though it surrendered without firing a shot. Sixty pieces of cannon, and five hundred quintals of powder were here found. This was one of the most glorious and important advantages which had yet been gained by the republicans. Some accounts from Germany compute the loss of Clairfait, in this affair, at twelve thousand men. One letter states that three battalions of Hulans were annihilated. A wide extent of country was immediately laid open to the French arms. The sieges of Mæstricht and Bois le Duc were formed. The army of Jourdan proceeded in three columns towards Bonn, Cologne, and Düsseldorf. The two former towns lie on the French side of the Rhine, and the last on the opposite side. At Cologne, the French were received with great demonstration of joy by the inhabitants. Here they found a numerous artillery, and an arsenal

well supplied with military stores. Bonn also was taken. Trenches were opened against Duffeldorff, and the town was set on fire by some shells. There followed a kind of truce, or tacit suspension of arms. The French were willing to make the Rhine the boundary of their progress. Another account says, that Duffeldorff sustained no injury whatever, but paid a contribution.

On the 10th of October, Bois-le-Duc capitulated. It is said, that the governor, undeterred, gave in, to Pichegru, a list of four hundred and eight emigrants, who were immediately destroyed. Maastricht surrendered on the 4th of November, after a blockade, from the 22d of September. The garrison consisted of between eight and ten thousand Dutch and Austrians. The attack from the French did not seriously begin till the 29th of October, and in three days a capitulation became necessary. On the 30th of October, the French sent a summons to capitulate, which was refused. The attack was then made with such argumented fury, that the air was filled with balls, bombs, and howitzers; and of these, twelve thousand were, in three days, thrown into the town. Some of the bombs were two hundred pounds in weight. Above two thousand buildings were either entirely destroyed or greatly damaged. Two hundred soldiers and inhabitants were either killed or wounded. Maastricht was to have been stormed on the day that it surrendered.

Every circumstance of this campaign wore, on the part of the allies, a melancholy and disastrous aspect. It was publicly affirmed in the British house of commons, that between the Austrian and English forces, a co-operation to any effectual purpose was impracticable, since each of them hated the other, much more heartily, than either of them hated the French. English officers, left wounded in the field, were sometimes murdered by Austrian soldiers or their wives, for the sake of robbing them. The duke of York, and the Prince of Cobourg, were upon cold terms; and the Austrians were all together extremely averse to the service. On the 9th of February, 1795, the earl of Lauderdale said, in the British house of peers, that many Austrian officers remained at sick quarters, till they were threatened with being sent to their posts under an escort of hussars. The conduct of the Prussians was yet more extraordinary. Frederic William was to have supplied sixty thousand men, who did not appear. On the 5th of February, 1795, Mr. Sheridan remarked, in the British parliament, that his Prussian majesty had received twelve hundred thousand pounds sterling, but apparently without any discharge whatever of his part of the obligation; and he thought it most remarkable, that one of the payments was made so late as the 4th of October, 1794, when all hope of the advance of these forces had vanished. The native troops of the elector of Hanover have, at various times, during the campaign of 1794, betrayed an unusual reluctance to fighting, and promptness to desertion. The indifference of the Dutch soldiers, to the common cause, has produced the loudest murmurs. In short excepting the British themselves, none of the troops engaged, seem to have felt any personal enthusiasm for the conquest of the French republic.

On the 8th of November, the duke of York was driven from Nimeguen, where thirteen hundred Dutch soldiers were made prisoners. The subsequent history of the British troops, in this campaign, may be reduced to a few words. They were successively driven from one post to another with considerable loss. On the 24th of October, a letter was read in the convention, announcing the capture of Cleves and Coblenz. Before the latter place, the Austrians were entrenched, and their redoubts were carried at the point of the bayonet. Cologne was ordered to pay nine millions of livres. The clergy were enjoined, under pain of death, to deliver up every article of plate belonging to their churches. On the 24th of November, the Dutch fortress of Grave yielded to the arms of the republic. In relating an ordinary war, this would have been an event of high importance. But our readers must pardon the omission of a variety of articles of this nature, because, even if accurate information could be

obtained of events so recent, it is impracticable to condense the whole of them within the necessary limits of this work. Mr. Pitt was lately predicting in the British house of commons, the bankruptcy of the present French government, and stated, as a prelude to it, the extravagant expense of their military establishment for 1794, which he guessed at an hundred and fifty millions sterling. Mr. Fox, in reply, reminded him that the republic had performed more in this one campaign, than might have required five; that it was a campaign, to which there was no resemblance in the annals of modern Europe.

It has already been remarked, that the Jacobin club of Paris were in the interests of Robespierre, and after his downfall, they began to oppose the convention. For some days posterior to the 28th of July, their meetings were discontinued. When they assembled again, they congratulated the convention, but with an ill grace, upon its success. This appearance of friendship did not last long. They had lost their popularity; the convention had gained it; and jealousy excited them to take the first opportunity of censuring its proceedings. The convention had opened the doors of the prisons, and set at liberty an immense number of persons arrested by Robespierre, and who only waited for their turn to bleed at the guillotine. At this act of lenity, the Jacobins complained. They declared, that the enemies of the republic were restored to freedom, and that aristocracy and moderatism, began every where, to show their heads. The Jacobins regretted the abolition of the revolutionary tribunal; and it may be worth while to give some account of the nature of this court. Robespierre had obtained the passing of a decree that rendered all trials before it a perfect mockery. By this law the prisoner was not allowed counsel or attorneys, and death was to be the punishment of every crime. This tribunal the tyrant had composed of judges and juries, who were either in his interests, or who durst not contradict his will. Whenever he wanted to destroy a person, it was only requisite to bring him before the revolutionary tribunal. Thirty or forty victims were thus dispatched every day in Paris, and the mandates of the despot produced scenes of the same kind in other parts of France. This court was now dissolved, and a new one erected, upon a more humane and just establishment. The accused were to be allowed counsel. The judges, when they found a prisoner guilty, were bound to declare with what intention they believed that the crime had been committed; for it was imagined that many-affected persons had been led to act unintentionally against the interest of the republic. These regulations offended the Jacobins. They addressed the other popular societies, in and about Paris, and called upon them to be upon their guard against these moderate measures. They received, or pretended to receive, and published, addresses from a great number of societies, in different parts of the republic, which declared themselves devoted to the Jacobins, and opposed to the new and lenient system. On the other side, the convention also were daily receiving addresses of thanks, from every quarter, for their vigilance in discovering, and their activity in suppressing, the conspiracy. Many of the Jacobins were members of the convention, and formed party in it, who called themselves *the mountain*. A decree passed forbidding the mention of this name. The Jacobins adhered to it. In the end, the two parties came to a trial of strength. The convention had appointed a committee of twenty-one members to make a report concerning the Jacobins, and this was to be given in on the 11th of November. On the 6th preceding, a quarrel happened at the Jacobin-hall, or near it, and after some blows on each side, the populace cleared the hall, which was locked up. A deputation having been sent from the convention to establish order, they addressed the people for that effect. They reminded them that the constitution authorized popular societies. The people answered, that they were not aiming at popular societies, in general, but at sanguinary men. The Jacobin meetings in the hall of the monastery, have since been forbidden, and as the place is national property, the convention are authorized to do

fo. But the club is not dissolved ; for it hath since held meetings in Paris, at another place. It is inaccurate to say, that popular societies are discountenanced by the present rulers of France ; though they have subjected them to some strict regulations. They have received numerous addresses from such bodies. The Jacobin club originally consisted of some thousands of members, many of whom were principal actors in the first part of the revolution, of which this society was an active and powerful instrument. In the tumultuous vicissitudes of the times, many of the leaders were destroyed, many were expelled, and many, from various motives, deserted it. Hence it had, on different occasions, assumed different tones of proceeding ; and it has been alleged, that the gold of the combined powers had casual influence on some of its members. On the 22d of November, 1794, the president of the national convention, in answer to an address respecting this society, spoke as follows : "The convention will maintain the popular societies, which are established by the constitution, with the same firmness and courage, which created the Jacobin society ; that society which has formerly rendered our country services, that will secure it honourable pages in history ; but which, since the 9th of Thermidor, (27th of July,) has become a den of lions." It is certain, that since the date last mentioned, the measures of the convention have assumed a much more mild and benign aspect. Above seventy deputies, who had been imprisoned for various reasons or pretences, have lately been restored to their liberty. Among these, was Mercier, author of *Tableau de Paris*, and other works of merit. On the 8th of November, general Kellerman stood trial before the new revolutionary tribunal at Paris, on different charges. The testimony of the witnesses went entirely in his favour, and he was acquitted, amidst the acclamations of the people. General Miranda, likewise, has lately been discharged from a long confinement.

While these proceedings happened at Paris, the French army continued in their career of victory. On the side of Spain, various advantages have been taken. In Biscay, Navarre, and Catalonia, some places of importance have been taken. On the German frontier, the French have completely swept the left bank of the Rhine, without leaving a single soldier of the allied army, excepting the garrisons of Mentz and Luxembourg. By our last accounts, both these places were closely besieged. Mannheim, which stands on the right side of the Rhine, at the confluence of that river with the Neckar, has also been besieged ; and on the 25th of December, the fort of the Rhine, which commands it, capitulated. The fort was, by the terms of surrender, to be demolished, "as hostilities are not to be carried on, beyond the right bank of the Rhine."

While the German empire was thus torn asunder, by her unhappy connexion with the alliance against France, the British nation were hardly more fortunate by sea. Their merchants were astonished and often ruined by the numerous captures which the republican privateers constantly made of their vessels. Though the victory of lord Howe, on the 2d of June, 1794, over the grand fleet of France, was extremely important, yet the superiority of the English flag, for the useful purpose of protecting commerce, has existed rather in name, than in fact. The trade of France was almost entirely, if not altogether, carried on in foreign bottoms ; and consequently, she could lose nothing but her navy. The fleets of British commerce, filled every part of the ocean, and it was impossible that they should escape without considerable havoc. A gentleman, lately arrived from Paris, has published a list of the French navy, as it now stands. It contains ninety-six ships of the line, armed or fitting. Of these, the least carry seventy-four guns. There are twenty five others building, or lately launched, and also twenty ships, from fifty to sixty guns, with an hundred and four frigates, which are mostly of forty-four or thirty-six guns. Besides these, the French navy has ninety two lesser vessels, of various names and sizes, forming in whole, three hundred and thirty-seven ships of war. To these must be added a vast number of cruisers, fitted out by individuals. When at the same time, we reflect that Britain is

the first commercial country in the world, and that her act of navigation confines her trade chiefly to her own shipping, we shall not be surprized to hear, that about six hundred British merchant vessels are now lying, as prizes, in the harbour of Brest; and that thirty thousand British seamen are prisoners to the republic. One French privateer brought safe into port, at a single sweep, sixteen English prizes. These details demonstrate with what reluctance a commercial people, who understand their own interests, will engage in a naval war; since Britain, with a navy, admitted to be the most formidable on the ocean, has, by confiding in its superiority, encountered such a multitude of disappointments. Admiral Bligh, in the *Alexander*, of seventy-four guns, was lately taken and carried into Brest. About the end of the year 1704, intelligence was received in Europe, of the almost entire destruction of the British settlement of Sierra Leone, on the coast of Africa. This is a peninsula, lying to the south of the river Gambia; and it was selected by a benevolent society in Britain, as the most proper spot for planting a colony consisting of black people who had acquired their freedom. The plan was dictated by motives of the purest humanity, and the prospect of the settlement, has been represented as flattering. But, about the end of September, 1790, it was visited by a fleet of French privateers. It is said, that the harbour of Freetown, the name of the principal place, was defended by a battery of twenty-four pounders, and had a magazine well supplied with ammunition and small arms. The people insisted on making a defence, and the free blacks from Halifax, in Nova-Scotia, offered to man the batteries. The account states, that the governor refused to make any opposition whatever, and on a shot being fired from a French frigate, which struck his own house, immediately hauled down his colours. The whole settlement, for a range of two miles from the sea coast into the country, was reduced to a heap of ruins; and not a single vessel, belonging to the colony, was to be seen upon the coast. The account adds, that the French privateers took twenty seven English prizes. In one schooner they found twenty-five tons of ivory, and a quantity of gold dust.

While this article was preparing for the press, intelligence has arrived of the surrender of Amsterdam; to the army of Pichegru, the total reduction of Holland, and the cordial junction of the people at large, with the French nation. On the 20th of December, the republicans who had made a temporary pause, were every where in motion, along the frontier. Several actions ensued, wherein the British, Hanoverians, and some Austrians who acted with them, suffered severely. Pichegru, in a letter, dated Bois le Duc, the 29th of December, says, that the committee of public safety had given directions to prosecute the campaign by taking Grave, the isle of Bommel, and completing the blockade of Breda; and that, by the most singular good fortune, the whole had been completed in one day. On the morning of the 27th, notwithstanding the extreme cold, his army attacked the enemy, for an extent of twelve leagues, from Nimeguen to beyond the river Merck; and were, as usual, every where victorious. They gained an hundred and twenty pieces of cannon, sixteen hundred prisoners, two pair of colours, and three hundred horses. The French were the more easily successful; because the ice in the rivers had been frozen very hard. They were thus enabled to cross without difficulty, and attack the posts, both in front and rear. Many of the French soldiers used skaits. One letter says, that three thousand pairs had been ordered to be made for their service. A letter from the British army, dated the 29th of December, says that their effective men had, of late, been reduced from seventeen thousand to ten thousand. Nothing can be more shocking than descriptions that have been given, of the situation of the sick and wounded of these troops, during their successive retreats before the republicans. They were sometimes to be removed at midnight, from the warm beds of an hospital, into waggons, in which, at the depth of winter, they were driven a considerable distance. Some became raving mad with pain, while others, less unfortunate, were frozen to death. When it became

evident that the French arms could no longer be resisted, the people, all over the seven provinces, rose in numerous bodies, organized themselves into national guards, turned out the old magistrates, and elected others, of opposite principles, in their stead. An attempt had already been made, but without success, to throw a garrison of the allied troops into Amsterdam. On the 16th of January, at nine o'clock in the morning, the princess of Orange fled from the Hague, and embarked for England, with her daughter-in-law. In the evening, the stadtholder assembled the states of Holland, and informed them of the necessity which he was under, to retire immediately from the country, to provide for his personal safety, and that he had accepted the resignation of his two sons, one of whom commanded the Dutch army, and the other was general of the cavalry. Both accompanied him in his flight to England, where his family and himself were received, on landing, at Great Yarmouth, with the most tumultuous demonstrations of welcome. The rabble looted the horses from their carriages, and drew them round the town. The character of this stadtholder, and his conduct towards his country, have already been explained.*

The states of Holland instantly directed orders to be transmitted to all their military commanders, that they should no longer resist the troops of France. Williamstadt, Breda, Gorcum, Bergen op zoom, and a multitude of other fortified places, fell immediately into the hands of the conquerors. The latter behaved with the greatest and most laudable moderation, and were welcomed with universal joy. At Amsterdam, there was the greatest exultation ever known. On the 19th of January, thirty French hussars entered the city. The tree of liberty was directly planted before the town-house. The French national colours were every where displayed, and the national cockade was universally assumed. The arms of the stadtholder were at the same time, every where taken down. The prisons were set open, and those of the republican party, who had been confined, were set at liberty. On the evening of the 20th, Pichegru himself, at the head of five thousand men, entered the town. No insult was offered to any person whatever, nor any violation to property. Euthusiastic joy was marked on every countenance. A revolutionary committee issued, on the 10th, a congratulatory address to the citizens, on their deliverance from stadtholderian despotism. This piece was dated the first day of Dutch freedom. Next day, a proclamation was issued by six of the representatives of the French nation. They assured the citizens that they were not considered as accomplices in the criminal attempt of the stadtholder against liberty; that the armies of the republic should observe the strictest discipline; and that the smallest injury, committed by them, should be severely punished. On the 28th of January, a new tree of liberty, decorated in the most elegant manner, and crowned with the cap of liberty, was planted before the town house. It was planted during a concert of musical instruments. The national guard of Amsterdam formed a circle around it, within which a great number of young ladies, dressed in white, and decorated with the three-coloured riband, danced amidst the acclamations of the people. All accounts agree, that there has hitherto been the greatest harmony between the two nations, and it is equally the interest of both parties, that this harmony should continue.

On the 26th of January, the members of the new states of Holland, who had already been convoked, assembled at the Hague. Citizen Peter Paulinus was chosen president. The oath upon the old constitution was suppressed. The assembly qualified themselves, as provisionary representatives of the people of Holland; they decreed the sovereignty of the people, and the rights of man, and abolished the stadtholdership, with all its dependencies. The chambers of accounts and others were dissolved, and replaced by committees of public welfare, military affairs, and finance, which were

immediately organized. The same advices add, that the deputies of the states-general have been recalled. A total change has been made in the political constitution of the seven united provinces.

A requisition has been made by the French deputies to the states-general, for the following supplies to their army, viz. "two hundred thousand quintals of wheat, five millions of trusses of hay, weighing fifteen pounds each, two hundred thousand trusses of straw, of ten pounds each, five millions of measures of oats, of ten pounds each, an hundred and fifty thousand pairs of shoes, twenty thousand pairs of boots, twenty thousand coats and waistcoats, forty thousand pair of breeches, an hundred and fifty thousand overalls, two hundred thousand shirts, and fifty thousand hats, the whole to be delivered at three several periods, within one month, at Bois le Duc, Thiel, and Nimeguen, and further, twelve thousand oxen to be delivered in the space of two months." The states have accordingly decreed that the supplies shall be furnished.

When the news arrived in England, of the surrender of Amsterdam, an order was immediately issued to stop every Dutch-vessel in the British harbours. Two ships, of sixty-four guns, six East-Indiamen, and seventy other merchantmen, are said to have been detained. It is reported, that great numbers of English vessels have been detained at Amsterdam, and in the other harbours of the united provinces. The government of England has attached, it is said, the Dutch property in the English funds, to the extent of about seventy millions sterling.

By the capture of Amsterdam, ten ships, of seventy-four guns, and twenty-four, of sixty-four, have been added to the French navy, besides seventy five other vessels, of inferior size, from fifty-six, down to six guns. The whole Dutch navy secured, are said to carry four thousand three hundred and eighty guns.

Thus have the French acquired possession of an invaluable country, which, by its wealth, marine skill, and commercial industry, formed the chief rival, in those respects, which the English had to dread. Its ports are geographically calculated to be fatal to Britain, for the latter has none opposite, into which her great ships can enter. Its flat-bottomed vessels, by their construction, can annoy her bays and harbours, where the British fleet cannot find sufficient depth of water. Its arsenals are filled with naval stores of all kinds; and by its situation, it can obtain such stores at all seasons, without a possibility of prevention, on the part of Britain.

On the 30th of January, 1795, Dubois Crance gave in, to the convention, a report, on the situation of the armies. It begins in these words: "Last year, you maintained near eleven hundred thousand fighting men. France stood armed on one side, Europe on the other, and victory constantly followed the three-coloured standard." He concludes as follows: "Holland is conquered, and England trembles. Twenty-three regular sieges terminated; six pitched battles gained: two thousand cannons taken; sixty-eight thousand prisoners; and two hundred towns submitted; such is the glorious result of the last campaign. The next campaign promises, if possible, still more surprising successes. Besides the naval forces of the republic, which are now on the most respectable footing, we have two hundred battalions of infantry,* five hundred squadrons of cavalry, and sixty thousand artillery.† Such immense forces were never

* A mistake of the press may be suspected in the number of battalions. They probably very far exceed two hundred.

† In the accounts of the present war, frequent notice is taken of the prodigious quantity, and superiority of the French artillery. The republic has made a considerable revolution in the military art, by an improvement in the construction of their

cannon. A French field-piece does not now recoil. When the Prussian cavalry first entered France, they were an object of terror; but the newly-improved field-pieces put a stop to their progress. Formerly, a cannon could hardly be discharged.

By another report, dated the 2d of February, 1795, we learn, that in one month only, the founderies, for supplying the army, furnished five hundred pieces of cannon. Thirty founderies for the navy have, in one year, produced fifteen thousand great guns. In thirteen months, the manufacturers of Paris fabricated an hundred and fifty-seven thousand muskets.

On the 29th of January, 1795, the British commanders in the West Indies, published a notification, that the French islands of Guadaloupe, Marigalante, and Desade, are in an actual state of blockade; and that all neutral vessels are therefore prohibited from attempting to enter them, under the pain of forfeiture. The French commissioners to the Windward Islands, published a spirited reply. They begin with these words. "Eight hundred republicans, and two French frigates, have re-conquered the island of Guadaloupe. Eight thousand chosen troops, six line of battle ships, and twelve frigates were forced to yield to that courage, virtue, and patriotism, which animate a republican breast." And again, "The present moment do they choose, for issuing an extravagant proclamation; and have not our sloops of war and other armed ships, within these few months; burnt, or otherwise destroyed, eighty eight of their vessels? And are we not ready, at this moment, to attack their colonies, and there convince them of the impossibility of blocking us up." The British proclamation of blockade, is a topic of peculiar concern to the merchants of America. The menace of invasion has been since executed, with the wonted punctuality of the French republicans. St. Vincents, Grenada; and St. Lucia, have, it is said, all been attacked by them; and much mischief has been committed. About the 20th of March, a person arrived at Martinico, from Grenada, for a supply of arms and ammunition. He brought intelligence that the militia and seamen had come to an action with the French, had killed about twenty, had taken some prisoners, and driven the rest back into a well-fortified camp, where they have forty-three English prisoners, among whom is the governor. The colony had offered twenty joes, or three hundred and twenty dollars, for the head of every insurgent, dead or alive: Another account says, that in one of these islands, either St. Vincent's, or Grenada, but the writer does not specify which, there are not more than six acres of cane left unburnt, and that the greatest part of the islands is in their possession. It is added, that St. Lucia is in a still worse state, and that the crop in both islands is entirely ruined. A letter, dated the 13th of March, from an officer in the 46th regiment, at St. Vincents, gives a melancholy picture of the state of that island. He says, that it presents the most dreadful spectacle, which can be conceived: the whole face of this most beautiful country is burnt to ashes, and the planters are all driven into the fort. The Caribs, the ancient inhabitants of St. Vincents, who are numerous, independent, and warlike, have joined the French, and according to this letter, burnt every settlement, and butchered every white person within their reach. It appears by another account received, that the Carib king has been killed, and several of his party made prisoners. In his pocket was found a manifesto, dated the 12th day March, and "first of our liberty." Such is the manner in which the British have *blockaded* Guadaloupe.

The flames of this unhappy war continued to spread more widely than ever. The

but upon firm ground, where cavalry were able to act. By saving the recoil, they can now be discharged in any situation, and were thus able to check the Prussian cavalry, from ground to which they could not be followed. These artillery can even be fired with safety up the declivity of a hill, without recoiling more than twelve or eighteen inches, and of this particular fact, we have seen the original certificate from officers of high rank, who made the experiment.

The recoil is prevented by a very simple contrivance. The new artillery have other advantages. They are more light and portable than the old ones. About a year before the war broke out, these improvements were communicated to the French national assembly, by the discoverer, Mr. John Anderfon, professor of natural philosophy, in the college of Glasgow.

court of St. James's has, on the 9th of February, published orders for seizing all Dutch vessels, and all others with naval stores, bound for Holland. There can, therefore, be little doubt that the seven united provinces will join the French. The grand fleet of Britain, under lord Howe, was, by the last accounts, at sea, and has been reinforced by five Portuguese ships, of seventy-four guns, and three frigates. Some actions have taken place in Spain, of a recent date, but the details are so contradictory, that it is impossible to give them much credit. We also, by the last advices, learn, that many of the Corsicans are in a state of insurrection against Paoli, and their new British government.

The article FRANCE would, in the regular course of this publication, have appeared a year and nine months ago. The numerous and interesting changes that were daily occurring in that country, and which involved the interests of almost all the rest of Europe, induced us to defer the account of France till the conclusion of the work, that we might be able to lay it before the reader in a form as much as possible approaching to completeness. By this arrangement, we have been enabled to extend the HISTORY for above a year and a half later down; and in other articles, such as those of POPULATION and CONSTITUTION, to add many recent and interesting particulars. If the narrative of late events shall hereafter be found inaccurate, candour will recollect the undigested state of the sources from whence our information has been often and inevitably derived. If this narrative appears disproportionably copious, it may, in apology, be urged, that the topic employs, at present, almost every mind, and echoes from almost every tongue; that the commerce of this country has been considerably involved in the events of this war, and that it must be materially affected by the mode of its termination. Besides, both the military and political conduct of the parties has been of a singular description; and presents all together the greatest and most interesting scene that has ever commanded the attention of mankind; a scene that will be contemplated with augmenting astonishment by future ages, while there shall survive any remembrance of the eighteenth century.

Among other accidental omissions in drawing up this summary, no mention has been made of M. de la Fayette, a person whose name is deservedly dear to every friend of the united states. He took an early, a conspicuous, and a decided part in the French revolution. He was a member of the national assembly that met in 1789, and from his acquaintance with the practice of republican government in America, he was of peculiar service to a body of men, who, with little information but what was acquired from books, were in the act of bursting the shackles of royalty. It was chiefly owing to the exertions of this gentleman, that the disturbances at Versailles, on the 5th of October, 1791, and the removal of the king and his family to Paris, were terminated with so little mischief. His popularity with the Parisians, was for a long time, very great, and the moderation and probity of his character fully entitled him to their confidence. He objected to the declaration of war, on the 20th of April, 1792, against the king of Hungary. He was appointed to the command of one body of the troops who soon after invaded Flanders. When the republican or Jacobin party, for the two words were then synonymous, took measures for dethroning the king, M. de la Fayette, with more integrity, perhaps, than prudence, gave an open opposition to them, and adhered to the constitution of 1791, which he had sworn to maintain. He wrote a long letter, dated from his camp, at Maubeuge, the 16th of June, 1792, and addressed to the national assembly, wherein he censured the late innovations and their authors, in the severest style. On the 18th of June, the Jacobin club proposed that he should be sent to Orleans as a traitor. A riot took place on the 20th, wherein the royal family was insulted; and, as affairs were plainly coming to a crisis, M. de la Fayette, a few days after, presented himself at the bar of the national assembly. He harangued them in opposition to government by clubs, and declared, that the sentiments of his army cor-

responded with his own. He was received by the national guards with the most flattering marks of attention; and, in two days, he returned to the army. The opposite party, however, began to gain an ascendancy; and, in the close of the month of July, an accusation, subscribed by Brissot, and five other members of the assembly, was preferred against him. He is there charged with a design of leading his army to Paris. If he could, by successfully executing such a measure, have prevented the ensuing massacres, he would have acquired and deserved an eminent rank among the benefactors of mankind. There is no proof that he had such a design: for the certificate was proved to contain gross untruths, and therefore ascertains nothing, but the perfidy of its authors. After the outrages of the 10th of August, his bust, along with those of Neckar, Mirabeau, and others, was demolished. On the 12th, the assembly dispatched three commissioners to his army; but M. de la Fayette, having had notice of their journey, had them arrested by the magistrates of Sedan. He then founded the disposition of his army; but finding that they were disposed to favour his opponents, he quitted the camp on the night of the 19th of August, accompanied only by a few of his officers and servants. He took the road of Rochefort in Liege, which was a neutral country. The fugitives were there, however, apprehended by an advanced party of Austrians, and M. de la Fayette has since been detained a prisoner in a succession of German dungeons. A generous attempt was lately made for his rescue; and he had actually escaped to some distance. We are extremely sorry to add, that it is but too probable he has been retaken. In the French revolution, this gentleman adhered to the royal party, and ought to have been received by the combined powers as an emigrant. His services in this country, where the seeds of the French revolution were planted, offer as plausible a reason as can be assigned for this peculiar atrocity of persecution.

A P P E N D I X.

N E W F O U N D L A N D.*

NEWFOUNDLAND is situated on the east of the gulf of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 degrees north latitude, and between 22 and 16 east longitude, separated from Labrador, or New-Britain, by the straits of Belleisle, and from Canada, by the Bay of St. Lawrence, being three hundred and fifty miles long, and two hundred broad. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and fleet, the sky being usually overcast. From the soil of this island, which is rocky and barren, the English are far from deriving any great advantage; for the cold is long-continued and severe, and the summer-heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable. However, it is watered by several good rivers, and has many large and good harbours. This island, whenever the continent shall come to fail of timber, (which on the sea-coast is perhaps no very remote prospect) will afford a large supply for masts, yards, and all sorts of lumber for the West India trade. But what at present it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fishery of cod, carried on upon those shoals, called the banks of Newfoundland. Great-Britain and North-America, at the lowest computation, annually employ three thousand sail of small craft of this fishery; on board of which, and on shore to cure and pack fish, are upwards of ten thousand hands; so that this fishery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a source of livelihood to many thousands of poor people, and an excellent nursery for the British navy. This fishery is computed to produce to England above thirteen hundred thousand dollars a year in gold and silver, remitted for the cod sold in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod, both on the great bank and the lesser ones, which lie to the east and south-east of this island, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but several other species of fish, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, New-England, and the isle of Cape-Breton.

This island, after various disputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their net on its northern shores; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the gulf of St. Lawrence, but with this limitation, that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England. The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated to the southward of Newfoundland, were also ceded to the French, who engaged to erect no fortifications on them, nor to keep more than fifty soldiers to enforce the police. By the last treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fisheries on the north and west coasts of the island; and the Americans are allowed the same privileges in fishing, as before their independence. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonaville, and St. John; but not above one thousand families remain here in the winter. A small squadron of men of war are sent out every spring to protect the fisheries and inhabitants, the commander of which is governor of the island.

I S L A N D O F S T. J O H N ' S.

THIS island lies in the gulf of St. Lawrence, near the northern coast of the province of Nova Scotia, and is about sixty miles long, and thirty or forty broad. It has several fine rivers, a rich soil, and is pleasantly situated. Charlottetown is its principal town, and is the residence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer on the island. The number of inhabitants is estimated at about five thousand. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, 1745, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to about four thousand, submitted quietly to the British arms. While the French possessed this island, they improved it to so much advantage, that it was called the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. It is attached to the province of Nova Scotia.

T H E I S L A N D O F C A P E B R E T O N.

Annexed to the province of Lower Canada.

THE island, or rather collection of islands, called by the French *Les Isles de Madame*, which lie so contiguous that they are commonly called but one, and comprehended under the name of the Island of Cape Breton, lies between latitude 45 and 47 degrees N. and between 59 and 60 degrees W. long. from London, or 14 and 15 deg. E. long. from Philadelphia, and about forty-five leagues to the eastward of Halifax. It is about one hundred miles in length, and fifty in breadth; and is separated from Nova Scotia by a narrow strait, called the *Gut of Canso*, which is the communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the gulf of St. Lawrence.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.) Except in the hilly parts, the surface of the country has but little solidity, being every where covered with a light

* This and the two succeeding articles were omitted in their proper places.

moſs, and with water. The dampneſs of the ſoil is exhale in fogs, without rendering the air unwholeſome. In other reſpects, the climate is very cold, owing either to the prodigious quantity of lakes, which cover above half the iſland, and remain frozen a long time; or to the number of foreſts, which totally intercept the rays of the ſun; the effect of which is beſides decreaſed by perpetual clouds.

The inhabitants never applied themſelves to agriculture, the ſoil being unſit for it. They often ſowed corn, but it ſeldom came to maturity; and, when it did thrive ſo much as to be worth reaping, it had degenerated ſo conſiderably, that it was not fit for ſeed for the next harveſt. They have only continued to plant a few pot herbs, which are tolerably well taſted, but muſt be renewed every year from abroad. The poorness and ſcarcity of paſture has likewiſe prevented the increaſe of cattle. In a word, the ſoil of Cape Breton ſeems calculated to invite none but fiſhermen and ſoldiers.

POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, &c.] On this iſland there are about one thouſand inhabitants, who have a lieutenant-governor reſident among them, appointed by the king. The principal towns are Sidney, the capital, and Louiſburg, which has the beſt harbour in the iſland.

This iſland may be conſidered as the key to Canada; and the very valuable fiſhery, in its neighbourhood, depends, for its protection, on the poſſeſſion of this iſland; as no nation can carry it on without ſome convenient harbour of ſtrength to ſupply and protect it; and Louiſburg is the principal one for theſe purpoſes.

TRADE.] The poſt trade was a very inconfiderable object. It was confined to the ſkins of a few lynxes, elks, muſk-rats, wild cats, bears, otters, and foxes, both of red, ſilver, and grey colour. Some of theſe were procured from a colony of Micmac Indians, who had ſettled on the iſland with the French, and never could raiſe more than ſixty men able to bear arms. The reſt came from St. John's, or the neighbouring continent. Greater advantages might poſſibly have been derived from the coal mines which abound in this iſland. They lie in a horizontal direction; and, being no more than ſix or eight feet below the ſurface, may be worked without digging deep, or draining off the waters. Notwithſtanding the prodigious demand for this coal from New-England, from the year 1745 to 1749, theſe mines would probably have been forſaken, had not the ſhips, which were ſent out to the French iſlands, wanted ballaſt. In one of theſe mines, a fire has been kindled, which could never yet be extinguished.

The people of Cape Breton did not ſend all their fiſh to Europe. They ſent part of it to the French ſouthern iſlands, on board twenty or twenty-five ſhips, from ſeventy to one hundred and forty tons burden. Beſides the cod, which made at leaſt half their cargo, they exported, to the other colonies, timber, planks, thin oak boards, ſalted ſalmon and mackerel, train oil, and ſea-coal. Theſe were paid for, ſome in ſugar and coffee, but chiefly in rum and molasses. The iſland could not conſume all theſe commodities. Canada took off but a ſmall part of the overplus; it was chiefly bought by the people of New-England, who gave in exchange fruits, vegetables, wood, bricks, and cattle. This trade of exchange was allowed; but a ſmuggling trade was added to it, carried on in flour and ſalt fiſh.

In 1743, while this iſland belonged to the French, they caught one million one hundred and forty-nine thouſand quintals of dry fiſh, and three million five hundred thouſand quintals of mud-fiſh, the value of both which, including three thouſand one hundred and ſixteen and a quarter tons of train oil, drawn from the blubber, amounted to nine hundred and twenty-fix thouſand five hundred and ſeventy-seven pounds ten ſhillings ſterling, according to the prime coſt of the fiſh at Newfoundland. The whole value of this trade annually, at that period, amounted to one million ſterling. No leſs than five hundred and ſixty-four ſhips, beſides ſhallops, and twenty-seven thouſand ſeamen, were employed in this trade. Charlevoix, in his hiſtory of France, ſays, "This fiſhery is a more valuable ſource of wealth and power to France, than even the mines of Peru and Mexico would be."

HISTORY.] Though ſome fiſhermen had long reſorted to this iſland every ſummer, not more than twenty or thirty had ever fixed there. The French, who took poſſeſſion of it in Auguſt, 1713, were properly the firſt inhabitants. They changed its name into that of *Iſle Royale*.

In the year 1714, ſome fiſhermen, who, till then, had lived in Newfoundland, ſettled on this iſland. It was expected that their number would ſoon have been increaſed by the Acadians, who were at liberty, from the treaties that had been granted them, to remove with all their effects and even to diſpoſe of their eſtates; but theſe hopes were diſappointed. The Acadians choſe rather to retain their poſſeſſions under the dominion of Britain, than to give them up for any precarious advantage they might derive from their attachment to France. Their place was ſupplied by ſome diſtreſſed adventurers from Europe, who came over, from time, to time, to Cape Breton, and the number of inhabitants gradually increaſed to four thouſand. They were ſettled at Louiſburg, Fort Dauphin, Port Toulouſé, Neruka, and on all the coaſts where they found a proper beach for drying the cod.

This iſland remained in poſſeſſion of the French till 1745, when it was captured for the crown of Britain, by a body of troops from New-England, under the command of lieutenant-general William Pepperell.

G E O G R A P H I C A L T A B L E ;

Containing the names and situations of the chief *CITIES, TOWNS, SEAS, GULFS, BAYS, STRAITS, CAPES*, and other remarkable places, in the known world; collected from the most authentic *Charts, Maps, and Observations*. The longitude is reckoned from *Philadelphia*, the present seat of government of the United States.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude.</i> D M.	<i>Longitude.</i> D M.
A Bbeville	Picardy	France	Europe	50-07 N.	76-54 E.
Aberdeen	Aberdeenshire	Scotland	Europe	57-22 N.	73-20 E.
Abo	Finland	Sweden	Europe	60-27 N.	97-18 W.
Acapulco	Mexico	North	America	17-10 N.	26-20 W.
Achem	Sumatra	East Indies	Asia	5-22 N.	170-29 E.
Adrianople	Romania	Turkey	Europe	42-00 N.	101-30 E.
Adriatic sea, or Gulf of Venice	Between	Italy and Tur- key	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Adventure (Isle)	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	17-05 S.	69-12 W.
Agde	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-18 N.	78-33 E.
Agen	Guienne	France	Europe	44-12 N.	75-40 E.
St. Agnes (lights)	Scillies	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	49-56 N.	68-19 E.
Agra	Agra	East Indies	Asia	26-43 N.	151-49 E.
Air	Airshire	Scotland	Europe	55-30 N.	70-25 E.
Aix	Provence	France	Europe	43-31 N.	80-31 E.
Albany	New-York	North	America	42-48 N.	1-30 E.
Alby	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-55 N.	77-13 E.
Aleppo	Syria	Turkey	Asia	35-45 N.	112-25 E.
Alexandretta	Syria	Turkey	Asia	36-35 N.	111-25 E.
Alexandria	Lower Egypt	Turkey	Africa	31-11 N.	105-21 E.
Alexandria	Virginia	United States	N. America	38-45 N.	2-10 W.
Algiers	Algiers	Barbary	Africa	36-49 N.	77-17 E.
Amboyna	Amboyna Isle	East Indies	Asia	4-25 S.	157-35 W.
Ambrym Isle	South	Pacific ocean	Asia	16-09 S.	116-43 W.
Amiens	Isle of France	France	Europe	49-53 N.	77-22 E.
AMSTERDAM	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-22 N.	79-49 E.
Amsterdam	Isle	Pacific ocean	Asia	21-09 S.	99-51 W.
Ancona	March of Ancona	Italy	Europe	43-37 N.	88-35 E.
Angra	Terceira Isle	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	38-39 N.	47-53 E.
Annapolis	Maryland	United States	North America	39-02 N.	1-40 W.
Antigua (St. John's Town)	Antigua Isle	Carib. sea	North America	17-04 N.	12-56 E.
Antioch	Syria	Turkey	Asia	36-30 N.	111-40 E.
Antwerp	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51-13 N.	79-27 E.
Apæ (Isle)	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	16-46 S.	121-28 W.
Archangel	Dwina	Russia	Europe	64-34 N.	113-59 E.
Archipelago	Islands of Greece		Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Ascension Isle		South Atlantic	Ocean	7-56 N.	60-33 E.
Astracan	Astracan	Russia	Asia	46-00 N.	126-00 E.
Athens	Achaia	Turkey	Europe	38-05 N.	98-57 E.
St. Augustin	Madagascar	South Indian sea	Africa	23-35 S.	118-13 E.
Augustin	East Florida	North	America	29-51 N.	6-40 W.
Ava	Ava	East Indies	Asia	20-20 N.	170-30 E.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Latitude.		Longitude.	
				D. M.	D. M.	D. M.	D. M.
Avignon	Provence	France	Europe	43-57	N.	79-53	E.
Aurora Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	15-08	S.	121-38	W.
B Agdad	Eyraca Arabia	Turkey	Asia	33-20	N.	118-51	E.
Balasure	Orixa	East Indies	Asia	21-20	N.	161-05	E.
Balbec	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33-30	N.	112-00	E.
Baldivia	Chili	South	America	39-35	S.	6-10	W.
Baltic sea	between	Germ. & Sweden	Europe				
Baltimore	Maryland	United States	North America	39-21	N.	2-48	W.
Barbuda Isle		Atlantic Ocean	North America	17-49	N.	13-05	E.
Barcelona	Catalonia	Spain	Europe	41-26	N.	77-18	E.
Bafil	Bafil	Switzerland	Europe	47-35	N.	82-34	E.
Baffe Terre	Guadaloupe	Carib. Sea	North America	15-59	N.	13-06	E.
Baffora	Eyraca Arabia	Turkey	Asia	30-45	N.	122-00	E.
Baftia	Corfica	Italy	Europe	42-20	N.	84-40	E.
Batavia	Java	East Indies	Asia	6-10	S.	178-04	W.
Bath	Somerfetshire	England	Europe	51-22	N.	72-44	E.
Bay of Biscay	Coast of	France	Europe			Atlantic Ocean.	
Bay of Bengal	Coast of	India	Asia			Indian Ocean.	
Bayeux	Normandy	France	Europe	49-16	N.	75-47	E.
Bayonne	Gafcony	France	Europe	43-29	N.	73-35	E.
Belfast	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	54-30	N.	68-30	E.
Belgrade	Servia	Turkey	Europe	45-00	N.	96-20	E.
Bencoolen	Sumatra	East Indies	Asia	3-49	S.	177-05	E.
Bender	Bessarabia	Turkey	Europe	46-40	N.	104-00	E.
Bennington	Vermont	United States	North America	42-42	N.	0-50	E.
BERLIN	Brandenburg	Germany	Europe	52-32	N.	88-31	E.
Bermudas	Bermuda Isles	Atlantic Ocean	North America	32-25	N.	11-37	E.
Bern	Bern	Switzerland	Europe	47-00	N.	82-20	E.
Berwick	Berwickshire	Scotland	Europe	55-48	N.	73-15	E.
Bethlehem	Pennsylvania	United States	North America	40-37	N.	0-14	W.
Bilboa	Biscay	Spain	Europe	43-26	N.	71-42	E.
Birmingham	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52-30	N.	73-10	E.
Black, or Euxine sea	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia				
Bokharia	Ufbec	Tartary	Asia	39-15	N.	142-00	E.
Bolabola	Isle	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-32	N.	76-47	W.
Boulogna	Bolognese	Italy	Europe	44-29	N.	86-26	E.
Bologne	Picardy	France	Europe	50-43	N.	76-31	E.
Bolfcherifkoi	Siberia	Russia	Asia	52-54	N.	128-18	W.
Bombay	Bombay Isle	East Indies	Asia	18-56	N.	147-43	E.
Boroughston- ness	Linlithgow- shire	Scotland	Europe	55-48	N.	71-16	E.
Boston	Lincolnshire	England	Europe	53-10	N.	75-25	E.
BOSTON	New England	North	America	42-25	N.	4-28	E.
Bourbon Isle	South	Indian ocean	Africa	20-51	S.	130-25	E.
Bourdeaux	Guienne	France	Europe	44-50	N.	74-31	E.
Breda	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51-40	N.	79-40	E.
Bremen	Lower Saxony	Germany	Europe	53-25	N.	83-20	E.
BRESLAU	Silesia	Bohemia	Europe	51-03	N.	92-13	E.
Brest	Bretany	France	Europe	48-22	N.	71-35	E.
Bridge Town	Barbadoes	Atlantic Ocean	North America	13-05	N.	16-57	E.
Bristol	Somerfetshire	England	Europe	51-33	N.	72-20	E.
British sea	between	Brit. and Germ.	Europe			Atlantic Ocean.	
Bruges	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-16	N.	71-55	E.
Brunfwick	Lower Saxony	Germany	Europe	52-30	N.	85-30	E.
Brussels	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	50-51	N.	79-26	E.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude.</i> D. M.	<i>Longitude.</i> D. M.
Buda	Lower	Hungary	Europe	47-40 N.	94-20 E.
Buenos Ayres	La Plata	Brazil	South America	34-35 S.	133-26 E.
Buckarast	Walachia	Turkey	Europe	44-26 N.	101-13 E.
Burlington	Jersey	North	America	40-08 N.	0-20 E.
Cabello (Port)	Terra Firma	South	America	10-03 N.	7-33 E.
CACHAO	Tonquin	East Indies	Asia	21-30 N.	180 E. or W.
Cadiz	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	36-31 N.	68-54 E.
Caen	Normandy	France	Europe	49-11 N.	74-44 E.
Cagliari	Sardinia	Italy	Europe	39-25 N.	84-38 E.
Cahors	Guienne	France	Europe	44-26 N.	76-31 E.
Cairo	Lower	Egypt	Africa	30-02 N.	106-23 E.
Calais	Picardy	France	Europe	50-57 N.	76-55 E.
Calcutta	Bengal	East Indies	Asia	22-34 N.	163-34 E.
Callao	Peru	South	America	12-01 N.	1-53 W.
Calmar	Smaland	Sweden	Europe	56-40 N.	91-26 E.
Cambray	Cambresis	Netherlands	Europe	50-10 N.	78-18 E.
Cambletown	Argyleshire	Scotland	Europe	55-30 N.	69-20 E.
Cambodia	Cambodia	East Indies	Asia	13-30 N.	180 E. or W.
Cambridge	Cambridgeshire	England	Europe	52-12 N.	75-09 E.
Cambridge	New	England	North America	42-25 N.	3-55 E.
Canary, N. E. Point.	Canary Isles	Atlantic ocean	Africa	28-13 N.	59-27 E.
Candia	Candia Island	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	35-18 N.	100-23 E.
Candy	Ceylon	Indian ocean	Asia	7-54 N.	154-00 E.
Canso Port	Nova Scotia	North	America	45-20 N.	14-10 E.
Canterbury	Kent	England	Europe	51-16 N.	76-15 E.
Canton	Canton	China	Asia	23-07 N.	161-53 W.
Cape Clear	Irish sea	Ireland	Europe	51-18 N.	63-50 E.
— Comorin	On this side the Ganges	East Indies	Asia	7-56 N.	153-10 E.
— Finisterre	Galicia	Spain	Europe	42-51 N.	65-48 E.
— Florida	East Florida	North	America	24-57 N.	5-30 W.
— of Good Hope	Hottentots	Caffraria	Africa	34-29 S.	93-28 E.
— Horn	Terra del Fuego	South	America	55-58 S.	7-39 E.
— St. Vincent	Algarve	Portugal	Europe	37-02 N.	66-03 E.
— Verd		Negroland	Africa	14-45 N.	57-32 E.
Cardigan	Cardiganshire	Wales	Europe	52-10 N.	70-22 E.
Carlestroon	Schonen	Sweden	Europe	56-20 N.	90-31 E.
Carlisle	Cumberland	England	Europe	54-47 N.	72-25 E.
Carthage Ruins	Tunis	Barbary	Africa	36-30 N.	84-00 E.
Carthage	Terra Firma	South	America	10-26 N.	0-21 W.
Carthage	Murcia	Spain	Europe	37-37 N.	73-57 E.
Casan	Casan	Siberia	Asia	55-43 N.	124-13 E.
Caspian Sea	Russia	Tartary	Asia		
Cassel	Hesse Cassel	Germany	Europe	51-19 N.	84-34 E.
Castres	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-37 N.	77-19 E.
St. Catherines Isle	Atlantic	Ocean	South America	27-55 S.	52-48 E.
Cattegat	Between	Swed. and Den.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Cavan	Cavan	Ireland	Europe	54-51 N.	68-18 E.
Cayenne	Cayenne Isle	South	America	4-56 N.	23-00 E.
Cette	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-23 N.	78-47 E.
Ceuta	Fez	Morocco	Africa	35-04 N.	68-30 E.
Challon	Burgundy	France	Europe	46-46 N.	79-56 E.
Chandernagore	Bengal	East Indies	Asia	22-51 N.	163-34 E.
CHARLESTON	South Carolina	United States	North America	32-45 N.	4-12 W.
Charlestown	Massachusetts	United States	North America	42-24 N.	4-28 E.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude.</i> D. M.	<i>Longitude.</i> D. M.
Charleton	Isle	Hudson's Bay	North America	52-03 N.	4-00 W.
Chartres	Orleanois	France	Europe	48-26 N.	76-33 E.
Cherbourg	Normandy	France	Europe	49-38 N.	73-27 E.
Chester	Cheshire	England	Europe	53-15 N.	72-00 E.
Christmas Sound	Terra del Fuego	South	America	55-21 N.	5-03 E.
St. Christopher's Isle	Caribbean	Sea	North America	17-15 N.	12-22 E.
Civita Vecchia	Patro Di S. Petro	Italy	Europe	42-05 N.	86-51 E.
Clerke's Isles	Atlantic	Ocean	South America	55-05 S.	40-23 E.
Clermont	Auvergne	France	Europe	45-46 N.	78-10 E.
Colmar	Alsace	France	Europe	48-04 N.	82-27 E.
Cologne	Elec. of Cologne	Germany	Europe	50-55 N.	82-10 E.
Constance	Swabia	Germany	Europe	47-37 N.	84-12 E.
CONSTANTINO- PLE	Romania	Turkey	Europe	41-01 N.	103-53 E.
COPENHAGEN	Zealand Isle	Denmark	Europe	55-40 N.	87-40 E.
Corinth	Morea	Turkey	Europe	37-30 N.	97-00 E.
Cork	Munster	Ireland	Europe	51-53 N.	66-37 E.
Coventry	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52-25 N.	73-35 E.
Cowes	Isle of Wight	England	Europe	50-46 N.	73-46 E.
Cracow	Little Poland	Poland	Europe	50-10 N.	94-55 E.
Cremsmuhster	Arch-duchy of Austria	Germany	Europe	48-03 N.	89-12 E.
Cummin	Isle	N. Pacific Ocean	Asia	31-40 N.	155-51 W.
Curasso	Curassou Isle	West Indies	America	11-56 N.	6-40 E.
Cusco	Peru	South	America	12-25 S.	5-00 E.
D acca	Bengal	East Indies	Asia	23-30 N.	164-20 E.
Damascus	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33-15 N.	112-20 E.
Dantzic	Polish Prussia	Poland	Europe	54-22 N.	98-38 E.
Dax	Gasony	France	Europe	43-42 N.	74-02 E.
Delft	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-06 N.	79-05 E.
Delhi	Delhi	East Indies	Asia	29-00 N.	151-30 E.
Derbent	Daghistan	Persia	Asia	41-41 N.	125-30 E.
Derby	Derbyshire	England	Europe	52-58 N.	73-30 E.
Derry	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	54-52 N.	67-20 E.
Dieppe	Normandy	France	Europe	49-55 N.	75-59 E.
Dieu	Guzerat	East Indies	Asia	21-37 N.	144-30 E.
Dijon	Burgundy	France	Europe	47-19 N.	79-57 E.
Dillingen	Swabia	Germany	Europe	48-30 N.	85-19 E.
Dol	Bretagne	France	Europe	48-33 N.	73-19 E.
Dominique	Windward Isles	West-Indies	America	15-18 N.	13-38 E.
Dover	Kent	England	Europe	51-07 N.	76-13 E.
Dover	Delaware	United States	N. America	39-10 N.	0-34 W.
DRESDEN	Saxony	Germany	Europe	51-00 N.	88-36 E.
DREUX	Orleanois	France	Europe	48-44 N.	76-16 E.
DUBLIN	Leinster	Ireland	Europe	53-21 N.	68-59 E.
Dumbarton	Dumbartonshire	Scotland	Europe	55-44 N.	70-40 E.
Dumfries	Dumfriesshire	Scotland	Europe	55-08 N.	71-35 E.
Dunbar	Haddington	Scotland	Europe	55-58 N.	72-35 E.
Dundee	Forfar	Scotland	Europe	56-26 N.	72-12 E.
Dungeness	Kent	England	Europe	50-52 N.	76-04 E.
Dunkirk	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-02 N.	77-27 E.
Durham	Durham	England	Europe	54-48 N.	73-35 E.
E Aoowe Isle	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	21-24 S.	99-25 W.
Easter Isle	Pacific	Ocean	America	27-06 S.	34-41 W.
Eastern ocean	btw. the N. W.	of N. Amer. & N.	E of Asia, N. Pacific ocean.		
EDINBURGH	Edinburghshire	Scotland	Europe	55-57 N.	71-53 E.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude.</i> D M.	<i>Longitude.</i> D M.
Edenton	North Carolina	United States	North America	36-04 N.	2-00 W.
Edystone	English Channel	England	Europe	50-08 N.	70-41 E.
Elbing	Prussia	Poland	Europe	54-15 N.	95-00 E.
Embsen	Westphalia	Germany	Europe	53-25 N.	82-10 E.
Enatum Isle	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	20-10 S.	115-01 W.
Enebrun	Dauphine	France	Europe	44-34 N.	81-34 E.
English channel	between	England & France	Europe		Atlantic Ocean.
Ephesus	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	38-01 N.	102-30 E.
Erramanga Isle	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	18-46 S.	115-37 E.
Erzerum	Turcomania	Turkey	Asia	39-56 N.	117-05 E.
Ethiopian Sea,	Coast of	Guinea	Africa		Atlantic Ocean.
Evereux	Normandy	France	Europe	49-01 N.	76-13 E.
Eustatia Town	Carib. sea	West Indies	N. America	17-29 N.	11-55 E.
Exeter	Devonshire	England	Europe	50-44 N.	71-31 E.
Falkirk	Stirling	Scotland	Europe	55-88 N.	71-12 E.
Falmouth	Cornwall	England	Europe	50-08 N.	70-03 E.
Fayal Town	Azores	Atlantic Ocean.	Europe	38-32 N.	46-24 E.
Ferdinand Naron- ka		Brasil	South America	3-56 S.	42-17 E.
Ferrara	Ferrarese	Italy	Europe	44-54 N.	86-41 E.
Ferro (Town)	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	27-47 N.	57-20 E.
Ferrol	Gallicia	Spain	Europe	43-30 N.	66-20 E.
Fez	Fez	Morocco	Africa	33-30 N.	69-00 E.
Florence	Tuscany	Italy	Europe	43-46 N.	86-07 E.
Flores	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	39-34 N.	44-07 E.
St. Flour	Auvergne	France	Europe	45-01 N.	78-10 E.
Fort St. David	Coromandel	East Indies	Asia	12-05 N.	155-55 E.
France (Isle of)	Indian	Ocean	Africa	20-09 S.	132-33 E.
Francfort on the Main	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49-55 N.	83-40 E.
Frawenburgh	Polish	Prussia	Europe	54-22 N.	95-12 E.
Fuego Isle	Cape Verd	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	14-56 N.	50-37 E.
Funchal	Madeira	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	32-37 N.	57-59 E.
Furneaux Isle	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	17-11 S.	68-01 W.
GAP	Dauphine	France	Europe	44-33 N.	81-09 E.
GENEVA	Geneva	Switzerland	Europe	46-12 N.	81-05 E.
GENOA	Genoa	Italy	Europe	44-25 N.	83-80 E.
Genes	Savoy	Italy	Europe	44-25 N.	83-40 E.
St. George's Isle	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	38-39 N.	47-05 E.
St. George's Fort	Coromandel	East Indies	Asia	13-04 N.	155-33 E.
St. George Town	Bermudas	Atlantic Ocean	North America	32-45 N.	11-30 E.
Ghent	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-03 N.	78-48 E.
Gibraltar	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	36-05 N.	69-43 E.
Glasgow	Lanerkshire	Scotland	Europe	55-51 N.	70-50 E.
Gloucester	Gloucestershire	England	Europe	51-05 N.	72-44 E.
Goa	Malabar	East Indies	Asia	15-31 N.	148-50 E.
Goat Isle	Indian	Ocean	Asia	13-55 N.	164-53 W.
Gombroom	Farsistan	Perfia	Asia	27-30 N.	149-20 E.
Gomera Isle	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-05 N.	57-57 E.
Good Hope Town	Hottentots	Caffres	Africa	33-55 S.	93-28 E.
Goee	Atlantic	Ocean	Africa	14-40 N.	57-40 E.
Gottenburgh	Gothland	Sweden	Europe	57-42 N.	86-43 E.
Gottengen	Haover	Germany	Europe	51-31 N.	84-58 E.
Granville	Normandy	France	Europe	48-50 N.	73-28 E.
Gratiosa	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	39-02 N.	47-07 E.
Gratz	Stiria	Germany	Europe	47-04 N.	90-29 E.
Gravelines	French Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50-59 N.	77-13 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Latitude.	Longitude.
				D. M.	D. M.
Greenock	Renfrewshire	Scotland	Europe	55-52 N.	70-38 E.
Gryphswald	Pomerania	Germany	Europe	54-04 N.	88-43 E.
Guadaloupe	Caribbean	Sea	North America	15-59 N.	13-06 E.
Guam	Ladrone Isles	East Indies	Asia	14-00 N.	144-30 W.
Gulf of Bothnia	Coast of	Sweden	Europe	Baltic Sea.	
— of California	between	California & Mex.	North America	Pacific Ocean.	
— of Finland	between	Sweden & Russia	Europe	Baltic Sea.	
— of St. Lawrence	Coast of	Nova Scotia	North America	Atlantic Ocean.	
— of Mexico	Coast of	Mexico	North America	Atlantic Ocean.	
— of Ormus	between	Persia and Arabia	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
— of Persia	between	Persia & Arabia	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
— of Venice	between	Italy and Turkey	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
H Aerlem	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-20 N.	79-10 E.
Hague	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-04 N.	79-22 E.
Hamburgh	Holstein	Germany	Europe	53-34 N.	84-53 E.
Halifax	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-45 N.	73-08 E.
HALIFAX	Nova Scotia	North	America	44-40 N.	11-45 E.
Hanover	Saxony	Germany	Europe	52-32 N.	84-35 E.
Hartfort	Connecticut	United States	America	41-50 N.	2-10 E.
Hastings	Suffex	England	Europe	50-52 N.	79-06 E.
Havannah	Cuba	Island	North America	23-11 N.	7-13 W.
Havre de Grace	Normandy	France	Europe	49-29 N.	75-10 E.
La Heese	Dutch Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-25 N.	79-50 E.
St. Helena	South	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	15-55 S.	69-16 E.
(Ja. Town)					
Hellespont	Mediterranean and Black Sea	Europe and	Asia		
Hernosand	West Bothnia	Sweden	Europe	62-38 N.	92-58 E.
Hereford	Herefordshire	England	Europe	52-06 N.	72-22 E.
Hervey's Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-17 S.	83-43 W.
Hoai-Naghan	Kian-Nan	China	Asia	33-34 N.	166-06 W.
La Hogue Cape	Normandy	France	Europe	49-44 N.	73-09 W.
Hood's Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	9-26 S.	63-47 W.
Hoogstraten	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51-24 N.	79-52 E.
Howe's Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-46 S.	79-01 W.
Huaheine Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-44 S.	76-01 W.
Hudson's bay	Coast of	Labrador	North America	Atlantic Ocean.	
Hull	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-45 N.	74-48 E.
J Akutskoi	Siberia	Russia	Asia	62-01 N.	155-08 W.
Janeiro (Rio)		Brasil	South America	22-54 S.	32-22 E.
Jassy	Moldavia	Turkey	Europe	47-08 N.	102-34 E.
Java Head	Java Isle	East Indies	Asia	6-49 S.	178-05 W.
Jeddo	Japan Isle	East Indies	Asia	36-20 N.	146-00 W.
Jerusalem	Palestine	Turkey	Asia	31-55 N.	110-25 E.
Immer Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-16 S.	115-09 W.
Indian Ocean		Coast of India	Asia		
Ingoldstadt	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48-45 N.	86-27 E.
Inverness	Invernesshire	Scotland	Europe	57-33 N.	70-58 E.
St. John's Town	Antigua	Leeward Isles	North America	17-04 N.	11-56 E.
St. John's Town	Newfoundland	North	America	47-32 N.	22-39 E.
St. Joseph's	California	Mexico	North America	23-03 N.	34-37 W.
Irish sea, between	Britain & Ireland		Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Irraname Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-31 S.	114-34 W.
Islamabad	Bengal	East Indies	Asia	22-20 N.	166-50 E.
Isle of Pines	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	22-38 S.	117-17 W.
ISPAHAN	Irac. Agem	Persia	Asia	32-25 N.	127-55 E.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude.</i> D. M.	<i>Longitude.</i> D. M.
Isthmus of Suez					
— of Corinth					
— of Panama					
— of Malacca					
Ivica Isle	Mediterr. Sea	Italy	Europe	38-50 N.	76-40 E.
Judda	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	21-29 N.	124-27 E.
Juthia	Siam	East Indies	Asia	14-18 N.	175-55 E.
K Amscatka	Siberia	Russia	Asia	57-10 N.	122-00 W.
Kedgere	Bengal	East Indies	Asia	21-48 N.	163-55 E.
Kelso	Roxboroughshire	Scotland	Europe	55-38 N.	72-48 E.
Kilmarnock	Airshire	Scotland	Europe	55-38 N.	70-30 E.
Kinsale	Munster	Ireland	Europe	51-32 N.	66-40 E.
KINGSTON	Jamaica	West Indies	America	18-15 N.	1-38 W.
Kiow	Ukraine	Russia	Europe	50-30 N.	106-12 E.
Kola	Lapland	Russia	Europe	68-52 N.	108-13 E.
Koningsberg	Prussia	Poland	Europe	54-43 N.	96-35 E.
L Aguna	Teneriffe	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	28-28 N.	58-47 E.
Lahor	Lahor	East Indies	Asia	32-40 N.	150-30 E.
Lancaster	Lancashire	England	Europe	54-05 N.	77-55 E.
Lancaster	Pennsylvania	United States	North America	40-02 N.	1-20 W.
Landau	Alsace	France	Europe	49-11 N.	83-02 E.
Landscroon	Schonen	Sweden	Europe	55-52 N.	87-51 E.
Lausanne	Canton of Vaud	Switzerland	Europe	46-31 N.	81-50 E.
Leeds	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-48 N.	73-31 E.
Leicester	Leicestershire	England	Europe	52-38 N.	73-57 E.
Leipfic	Saxony	Germany	Europe	51-19 N.	87-25 E.
Leith	Edinburgshire	Scotland	Europe	55-58 N.	72-00 E.
Leper's Island	S. Pacific	Ocean	Asia	15-23 S.	116-57 W.
Leskard	Cornwall	England	Europe	50-26 N.	70-24 E.
Lesparre	Guienne	France	Europe	45-18 N.	74-08 E.
Levant sea	Coast of	Syria	Asia		Mediterr. Sea.
LExINGTON	Kentucky	United States	North America	38-25 N.	10-09 W.
Leyden	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-10 N.	79-32 E.
Leige	Bishopric of Leige	Netherlands	Europe	50-37 N.	80-40 E.
Lima	Peru	South America		12-01 S.	1-44 W.
Limeric	Limerick county	Ireland	Europe	52-35 N.	66-22 E.
Limoges	Limoges	France	Europe	45-49 N.	76-20 E.
Lincoln	Lincolnshire	England	Europe	53-15 N.	74-33 E.
Linlithgow	Linlithgowshire	Scotland	Europe	55-56 N.	71-30 E.
Lintz	Austria	Germany	Europe	48-16 N.	88-57 E.
Lisbon	Estremadura	Portugal	Europe	38-42 N.	65-54 E.
Lisle	French Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50-37 N.	78-09 E.
Litchfield	Staffordshire	England	Europe	52-43 N.	73-56 E.
Lizard Point	Cornwall	England	Europe	49-57 N.	69-50 E.
LONDON	Middlesex	England	Europe	51-31 N.	75-00 E.
Londonderry	Londonderry	Ireland	Europe	50-00 N.	67-20 E.
Loretto	Pope's Territory	Italy	Europe	43-15 N.	89-15 E.
Louisburgh	Cape Breton Isle	North America		45-55 N.	15-12 E.
Louvain	Austrian Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	50-53 N.	79-49 E.
Louveau	Siam	East Indies	Asia	12-42 N.	175-56 E.
Lubec	Holstein	Germany	Europe	54-00 N.	86-40 E.
St. Lucia Isle	Windward Isles	West-Indies	North America	13-24 N.	14-24 W.
Lunden	Gothland	Sweden	Europe	55-41 N.	88-26 E.
Luneville	Lorraine	France	Europe	48-35 N.	81-35 E.
Luxembourg	Luxembourg	Netherlands	Europe	49-37 N.	81-16 E.
Lyons	Lyons	France	Europe	45-45 N.	79-54 E.
M Acao	Canton	China	Asia	22-12 N.	171-09 W.
Macassar	Celebes Isle	East Indies	Asia	5-09 S.	165-07 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarters.	Latitude.		Longitude.	
				D. M.	D. M.	D. M.	D. M.
Madeira Funchal	Atlantic	Ocean	Africa	32-37 N.		52-59 E.	
Madras	Coromandel	East Indies	Asia	13-04 N.		155-33 E.	
MADRID	New Castile	Spain	Europe	40-25 N.		78-20 E.	
Magdalena Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	10-25 S.		63-44 W.	
Mahon (Port)	Minorca	Mediter. sea	Europe	39-50 N.		78-53 E.	
Majorca	Isle	Mediter. sea	Europe	39-35 N.		77-34 E.	
Malacca	Malacca	East Indies	Asia	2-12 N.		177-10 E.	
Malines	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51-01 N.		79-33 E.	
Mallicola Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-15 N.		117-22 W.	
St. Maloes	Bretagne	France	Europe	48-38 N.		73-07 E.	
Malta Isle	Mediterranean	Sea	Africa	35-54 N.		89-33 E.	
Maullia	Luconia Philip. Isles	East Indies	Asia	14-36 N.		164-02 E.	
MANTUA	Mantua	Italy	Europe	45-20 N.		85-47 E.	
Marigalante Isle	Atlantic	Ocean	South America	15-55 N.		13-54 E.	
MARIETTA	N. W. Territory	United States	America	39-34 N.		6-40 W.	
Marseilles	Provence	France	Europe	43-17 N.		80-27 E.	
St. Mar ha	St. Martha	Terra Firma	America	11-26 N.		1-01 E.	
St. Martin's Isle	Caribbean Isles	West Indies	America	18-04 N.		12-03 E.	
Martinico Isle	Caribbean Isles	West Indies	America	14-44 N.		13-44 E.	
St. Mary's Isle	Scilly Isles	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	49-57 N.		68-22 E.	
St. Mary's Town	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	36-56 N.		49-56 E.	
Maskelyne Isles	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-32 S.		116-56 W.	
Mauritius	Indian	Ocean	Africa	20-09 S.		132-34 E.	
Marua Isles	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-25 S.		132-23 W.	
Mayence	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49-54 N.		83-25 E.	
Mayo Isle	Cape Verd	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	15-10 N.		52-00 W.	
Meaux	Campagne	France	Europe	48-57 N.		77-57 E.	
Mecca	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	21-45 N.		116-00 E.	
Medina	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	25-00 N.		114-53 E.	
Mediter. Sea	Between	Europe and	Africa				
Mequinez	Fez	Barbary	Africa	34-30 N.		81-00 E.	
Messina	Sicily Island	Italy	Europe	38-30 N.		90-40 E.	
Mergui	Siam	East Indies	Asia	12-12 N.		173-13 E.	
Mexico	Mexico	North	America	19-54 N.		175-00 W.	
Miateca Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-52 S.		73-01 W.	
St. Michael's Isle	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	37-47 N.		49-23 E.	
Middleburgh Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	21-20 S.		98-31 W.	
MILAN	Milanese	Italy	Europe	45-25 N.		84-30 E.	
Milford Haven	Pembrokeshire	Wales	Europe	51-45 N.		69-45 E.	
Mocha	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	13-40 N.		118-50 E.	
MODENA	Modena	Italy	Europe	44-34 N.		86-17 E.	
Montreal	Canada	North	America	45-35 N.		1-49 E.	
Montpelier	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-36 N.		78-37 E.	
Montague Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-26 S.		116-24 W.	
Montrose	Forfar	Scotland	Europe	56-34 N.		72-40 E.	
Montserrat Isle	Caribbean Isles	West Indies	America	16-47 N.		12-48 E.	
Morocco	Morocco	Barbary	Africa	30-32 N.		68-50 E.	
Moscow	Moscow	Russia	Europe	55-45 N.		112-50 E.	
Munich	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48-09 N.		86-35 E.	
Munster	Westphalia	Germany	Europe	52-00 N.		82-10 E.	
N Amur	Namur	Netherlands	Europe	50-28 N.		79-49 E.	
Nancy	Lorraine	France	Europe	48-41 N.		81-16 E.	
Nangasachi	Japan	N. Pacific Ocean	Asia	32-32 N.		156-09 W.	
Nanking	Kiangnan	China	Asia	32-00 N.		166-30 W.	
Nantes	Bretagne	France	Europe	47-13 N.		73-32 E.	
Naples	Naples	Italy	Europe	40-50 N.		89-18 E.	

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

(9)

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Latitude. Longitude.	
				D. M.	D. M.
Narva	Livonia	Russia	Europe	59-00 N.	102-35 E.
NEWHAVEN	Connecticut	United States	America	41-19 N.	2-00 E.
NEW-YORK	New-York	North	America	40-40 N.	1-00 E.
Newcastle	Northumberland	England	Europe	55-03 N.	73-36 E.
Newport	Rhode-Island	North	America	41-35 N.	3-54 E.
Nice	Piedmont	Italy	Europe	43-41 N.	82-22 E.
St. Nicholas Mole	Hispaniola	West Indies	America	19-49 N.	1-36 E.
Nieuport	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-07 N.	77-50 E.
Nineveh	Curdistan	Turkey	Asia	36-00 N.	120-00 E.
Ningpo	Chekiang	China	Asia	29-57 N.	165-37 W.
Norfolk Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	29-01 S.	116-45 W.
Norfolk	Virginia	United States	America	36-55 N.	1-20 W.
Norristown	Pennsylvania	North	America	40-09 N.	0-18 W.
North Cape	Wardhus	Lapland	Europe	71-10 N.	101-02 E.
Northampton	Northamptonshire	England	Europe	52-15 N.	74-05 E.
Norwich	Norfolk	England	Europe	52-40 N.	76-25 E.
Nuremberg	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49-27 N.	86-12 E.
Nottingham	Nottinghamshire	England	Europe	53-00 N.	73-54 E.
Ochotskoi	Siberia	Russia	Asia	59-20 N.	141-43 E.
Ohevahoa	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	9-40 S.	63-56 W.
Isle					
Ohitahoo Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	9-55 S.	64-01 W.
Oleron Isle	Saintonge	France	Europe	46-02 N.	73-40 E.
Olinde	Brasil	South	America	8-13 S.	40-00 E.
Olmutz	Moravia	Bohemia	Europe	49-30 N.	91-45 E.
Olympie	Greece	Turkey	Europe	37-30 N.	97-00 E.
St. Omer's	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50-44 N.	77-19 E.
Onateayo Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	9-58 S.	63-46 W.
Oporto	Douro	Portugal	Europe	41-10 N.	66-38 E.
Oran	Algiers	Barbary	Africa	36-30 N.	75-05 E.
Orenburg	Tartary	Russia	Asia	51-46 N.	130-14 E.
L'Orient, Port	Bretagne	France	Europe	47-45 N.	71-40 E.
Orleans	Orleannois	France	Europe	47-54 N.	76-59 E.
Orleans, New	Louisiana	North	America	29-57 N.	14-53 W.
Ormus	Ormicos Isle	Persia	Asia	26-50 N.	132-00 E.
Orotava	Teneriffe	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28-23 N.	58-41 E.
Orsk	Tartary	Russia	Asia	51-12 N.	115-37 E.
Osnaburg Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Europe	17-52 S.	136-59 W.
Ostend	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-13 N.	78-00 E.
Otaheite	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-29 S.	74-35 W.
Owhyee	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	22-10 S.	86-00 W.
Oxford Observa- tory	Oxfordshire	England	Europe	51-45 N.	73-50 E.
Pacific or Orient. al Ocean		Asia and	America		
Padua	Paduano	Italy	Europe	45-22 N.	87-00 E.
Paisley	Renfrewshire	Scotland	Europe	55-48 N.	70-52 E.
PALERMO	Sicily Isle	Italy	Europe	38-30 N.	88-43 E.
Palliser's Isles	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	15-38 S.	71-25 W.
Palma Isle	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28-36 N.	57-15 E.
Palmerston's Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	38-00 S.	87-52 W.
Palmyra	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33-00 N.	114-00 E.
Panama	Darien	Terra Firma	South America	8-47 N.	5-16 W.
Paoom Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-30 S.	116-27 W.
PARIS (Observ.)	Isle of France	France	Europe	48-50 N.	77-25 E.
Parma	Parmasan	Italy	Europe	44-45 N.	85-51 E.
Patna	Bengal	East Indies	Asia	25-45 N.	158-00 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Latitude.		Longitude.	
				D. M.	D. M.	D. M.	D. M.
Patrixford	Iceland	N. Atlan. Ocean	Europe	65-35	N.	60-55	E.
Pau	Bearn	France	Europe	43-15	N.	74-56	E.
St. Paul's Isle	South	Indian Ocean	Africa	37-51	S.	152-53	E.
Pegu	Pegu	East Indies	Asia	17-00	N.	172-00	E.
Peking	Petchi-li	China	Asia	39-54	N.	168-31	W.
Pelew	Islands	Pacific	Ocean	7-00	N.	150-00	W.
Pembroke	Pembrokeshire	Wales	Europe	51-45	N.	70-10	E.
PENSACOLA	West Florida	North	America	30-22	S.	12-20	W.
Penzance	Cornwall	England	Europe	50-08	N.	69-00	E.
Perigueux	Guienne	France	Europe	45-11	N.	75-48	E.
Perinaldi	Genoa	Italy	Europe	43-53	N.	82-45	E.
Perth	Perthshire	Scotland	Europe	56-22	N.	71-48	E.
Perth-Amboy	New-Jersey	North	America	40-30	N.	00-40	E.
Persepolis	Irac Agem	Persia	Asia	30-30	N.	129-00	E.
St. Peter's Fort	Martinico	West Indies	N. America	14-44	N.	13-44	E.
St. Peter's Isle	North	Atlantic Ocean	America	46-46	N.	18-48	E.
PETERSBURG	Ingria	Russia	Europe	59-56	N.	105-24	E.
Petropawloskoi	Kamtscatka	Russia	Asia	53-01	N.	126-20	W.
PHILADELPHIA	Pennsylvania	North	America	39-56	N.	First merid.	
St. Philip's Fort	Minorca	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	39-50	N.	78-53	E.
Pickersgill Isle	South	Atlantic Ocean	America	54-42	S.	38-07	E.
Pico	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	38-28	N.	46-39	E.
Pines, Isle of	N. Caledonia	Pacific Ocean	Asia	22-38	S.	117-17	W.
Pisa	Tuscany	Italy	Europe	43-43	N.	85-17	E.
Placentia	Newfoundland	North	America	47-26	N.	20-00	E.
	Isle						
Plymouth	Devonshire	England	Europe	50-22	N.	70-50	E.
Plymouth	Massachusetts	New-England	North America	41-48	N.	71-35	E.
Pollingen	Swabia	Germany	Europe	47-48	N.	85-48	E.
Pondicherry	Coromandel	East Indies	Asia	11-41	N.	154-57	E.
Ponoi	Lapland	Russia	Europe	67-06	N.	111-28	E.
Porto Bello	Terra Firma	South	America	9-33	N.	4-45	W.
Porto Sancto Isle	Madeira	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	32-58	N.	58-40	E.
Port Royal	Jamaica	West Indies	America	18-00	N.	1-40	E.
Port Royal	Martinico	West Indies	America	14-35	N.	13-56	E.
Portland Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	39-25	S.	106-43	W.
Portland Isle	North	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	63-22	N.	56-11	E.
Portsmouth	Hampshire	England	Europe	50-47	N.	73-59	E.
Portsmouth	New England	North	America	43-10	N.	4-40	E.
Potosi	Peru	South	America	21-00	S.	2-00	W.
Prague		Bohemia	Europe	50-04	N.	80-50	E.
Presburg	Upper	Hungary	Europe	48-20	N.	57-30	E.
Preston	Lancashire	England	Europe	53-45	N.	72-10	E.
Prince of Wales' Fort	New N. Wales	North	America	58-47	N.	18-58	W.
Providence	New-England	North	America	41-50	N.	3-39	E.
Pulo Candor Isle	Indian Ocean	East Indies	Asia	8-40	N.	177-35	W.
Pulo Timor Isle	Gulf of Siam	East Indies	Asia	3-00	N.	179-30	E.
Pylestaart Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	22-23	S.	99-24	W.
Q uebec	Canada	North	America	46-55	N.	5-12	E.
Q ueen Charlotte's Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	10-11	S.	88-35	W.
St. Quintin	Picardy	France	Europe	49-50	N.	78-22	E.
Quito	Peru	South	America	0-13	S.	2-55	W.
R agus	Dalmatia	Venice	Europe	42-45	N.	93-25	E.
R amhead	Cornwall	England	Europe	50-18	N.	70-45	E.
Ratisbon	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48-56	N.	87-05	E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Latitude.	Longitude.
				D. M.	D. M.
Rhee Isle	Aunis	France	Europe	46-14 N.	73-31 E.
Recif	Brazil	South	America	8-10 S.	39-30 E.
Rennes	Bretagne	France	Europe	48-06 N.	73-24 E.
Resolution Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-23 S.	65-20 W.
Rheims	Champagne	France	Europe	49-14 N.	79-07 E.
Rhodes	Rhode-Island	Levant sea	Asia	36-20 N.	103-00 E.
Richmond	Virginia	United States	America	37-40 N.	2-50 W.
Riga	Livonia	Russia	Europe	56-55 N.	99-00 E.
Rimini	Romagna	Italy	Europe	44-03 N.	87-39 E.
Rochelle	Aunis	France	Europe	46-09 N.	73-56 E.
Rochfort	Saintonge	France	Europe	46-02 N.	74-07 E.
Rock of Lisbon	Mouth of Tagus	Portugal	Europe	38-45 N.	65-30 E.
Rodez	Guienne	France	Europe	44-21 N.	77-39 E.
Rodrigues Isle	South	Indian Ocean	Africa	10-40 N.	138-15 E.
Rome	Pope's Territory	Italy	Europe	41-53 N.	87-34 E.
Rotterdam	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	51-56 N.	79-33 E.
Rotterdam Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	20-16 N.	98-35 W.
Rouen	Normandy	France	Europe	49-26 N.	74-00 E.
Saba Isle	Caribbean sea	West Indies	America	17-39 N.	11-48 E.
Sagan	Silesia	Germany	Europe	51-42 N.	90-27 E.
St. Augustin	East Florida	North	America	29-45 N.	6-12 W.
St. Domingo	Carib. Sea	West Indies	America	18-20 N.	5-00 E.
St. George's Channel	Between	England and Ireland	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
St. Jago	Chili	South	America	34-00 S.	2-00 W.
St. Juan	California	North	America	26-25 N.	39-09 W.
St. Salvador	Brasil	South	America	11-58 S.	37-00 E.
Salem	Massachusetts	United States	America	42-23 N.	4-08 E.
Salisbury	Wiltshire	England	Europe	51-00 N.	73-15 E.
Sall Isle	North	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	16-38 N.	52-09 E.
Salonichi	Macedonia	Turkey	Europe	40-41 N.	98-13 E.
Salvage Isles	North	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	30-00 N.	59-11 E.
Samana	Hispaniola	West Indies	America	19-15 N.	144-11 E.
Samarcand	Usbec	Tartary	Asia	40-40 N.	144-00 E.
Samaria, Ruins	Holy Land	Turkey	Asia	32-40 N.	113-00 E.
Sandwich Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17-41 S.	116-22 W.
Santa Cruz	Teneriffe	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28-27 N.	58-49 E.
Santa Fe	New Mexico	North	America	36-00 N.	29-00 W.
Savage Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-02 S.	94-25 W.
Savannah	Georgia	North	America	31-55 N.	5-20 W.
Saunders's Isle	South. Georgia	S. Atlantic Ocean	South America	58-00 S.	48-07 E.
Sayd or Thebes	Upper	Egypt	Africa	27-00 N.	107-20 E.
Scarborough	Yorkshire	England	Europe	54-18 N.	74-50 E.
Schwezingen	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49-23 N.	83-45 E.
Scone	Perthshire	Scotland	Europe	56-24 N.	71-50 E.
Sea of Asoph	Little Tartary	Europe and Asia			
— Marmora	Turkey in	Europe and Asia			Black sea
— Ochotsk	Between	Siberia, and Kamscatka, Asia, North, Pacific Ocean.			
— Yellow	Between Eastern	Tartary, China, and Corea, North, Pacific Ocean.			
Sedan	Champagne	France	Europe	49-42 N.	80-02 E.
Senegal		Negroland	Africa	15-53 N.	58-34 E.
Seville	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	37-15 N.	68-55 E.
Sheerness	Kent	England	Europe	51-25 N.	75-50 E.
Shepherd's Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-58 S.	116-13 W.
Shields (South)	Durham	England	Europe	55-02 N.	76-16 E.
Shrewsbury	Shropshire	England	Europe	52-43 N.	72-24 E.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Latitude.</i> D. M.	<i>Longitude.</i> D. M.
Siam	Siam	East Indies	Asia	14-18 N.	175-55 E.
Sidon	Holy Land	Turkey	Asia	33-33 N.	111-15 E.
Si-gham-fu	Chensi	China	Asia	34-16 N.	176-12 W.
Sisteron	Dauphine	France	Europe	44-11 N.	81-01 E.
Smyrna	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	38-28 N.	102-24 E.
Sombavera Isles	Carib. sea	West Indies	North America	18-38 N.	11-28 E.
Soloo Isle	Philip. Isles	East Indies	Asia	5-57 N.	163-40 W.
Southampton	Hampshire	England	Europe	50-55 N.	73-45 E.
Spaw	Liege	Germany	Europe	50-30 N.	80-40 E.
Stafford	Staffordshire	England	Europe	52-50 N.	73-00 E.
Stockholm	Upland	Sweden	Europe	59-20 N.	93-08 E.
Sterling	Sterlingshire	Scotland	Europe	56-10 N.	71-10 E.
Straits of Babelmandel, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea.					
— of Dover, between England and France, English Channel.					
— of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.					
— of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean.					
— of Magellan, between Terra del Fuego and Patagonia, South America.					
— of La Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Ocean.					
— of Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulf.					
— of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Asia.					
— of Waigats, between Nova Zembla and Russia, Asia.					
Stralsund	Pomerania	Germany	Europe	54-23 N.	88-22 E.
Strasburgh	Alsace	France	Europe	48-34 N.	82-46 E.
Straumness	Iceland	N. Atlantic Ocean	Europe	65-39 N.	50-36 E.
Suez	Suez	Egypt	Africa	29-50 N.	108-27 E.
Sultz	Lorraine	France	Europe	47-53 N.	82-51 W.
Sunderland	Durham	England	Europe	54-55 N.	72-50 W.
Surat	Guzurat	East Indies	Asia	21-10 N.	147-27 E.
Surinam	Surinam	South America	America	6-00 N.	159-30 E.
Syracuse	Sicily Isle	Italy	Europe	36-58 N.	90-05 E.
T able Island	New Hebrides	South Pacific	Asia	15-38 S.	117-48 W.
Tanjour	Tanjour	East Indies	Asia	11-27 N.	154-07 E.
Tanna	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-32 S.	115-24 W.
Taoukaa Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	14-30 S.	70-04 W.
Tauris	Aderbeitzan	Persia	Asia	38-20 N.	121-30 E.
Teffis	Georgia	Persia	Asia	43-30 N.	122-00 E.
Temontengis	Soloo	East Indies	Asia	5-57 N.	165-02 W.
Teneriffe Peak	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28-12 N.	58-36 E.
Tercera	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	38-45 N.	47-59 E.
Tetuan	Fez	Barbary	Africa	35-40 N.	69-42 E.
St. Thomas's Isle	Virgin Isles	West Indies	America	18-21 N.	10-14 E.
Thorn	Regal Prussia	Poland	Europe	52-56 N.	56-00 E.
Timor, S. W. Point		East Indies	Asia	10-23 S.	160-56 W.
Timorland S. Point		East Indies	Asia	8-15 S.	153-01 W.
Tobolski	Siberia	Russia	Asia	58-12 N.	143-17 E.
Toledo	New Castile	Spain	Europe	39-50 N.	78-25 E.
Tomsk	Siberia	Russia	Asia	56-29 N.	160-04 E.
Tonga Tabu Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	21-09 S.	99-41 W.
Tornea	Bothnia	Sweden	Europe	65-50 N.	99-17 E.
Toulon	Provence	France	Europe	43-07 N.	81-01 E.
Trapesond	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	41-50 N.	115-30 E.
Trent	Trent	Germany	Europe	46-05 N.	86-02 E.
Trenton	New Jersey	United States	North America	40-15 N.	0-45 E.
Tripoli	Tripoli	Barbary	Africa	32-53 N.	88-12 E.
Tripoli	Syria	Turkey	Asia	34-30 N.	111-15 E.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE. (13)

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Latitude. D. M.	Longitude. D. M.
Troy Ruins	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	39-30 N.	101-30 E.
Tunis	Tunis	Barbary	Africa	36-47 N.	85-00 E.
Turin	Piedmont	Italy	Europe	45 05 N.	82-45 E.
Turtle Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19-48 S.	103-02 W.
Tyre	Palestine	Turkey	Asia	32-32 N.	111-00 E.
Tyrnaw	Trentschin	Hungary	Europe	48-28 N.	92-38 E.
Uliatea	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-45 S.	76-26 W.
Upsal	Upland	Sweden	Europe	59-51 N.	92-47 E.
Uraniberg	Huen Isle	Denmark	Europe	53-54 N.	87-57 E.
Ushant Isle	Bretagne	France	Europe	48-28 N.	70-01 E.
Utrecht	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-07 N.	80-00 E.
Venice	Venice	Italy	Europe	45-26 N.	86-59 E.
Vera Cruz	Mexico	South	America	19-12 N.	22-25 W.
Vernon (Mount)	Virginia	United States	North America	38-40 N.	2-03 W.
Verona	Veronese	Italy	Europe	45-26 N.	86-23 E.
Versailles	Isle of France	France	Europe	48-48 N.	77-12 E.
VIENNA	Austria	Germany	Europe	48-12 N.	91-22 E.
Vigo	Galitia	Spain	Europe	42-14 N.	66-37 E.
Vintimiglia	Genoa	Italy	Europe	43-53 N.	82-42 E.
Virgin Gorda	Virgin Isles	West Indies	America	18-18 N.	11-01 E.
Wakefield	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-41 N.	73-32 E.
Prince of Wales Fort.	New N. Wales	North	America	58-47 N.	19-02 W.
Wales Fort.					
Wardhus	Norwegian Lap-land	Lapland	Europe	70-22 N.	96-11 E.
Warsaw	Massovia	Poland	Europe.	52-14 N.	96-05 E.
Warwick	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52-18 N.	73-28 E.
WASHINGTON	Columbia district	United States	America	38-54 N.	1-56 W.
Waterford	Munster.	Ireland	Europe	52-12 N.	67-44 E.
Wells	Somersetshire	England	Europe	51-12 N.	72-20 E.
Westham Isles	North	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	63-20 N.	54-38 E.
Whitehaven	Cumberland	England	Europe	54-38 N.	71-34 E.
Whitsuntide Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	15-44 S.	116-35 W.
Williamsburg	Virginia	North	America	37-12 N.	1-48 W.
Willis's Isles	South Georgia	Atlantic Ocean	America	34-00 S.	36-36 E.
Winchester	Hampshire	England	Europe	51-06 N.	73-45 E.
Witna	Lithuania	Poland	Europe	54-41 N.	100-32 E.
Wittenburg	Upper Saxony	Germany	Europe	51-49 N.	87-46 E.
Wologda	Wologda	Russia	Europe	59-19 N.	116-50 E.
Worcester	Worcestershire	England	Europe	52-09 N.	73-05 E.
Worcester	Massachusetts	United States	America	42-23 N.	3-16 E.
Worms	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49-38 N.	83-05 E.
Woslak		Russia	Europe	61-15 N.	
Wurtzburg	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49-46 N.	85-18 E.
Yarmouth	Norfolk	England	Europe	52-45 N.	76-48 E.
York	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53-59 N.	73-59 E.

Vol. II.

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CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

REMARKABLE EVENTS, DISCOVERIES, AND INVENTIONS.

- Bc. Christ.
 4005 **T**HE creation of the world, and Adam and Eve.
 4003 The birth of Cain.
 2348 The old world is destroyed by a deluge.
 2217 The Tower of Babel built about this time.
 2234 Celestial observations are begun at Babylon, the city which first gave birth to learning and the sciences.
 2188 Misraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt.
 2059 Ninus, the son of Belus, founds the kingdom of Assyria.
 1921 The covenant of God made with Abram.
 1897 Sodom and Gomorrah destroyed.
 1822 Mennon, the Egyptian, invents the letters.
 1635 Joseph dies in Egypt, which concludes the book of Genesis.
 1574 Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God first high-priest of the Israelites.
 1571 Moses, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter.
 1493 Cadmus carries the Phœnician letters into Greece, and builds the citadel of Thebes.
 1491 Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with the Israelites.
 1485 The first ship that appeared in Greece is brought from Egypt by Danaus.
 1453 The first Olympic games celebrated at Olympia, in Greece.
 1451 The Israelites fix themselves in Canaan.
 1406 Iron is found in Greece, from the accidental burning of the woods.
 1372 The Milesians arrive from Spain in Ireland.
 1263 Argonautic expedition.
 1048 David is sole king of Israel.
 1004 The Temple solemnly dedicated by Solomon.
 896 Elijah, the prophet, translated to Heaven.
 894 Money first made of gold and silver at Argos.
 869 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by queen Dido.
 814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.
 776 The first Olimpiad begins.
 753 Rome built by Romulus, first king of the Romans.
 720 Samaria taken, after three years siege, and the kingdom of Israel finished; by Salmanassar, king of Assyria, who carries the ten tribes into captivity.
 The first eclipse of the moon on record.
 658 Byzantium (now Constantinople,) built by a colony of Athenians.
 600 Thales, of Miletus, travels into Egypt, acquires the knowledge of geometry, astronomy, and philosophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipses, gives general notions of the universe, and maintains that one supreme Intelligence regulates all its motions.
 Maps, globes and the signs of the Zodiac, invented by Anaximander, the scholar of Thales.
 587 The city of Jerusalem taken, after a siege of 18 months.
 559 Cyrus, the first king of Persia.
 538 The kingdom of Babylon destroyed; that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, issues an edict for the return of the Jews.
 515 The second temple at Jerusalem is finished under Darius.
 509 Tarquin, king of the Romans, expelled.
 481 Xerxes the Great, king of Persia, begins his expedition against Greece.
 458 Ezra is sent from Babylon to Jerusalem, with the captive Jews and the vessels of gold and silver, &c. being seventy weeks of years, or 490 years before the crucifixion of our Saviour.
 454 The Romans send to Athens for Solon's laws.
 451 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the Twelve Tables compiled and ratified.
 430 The history of the Old Testament finishes about this time.
 401 Retreat of 10,000 Greeks under Xenophon.
 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy among the Greeks, believes the immortality of the soul and a state of rewards and punishments, for which, and other sublime doctrines, he is put to death by the Athenians, who soon after repent, and erect to his memory a statue of brass.

- 379 Bœotian war commences in Greece, finished in 366, after the death of Epaminondas, the last of the Grecian heroes.
- 336 Philip, king of Macedon, murdered.
- 331 Alexander, king of Macedon, conquers Darius, king of Persia.
- 323 Dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms, after destroying his wives, children, brother, and sisters.
- 285 Dionysius, of Alexandria, begins his astronomical era on Monday, June 26, being the first who found the exact solar year to consist of 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes.
- 284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs seventy-two interpreters to translate the Old Testament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.
- 269 The first coinage of silver at Rome.
- 264 The first Punic war begins, and continues 23 years.
- 260 The Romans first concern themselves in naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at sea.
- 218 The second Punic war begins and continues 17 years. Hannibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles.
- 190 The first Roman army enters Asia, and from the spoils of Antiochus, brings the Asiatic luxury first to Rome.
- 170 Eighty thousand Jews massacred by Antiochus Epiphanes.
- 146 Perseus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.
- 167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.
- 163 Carthage razed to the ground by the Romans.
- 145 An hundred thousand inhabitants of Antioch massacred in one day by the Jews.
- 52 Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain.
- 47 The battle of Pharsalia between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated. The Alexandrian Library consisting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
- 45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself. The solar year introduced by Cæsar.
- 44 Julius Cæsar killed in the senate-house at Rome.
- 43 Brutus, one of the conspirators against Cæsar, and chief of the republicans, being vanquished in the battle of Philippi, kills himself.
- 41 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Anthony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew of Julius Cæsar.
- 27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus Cæsar, and an absolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the first Roman emperor.
- 25 Coin first used in Britain.
- 8 Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms.

The temple of Janus shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace; and JESUS CHRIST supposed to have been born on Monday, December 25, but according to many, in September during the Jewish feast of tabernacles.

A. C.

- 12 JESUS CHRIST hears the Doctors in the Temple, and asks them questions.
- 27 ——— Is baptized in the Wilderness;
- 33 ——— Is crucified on Friday, April 3, at 3 o'clock P. M.
- His resurrection on Sunday, April 5; his Ascension, Thursday May 14.
- 40 The name of Christians first given at Antioch to the followers of Christ.
- 49 London founded by the Romans.
- 51 Caractacus, the British king, carried in chains to Rome.
- 59 The tyrant Nero puts his mother and brothers to death.
- Persecutes the Druids in Britain.
- 61 Boadicea, the British queen, defeats the Romans; but is conquered soon after by Suetonius, governor of Britain.
- 62 St. Paul is sent in bonds to Rome, writes his epistles between 51 and 66.
- 63 The Acts of the Apostles written. Christianity supposed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or some of his disciples about this time.
- 64 Rome set on fire, and burned for six days; upon which began (under Nero) the first persecution against the Christians.
- 67 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
- 70 Titus takes Jerusalem, which is razed to the ground, and the plough made to pass over it.
- 79 Herculaneum overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius.
- 135 The second Jewish war ends, when all the Jews are banished Judea.
- 152 The Emperor Antoninus Pius stops the persecution against the Christians.
- 274 Silk first brought from India.
- 306 Constantine the Great begins his reign.
- 313 Constantine terminates the tenth persecution, favours the Christians, and gives full liberty to their religion.
- 325 The first general council at Nice.
- 328 Constantine removes the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is from that time called Constantinople.
- 331 Constantine orders all the heathen temples to be destroyed.
- 363 The emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, endeavours in vain to re-build the temple of Jerusalem.
- 410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Visi-Goths.
- 420 The kingdom of France begins under Pharamond.

- 455 The Saxons having repulsed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to establish themselves in Kent, under Hengist.
- 476 The western empire entirely destroyed.
- 496 Clovis, king of France, baptised, and Christianity begins in that kingdom.
- 510 Paris becomes the capital of France.
- 516 The computing of time by the Christian era is introduced by Dionysius the Monk.
- 529 Justinian's code is published.
- 537 A terrible plague in Europe, Asia and Africa, which continues near 50 years.
- 581 Latin ceased to be spoken about this time in Italy.
- 622 Mahomet flies from Mecca to Medina, in Arabia. His followers compute their time from this era, which in Arabic is called Hégira, i. e. the Flight.
- 637 Jerusalem taken by the Saracens.
- 664 Glass invented in England by Benet, a monk.
- 685 The Britons, after a struggle of near 150 years, are driven by the Saxons, into Wales and Cornwall.
- 748 The computing of years from the birth of Christ begins to be used in history.
- 800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the Western empire; and endeavours in vain to restore learning in Europe.
- 828 Egbert, king of Wessex, unites the Heptarchy, by the name of England.
- 886 Juries first instituted.
- 896 Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders, composes his body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; erects county courts, and founds the university of Oxford about this time.
- 915 The university of Cambridge founded.
- 1000 Paper made of cotton rags is in use; that of linen rags in 1170; the manufactory introduced into England at Dartford, in 1588.
- 1015 Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England.
- 1017 Canute, king of Denmark, gains possession of England.
- 1040 The Danes, about this time driven out of Scotland.
- 1043 The Turks become formidable, and take possession of Persia.
- 1054 Leo IX. the first pope that kept up an army.
- 1057 Malcolm III. king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Mabeth at Dunsinane.
- 1065 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
- 1066 The battle of Hastings fought, between Harold and William, duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and slain, after which William becomes king of England.
- 1070 William introduces the feudal law into England.
- 1091 The Saracens in Spain being hard pressed by the Spaniards, call to their assistance Joseph, king of Morocco; by which the Moors get possession of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
- 1096 The first crusade to the Holy Land began.
- 1110 Goodwin Sands formed by the sea overflowing 4000 acres belonging to earl Goodwin of Kent.
- 1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
- 1172 Henry II. of England, invades Ireland.
- 1176 England is divided, by Henry, into six circuits, and justice is dispensed by itinerant judges.
- 1180 Glass windows begin to be used in private houses in England.
- 1200 Surnames now begin to be used; first among the nobility.
- 1215 Magna Charta is signed by king John and the barons of England; and the following year it is granted to the Irish.
- 1227 The Tartars under Gengis-Khan, emerge from the northern parts of Asia, over-run the Saracen empire; and, in imitation of former conquerors, carry death and desolation wherever they march.
- 1233 The Inquisition, which begun in 1204, is now entrusted to the Dominicans.
- 1264 According to some writers, the commons of England were not summoned to parliament till this period.
- 1293 There is a regular succession of parliaments from this year, being the 22d of Edward I.
- 1298 Wine sold by apothecaries as a cordial.
- 1302 The mariner's compass invented, or improved by Gioia, of Naples.
- 1307 The beginning of the Swiss cantons.
- 1303 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
- 1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert Bruce, which establishes the latter on the throne of Scotland.
- 1320 Gold first coined in Christendom; 1344 ditto in England.
- 1337 The first comet whose course is described with astronomical exactness.
- 1340 Gun-powder and Guns first invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologne; 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Cressy; 1346, bombs and mortars invented.
- 1356 The battle of Poitiers, in which king John of France and his son are taken prisoners by Edward the Black Prince.
- 1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to English.
- 1412 Denmark united with the crown of Norway.
- 1428 The siege of Orleans, the first blow to the English power in France, by the celebrated Maid of Orleans. She is afterwards taken prisoner, and basely put to death.
- 1440 Laurentius of Haerlem, invents the art of printing.
- 1444 The sea breaks in at Dort in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.

- 1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks, which utterly overthrows the Roman Empire.
- 1483 Richard III. of England, defeated and killed at the battle of Bosworth.
- 1489 Maps and sea-charts first brought to England by Barth. Columbus.
- 1491 William Caxton the first printer in England.
- 1492 Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, after having, to no purpose, solicited the assistance of the different courts of Europe, is at last enabled to proceed on a voyage of discoveries, by the court of Spain, August 3d; and on the 11th October following, he discovers the island St. Salvador, now St. Christophers; soon after he falls in with several others of the West-India islands.
- 1494 St. Eustatia discovered by Columbus.
- 1497 The Portuguese first sail to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
- Florida discovered by Sebastian Cabot, a native of Bristol.
- South America discovered by Americus Vesputius, from whom the continent has its name.
- 1499 North America discovered for Henry VII. of England, by Cabot.
- 1500 Brasil discovered by Penson.
- 1509 The Island of Jamaica settled by Spain.
- 1513 A number of Dominican friars arrive in Hispaniola, to preach the gospel to the Indians.
- 1515 Paraguay, or La Plata, discovered by the Spaniards; and settled by them, 1535.
- 1517 Martin Luther begins to preach against the doctrines of the church of Rome.
- 1518 Magellan, in the service of Spain, discovers the straits now known by hisname, between Terra del Fuego and the continent of South America. He is killed by the inhabitants of the Marianne islands, 1520.
- The Republic of Geneva founded.
- 1529 The name of *Protestant* takes its rise from the opponents of the church of Rome, having *protested* against the doctrines of that church at the diet of Spires in Germany.
- 1530 Copernicus revives the Pythagorean system of Astronomy.
- 1533 Pizarro, with an army of 160 men, after many treacheries and cruelties, subdues the whole country of Peru, in South America.
- 1534 The Protestant religion commences in England under Henry VIII.
- Sir James Cartier discovers the bay of St. Lawrence.
- 1536 California discovered by Fernando Cortez; is taken possession of by Sir Francis Drake, who had his right to it confirmed by the king of the country, 1578.
- 1535 Cannon first made use of.
- 1539 The first English edition of the Bible authorised; the translation now in general use was finished 1611.
- 1542 The famous council of Trent begins and continues 18 years.
- 1546 Potosi mountain, which contains the richest mine in America, discovered.
- 1549 Brasil settled by the Portuguese.
- 1553 Circulation of the blood through the lungs first published by Michael Servetus.
- 1560 John Knox effects the establishment of the Presbyterian religion in Scotland.
- 1562 John Rhibalt, with a fleet from France, discovers the river St. Mary; builds fort Charles, and leaves a colony; which soon after mutinies, and is cut off by the Spaniards, 1564.
- 1563 Knives first made in England.
- 1565 Potatoes first brought to Ireland from New Spain.
- 1572 The atrocious massacre of Protestants at Paris, August 24th.
- 1577 Sir Francis Drake, the first English circumnavigator, sets sail on his voyage round the world; and returns 1580.
- 1579 The Dutch strike off the Spanish yoke, and what is now called the *republic* of Holland commences.
- 1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style; the fifth October being accounted the 15th.
- 1583 Tobacco, which had been first discovered by the Spaniards in Yucatan in the year 1520, is introduced into England.
- 1584 13th July. Two ships commissioned by Sir Walter Raleigh, who had obtained a patent from queen Elizabeth for such lands as he might discover not belonging to any Christian prince, anchor in a harbour seven leagues west of the Roanoke, take possession of the country in a formal manner, and in honour of their *virgin* queen denominate it Virginia.
- 1585 Davis's Straits discovered.
- 1587 Mary queen of Scots is cruelly beheaded by order of queen Elizabeth of England, after 18 years imprisonment.
- 1588 Paper first manufactured in England.
- The Spanish armada destroyed by Drake and other English admirals.
- Henry IV. of France passes the celebrated edict of Nantes, tolerating the Protestants.
- 1589 Coaches first introduced into England.
- 1590 Telescopes invented by Jansen, a Dutchman.
- 1595 Caribbee isles discovered.
- 1597 Watches first brought into England from Germany.
- 1602 New England discovered by Captain Gosnold; had the name of New England given it by Captain John Smith, who drew a map of it, 1614.
- 1603 Queen Elizabeth (the last of the Tudors) dies and is succeeded by king James VI. of Scotland, who unites both kingdoms under the name of Great Britain.
- 1605 The gun-powder plot discovered at Westminster, being a project to blow up the king and both houses of parliament, Nov. 5th.

- 1608 Henry Hudson discovers the river now known by his name, and sells his claim to the Dutch, who soon after begin to take possession of that region, which now comprehends the states of New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware; to which they give the appellation of the *New Netherlands*. The city, now New-York, was called New Amsterdam.
- Canada settled by the French.
- Galileo of Florence first discovers the satellites about the planet Saturn, by the telescope lately invented in Holland.
- 1609 Sir George Somers, on his way to Virginia, ran ashore on one of the Bermuda Islands, which circumstance gives them the name of the Somer Islands—July.
- 1610 Potatoes first carried from America to Ireland by Sir Francis Drake.
- Hudson's Bay discovered by Captain Henry Hudson, who is left by his men to perish on that coast.
- 1614 Lord Napier of Marcheston in Scotland invents the logarithms.
- The first settlement of New-Jersey begun by the Dutch; afterwards a number of Swedes and Fins take possession 1627.
- 1616 The first permanent establishment of Virginia.
- 1619 Doctor William Harvey, an Englishman, first discovers the doctrine of the circulation of the blood.
- 1620 About one hundred persons of the denomination of Puritans, who had fled from religious persecution in England, arrive at a place in Massachusetts, which in commemoration of the city in their native land, which they had last left, they denominate Plymouth, Dec. 31st.
- 1622 Nova-Scotia first settled by the Scotch, under Sir William Alexander, to whom a charter had been granted, September 10, 1621.
- Carolina first settled by the English from Virginia.
- 1625 The island of Barbadoes, the first English settlement in the West-Indies, planted.
- 1626 The barometer invented by Toricelli.
- 1627 The state of Delaware begun to be settled by the Swedes and Fins.
- The thermometer invented by Drebellius.
- 1630 The city of Boston in Massachusetts founded.
- Peruvian bark first brought to France.
- 1631 Newspapers first published at Paris.
- 1632 Maryland granted by charter to lord Baltimore of Ireland, by king Charles II. and begun to be settled in the year following.
- 1635 Rhode Island first begun to be settled. Its first charter granted 1662.
- 1640 The Irish rebellion, caused by the artifice of the lords justices, in which the most horrid barbarities are perpetrated by the Irish on the English, and by the English on the Irish.
- 1642 Printing first set up in New-England at Cambridge.
- 1644 A great massacre in Virginia by the Indians.
- 1647 A very mortal epidemical sickness prevails in New England.
- 1649 An association entered into in New England by the governor and council of Massachusetts against wearing long hair.
- 1652 The speaking trumpet invented by Kircher, a jesuit.
- 1653 Cromwell declared lord protector of England for life, December 12th.
- 1655 The island of Jamaica taken from the Spaniards by the English, under the command of admiral Penn.
- 1659 Transfusion of the blood first suggested at Oxford.
- 1660 King Charles II. of England, after an exile of 12 years in France and Holland, restored by general Monk.
- The king of Denmark becomes an absolute monarch.
- 1662 Pendulum clocks invented by John Fromental, a Dutchman.
- Fire engines invented.
- 1664 South Carolina granted to lord Clarendon by patent.
- Governor Styvesant surrenders the New Netherlands to colonel Nichols, who had been commissioned by king Charles to subdue that country. It was then called New-York, in honour of James Duke of York and Albany, the king of England's brother.
- 1665 Lord Berkeley and sir James Carteret purchase from James duke of York that part of his possessions, which is now called New Jersey. It was so named from the island of Jersey, where the Carteret family had a large estate.
- The plague rages in London, and carries off 68,000 inhabitants.
- 1666 The great fire of London begins September 2d, and continues for 5 days, in which are destroyed 13,000 houses and 400 streets.
- 1667 Tea first used in England.
- The peace of Breda, which confirms to the British the New Netherlands, now known by the names of New-York, New-Jersey and Pennsylvania.
- 1671 Charleston, South Carolina, founded.
- 1672 Lewis XIV. overruns great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their sluices; being determined to drown their country and to retire to their settlements in the East Indies, rather than submit to the conqueror.
- 1678 The Habeas corpus act passed in Britain.
- 1679 New Hampshire, which had been hitherto considered as under the same jurisdiction with Massachusetts, created into a separate government.
- 1680 A great comet which continues to appear in Europe from Nov. 3d to March 9th following, from its nearness to the earth, causes great alarm.

- 1680 William Penn obtains a patent for Pennsylvania March 4th, and grants a charter to adventurers 1682.
- 1683 William Penn purchases, from James duke of York, that part of the New Netherlands, now known by the name of "the state of Delaware." — Philadelphia begun to be built.
- 1685 The edict of Nantes infamously revoked by Louis XIV. and the protestants cruelly persecuted.
- 1688 The revolution of Britain begins Nov. 5th.—King James abdicates the throne and retires to France, Dec. 3d following.
- 1690 The battle of the Boyne, in Ireland, gained by king William over his father-in-law, king James—1st July.
1690. The English and Dutch fleets, commanded by admiral Russel, defeat the French fleet off La Hogue. — Port Royal, in Jamaica, swallowed up by an earthquake.
- 1693 Bayonets, at the end of loaded musquets, first used by the French against the confederatists, at the battle of Turin.
- 1699 The Scots settle a colony at the isthmus of Darien, in America, and call it Caledonia.
- 1701 Prussia is erected into a kingdom.
- 1702 William III. king of England dies, aged 50, and is succeeded by queen Anne.
- 1704 Gibraltar taken by the combined fleets of Britain and Holland under the command of sir George Rook, July 23.
- 1706 England and Scotland united under the name of "the kingdom of Great Britain," and the first British parliament meet October 24th, 1707. — The French invade Carolina; but are repulsed with great loss.
- 1708 Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy. — Minorca taken by the British under Lord Stanhope.
- 1709 North Carolina begun to be settled by a number of indigent Palatines.
- 1710 The cathedral church of St. Paul, London, rebuilt by sir Christopher Wren, in 37 years, at the expense of one million sterling, (4,440,000 dollars.) — Post-office first established in America by act of the British parliament. — The English South-sea company begun.
- 1711 Eight English frigates wrecked on Egg Island in the river St. Lawrence, and upwards of 1000 men perished, August 23.
- 1713 The peace of Utrecht, whereby Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, Hudson's Bay, Gibraltar, and Minorca, are confirmed to Britain.
- 1715 The rebellion in Scotland begins in September in favour of the Pretender, and is suppressed at Sheriffmuir November following. — Eclipse of the sun, the greatest seen in England for 500 years past.
- 1716 An act passed in Britain for septennial parliaments.
- 1718 William Penn, the founder of Pennsylvania, dies.
- 1719 The Mississippi scheme at its height in France. — The South Sea scheme begun in England, April 7th, at its height about the end of June, and quite sunk about September 29th. — Loombe's silk throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby in England; takes up one-eighth of a mile; one water wheel moves the rest, and in 24 hours it works 318,604,960 yards silk thread.
- 1727 Inoculation for the small-pox first tried on criminals with success. — Russia, formerly a dukedom, established as an empire.
- 1731 The first person executed in Britain for forgery.
- 1732 George Washington, the father of his country, and the friend of man, born in Virginia 22d February. — The state of Georgia begun to be settled by a number of public spirited gentlemen, under general Oglethorpe, to whom a charter is granted June 9th.
- 1733 The island of St. Christophers greatly damaged by a storm.
- 1736 Captain Porteous, having ordered his soldiers to fire upon the populace at the execution of a smuggler, is himself soon after executed by the mob at Edinburgh.
- 1737 The earth proved to be flat toward the poles.
- 1739 The British declare war against Spain, October 23d. — Violent frost in England for nine weeks after Christmas.
- 1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the English and the allies, in favour of the queen of Hungary.
- 1744 The British declare war against France. — Commodore Anson returns from his voyage round the world.
- 1745 Indigo discovered in South Carolina. — The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated at Culloden by the duke of Cumberland, April 16, 1746. — Cape Breton taken by the English.
- 1746 Lima and Callao, in Peru, swallowed up by an earthquake, October 20th. This earthquake continues till 20th November, during which time 50,000 persons lose their lives.
- 1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which a restitution of all places taken during this war, is stipulated on all sides.
- 1750 The British parliament pass an act prohibiting any slitting mill or forge, or any iron works in America—June.
- 1752 The New Style introduced into Britain; Sept. 3d, being accounted the 14th. — Fort du Quesne, now called Pittsburg, built

- on the forks of the rivers Monongahela and Allegheny, by the French.
- 1754 Kentucky discovered by James M'Bride; begun to be settled by colonel Daniel Boone and others, 1773.
- A congress meets at Albany, when Dr. Franklin proposes a plan for the union of all the colonies.
- 1756 Lisbon, in Portugal, destroyed by an earthquake.
- 1756 Martinico, together with St. Lucia, St. Vincents and Granada, taken from the French by admiral Rodney and general Monkton, February.
- 1757 Identity of electric fire and lightning, discovered by doctor Franklin, who thereupon invents a method of securing buildings from thunder storms by metallic conductors.
- 1758 Fort du Quesne taken by the English, February 28th.
- Guadalupe taken by the English; but restored to the French by the treaty of peace, 1763.
- General Wolfe is killed on the plains of Abraham, near Quebec, Sept. 13th, when the French general Montcalm is also slain.
- 1760 King George III. succeeds his grandfather, October 25th.
- The state of Vermont then part of New York begun to be settled chiefly by emigrants from New England.
- 1763 The extensive provinces of Canada, East and West Florida and part of Louisiana; also the islands of Granada, St. Vincent, Dominica and Tobago in the West Indies, confirmed to Britain by the treaty of peace at Paris, Feb. 10th.
- 1764 Mr. Harrison of Britain invents a time piece for discovering the longitude; for which he receives, from parliament, the sum of 10,000*l.* sterling (44,400 dollars.)
- 1765 The American stamp act receives the royal assent in Britain, March 22d; but being received in America with disapprobation, is repealed, March 18th, 1766; on which occasion rejoicings are universal through the colonies.
- Otaheite discovered.
- 1766 A great spot passed the sun's centre.
- Gibraltar almost destroyed by a storm.
- 1767 The British parliament lay a duty on tea, paper, painted glass, and colours; all of which, except the duty of three pence per pound on tea, is repealed, 1770.
- 1768 Duration of Irish parliaments limited to eight years.
- 1769 The American Philosophical Society for promoting useful knowledge, formed at Philadelphia by the union of two societies, which had been previously instituted with similar views.—This society incorporated, 1780.
- 1770 A quarrel arises between the inhabitants of Boston and the British king's troops when the latter fire on the former, and kill several.
- 1771 Lieut. Cook returns to Britain, from a voyage round the world, after having made several important discoveries.
- 1772 The king of Sweden, without bloodshed, changes the constitution of that kingdom from a limited to an absolute monarchy.
- Twelve hundred and forty people killed in the island of Java by an electrified cloud.
- 1772 The emperor of Germany, empress of Russia, and the king of Prussia, seize part of Poland, which they divide amongst themselves, in violation of the most solemn treaties.
- 1773 340 chests of tea, which were to have been landed at Boston, subject to a duty of 3*d.* per lb. destroyed by the populace—November.
- Captain Phipps is sent to explore the North pole; but having made 81 degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice; and his attempt to discover a passage in that quarter proves fruitless.
- 1773 Guatimala, in New Spain, is entirely swallowed up by an earthquake, December 15.
- 1774 The Boston port bill passed by the British parliament 25th March, by which bill that port was to be shut from and after the 1st June ensuing, till satisfaction should be made to the East India company for the tea destroyed there.
- Deputies from the several American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the first general congress, September 5th, and petition the king of Britain for a repeal of grievances, November following.
- The inhabitants of New Hampshire seize Fort William and Mary, and possess themselves of a quantity of powder and other military stores, Dec. 14.
- 1775 The first action happens in America between the king's troops and the Americans, when the former are defeated, April 19th.
- Ticonderoga taken by the Americans under colonels Ethan Allen and Easton with 240 men; 200 pieces of cannon and other warlike stores found therein, May 10th.
- Articles of confederation and perpetual union agreed on by the American colonies, 20th May.
- Paper money emitted by congress to the amount of three millions of dollars, and afterwards, at different periods, during the war, to the amount of 200 millions. In 1781 it ceases to circulate.
- General George Washington is by congress unanimously appointed commander in chief of the American army, 16th June; on the 2d July arrives at Cambridge, Massachusetts, and takes upon him the command.
- A bloody battle fought at Bunker's Hill between the king's troops and the Americans, when the latter being overpowered by numbers, are forced to retreat, June 16th.
- Congress publish a declaration setting forth the cause and necessity of taking up arms, 6th July.

- 1775 Post office established by congress July 25.
- Falmouth, in New England, destroyed by the British, October 18, 1775.
- Lord Dunmore, governor of Virginia proclaims martial law, and invites slaves and apprentices to join the royal standard with a promise of freedom; in consequence of which he is joined by a great rabble, both of black and whites, Nov. 7th.
- General Montgomery takes Montreal. November 12th.
- The British defeated at Great Bridge in Virginia, December.
- An unsuccessful attack made by the Americans on Quebec; when the gallant Montgomery is slain, 31st December.
- 1776 Norfolk in Virginia burnt by order of lord Duamore, and great damage sustained, January 1st.
- Torture abolished in Poland.
- Boston evacuated by the British, March 17th.
- A squadron of ships, under sir Peter Parker, and a body of troops under generals Clinton and Cornwallis, make an attack on Charlestown, South Carolina; but are repulsed with great slaughter, 25th June.
- Congress, in consequence of the repeated provocations, which the colonies had received from Britain, declare themselves free sovereign and independant, under the name of the UNITED STATES, July 4th.
- The battle of Flatbush, in Long Island, when the Americans are defeated with the loss of 2000 men killed, and 1000 prisoners; in consequence of which they are obliged to retreat and New York is soon after taken possession of by the British, August 27.
- Fort Washington, state of New-York, with 20000 prisoners, taken by the British, November 16th.
- Fort Lee, in the same state, taken Nov. 18th.
- Rhode-Island taken by the British, Dec. 6th.
- Nine hundred Hessians taken by general Washington at Trenton, 26th Dec.
- 1777 Jan. 2d, general Washington defeats the British at Princeton, who lose 300 men. On the side of the Americans, the brave general Mercer is among the slain.
- Great devastations committed by the British under general Tryon, between Fairfield and Norwich and at Danbury in Connecticut. They are, however attacked in their retreat by generals Arnold, Wooster, and Sullivan, and defeated with the loss of 300 men, 26th April.
- Ticonderoga evacuated by general St. Clair, 6th July.
- Marquis de la Fayette appointed major general in the American army, July 31.
- Esopus, in New York, with great quantities of stores, destroyed by the British, October 15th.
- The battle of Brandywine, when the Americans under the command of general Washington, are defeated with the loss of twelve hundred men killed, wounded, and prisoners, Sept. 11th.
- 1777 The British forces, commanded by general Howe, take possession of Philadelphia.
- The battle of Germantown, when the Americans are defeated, 4th October.
- Lieutenant general Burgoyne is obliged, at Saratoga, to surrender his whole army, consisting of 5790 men, to the Americans, under generals Gates, Lincoln, and Arnold, 17th October.
- The American army under general Washington, retire to winter quarters at Cherry Valley; where they suffer severely from famine and want of cloathing. December.
- 1778 A treaty of amity and commerce concluded at Paris between France and the United States, in which the independence of the latter is acknowledged, 6th Feb.
- The Randolph, an American frigate of 36 guns and 305 men, is blown up in an engagement with the Yarmouth, a British 64; when every person on board, is drowned, except four, 7th March.
- The court of France gives a public audience to the American commissioners, messrs. Franklin, Deane, and Lee, March 21, 1778.
- Sir Henry Clinton arrives at Philadelphia and supercedes sir William Howe, 8th May.
- In the beginning of June, the earl of Carlisle William Eden, and George Johnstone, arrive at Philadelphia, as commissioners for restoring peace between Britain and America; but congress refuse to treat with them unless the independence of America is acknowledged, or the king's fleets and armies withdrawn.
- Hostilities commence between France and Britain—June.
- Philadelphia evacuated by the British, 18th June.
- The battle of Monmouth; when the British are defeated by the Americans, under general Washington, 28th June.
- Out of four hundred and seventeen Americans stationed at Wyoming 360 are butchered by a party of Tories and Indians commanded by colonel John Butler, 1st July.
- The Hancock, an American frigate, taken by sir George Collier, July 8.
- A French squadron, consisting of 12 ships of the line, under the command of count D'Estaign, arrives in the Delaware, July 9.
- A Battle fought off Brest between admirals Keppel and D'Orvilliers, July 27th.
- Sieur Gerard the first ambassador from France to the United States, is introduced to congress, August 6.
- Dominica taken by the French, Sept. 7.
- St. Lucia taken from the French, 28th Dec.
- 1779 Savannah, in Georgia, taken by the British,

- under the command of lieutenant colonel Campbell; when the greatest part of that state again comes under the British dominion—January.
- 1779 Sunbury taken by general Prevost—January 9, 1779.
- General Ash, with 1500 Americans, is surprised in Georgia by general Prevost, when 150 of his men are slain, and 162 made prisoners, May 3d.
- Sir George Collier and general Mathews, make a descent on Virginia; and burn vast quantities of property at Portsmouth, Norfolk, and Suffolk, and destroy or capture 130 vessels in May.
- The Spaniards unite with France and America against Britain—June.
- St. Vincent taken from the French by the English, 17th June.
- A predatory expedition, under the command of governor Tryon, sets out for Connecticut; the party sets fire to Fairfield and East-Haven; plunders New-Haven, and commits many other enormities, in July.
- Stoney point taken by the Americans under the command of general Wayne; when the British lose 63 men killed and 543 men taken prisoners, 15th July.
- Pawlus Hook taken by the Americans under general Lee; when 30 of the British are killed and 160 made prisoners—19th July.
- A number of American vessels are destroyed at Penobscot, by Sir George Collier—August 14.
- Count d'Estaing and general Lincoln attempt to storm Savannah in Georgia; but are repulsed with great loss, 1st Sept.
- 1780 Admiral Rodney with a great superiority of force engages a Spanish fleet under admiral Langara; takes five ships of the line; drives one ashore, and another is blown up—January 18th.
- A remarkable dark day in New-England, May 19.
- Pensacola and the whole province of West-Florida surrenders to the arms of the king of Spain, May 9.
- Charleston, South-Carolina, surrenders to the British; and the garrison, consisting of 2500 men, becomes prisoners of war, May 12th.
- Soon after, lieutenant colonel Tarleton surprises 300 Americans at Wachaws, North Carolina; of whom five-sixths are killed or desperately wounded.
- The Protestant association, to the number of 50,000 men, headed by lord George Gordon, go to the house of commons with a petition for the repeal of an act passed in favour of the Roman Catholics, June 2d. This event is followed by the destruction of catholic chapels, several prisons, and the most daring riots for several succeeding days, which are at last quelled by the interposition of the military; when numbers of the mob are killed, and many of the rioters soon after tried and executed.
- 1780 Count Rochambeau arrives at Rhode Island with 6000 land forces, 10th July.
- Cornwallis obtains a signal victory over general Gates, near Camden, South Carolina; when the American army is totally defeated, and upwards of one thousand made prisoners, Aug. 16th.
- Torture abolished in France, Aug. 25.
- Inquisition abolished in the duke of Modena's dominions.
- Henry Laurens, formerly president of congress, who had been sent to negotiate a treaty with Holland, is taken by the Vestal frigate, near Newfoundland, 3d Sept. and on the 4th October following is committed close prisoner to the tower of London.
- Dreadful hurricanes in the West Indies, by which great damages is occasioned at Jamaica, Barbadoes, and other islands, Oct. 3 and 11.
- General Arnold, after having in vain attempted to deliver up West Point to the British, deserts to their service, and is by them appointed brigadier general, Sept. 26.
- Major Andre, adjutant general to the British army, is hanged as a spy at Tapaan, state of New York, October 2d.
- The battle of King's mountain, South Carolina, in which the American militia under colonel M'Dowell defeat the British, and take 800 prisoners, Oct. 7.
- Both houses of the Irish Parliament address the king of Britain for a free trade, Oct. 12.
- The British government declares war against Holland, Dec. 10.
- 1780 and 1781. This winter is remarkable for its uncommon severity; so that in January the passage between New York and Staten Island is practicable for the heaviest cannon.
- 1782 Great devastation committed by the British, under Arnold, at Richmond in Virginia, Jan. 5.
- The battle of Cowpens, in South Carolina, when the Americans, under general Morgan, defeat the British under Tarleton. The British lose 300 killed and 600 prisoners, Jan. 17.
- Fort Granby, in South Carolina, taken by the British, May 15.
- The Dutch island of St. Eustatia, taken by the British, Feb. 3; re-taken by the French, Nov. 27.
- Lord Cornwallis obtains a signal victory over the Americans, under general Green, at Guilford court-house, in North Carolina, March 15.

- 1782 A bloody battle is fought at Camden between general Green and Lord Rrawdon, when the Americans are repulsed, April 25.
- The island of Tobago taken by the French June 2d.
- A bloody engagement is fought between an English squadron, under the command of admiral Parker and a Dutch squadron, commanded by admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger bank, August 5.
- Count de Grasse with 28 sail of the line arrives in the Chesapeake and lands 3,200 forces, which join those already under La Fayette, August 30th.
- The battle of the Eutaw springs in South Carolina, when the British are defeated by the Americans, under general Green with the loss of 1100 men, Sept. 9.
- New London burnt by the British, under general Arnold Sept. 13.
- Treaty of amity and commerce between American and Holland Oct. 8th.
- Colonel Willet defeats the British at Mohawk river, Oct. 24.
- Earl Cornwallis surrenders his whole army, consisting of 7000 men, to the American and French army, under the command of general Washington, at York town, in Virginia, October 19.
- Henry Laurens is released from his long confinement in the tower of London, December 31.
- Planet Herschel discovered.
- The first impression of the bible in the United States is published by Robert Aitken, Philadelphia.
- The island of Nevis taken by the Marquis de Bouille and Count de Grasse, Jan. 14; restored to the English at the peace 1783.
- The island of Minorca taken by the Spaniards Feb. 5.
- St. Christopher's taken by the French, February 12th.
- Montserrat, in the West Indies, taken by the French, February 18; restored to the English at the peace 1783.
- The British house of commons address the King against the further prosecution of offensive war with North America, March 4.
- Admiral Rodney defeats the French under Count de Grasse, near Dominica, and takes five ships of the line, with the French Admiral, April 12.
- The Bahama islands taken by the governor of the Havannah, April 7, 1782; retaken by the English, May 8, following.
- Holland acknowledges the sovereignty of the United States, April 19.
- Sir Guy Carleton arrives at New York, with powers to treat of peace with the Americans, May 5.
- The French take and destroy the forts and settlements in Hudson's bay, August 4.
- 1782 The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar; when their floating batteries are destroyed, September 13.
- Treaty concluded between the United States and the republic of Holland, October 8.
- Provisional articles of peace signed between the American and British commissioners at Paris; by which the United States are declared by the king of Britain, to be free, sovereign, and independent, Nov. 30.
- 1783 Preliminary articles of peace, between France, Spain and Britain signed at Versailles, January 20.
- Armistice between Britain and Holland, February 10.
- Three earthquakes at Calabria Ulterior, and Sicily; which destroy a great number of towns and inhabitants, Feb. 5, 7, and 28.
- Treaty of amity and commerce between the United States and Sweden, concluded April 1st, ratified by Congress 25th September following.
- New York evacuated by the British troops, and general Washington makes a public entry into that city, Nov. 25.
- General Washington resigns his commission to congress at Annapolis, Dec. 23.
- 1784 The definitive treaty of peace between the United States and Britain, ratified by Congress, Jan. 4.
- M. Lunardi ascends in a balloon from London; being the first attempt of the kind made in England, Sept. 15.
- Doctor Seabury consecrated bishop of Connecticut, by four non-juring prelates, at Aberdeen, in Scotland, Nov. 14.
- 1785 Mr. James Madison brings forward a motion in the house of Delegates of Virginia, to appoint commissioners, who, in concurrence with others, to be appointed by the different states, should form a system of commercial regulations, to be recommended for adoption to the different state legislatures.
- 1786 An insurrection breaks out in the state of Massachusetts under Shay, Parsons, &c.; it is, however, happily suppressed by the prudence and decision of generals Lincoln and Sheperd, with the loss of a very few lives, December.
- Louis XVI. issues an edict for convening the *notables*, who afterwards meet at Paris, 26th Feb. following; Dec. 29th.
- Doctor White, of Philadelphia, is consecrated bishop of Pennsylvania, and doctor Provost, of New York, -bishop of that state, at London, by the archbishop of Canterbury, with the usual ceremonies, Feb. 4.
- The federal convention, which had for some time been assembled at Philadelphia, report to the different states the new constitution, or present system of federal government, Sept. 17.

- 1788 While the parliament of Paris are assembled to conclude on public measures, they are surrounded by an armed force and the principal opponents of the king's will committed to prison, May.
- The king of England becomes insane in October and continues in that situation till the February following.
- 1789 General Sevier defeats a number of the Creek and Cherokee nation of Indians who lose 145 men. The Americans only lose five, January.
- An insurrection takes place at Paris; when 600 men are killed by the soldiery, April 27.
- The National Assembly of France first convened, May 5, and on the 17th June following, the *tiers etat*, or representatives of the people, after using various efforts to obtain an union with the clergy and nobility, without success, declare themselves the General Assembly, and proceed to business.
- They take an oath "never to separate till the constitution shall be completed" June 20.
- The Marquis de la Fayette appointed commander of the national guards.
- The Bastille in Paris taken by the national guards; when the governor and other of the principal officers are, on account of their perfidy, killed by the populace, July 14.
- A prodigious multitude of people, most of them women, proceed from Paris to Versailles, complaining of want of bread; when the king and family to satisfy their clamours set out for Paris, October 5.
- *Letters de Cachet*, and the distinction of orders, abolished by the National Convention, Nov.
- 1790 Doctor Madison consecrated bishop of Virginia by the archbishop of Canterbury, &c.
- The French king *voluntarily* appears before the national assembly, and declares "that he will defend the new constitution to the last moment of his existence," Feb. 4.
- A grand confederation takes place at the *Champ de Mars*, in Paris, in commemoration of capture of the Bastille, July 14.
- General Harmar defeated by the Miami Indians with the loss of 183 men killed and 31 wounded, Sept. 30.
- 1791 This year a census taken of the inhabitants of the United States, when the number is found to be 3,929,326.
- The king of France and family privately depart from Paris, with a view, as was believed, of entering into Germany, and levying war against the nation, June 20th; are intercepted, near Varennes, and re-conducted to Paris on the 25th.
- A treaty is concluded at Piltitz in Saxony by a number of crowned heads, of which the partition of France, Poland, &c. appears to have been the principal object—July.
- General St. Clair defeated by the Indians near the Miami village, with the loss of 640 Americans, his whole baggage, and 8 pieces of artillery, Nov. 4.
- 1792 The French national assembly declare war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, April 20.
- A party of French, under general Dillon, defeated by the Austrians at Tournay; when the French soldiers on a suspicion of treachery, massacre their general, April 28.
- The Austrians are defeated by La Fayette at Gresvelle, near Maubeuge; when the French general Couvionis killed, June 11.
- An immense multitude breaks into the palace of the *Thulleries*, to induce the king to withdraw his constitutional *veto* from a decree pronounced by the assembly against the priests. This, however, he refuses, June 20.
- 1793 The king of France announces to the national assembly, that the king of Prussia has joined the confederation against that country, and is marching on with an army of 52,000 men, July 6.
- The duke of Brunswick publishes his manifesto against the French republic, July 25.
- A dreadful massacre takes place in the palace of the *Thulleries*, when almost the whole of the Swiss guards are slain, August 10. The same day the functions of the king are suspended, and a convention summoned to meet on the 20th September following.
- The marquis de la Fayette, after having in vain attempted to prevail on his soldiers to restore their deposed monarch, leaves the army, is taken in Liege (then a neutral country) and, contrary to the law of nations, made prisoner of war, August 19th.
- A dreadful massacre takes place at the different state prisons in Paris; when one thousand and eighty-four persons are slain, September 2 and 3.
- The national assembly declare war against the king of Sardinia, September 16: and Montesquiou, the French general, in less than a month, makes himself master of the whole country of Savoy.
- The combined armies are defeated by general Dumourier, and afterwards make a very rapid retreat from the confines of France, September 20.
- The French convention meet and pronounce 'the eternal abolition of royalty in France,' September 20.
- General Custine, after a well fought action, makes himself master of Spire, and in a few days after, captures Mentz and Frankfort, Sept. 30.
- The celebrated battle of Gemappe, when the French, under Dumourier, route their enemies in all quarters, Nov. 5, Mons, Brussels, &c. are soon after captured by the conquerors.
- Frankfort is treacherously given up to the Austrians; when 1300 Frenchmen are mas-

- sacred by the Hessians; and several, whose lives are spared, have their hands cut off, Dec. 2.
- 1792 Same day, Custine, with 23,000 undisciplined Frenchmen, maintains his ground against 52,000 veteran Prussians.
- Louis XVI. brought to trial Dec. 11, condemned on the 19th January, 1793, following, and beheaded on the 21st of the same month.
- 1793 M. Blanchard ascends in a balloon from the prison yard, in Philadelphia; being the first attempt of the kind ever made in America, Jan. 9.
- The French convention declare war against the king of Britain and the stadtholder of Holland, Feb. 1st.
- The king of Sweden is shot at a masquerade, by captain Ankerstrom, March 16; and dies of his wounds the 29th of the same month.
- A bloody battle fought between the combined armies and general Dumourier in the plain of Neungen; when the French are defeated with great loss; March 20. After this, the Netherlands, which were so rapidly overrun by the French, are speedily retaken by the enemy.
- The commissioners, dispatched to arrest Dumourier, are sent over by him to the Austrian general, as hostages for the safety of the queen and royal family of France. The general after having in vain attempted to prevail on his men to re-establish monarchy, deserts the republican cause, and with difficulty, escapes to the enemy, April 2d.
- A bloody battle is fought between Dampierre and the combined forces; when the latter are defeated; but the French general Dampierre is slain, May 8.
- A dreadful disorder, known by the name of the *yellow fever* begins at Philadelphia in July; and does not cease its depopulating ravages, till the middle of November following, during which time about 5000 people lose their lives.
- A formidable Union against the new government of France, takes place, under the name of *confederate republicanism*, between the cities of Marseilles, Lyons, and Toulon. The two former are in June and July subjected to the authority of the convention; but Toulon surrenders to the English admiral lord Hood, who takes possession of the town, and shipping, in the name of Louis XVII. August 29.
- A desperate engagement between the Ambuscade, a French, and the Boston, an English frigate, off Sandy Hook, when the latter is worsted; August.
- The late queen of France beheaded, Oct. 16.
- The combined forces, under the prince de Cobourg, are defeated with immense loss at Maubeuge by the French army under general Jourdan, October 15 and 16.
- 1793 Brissot de Warville and 21 other member of the national convention are beheaded, Oct. 30th.
- The king of Britain issues orders to the commanders of ships of war and privateers to bring in for legal adjudication, all vessels carrying any supplies to, or any produce from any French colony; in consequence of which order many American vessels are piratically captured, November 6th.
- 1794 The island of Noimoutier taken from the insurgents of La Vendee, by the arms of the French republic, 3d January.
- Fort Vauban taken by the French, 7th Jan.
- New orders are issued by the British government, with respect to the capture of American vessels; by which those of the 6th November are repealed, 8th January.
- An act passed by congress for fitting out a naval armament against the Algerines, to consist of four 44 gun frigates and two of 36, March 10.
- The French garrison in Martinico consisting only of 800 men, after having for 38 days bravely sustained the attack of a considerable English fleet, and 15000 land forces, capitulate 23d March.
- A bill passed by congress enjoining an embargo for 30 days, which is afterwards continued for 30 more, 26th March.
- The French general Dugoumier defeats the Spaniards 29th April, and 1st May, and soon after takes Collioure, Port Vendre, Fort St. Elmo, &c. and 8000 Spanish troops are made prisoners.
- John Jay, chief justice of the U. S. appointed envoy extraordinary to Britain—April.
- Three bloody engagements are fought between the French and British fleets off Ushant; when the French are ultimately defeated with the loss of six sail of the line taken and one sunk, May 30 and 31, and June 1st. The English are, however, so much shattered, that they are under the necessity of immediately returning to port, and thus the French are able to protect their fleet from America, which was the principal object of their cruise.
- The island Guadeloupe taken from the British by the French, with a very inferior force, June 3d.
- Discontents, which had arisen in the counties of Allegany, Washington, Fayette and Westmoreland in Pennsylvania, relative to the excise law, in the beginning of 1791, break out into an open insurrection in the month of August; but by the prudence of the president of the United States and the good conduct of the militia, who at his call, readily step forth in support of the violated

- laws of their country, order is happily restored without bloodshed.
- 1794 Count Sallis, the Austrian commander of Ypres, surrenders that place to the French with a garrison of between 5 and 6000 men, June 18.
- Charleroy, a garrison consisting of 3000 Austrians, surrenders to the French under general Jourdan, 25th June.
- The battle of Fleurus gained by the French, when the combined forces lost nearly 8000 men killed, and 1500 prisoners, 28th June. In consequence of this victory, le Chateau de Namur soon after submits to the republic.
- Landrecy invested by the French, July 7, and the Austrian garrison, consisting of 1500 men, surrenders on the 17th of the same month.
- The garrison of Newport, in Austria Flanders, surrenders to the French, July 18th.
- The republicans appear before Le Quefnoy July 19, and capture the garrison, consisting of 2800 men, 14th August following.
- Calvi, a small garrison, in the island of Corsica, after a most vigorous defence, is taken by the English, under admiral Hood—July.
- The combined forces at Toulon make a vigorous sally against the French; but are repulsed with the loss of 1200 men killed and wounded, and the English general O'Hara taken prisoner.
- Robespierre and a number of his associates guillotined 27th July.
- The same month Fontarabia, the key of Spain, is taken by the French—Sebastian taken soon after.
- The entrenchments of Pillengen are carried by the French, August 8, and Treves captured immediately after.
- General Anthony Wayne, commander in chief of the American forces, totally defeats the Indian and Canadian militia near the rapids of the Miami of the lakes, and close to a British fort, Aug. 20.
- Valenciennes surrenders to the French at the first summons, August 27.
- Sluys, in Dutch Flanders, surrenders August 26; in consequence of which the French republic soon after becomes possessed of all Dutch Flanders.
- The Austrian garrison of Conde surrenders to the French, August 30.
- 1794 Bellegarde, being the last fort, which the allies possessed in France, is taken by general Dugoumier, September 18.
- The fortrefs of Juliers submits to the French, October 3d, and all the German provinces, west of the Rhine, fall into the hands of the republicans.
- The strong dutch garrison of Bois le Duc is taken by the French, October 7.
- Coblentz evacuated by the Austrians upon the approach of the French troops, October 21.
- The garrison of Venlo surrenders to the French general Laurent, October 25.
- Rheinfels, a fortrefs garrisoned by 2000 Hessians, surrenders to the French, Nov. 1.
- The suburb of Praga, near Warfaw, taken by the Russian general Suwarrow, who gives the barbarous orders to his army to give quarters to no one; in consequence of which, upwards of 30,000 Poles, men, women and children, are massacred, Nov. 4.
- The port of Nimeguen evacuated by the British, Nov. 7.
- Warfaw submits to the Russians, Nov. 9.
- The garrison of Maestricht, consisting of 8,000 Austrians, surrenders to the French, as prisoners of war, November 9.
- In consequence of the victories obtained by the French on the 17th and 20th November, the Spanish garrison of Figueras, consisting of 9000 men, soon after surrenders prisoners of war.
- Toulon re-taken by the French 19th Dec. when the combined troops previous to their departure, destroy most of the shipping, arsenals, &c.
- The French make themselves masters of the fortrefs of Graves, 30th Dec.
- 1795 The Dutch stadtholder, being no longer able to resist the progress of the French, evacuates his government and retires to England, Jan. 16.
- After several battles fought between the French and the combined forces of Austria, Prussia, and England (the Dutch making little or no resistance) the French troops arrive at Amsterdam, where they are received by the inhabitants with every demonstration of joy, Jan. 18.
- The old government of the Dutch abolished, and a revolution in favour of liberty commences without any public commotion, Jan. 19.

MEN OF LEARNING AND GENIUS.

N. B. *By the Date is implied the Time when the Writers died; but when that period happens not to be known, the age in which they flourished is signified by β .*

Bef. Christ.

- 907 **HOMER**, the first profane writer and Greek poet, flourished.
 Helioid, the Greek poet, supposed to have lived near the time of Homer.
- 884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.
 600 Sappho, the Greek Lyric poetess, β .
 558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.
 556 Æsop, the first Greek fabulist.
 548 Thales, the first Greek astronomer and geographer.
 497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philosophy in Greece.
 478 Confucius, the Chinese Philosopher.
 474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet.
 456 Æschylus, the first Greek tragic poet.
 435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet.
 413 Herodotus, of Greece, the first writer of profane history.
 407 Aristophanes, the Greek comic poet, β .
 Euripides, the Greek tragic poet.
 406 Sophocles, ditto.
 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy in Greece.
 391 Thucydides, the Greek historian.
 361 Hippocrates, the Greek physician, Democritus, the Greek philosopher.
 359 Xenophon, ditto, and historian,
 348 Plato, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Socrates.
 336 Isocrates, the Greek orator.
 332 Aristotle, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Plato.
 313 Demosthenes, the Athenian orator poisons himself.
 288 Theophrastus, the Greek philosopher, and scholar of Aristotle.
 285 Theocritus, first Greek pastoral poet, β .
 277 Euclid of Alexandria, in Egypt, the mathematician, β .
 270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philosophy in Greece.
 268 Berosus, the Chaldean historian.
 264 Zeno, founder of the stoic philosophy in Greece.
 244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet.
 208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.
 184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet.
 179 Ennius, the Roman poet.
 159 Terence, of Carthage, Latin comic poet.
 155 Diogenes, of Babylon, stoic philosopher.
 124 Polybius of Greece, the Greek and Roman historian.
 54 Lucretius, the Roman poet.
 44 Julius Cæsar, the Roman historian and commentator, killed.
 Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the universal historian, β .

Bef. Christ.

- Vitruvius, the Roman architect, β .
 43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philosopher, put to death.
 Cornelius Nepos, Roman biographer, β .
 34 Sallust, the Roman historian.
 30 Dionysius of Halicarnassus, the Roman historian, β .
 19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet.
 11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman poets.
 8 Horace, Roman lyric and satiric poet.
- Aft. Christ.
- 17 Livy, the Roman Historian.
 19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet.
 20 Celsus, the Roman philosopher and physician, β .
 25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.
 33 Phædrus, the Roman fabulist.
 45 Paterculus, the Roman historian, β .
 62 Perflus, the Roman satiric poet.
 64 Quintus Curtius, a Roman historian of Alexander of Macedon, β .
 Seneca, of Spain, the philosopher and tragic poet, put to death.
 65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, ditto.
 79 Pliny the elder, the Roman natural historian.
 93 Josephus, the Jewish historian.
 94 Epictetus, the Greek stoic philosopher, β .
 95 Quintilian, Roman orator and advocate.
 96 Statius, the Roman epic poet.
 98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman historian, β .
 99 Tacitus, the Roman historian.
 104 Martial of Spain, epigrammatic poet.
 Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
 116 Pliny the younger, historical letters
 117 Suetonius, the Roman historian.
 119 Plutarch of Greece, the biographer.
 128 Juvenal, the Roman satiric poet.
 140 Ptolomy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and astronomer, β .
 150 Justin, the Roman historian, β .
 161 Arrian, the Roman historian and philosopher, β .
 167 Justin of Samaria, the oldest Christian author after the apostles.
 180 Lucian, the Roman philosopher.
 Marcus Aur. Antoninus, Roman emperor and philosopher.
 193 Galen, the Greek philosopher and physician.
 200 Diogenes Laertius, Greek biographer, β .
 229 Dion Cassius, of Greece, the Roman historian, β .
 254 Origen, Christian father of Alexandria.
 Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman historian, β .
 258 Cyprian of Carthage, suffers martyrdom.
 273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian.
 320 Lactantius, a father of the church, β .
 336 Arius, a priest of Alexandria, founder of the sect of Arians.

- Aft. Christ.
- 342 Eusebius, the ecclesiastical historian and chronologer.
- 379 Basil, bishop of Cæsarea.
- 389 Gregory Nazianzen, bishop of Constantinople.
- 395 Claudian, the Roman poet, fl. Heliodorus, Phœnicia, Æthiops, &c.
- 397 Ambrose, bishop of Milan.
- 415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
- 428 Eutropius, the Roman historian.
- 524 Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonic philosopher.
- 529 Procopius, of Cæsarea, the Roman historian.
- MODERN AUTHORS.
- 735 Bede, a priest of Northumberland; history of the Saxons, Scots, &c.
- 901 King Alfred; history, philosophy.
- 980 Avicenna, the Mahometan philosopher and physician.
- 1118 Anna Comena; Alexiad, or life of her father emperor Alexius Comnenus.
- 1206 Averroes, Corduba, the Arabian philosopher.
- 1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St. Albans; history of England.
- 1292 Roger Bacon, Somersetshire; natural philosophy.
- 1321 Dante, Florence; poetry.
- 1374 Petrarch, Arezzo in Italy; poetry.
- 1376 Boccace, Tuscany; the Decameron, poems, &c.
- 1400 Chaucer, London; the father of English poetry.
- 1481 Platina, Italy; Lives of the popes, &c.
- 1502 Montaigne, Perigord in France; essays.
- 1590 Philip de Comines, Flanders; historical memoirs.
- 1517 Martin Luther, the founder of protestantism, fl. John Calvin, do. do. fl.
- 1530 Machiavel, Florence; politics, comedies, &c.
- 1534 Ariosto, Lombardy; Orlando Furioso, and five comedies.
- 1535 Sir Thomas Moore, London; history, politics, &c.
- 1536 Erasmus, Rotterdam; Colloquies, Praise of Folly, &c.
- 1540 Guicciardini, Florence; history of Italy.
- 1543 Copernicus, Thorn in Prussia; astronomy.
- 1549 Michael de Cervantes Saavedra, Alcalá in Spain; Don Quixote, &c.
- 1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.
- 1566 Hannibal Caro, Civita Nuova; poems and translations.
- Vida Cremona; art of poetry, and other didactic poems.
- 1568 Roger Ascham, Yorkshire; philology.
- 1587 Rev. John Knox, the Scots reformer; history of the church of Scotland.
- 1579 Camoens, Lisbon; the Lusid, an epic poem.
- 1582 George Buchanan, Dumbartonshire; history of Scotland, psalms of David, politics, &c.
- 1590 Davila, isle of Cyprus; history of the civil wars of France.
- 1595 Torquato Tasso, Italy; Jerusalem delivered, Aminta, &c.
- Aft. Christ.
- 1598 Edmund Spencer, London; Fairy Queen, and other poems.
- 1600 Rev. Richard Hooker, Exeter; Ecclesiastical Polity.
- 1605 Ulysses Aldrovandus, Bologna; natural history.
- 1608 Mendez, Castile; history of China, fl.
- 1610 Richard Knolles, Northamptonshire; history of the Turks.
- 1612 Battista Guarini, Ferrara; the faithful Shepherd, a pastoral poem.
- 1615-25 Beaumont and Fletcher: 35 dramatic pieces.
- 1616 Wm. Shakespeare, Stratford: 42 dramatic pieces.
- 1622 John Napier, Marcheston, Scotland; inventor of logarithms.
- 1623 William Camden, London; history and antiquities.
- Father Paul Sarpi, Venice; history of the Council of Trent, rights of Sovereigns and subjects, letters, &c.
- 1624 John Mariana, Castile; history of Spain.
- 1625 John Baptist Mariano, Naples; poetry.
- 1626 Lord chancellor Bacon, London; philosophy and literature in general.
- 1627 Lewis de Congora, Cordova; poetry and plays.
- 1628 Francis de Malherbe, Normandy; poetry.
- 1630 John Kepler, Wittenberg; astronomy.
- 1634 Lord Chief Justice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.
- 1635 Trajan Boccalini, Rome; satirical pieces, &c.
- 1638 Ben. Johnson, London; dramatic pieces.
- 1639 Philip Massinger, Salisbury; 14 dramatic pieces.
- 1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.
- Jeremiah Horrox, Lancashire; astronomer, dies at the age of 22.
- 1646 Lewis Veltz de Guevara, Andalusia, comedies.
- 1650 Des Cartes, Touraine; philosophy and mathematics.
- 1654 John Selden, Suffex; antiquities and laws.
- John Lewis de Balzac, Angouleme; letters, &c.
- 1655 Peter Gassendi, Provence; astronomy.
- 1656 Archbishop Usher, Dublin; divinity and chronology.
- 1657 Dr. William Harvey, Kent; discovered the circulation of the blood.
- 1662 Pascal, Auvergne; thoughts upon religion, &c.
- 1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miscellaneous poetry.
- 1669 Sir John Denham, Dublin; Cooper's Hill, and other poems.
- 1673 Moliere, Paris; comedies.
- 1674 John Milton, London; Paradise Lost, Paradise Regained, and various other pieces in verse and prose.
- Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, Wiltshire; history of the civil wars in England.
- 1675 James Gregory, Aberdeen: mathematics, geometry and optics.
- 1677 Rev. dr. Isaac Barrow, London; natural philosophy, mathematics.

- Aft. Christ.
 1677 Rev. Richard Baxter Divinity, &c.
 1680 Samuel Butler, Worcestershire; Hudibras, a burlesque poem.
 Francis, Duke of Rochefoucault, France; maxims.
 Dr. Lewis Moreri, Provence; Historical Dictionary.
- 1683 Mezery, Lower Normandy; Abridgement of the history of France.
- 1684 Wentworth Dillon, Earl of Roscommon, Ireland; essay on translated verse, Horace's art of poetry.
 Peter Cornille, Rouen; 30 dramatic pieces.
- 1685 Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies, &c.
- 1687 Edmund Waller Bucks; poems.
- 1688 Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Somersetshire; Intellectual System.
- 1689 Dr. Thomas Sydenham, Dorsetshire; history of physic.
 Dr. Bonet, Geneva; medicine.
- 1690 Nathaniel Lee, London; 11 tragedies.
 Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers.
- 1691 Robert Boyle, natural and experimental philosophy, &c.
 Sir George Mackenzie, Dundee; Antiquities and laws of Scotland.
- 1694 John Tillotson, Archbishop of Canterbury, Halifax; 254 sermons.
 Antonietta de la Garde Des Houlières, Paris; poetry.
 Marcellus Malpighi, Bologna; discovered the circulation of the sap in plants.
 Puffendorf, Upper Saxony; jurisprudence and history.
- 1695 De Herbelot, Paris; Bibliotheque oriental.
 Huygens, Hague; mathematics and astronomy.
- 1696 John de la Bruyere, France; characters.
 Marchioness De Sevigne, France; letters.
- 1697 Sir W. Temple, London; politics and polite literature.
- 1698 W. Molyneux, Dublin; the case of Ireland stated.
- 1699 John Dryden, Northamptonshire; 27 tragedies and comedies, satiric poems, ode on Saint Cecilia's day, &c.
 Thomas Creech, Dorsetshire; translations.
- 1703 Mascarón, Marseilles; funeral orations.
- 1704 John Locke, Somersetshire; philosophy, government and theology.
 Boccioni, Palermo; natural history.
 Bossuet, Dijon; discourse upon universal History, Funeral Orations, &c.
 Bourdaloue, France; sermons.
- 1705 John Ray, Essex; botany, natural philosophy, and divinity.
- 1706 Baillet, Picardy; Judgments of the learned, biography, &c.
- 1707 George Farquhar, Londonderry; 8 comedies.
 Rev. James Saurin, Sermons, tracts, &c.
- 1708 John Philips, Oxfordshire; Splendid Shilling, and other poems.
- 1709 Thomas Cornelle, brother to Peter; tragedies.
- 1712 Boileau, Paris; satires, epistles, art of poetry, the Lutrin, &c.
- Aft. Christ.
 1712 Cassini, Italy; astronomy.
- 1713 Ant. Ash. Cooper, E. of Shaftesbury; characteristics.
- 1714 Gilbert Burnet, Edinburgh, bishop of Salisbury; history, biography, &c.
- 1715 Malebranche, Paris; philosophy.
- 1716 Francis De Salignac De la Mothe Fenelon, archbishop of Cambrai, Perigord; Telemachus, Dialogues of the Dead, Demonstration of the Being of God, &c.
 Leibnitz, Leipsic; philosophy, &c.
- 1718 Nicholas Rowe, Devonshire; 7 tragedies, translation of Lucan's Pharsalia.
- 1719 Rev. John Flamsteed, Derbyshire; mathematics and astronomy.
 Joseph Addison, Wiltshire; Spectator, Guardian, tragedy of Cato, &c.
 Dr. John Keil, Edinburgh, mathematics and astronomy.
- 1719 Sir Samuel Garth, Yorkshire; poetry.
- 1720 Anne Dacier, France; translation of Homer, Terence, &c.
- 1721 Mathew Prior, London; poems and politics.
- 1723 Fleury, Paris; history.
 Bayle, Foix; historical and critical dictionary.
- 1725 Rapin de Thoyras, Languedoc; history of England.
- 1727 Sir Isaac Newton, Lincolnshire, mathematics, geometry, astronomy, &c.
- 1728 Father Daniel, Rouen; history of France.
- 1729 Rev. Dr. Samuel Clarke, Norwich; mathematics, divinity, &c.
 Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; four comedies, papers in Tatler, &c.
 William Congreve, Staffordshire; seven dramatic pieces.
- 1732 John Gay, Exeter; poems, fables, and eleven dramatic pieces.
- 1734 Dr. John Arbuthnot, Meanshire; medicine, coins, politics.
- 1735 Vertot, France; Revolutions of Rome, Portugal, Sweden, &c.
- 1738 Dr. Boerhave, Leyden; botany, &c.
- 1740 Ephraim Chambers, England; Cyclopadia.
- 1741 Rollin, Paris; history Belles Lettres.
 John Baptiste Rousseau, Paris; odes, epistles, epigrams, comedies, letters.
 Le Sage, Bretany; Gil Blas, &c.
- 1742 Dr. Edmund Halley, London; natural philosophy, astronomy, navigation.
- 1743 Masillon, France; sermons.
 Richard Savage, London; tragedy, &c.
- 1744 Alexander Pope, London; poems, letters, translation of Homer.
- 1745 Rev. Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poems, politics, and letters.
- 1746 Colin McLaurin, Argyleshire; algebra, view of Newton's philosophy.
- 1747 Rev. Jonathan Dickinson, president of Princeton college; divinity.
- 1748 James Thompson, Roxburghshire; Seasons, and other pieces, five tragedies.
 Rev. Dr. Isaac Watts, Southampton; logic, philosophy, psalms, &c.

Afr. Christ.

- Dr. Francis Hutchinson, Ireland; system of moral philosophy.
- 1750 Rev. dr. Conyers Middleton, Yorkshire; life of Cicero, &c.
Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen; metaphysics and natural philosophy.
- 1751 Lord Bolingbroke, Surry; philosophy, metaphysics and politics.
- 1752 Rev. dr. Doddridge; Family Expositor, lectures, sermons, &c.
- 1754 Dr. Richard Mead, London; on poisons, plague, small pox, medicine.
Henry Fielding, Somersetshire; Tom Jones, Joseph Andrews, &c.
- 1755 Montesquieu, Bourdeaux; spirit of laws, grandeur and declension of the Romans, Persian letters, &c.
- 1756 W. Collins, Chichester; poetry.
West, England; translation of Pindar, poems.
- 1757 Reaumur, Rochelle; natural history of insects.
Rev. Aaron Burr, president of Princetown college; Answer to Emlyn's Humble Inquiry, sermons.
Colley Cibber, London; plays.
- 1758 Rev. Jonathan Edwards, president of Princeton college; divinity, metaphysics.
- 1760 Rev. Samuel Davies, president of Princeton college; sermons.
- 1761 Sherlock, bishop of London; sermons.
Hoadley, bishop of Winchester; sermons.
Richardson, London; Grandison, Clarissa Pamela.
Rev. dr. John Leland, Lancashire; answer to deistical writers.
- 1763 Wm. Shenstone, Shropshire; poems.
- 1764 Rev. Chas. Churchill, England; Rosciad, satires.
- 1765 Rev. dr. Edward Young; Night Thoughts, and other poems, &c.
Robert Simson, Glasgow; Conic Sections, Euclid, Apollonius.
- 1766 Rev. dr. Samuel Finley, president of Princeton college; sermons, tracts.
Rev. Thomas Clap, president of Yale college; Sermons, tracts.
- 1767 Dr. Alexander Monro, Edinburgh; anatomy of the bones, anatomical and medical essays.
Metastasio, Italy; dramatic pieces, fl.
- 1768 Rev. Laurence Sterne, Dublin; 45 sermons, Sentimental Journey, Tristram Shandy.
William Cunningham, Ireland; pastorals, &c.
- 1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnshire; harmonies and optics.
- 1770 Dr. Mark Akenside, Newcastle upon Tyne; poems.
Dr. Tobias Smollet, Dumbartonshire; history of England, novels, &c.
- 1771 Thomas Gray, London; poems.
- 1773 Earl of Chesterfield; letters.
George lord Littleton, Worcestershire; history of England.
- 1774 Oliver Goldsmith, Roscommon, in Ireland; History of the Earth and animated Nature, Citizen of the World, essays, &c.

Afr. Christ.

- Hon. Peyton Randolph, first president of the American congress.
- 1775 Dr. John Hawkesworth; essays.
- 1776 David Hume, Merse; history of England, essays.
James Ferguson, Aberdeenshire; astronomy.
- 1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; plays.
- 1778 Voltaire, Paris; the Henriad, an epic poem, dramatic pieces, poetry history, literature in general.
Rev. dr. Eliot, Boston; sermons.
- 1779 David Garrick, Hereford; plays.
Wm. Warburton, bishop of Gloucester; Divine Legation of Moses, and various other works.
- 1780 Sir William Blackstone, judge of the court of common pleas, London; Commentaries on the Laws of England.
Dr. John Fothergill, Yorkshire; philosophy and medicine.
James Harris, Hermes; Philosophical Inquiries, Philosophical Arrangements.
Gov. Hutchinson, Boston, Massachusetts; history.
- 1782 Thomas Newton, bishop of Bristol, Litchfield; discourses on the prophesies, and other works.
Sir John Pringle, bart. Roxboroughshire; Diseases of the Army.
Henry Home, lord Kaimes, Scotland; Elements of Criticism, Sketches of the History of Man, Principles of Equity, of Morality, Art of Thinking, Hints on Education, Gentleman Farmer, &c.
- 1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerkshire; anatomy.
John James Rousseau, Geneva; Emilius, a treatise on Education, Dictionary of Music, New Heloise, &c.
- 1784 Dr. Samuel Johnson, Litchfield; English Dictionary, biography, died Dec. 13, aged 71.
- 1785 Wm. Whitehead, poet laureat; poems and plays.
Dr. Thomas Leland, Ireland; History of Ireland, &c. &c.
- 1786 Dr. Gilbert Stuart, Edinburgh; History of Mary, queen of Scots, History of the Reformation, &c.
- 1787 Rev. dr. Chauncy, Boston; complete view of Episcopacy from the Fathers, Salvation for all men, Sermons, Tracts, &c.
- 1788 The count de Buffon, Paris; natural History.
- 1790 James Bowdoin, gov. Massachusetts; philosophy, politics.
William Livingston, gov. New Jersey; essays poetry, politics.
Dr. Benjamin Franklin, Boston; electricity, natural philosophy; died August 17, aged 84.
- 1791 Rev. John Wesley, divinity, miscellanies.
- 1792 Henry Laurens, South Carolina; president of congress, died Dec. 20.
- 1793 George Campbell, D. D. of Aberdeen; on the miracles of Jesus, rhetoric, &c.
- 1794 John Hancock, one of the first presidents of congress, and afterwards gov. of Massachusetts.
Marquis de Beccaria; on crimes and punishments, died Nov. 27.
Rev. John Witherspoone, president of Princeton college, sermons, &c.

A TABLE OF THE REAL & IMAGINARY MONIES

AMERICA, EUROPE, ASIA, and AFRICA.

With the intrinsic Value of the Coin of each Country, reduced to *Federal Money*.

Note. — Distinctions being made, — signifies equal to
 the figure under the different Species of foreign Coin, denote their Value in Federal Money, e. g. 2 Reals a Dollar, the figure 10 1/2 signifies one Dollar, three Dimes, one Cent, two Mills, and two eighths of a Mill.

UNITED STATES.

1 Dollar	10 Cents	100 Mills	1000 Mills	10000 Mills	100000 Mills	1000000 Mills
1 Dollar	10 Cents	100 Mills	1000 Mills	10000 Mills	100000 Mills	1000000 Mills

AMERICA.

BERMUDA 1 Dollar = 100 Mills	BRITISH 1 Pound = 20 Shillings = 240 Pence	BRITISH 1 Shilling = 12 Pence	BRITISH 1 Penny = 4 Farthings	BRITISH 1 Farthing = 1/4 Pence
BREITENBURG 1 Rixdollar = 16 Schilling = 160 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Rixdollar = 16 Schilling = 160 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Schilling = 12 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Kreuzer = 4 Denar	BRUNSWICK 1 Denar = 1/4 Kreuzer
BREITENBURG 1 Rixdollar = 16 Schilling = 160 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Rixdollar = 16 Schilling = 160 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Schilling = 12 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Kreuzer = 4 Denar	BRUNSWICK 1 Denar = 1/4 Kreuzer
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GERMANY.

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SWITZERLAND.

BRUNSWICK 1 Rixdollar = 16 Schilling = 160 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Schilling = 12 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Kreuzer = 4 Denar	BRUNSWICK 1 Denar = 1/4 Kreuzer
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ITALY.

BRUNSWICK 1 Rixdollar = 16 Schilling = 160 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Schilling = 12 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Kreuzer = 4 Denar	BRUNSWICK 1 Denar = 1/4 Kreuzer
BRUNSWICK 1 Rixdollar = 16 Schilling = 160 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Schilling = 12 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Kreuzer = 4 Denar	BRUNSWICK 1 Denar = 1/4 Kreuzer

INDIA.

BRUNSWICK 1 Rixdollar = 16 Schilling = 160 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Schilling = 12 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Kreuzer = 4 Denar	BRUNSWICK 1 Denar = 1/4 Kreuzer
BRUNSWICK 1 Rixdollar = 16 Schilling = 160 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Schilling = 12 Kreuzer	BRUNSWICK 1 Kreuzer = 4 Denar	BRUNSWICK 1 Denar = 1/4 Kreuzer

AFRICA.

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