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T H E
P R E S E N T S T A T E
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I N

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T H E
P R E S E N T S T A T E
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B R I T I S H E M P I R E

I N

Europe, America, Africa and Asia.

C O N T A I N I N G

A CONCISE ACCOUNT OF OUR POSSESSIONS

I N

EVERY PART OF THE GLOBE;

The Religion, Policy, Customs, Government, Trade, Commerce, and Manufactures, with the natural and artificial Curiosities, of the respective Parts of our Dominions; the Origin and present State of the Inhabitants; their Sciences and Arts; together with their Strength by Sea and Land.

The whole exhibiting

A more clear, though more summary, View of the Power of the British Empire than has hitherto appeared.

J. Goldsmith

L O N D O N :

Printed for W. GRIFFIN, J. JOHNSON, W. NICOLL, and
RICHARDSON and URQUHART.

M D C C L X V I I I .

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P R E F A C E.

THE following compilation has been made from the most approved authors, who have either described any part of our empire, or treated of our interests or constitution. How necessary, and how entertaining a work of this kind is, the reader need scarce be informed, as it speaks itself. In fact, we have given here the matter of volumes, cleared from any thing obsolete or extraneous.

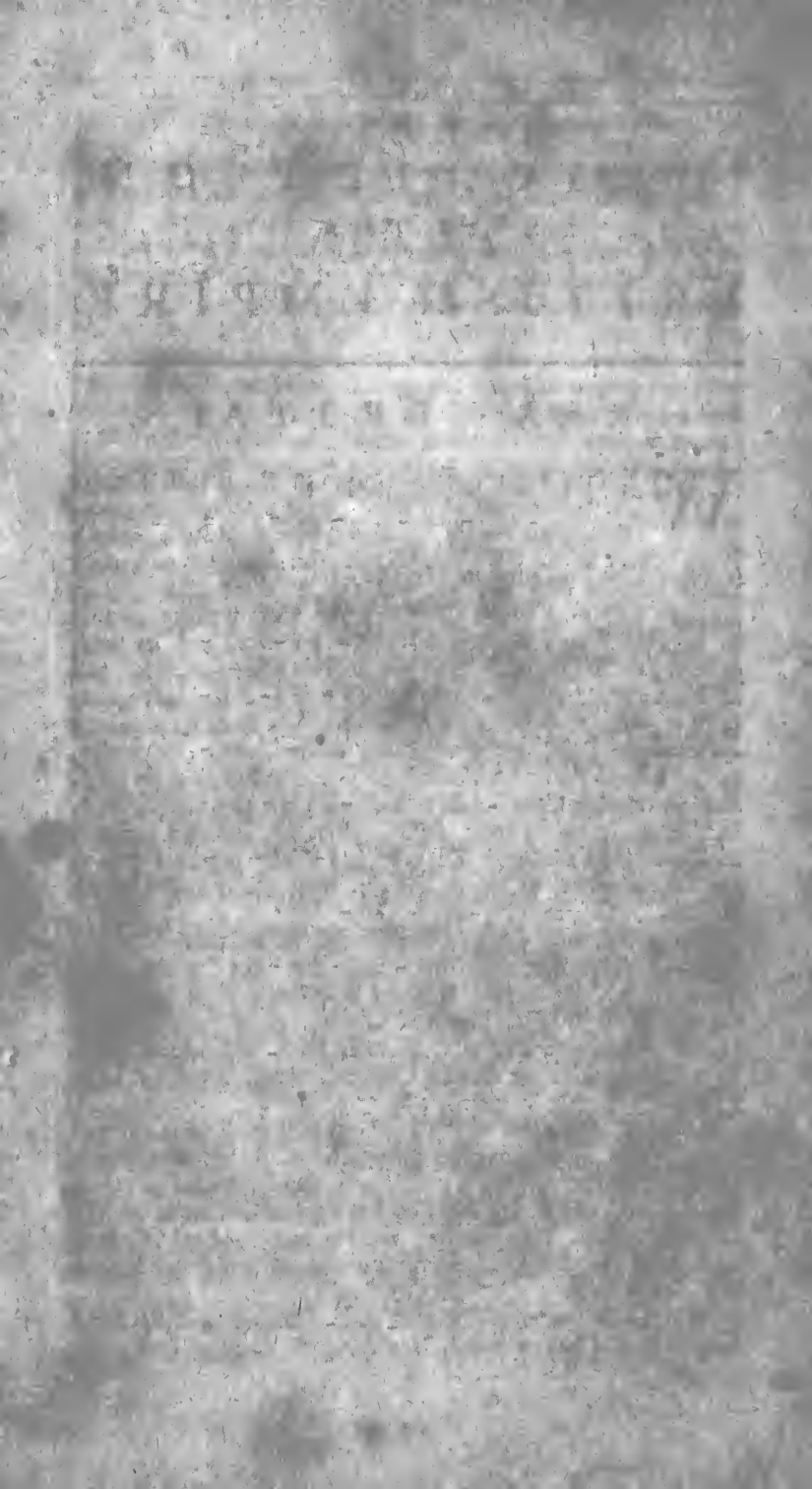
There has been no attempt of this kind in our language hitherto. There could be none, since it was impossible to describe an empire before, like ours, it was completed. Many provinces have been added to it within a few years, and settlements in great abundance, so that it may now be esteemed the greatest sovereignty upon earth, either considered as to its extent or its power. A description therefore of its parts, and the dependance which they have upon each other, can only be found with ease in a work like this, where care has been taken to omit nothing that could enter into our plan, and to reject whatever might mislead or bewilder

wilder the reader. Besides, descriptions of countries are every day subject to change, as the countries themselves happen to alter; and our description being the latest, stands fairest for being the most correct. However, it must not be expected, that in the narrow space to which we have confined ourselves, we can have exhausted all the matter on this subject, which, perhaps, might form a library: we have only laboured to be judicious in one extract, and to give in a small compass what would otherwise cost much study, as well as expence, to whoever should wish to make a familiar compilation.

One thing, the reader will observe, we have generally omitted in our descriptions of each country or province; namely, the limits, and often the course of rivers; for these are much easier found, and much more distinctly conceived by a slight inspection of the map; without which, no reader should sit down to any topographical enquiry. In a word, no pains have been spared to make this work as complete as possible; but being the first of the kind in our language, it is not to be expected to appear without faults.

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A

D E S C R I P T I O N
O F T H E
B R I T I S H E M P I R E.

G R E A T B R I T A I N.

WE shall begin our description of the British Empire with that part of it which most deserves our attention, and regard, namely, Great Britain, which is an island in the Western Ocean; its southern extremity lies in latitude fifty degrees, and the northern extremity in latitude fifty-nine degrees, north: the most western part is in longitude nine degrees forty-five minutes, and its most eastern part in longitude seventeen degrees fifteen minutes, east of Teneriffe, through which the first meridian has been generally supposed to pass. This island therefore from its northern extremity at Caithness in Scotland, to its southern extremity, at the Lizard Point in Cornwall, is 622 miles and an half: and its breadth from its most western part, the Land's End, in Cornwall, to its most eastern part, the South Foreland, in Kent, is 285 miles. England and Wales together receive the denomination of South Britain, Scotland is called North Britain.

South Britain, extends northward to latitude fifty-five degrees, forty minutes, where it is bounded by the river Tweed, which divides it from Scotland; it is bounded on the east by the German Ocean, on the west by a narrow sea, which divides it from Ireland, and on the south by a strait, called the British Channel, which divides it from France.

England, the name of the southern part of Britain distinct from Wales, is supposed to have been originally Angleland, the Land of the Angles, a people who came into Britain with the Saxons, and are thought to have given this name to the country, when, after having invaded and subdued it, they united the kingdoms, into which it was at first divided, into one monarchy.

Wales, the name of the west part of Britain, distinct from England, is a Saxon word, signifying *the Land of Strangers*;

a name which the Saxons thought fit to bestow upon that part of the country, into which they had driven the native inhabitants when they took possession of the rest.

The name England is now often used for all South Britain, including Wales. This country has some peculiar natural advantages and disadvantages as an island; it is subject to perpetual varieties of heat and cold, and wet and dry; but the heat in summer, and the cold in winter, are more temperate than in any part of the continent that lies in the same latitude: the atmosphere is so loaded with vapours, that there is sometimes no sunshine for several days together, though at the same time there is no rain; but the general humidity produced by these vapours, greatly contributes to cover the ground with a perpetual verdure, that is not seen in any other country. The air of the low lands, near the sea coast, is rather unhealthful; but the sea furnishes the inhabitants with great plenty and variety of fish, and the shore is naturally formed into innumerable bays and creeks, which afford excellent harbours for shipping. The air in the inland country is healthy, and the soil generally fertile; the face of the country is diversified by hill and valley, and wood and water, and being much inclosed and cultivated, abounds with prospects that in beauty can scarce be exceeded, even by the fictions of imagination.

As the natural history and antiquities of this part of Great Britain, will be ranged under distinct heads, corresponding with the several districts or counties into which it is now divided, it will be necessary to shew what these divisions are, and to give some account of their origin.

It is also necessary to give some account of the successive invasions of this island by different nations, and of the various forms of government which have by turns been established and subverted, because many remains of antiquity, and many local privileges and peculiarities have a relation to both, which would render an account of them, without such an introduction, manifestly defective and obscure.

The most probable opinion concerning the first inhabitants of Britain, seems to be, that they came from the neighbouring continent of France: these ancient Britons were a rude warlike people, who lived in hovels which they built in the woods, and painted their bodies, which had no covering but the skins of beasts casually thrown over them, without having been shaped into a garment of any kind.

They were divided however into separate tribes, each of which was governed by a separate lord, distinguished by some rude

rude insignia of sovereign power; and from among these lords a general was elected in time of war, who was then invested with supreme command. They had also a kind of civil and religious government, which was chiefly administered by their priests, who were called Druids, and without whose concurrence no judicial determination was made, nor any publick measure undertaken.

Our knowledge of these Britons before they were mixed with the people of other nations, is necessarily defective and uncertain, because they committed nothing to writing, though it appears that they were not unacquainted with letters; for among other maxims of the Druids, collected by Gollet the Burgundian, in his Memoirs of Franche Comte, there is one that forbids their mysteries to be written, a prohibition that could never have been given where letters were not known.

About forty-five years before the Christian æra, Britain was invaded by the Romans, under Julius Cæsar, and at length became a province to the Roman empire. The Romans maintained their conquest by a military force, into which they gradually incorporated the flower of the British youth: this force was divided into different parties, which were placed at convenient stations all over the province; and the Roman general for the time being, was supreme governor of the country.

Such was the state of Britain, till about the year 426, when the irruption of the northern Barbarians into the Roman empire, made it necessary to recall the troops that were in Britain; upon which the emperor Honorius renounced his sovereignty of the island, and released the Britons from their allegiance.

When the Romans abandoned Britain, with the legions, in which all the natives whom they trusted with military knowledge were incorporated, the country being left in a feeble and defenceless state, was invaded by the northern nation called the Scots. The Scots were so rapacious and cruel, that the South Britons invited over the Saxons to deliver them from the intolerable oppression, and drive back the invaders to their own territory, proposing to give them as a reward, the little Isle of Thanet, which is divided by a small canal from the coast of Kent.

The Saxons came over with a great number of Angles, a people who are supposed to have taken their name from a place still called Angel in Denmark; and having driven back the Scots, subdued the country they had delivered for them-

elves, and drove the natives into that part of South Britain now called Wales.

The Saxon generals became petty sovereigns of different districts, and were perpetually committing hostilities against each other, till about the year 823, when a king of the West Saxons, whose name was Egbert, became the sovereign of all England.

About the year 1011, the Danes, who had often invaded various parts of Europe, and of this island in particular, became lords of all the country under Canutus, their chief, who was crowned king of England: but after about twenty years, the sovereignty was recovered by Edward surnamed the Confessor, a prince of the Saxon line.

About the year 1066, England was again invaded and subdued, by William duke of Normandy, called the Conqueror, in whose successors, though not in a lineal descent, the crown has continued ever since.

Some time before this, namely, about the year 896, Alfred the Great, divided England into thirty-two counties or shires.

These after were increased to forty, by the addition of those afterwards distinguished by the names of Durham, Lancashire, Cornwall, Rutlandshire, Monmouthshire, Northumberland, Westmoreland and Cumberland. These, with the addition of twelve, into which Wales was afterwards divided, make the present number fifty-two.

Alfred subdivided each county into trehings, or trithings, of which riding is a corruption, hundreds, and tythings, or decennaries: the trehing was a third part of a county, the hundred was a district containing a hundred families, and the tything a district that contained ten families.

Over the county or shire, he appointed an officer, called a shire-reeve, or sheriff, a word signifying one set over a county or shire: this officer was also called vice-comes, not because he depended upon an earl or comes, but because he was substituted by Alfred in the place of the earl, and appointed to perform the functions which the earls had performed over the district, which they governed during the heptarchy; the sheriff was associated with a judge. The chief of the trehing, or trithing was called by different names; the hundred was put under the jurisdiction of a constable; and the tithing, which was also called a borhoe, or borough, of a head-borough or tithingman.

By this regulation, every man in the kingdom became a member of some one tithing, the householders of which were mutually pledges for each other; so that if any man, accused

of a misdemeanor, was not produced to answer the accusation in one and thirty days, the tithing was fined to the king, and answered for the offence to the party injured. Every male, at the age of fourteen years, was obliged to take an oath to keep the laws: this oath was administered at the county court, by the sheriff, who was obliged to see that the party was properly settled in some tithing, all the householders of which, from that time, became pledges for his good behaviour. This solemn act of suretyship was called frank pledge, as the pledge of franks or freemen.

The county, the tithing, the hundred, and the tithing, had each a court, and an appeal lay from the tithing court to the hundred court, from the hundred court to the tithing court, and from the tithing court to that of the county. An appeal lay also from the county court to a superior court, which was called the king's court, because the king himself presided there, either in person or by his chancellor: this court was then held wherever the king happened to be.

These divisions and regulations were contrived by Alfred, to prevent the robberies, murders, and other acts of violence, which the intestine commotions, and the necessary suspension of civil jurisdiction, had made so frequent, that the whole country was one scene of rapine and bloodshed: the success was beyond the most sanguine expectation, and indeed the accounts of it are almost beyond credit; for it is said, that if a traveller had dropped a sum of money in his way, he would have found it untouched where it had fallen, though he should not have sought it till a month afterwards; and that the king, as a test of the publick security, caused bracelets of gold to be hung up on the high road, even where four ways met, which no man dared to take away.

During the heptarchy there was in each of the seven kingdoms a council that assisted the sovereign; and there was also, on particular occasions, a general council, consisting of representatives, deputed by the particular counsels to assist in such affairs of government as concerned the whole heptarchy, considered as a common interest. These councils or assemblies, called *wetenagemot* are supposed to have been the foundation of British parliaments; but it has never yet been clearly determined, whether in these *wetenagemots* the commons had representatives, whether the legislative power was in the person of the king, in the general council, or in both together; or whether the king had a right to levy taxes by his own authority: but it seems to be generally agreed, that

some members of the *wetenagemot*, whether it consisted of lords only, or of lords and commons, were ecclesiastics, and that its determinations extended to ecclesiastical matters.

To our Saxon ancestors we also owe the inestimable privilege which the commons of England enjoy, of being tried by a jury, twelve men sworn to determine justly according to the evidence, whether the party accused is guilty or not guilty of the fact charged against him: when this question is determined, the judge pronounces such sentence upon the offender as the law has prescribed.

After the Norman conquest many alterations were made from time to time in the form of government, and the manner in which it was administered.

Wales continued to be governed by its own princes and laws till the year 1282, when Llewellyn ap Gryffith, prince of that country, lost both his life and principality to king Edward the first, who created his own son prince of Wales; and ever since the eldest sons of the kings of England have commonly been created prince of Wales.

The parliament now consists of two assemblies or houses, the lords and commons: the house of lords consists of the lords spiritual and temporal; the lords temporal are those who are noble by birth or creation, and have the title of dukes, earls, viscounts, or barons, and those who are noble by some high office, as the lords chief justices of the king's courts; the lords spiritual are the archbishops and bishops.

The house of commons consists of representatives of counties or shires, cities and boroughs. It was formerly required, that the representatives of a county or shire should be knights; and though persons below the degree of knighthood are now chosen, yet the representatives of a county, each county having two, are still called knights of the shire. The representative of a city, is called a citizen, and the representative of a borough a burges: the house of commons is therefore called the knights, citizens, and burgeses, in parliament assembled.

The king's courts, of which there are four, the chancery, king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer, are now held at Westminster. The lord chancellor, or lord keeper of the great seals, presides in the court of chancery, each having the same rank, authority, and office; for the only difference between a chancellor and lord keeper is, that the chancellor is appointed by letters patent, and the lord keeper only by delivery of the seals: the king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer, have each a chief justice, and three assistant

assistant judges; the judges of the exchequer are called barons.

Every county or shire has still a sheriff, but he is now annually appointed by the king, except where the office has been made elective or hereditary by charter. The present duty of the sheriff is to execute the king's writs or mandates, to attend the judges, and see their sentence put in execution, and to give judgment in petty causes, which are still determined in what is called a county court.

There are also in every county justices of the peace, who take cognizance of felonies, trespasses, and other misdemeanors; and the king every year sends into each county two judges of his courts, to hear and determine causes, both of property and life.

But besides the fifty-two counties into which England and Wales are now divided, there are counties corporate, consisting of certain districts, to which the liberties and jurisdictions peculiar to a county are granted by charter from the king. Thus the city of London is a county distinct from Middlesex, and the cities of York, Chester, Bristol, Norwich, Worcester, Kingston upon Hull, and Newcastle, are counties of themselves, distinct from the counties in which they lie.

There are also five sea-ports in the county of Kent, called the cinque ports, which with some towns adjoining to them, have the privilege of holding pleas in courts of law and equity.

They have a governor called lord warden of the cinque ports, who is also governor of Dover castle: of these courts one is held before the lord warden, and the others before the mayor and jurats of the ports themselves. The five ports are Dover, Sandwich, Rumney, Winchelsea, and Rye.

The ecclesiastical divisions of England and Wales are into provinces, dioceses, and parishes: a province is the jurisdiction of an archbishop, a diocese of a bishop, and a parish is a district supposed to be under the care of one priest.

In England there are two provinces, Canterbury and York, and twenty-four dioceses, of which twenty-one are in the province of Canterbury, and three in the province of York.

For the care of a parish the priest is allowed tythes, or a tenth part of all things in his parish that yield an annual increase, besides a portion of land appointed for his separate use, called a glebe; a parish therefore, considered as affording maintenance to a priest, is called a benefice, and some of these benefices have been appropriated to certain religious houses, bishopricks, or colleges, which have enjoyed the revenue,

and appointed an ecclesiastical person to perform the duty, called the cure of souls, at a certain price.

With regard to the king's revenue, according to the best calculations hitherto made, the produce of all the lands in England amounts to something more than fourteen millions yearly. Out of these revenues, about six millions are employed in the annual service of the government, the Civil List, and towards the discharge of the national debt, contracted since the revolution.

Before the late civil wars in the reign of king Charles I. the crown had large revenues from lands, the property of which were vested in it. Besides these, upon any extraordinary occasions, aids and supplies were likewise given by the subject. But as the crown at present, by alienations, and otherwise is much impoverished, there is a Civil List appointed which draws near a million for the support of the king's household and dignity.

The first and chief source from whence the expences of the government are supplied, is the Land Tax, which is computed to produce about two millions; next to the Land Tax is the customs, yielding near fourteen hundred thousand pounds. The Excise, in all its branches, is supposed to bring in at a medium of three years, upwards of two hundred eighty thousand pounds yearly.

B E D F O R D S H I R E .

Name.] THIS county is called Bedfordshire, from Bedford, its principal town, which probably had its name from translating the old British title Lettidur, which signifies inns upon a river, into Bedford, which implies the same thing, namely, beds or inns at the Ford.

The boundaries and extent of this as well as all the ensuing counties, will be better known by an inspection of the map, than by our verbal description; to the map therefore we must beg leave to refer our readers for these as well as several other particulars, such as the rivers, chief towns, or principal harbours, in each county. We are resolved at all times to sacrifice method to perspicuity, and avail ourselves of those advantages that serve to lessen the readers labour as well as our own.

Air and Soil.] The air of this county is pure and healthful, and the soil in general a deep clay.

On the north side of the Ouse it is fruitful and woody; on the south side it is less fertile though not barren. It produces

duces wheat and barley in great abundance, and of an excellent kind; woad, a plant used by dyers, is also cultivated here; and the soil affords plenty of fuller's earth, an article of so much importance to our woollen manufactory, that the exportation of it is prohibited by act of parliament.

Manufactures.] The principal manufactures of Bedfordshire are bone lace; and straw wares, particularly hats.

Curiosities.] Its antiquities or curiosities are not numerous, although we find some. At Sandy near Biggleswade, many Roman urns and coins have formerly been found, and still they dig up some pieces. A little north of Dunstable, are the two fields called Great and Little Danes Field, in which are several pits about fifteen feet diameter. In the grounds near Dunstable are still found Roman coins, called by the people Madning money, perhaps from Magiovinum the original name of the place. On the descent from the Chiltern Hills is an area of nine acres, surrounded with a deep ditch and rampier, called Maidin Bourg.

The plant Woad, mentioned above, of very great use in dying, and with which this county abounds, is ordered in the following manner: The old Woad being first plucked up (except what is designed for seed) they sow yearly fresh seed about the beginning of March. It is cropped for the first time about the middle of May, and four or five times afterwards as the leaf comes up, especially in a wet summer; though the best sort, in smaller quantities, is produced in dry years. The first crop excels in goodness all the rest, as they degenerate every time. The crop is carried to the woad-mill, and ground so small as to be made up into balls, which, after being dried on hurdles, are again ground to powder. After this it is couched, which is done by spreading and watering it on a floor; then by turning it every day, it is silvered, that is, made perfectly dry and mouldy. Thus it is become ready for the dyer, and sent in bags of 200 weight, who upon proof of its goodness, sets the price. The best sort yields 18l. per ton. The tincture of this plant was employed by the antient Britains in dying their bodies to make them more formidable to their enemies, and perhaps to preserve their bodies against the inclemency of the weather. They called it glasse, i. e. sky-colour.

At Pullux-hill, near Ampthill, some years ago a gold mine was discovered, but it is now entirely neglected, the profit falling short of the expence of extracting the metal from the ore. At Aspby, near Woburn, is a small stream which petrifies wood, at least gives it the appearance of stone; in
which

which remarkable quality the banks and earth adjoining likewise share, as was discovered by a ladder lying buried some time.

Various particulars.] This county sends four members to Parliament, whereof two are for the county, and two are for Bedford. It lies in the diocese of Lincoln, in the Norfolk circuit: the number of vicarages is 58, parishes 116, and of villages 550. The division of it is into 9 hundreds, containing 12,170 houses, upwards 60,000 inhabitants, and the area of it is about 260,000 acres.

B E R K S H I R E.

Name.] **I**N the most ancient Saxon annals, the name of this county is written Bearscire: and from this the present name Berkshire is immediately derived. Some have supposed the name to have been originally derived from that of a wood which produced great quantities of box which was called Burroc; but many have been the conjectures upon this subject, let us not therefore waste time in conjecture.

Air, Soil, and Natural Productions.] The air of this county is healthy even in the vales, and though the soil in general is not the most fertile, yet the appearance of the country is remarkably pleasant, being delightfully varied with hill and valley, wood and water, which is seen at once in almost every prospect.

It is well stored with timber, particularly oak and beech; and some parts of it produce great plenty of wheat and barley. It is most fruitful on the banks of the Thames and the Kennet, and in the country about the river Lambourne, on the western side, where it borders on Wiltshire; but on the east side, where it borders upon Surry, it is rather barren being covered with woods and forests.

Manufactures.] It was once superior to all the rest of the island in the manufacture of wool; and its principal manufactures now are woollen cloth, sail cloth, and malt.

Though we pass over the less remarkable towns, we must not omit to mention Windsor, 23 miles distant from London, which was incorporated by king Edward the first, and which from its antiquity and beautiful situation may be reckoned one of the most celebrated of Europe. It is situated on a rising ground: the principal street looks southward over a
long

long and spacious valley, chequered with corn-fields and meadows, interspersed with groves, and watered by the Thames, which glides through the prospect in a transfluent and gentle stream; which fetching many windings, seems to linger in its way. On the other side, the country swells into hills which are neither craggy nor over high, but rise with a gradual ascent covered with perpetual verdure where they are not adorned with trees. In the street there are many good buildings, and a very handsome town hall, which was built in the time of king Charles the second.

At the north east end of this town, there is a castle which is about a mile in circumference, and consists of two square courts, one to the east and the other to the west, with a circular tower between them; in the eastern square there is a royal palace, and in the middle an equestrian statue of king Charles the second; the royal apartments with those of the great officers of state are to the north; and on the outside of this square to the north, the east, and the west, there is a terrace said to be the finest in the world; it is faced with free stone like the ramparts of a fortified place, and is covered with fine gravel; it is also so well furnished with drains, that it is always dry, even immediately after the heaviest and longest rains; to the north, where it is broadest, it is washed by the Thames; and the prospect from the apartments over it include London one way, and Oxford the other. The apartments are all spacious and elegant, richly adorned with sculptures and paintings, particularly a hall called St. George's Hall, where the Sovereign of the order of the Garter used to feast the knights companions of his order every St. George's day.

The tower, which is the residence of the constable or governor, is built in the manner of an amphitheatre, very lofty and magnificent.

The western square is of the same breadth as that to the east, and is considerably longer. On the north side of this court or square, is the chapel of the order of the Garter dedicated to St. George; in this chapel the knights are installed, and in the choir each of them has a seat or stall with the banner of his arms fixed over it. This chapel has a dean and six canons, who have houses on the north side of it in the form of a fetlock, which was one of the badges of Edward the fourth, who rebuilt them. Near the chapel there are also little cells for eighteen poor knights, supposed to be gentlemen who have been wounded in war, impaired by age, or become indigent by misfortune; each has a pension

pension of 40 l. a year. They wear a cassock of red cloth with a mantle of purple, having St. George's cross on the left shoulder; they have stalls in the middle of the choir just below those of the knights of the garter; and are obliged by their order to go twice a day to church in their robes to pray for the sovereign and the knights of the order. The chapel has also a chauntry; and at the west end of this square are the houses of the choristers; at the bottom is the library. This square is surrounded with a high wall, as the other is by a terrace; and both are entered by a stone bridge with a gate.

At a little distance stands Old Windsor, which Camden says has been falling to decay ever since the time of Edward the third. At the conquest, Old Windsor consisted of one hundred houses, of which twenty-two were exempt from tax, and thirty shillings were levied upon the rest.

Near this place there are also two parks; one called the little park, and the other the great park. The little park is about three miles in compass; the walks are finely shaded, and it is well stocked with deer. The great park is not less than fourteen miles in compass. It abounds with all kinds of game, and is so embellished by nature, as to surpass all that can be produced by the utmost labour and ingenuity of art. A circuit of thirty miles south of this place is called the forest; and the forest is also well stocked with game.

Curiosities.] The most remarkable curiosity in this county is the rude figure of a white horse, which takes up near an acre of ground, on the side of a green hill. A horse is known to have been the Saxon standard; and some have supposed that this figure was made by Hengist one of the Saxon kings; but Mr. Wise, the author of a letter on this subject to Dr. Mead, published in 1738, brings several arguments to shew that it was made by the order of Alfred, in the reign of his brother Ethelred, as a monument of his victory gained over the Danes, in the year 871, at Ashdown, now called Ashen or Ashbury Park, the seat of lord Craven, near Ashbury, not far from this hill. Others however suppose it to have been partly the effect of accident, and partly the work of shepherds, who observing a rude figure, somewhat resembling a horse, as there are in the viens of wood and stone many figures that resemble trees, caves and other objects, reduced it by degrees to a more regular figure. But however this be, it has been a custom immemorial for the neighbouring peasants to assemble on a certain day about Midsummer, and clear away the weeds from this white horse,
and

and trim the edges to preserve its colour and shape; after which the evening is spent in mirth and festivity.

The hill stands a little to the north of upper Lambourne, and is called White-horse Hill. To the north of this hill there is a long valley reaching from the western side of the county, where it borders upon Wiltshire, as far as Wantage, which from this hill is called the Vale of Whitehorse, and is the most fertile part of the county. The river Lambourne is not one of the least curiosities of this county; since contrary to the nature of all other rivers, it is highest in summer and shrinks gradually as winter approaches, till at last it is nearly if not entirely dry.

The river Kennet is remarkable for producing the finest trout in the kingdom. They are in general very large, and it is said that some have been taken here which measured five and forty inches long.

East and West Enbourne, near Newbury, are remarkable for the well known whimsical custom of the manor, taken notice of in the spectator. The widow of every copyhold tenant is intitled to the whole copyhold estate of her husband, so long as she continues unmarried and chaste; if she marries, she loses her widow's estate without remedy; but if she is guilty of incontinence, she may recover her forfeiture, by riding into court on the next court day, mounted on a black ram, with her face towards the tail, and the tail in her hand, and repeating the following lines:

Here I am, riding on a black ram
 Like a whore as I am;
 And for my *crincum crancum*
 Have lost my *bincum bancum*,
 And for my tail's game
 Am brought to this world's shame,
 Therefore, good Mr. Steward, let me have my lands again.

Various particulars.] The length of this county from east to west, is about forty-five miles; and its breadth near twenty-five. It sends nine members to parliament; two knights for the shire, as many for Reading, New Windsor, Wallingford, and one for *Abbingdon*. It lies in the diocese of Salisbury, and in the Oxford circuit. There are in it 140 parishes, 62 vicarages, and 671 villages. It is divided into 22 hundreds, containing about 16,900 houses, and 84,500 inhabitants. The area of the county in acres is computed at 527,000.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE.

Name.] **T**HIS county is supposed to have been called Buckinghamshire, either from a Saxon word, signifying Beech Trees, with which it abounded, or from Buc, which is the same with our buck; for the woods of this county abounded also with deer.

The south-east part of the country lies high, and consists of a ridge of hills, called the chiltern, probably from Cylt or Chilt, a Saxon name for chalk; the northern part is distinguished by the name of the Vale.

Air and Soil.] On the Chiltern Hills the air is extremely healthful, and in the vale it is better than in the low grounds of other counties. The soil of the Chiltern is stoney, yet it produces good crops of wheat and barley: in many places it is covered with thick woods, among which there are still great quantities of beech. In the vale, which is extremely fertile, the soil is marl or chalk; some part of it is converted into tillage, but much more is used for grazing; the gentlemen who have estates in this county, find grazing so lucrative, that they generally keep their estates in their own hands; and the lands that are let fetch more rent than any other in the kingdom. One single meadow, called Berryfield, in the manor of Quarrendon, not far from Aylsbury, was let many years ago for 800 l. per annum, and has been since let for much more.

Manufactures] The chief manufactures of Buckinghamshire are bone lace and paper.

Of the towns we may make mention of Eton, which stands on the borders of Berkshire, and is joined to Windsor by a wooden bridge over the Thames, there is a college of royal foundation, for the maintenance of a provost and seven fellows, two schoolmasters, two conducts, one organist, seven clerks, ten choristers, and other officers, and for the instruction of seventy poor grammar scholars, who are nominated by the king, and are therefore called king's scholars; these scholars, when they are properly qualified, are elected on the first Tuesday in August, to King's College in the university of Cambridge, where, after they have been students three years, they claim a fellowship; but as there is not always a vacancy at Cambridge, the scholars remain at Eton till vacancies happen; and these vacancies they fill up according to seniority.

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The school is divided into two parts, the upper and the lower, and each of these is sub-divided into three classes. Into the lower school children are admitted very young, but none enter the upper school till they can make Latin verses, and have some knowledge of Greek. Besides the seventy scholars on the foundation, there are seldom less than 300 for whose education the masters are paid, and who board at the masters houses. The master of each school therefore has four assistants or ushers. The building has large cloysters like the religious houses abroad, and the chapel is a noble pile, though the architecture is Gothic.

The present school-room is a modern building; and the other parts of the college have been repaired and beautified at great expence. There is a library for the use of the school, which was greatly increased by two other collections; one bequeathed by Dr. Waddington, a bishop of Chester, valued at 2000l. and the other by the late lord chief justice Reeves, to whom it had been given by the will of Richard Topham, esq; who had been keeper of the records in the Tower of London.

The gardens of this college are very extensive and pleasant; and the revenue is about 5000l. a year.

Various particulars.] This county sends fourteen members to parliament; viz. two knights of the shire; two for Buckingham; as many for Aylesbury, for Chipping-Wicomb, for Marlow, and for Wendover. It lies in the diocese of Lincoln, and the Norfolk circuit. The number of its vicarages is 73, of its parishes 185, with 615 villages. Its division is into eight hundreds, containing about 18,000 houses, and 91,900 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed 441,000 acres.

CAMBRIDGESHIRE.

Name.] THIS county is called Cambridgeshire, from its principal town Cambridge, which evidently derives its name from its bridge over the river Cam.

Air and Soil.] A considerable tract of land in this county is distinguished by the name of the Isle of Ely: it consists of fenny ground, divided by innumerable channels and drains, and is part of a very spacious level, containing 300,000 acres of land, and extending from this county into Norfolk, Suffolk,

Suffolk, Huntingdonshire, Northamptonshire, and Lincolnshire. The Isle of Ely is the northern division of the county, and extends southward almost as far as Cambridge. The whole level, of which this is part, is bounded on one side by the sea, and on the others by uplands, which taken together, form a kind of rude semicircle, resembling a horse shoe.

This level is generally supposed to have been overflowed in some violent convulsion of nature, preternatural swelling of the sea, or an earthquake, which left the country flooded with a lake of fresh water, as has frequently happened in other places. It is certain that the fens in Cambridgeshire were once very different from what they are now. William of Malmesbury, an historian of great credit, who wrote in the twelfth century, says, that in his time this country was a terrestrial paradise. He describes it as a plain that was level and smooth as water, covered with perpetual verdure, and adorned with a great variety of tall, smooth, taper, and fruitful trees: here, says he, is an orchard bending with apples, and there is a field covered with vines, either creeping upon the ground, or supported by poles. In this place art also seems to vie with nature, each being impatient to bestow what the other withholds. The buildings are beautiful beyond description; and there is not an inch of ground that is not cultivated to the highest degree.

But whatever was the condition of this county and its inhabitants formerly, it is extremely bad at present; the waters stagnating, for want of proper channels to run off, become putrid, and fill the air with noxious exhalations; the inhabitants of the neighbouring towns could have no communication with each other by land, and a communication by water was in many places difficult, and in others impracticable; for though the water covered the ground to a considerable height, yet it was so choaked with mud and sedge, and reeds, that a boat could not every where make way through it: and in winter, when the surface was so frozen as to prevent all navigation, and yet not hard enough to bear horses, the inhabitants of many islands among these fens, were in danger of perishing for want of food.

To remedy these evils, many applications were made to the government for cutting rivers and drains, which was many times attempted but without success.

In the reign of Charles the first, Francis Ruffel, who was then earl of Bedford, agreed with the inhabitants of the several drowned countries to drain the whole level, in consideration of a grant of ninety-five thousand acres of the
land

land that he should drain, to his own use. The earl admitted several other persons to be sharers with him in this undertaking, and they proceeded in the work till one hundred thousand pounds had been expended; but the ground was still under water. It was then undertaken by the king, who engaged to compleat the work for 69,000 acres more, and proceeded on the attempt till the civil war broke out, which first put an end to his projects, and then to his life. During the civil war the work stood still; but in the year 1649, William, earl of Bedford, and the other adventurers, who had been associated with Francis, resumed the undertaking upon their original contract for 95,000 acres; and after having expended 300,000*l.* more, the work was compleated. But the expence being much more than the value of the 95,000 acres, many of the adventurers were ruined by the project, and the sanction of the legislature was still necessary to confirm the agreement, and invest the contractors with such rights and powers as would enable them to secure such advantages as they had obtained. King Charles the Second therefore upon application, recommended it to his parliament, and in the fifteenth year of his reign, an act was passed, intituled an act for settling the drains of the Great Level called (from the first private undertaker) Bedford Level. By this act the proprietors were incorporated by the name of the Governor, Bailiffs, and Commonalty, of the Company of the Conservators of the Great Level of the Fens. The corporation consists of one governor, six bailiffs, and twenty conservators. The governor and one bailiff, or two bailiffs without the governor, and three conservators, make a quorum, and are impowered to act as commissioners of sewers, to lay taxes on the 95,000 acres, to levy them with penalties for non-payment, by sale of a sufficient part of the land on which the tax and penalty are due. But by this act the whole 95,000 acres were not vested in the corporation. The king reserved 12,000 acres to himself, 10,000 of which he assigned to his brother, the duke of York, and two thousand he gave to the earl of Portland.

In the Isle of Ely the air is damp, foul, and unwholesome; but in the south-east parts of the county it is more pure and salubrious; the soil is also very different: in the Isle of Ely it is hollow and spongy, yet affords excellent pasturage: in the uplands to the south-east, the soil produces great plenty of bread corn, and barley. The dry and barren parts have been greatly improved by sowing the grass

called *saint foin*, holy grafs, from its having been first brought into Europe from Palestine.

Natural Productions and Manufactures.] The principal commodities of Cambridgeshire are corn, malt, cattle, butter, saffron, coleseed, hemp, fish, and wild-fowl. The wild-fowl are taken in decoys, places convenient for catching them, into which they are led by tame ducks that are trained for that purpose; and in the Isle of Ely there is such plenty of these birds, that 3000 couple are said to be sent to London every week; and there is one decoy near Ely, which lets for five hundred pounds a-year. The principal manufactures of this county are paper and wicker ware.

In the description of this county we must not omit that of the university of Cambridge, which consists of sixteen colleges, four of which are distinguished by the name of halls, though the privileges of both are in every respect equal. It is a corporation, consisting of about 1,500 persons, and is governed by a chancellor, a high steward, two proctors, and two taxers. All these officers are chosen by the university. The chancellor is always a peer of the realm, and generally continues in his office for life, by the tacit consent of the university, though a new choice may be made every three years. As the chancellor is a person of so high rank, it is not expected or intended, that he should execute the office; but he has not the power of appointing his substitute: a vice chancellor is chosen annually, on the third of November, by the university; he is always the head of some college, the heads of the colleges returning two of their body, of which the university elects one. The high steward is chosen by the senate, and holds his place by patent from the university. The proctors and taxers are also chosen every year, from the several colleges and halls by turns.

The publick schools, of which there is one for every college, are in a building of brick and rough stone, erected on the four sides of a quadrangular court. Every college has also its particular library, in which, except that of King's College, the scholars are not obliged to study, as in the libraries at Oxford, but may borrow the books, and study in their chambers. Besides the particular libraries of the several colleges, there is the university library, which contains the collections of the archbishops Parker, Grindal, and Sancroft; and of Dr. Thomas Moore, bishop of Ely, consisting of 30,000 volumes, which was purchased for 7000*l.* and presented to the university by his late majesty king George the First, in the year 1715.

Each

Each college has also its particular chapel, where the masters, fellows, and scholars meet every morning and evening, for the publick worship of God, though on Sundays and holidays, when there is a sermon, they attend at St. Mary's church.

The names of the colleges are Peter-House, Clare-Hall, Pembroke-Hall, Corpus Christi, or Benedict College, Trinity-Hall, Gonvil and Caius College, King's College, Queen's College, Catherine-Hall, Jesus College, Christ's College, St. John's College, Magdalen College, Trinity College, Emanuel College, and Sidney Suffex College.

The whole number of fellows is 406, and of scholars 660; beside which there are 236 inferior officers and servants of various kinds, who are maintained upon the foundation.

These however are not all the students of the university; there are two sorts of students, called pensioners, the greater and the less; the greater pensioners are in general the young nobility, and are called fellow commoners, because though they are scholars, they dine with the fellows; the less are dieted with the scholars, but live at their own expence. There are also a considerable number of poor scholars, called sizar, who wait upon the fellows and scholars, and the pensioners of both ranks, by whom they are in a great degree maintained; but the number of these pensioners and sizar cannot be ascertained, as it is in a state of perpetual fluctuation.

Curious particulars.] There is in the neighbourhood of Cambridge, on the east side, a village called Sturbridge, from the little brook Stour, or Sture, which runs by it, that is remarkable for a fair, which was once the greatest temporary mart in the world; and is now so considerable as to deserve particular notice.

It is held in a corn-field about half a mile square, which is covered with booths that are built in regular rows, and divide the area into many streets, which are called Cheapside, Cornhill, the Poultry, and by the names of many other streets in London, to distinguish them from each other. Among these booths there are not only ware-houses and shops, for almost every kind of commodity and manufacture, but coffee-houses, taverns, eating-houses, musick-houses, buildings for the exhibition of drolls, puppet-shows, legerdemain, wild beasts and monsters. There is an area of about 100 yards square, called the Duddery, where the clothiers unload, that is scarce inferior to Blackwell Hall; and in this place woollen goods have been sold to the value

of 100,000 l. in a week; and the manufacturers of Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex, generally lay out sixty thousand pounds in wool: the upholsterers and ironmongers wares amount to a prodigious sum; and hops to still more, the price of which, all over the kingdom, is generally settled at this fair; and large commissions are negotiated for all parts of the kingdom. This fair begins on the eighteenth of September, and continues a fortnight. The last day is appropriated to the sale of horses, and to horse and foot races, for the diversion of the company.

The heavy goods from London, are brought by sea to Lynn, in Norfolk, whence they are carried in barges up the Ouse to the Cam, and so to the fair. The concourse of people, whom business and idleness concur to bring to this place, is so great, that not only Cambridge, but all the neighbouring towns and villages are full; and the very barns and stables are converted into drinking rooms and lodgings, for the meaner sort of people. More than fifty hackney coaches from London are frequently found plying at this place; and even wherries have been brought from the Thames in waggons, to row people up and down the Cam. But notwithstanding the multiplicity of business, and the concourse of people, there is very seldom any confusion or disorder, by which either life or property is endangered; for a court of justice is held here every day by the magistrates of Cambridge, who proceed in a summary way, and with such steadiness and diligence, that the fair is in many respects like a well ordered city. Near this place there is an excellent causeway, which reaches near four miles, and was begun by Dr. Hervey, master of Trinity-Hall, and finished by William Wortes, Esq; of Cambridge.

The inhabitants of the fenny part of the county of Cambridge, now called the Isle of Ely, and of the rest of the Great Level in Huntingdonshire, Northamptonshire, and Lincolnshire, were in the time of the Saxons, distinguished by the name of Girvii, or Fen-Men; and notwithstanding William of Malmesbury's description of Thorney Abbey, the country was then in such a condition, that these Girvii used to walk aloft on a kind of stilts, to keep them out of the water and slime. There is a kind of happy prejudice which has such a remote kindred to virtue, as bigotry has to religion, by which men are induced to consider their own country, whatever are its disadvantages, as the best in the world; and it not would have been strange, if the walkers on stilts, who breathed the noxious vapour of stagnant waters instead of air,

had

had regarded those who walked upon the ground in an happier situation with an air of contempt, especially as the fruitfulness of the country, when the rivers were not obstructed, made them rich; but Camden says that they were a rugged uncivilized race, who if they did not repine at their situation, envied not that of their neighbours, whom they called Upland Men, not however as a name of honour but distinction.

Various particulars.] Cambridgeshire sends six members to parliament, viz. two knights of the shire; two members for the town of Cambridge, and two for the university. It lies partly in the diocese of Ely, and partly in that of Norwich, and the Norfolk circuit. It contains eighty-three vicarages, 163 parishes, and 279 villages. Its division is into sixteen hundreds, containing about 17,340 houses, 86,730 inhabitants, and 570,000 acres.

C H E S H I R E.

CHESHIRE, the present name of this county, is a contraction of Chestershire, and derived from Chester, the name of its city. It is a county palatine, great part of which is a champaign, called by king Edward the First, for its great fruitfulness, Vale Royal of England.

Air and Soil.] The air of this county is serene and healthful, but proportionably colder than the more southern parts of the island. The country is in general flat and open, though it rises into hills on the borders of Staffordshire and Derbyshire, and contains several forests, two of which, called Delamere and Macclesfield, are of considerable extent. The soil, in many parts, is naturally fertile; and its fertility is greatly increased by a kind of marle, or fat clay, of two sorts, one white and the other red, which the peasants find in great abundance, and spread upon their land as manure: corn and grass is thus produced with the most plentiful increase; and the pasture is said to be the sweetest of any in the kingdom. There are however several large tracts of land covered with heath and moss, which the inhabitants can use only for fuel. The mossy tracts consist of a kind of moorish boggy earth; the inhabitants call them mosses, and distinguish them into white, grey, and black, from the colour of the moss that grows upon them. The white mosses, or bogs, are evidently com-
pages of the leaves, seeds, flowers, stalks, and roots of herbs,
plants,

plants, or shrubs. The grey consists of the same substances in a higher degree of putrefaction; and the only difference of the black is, that in this the putrefaction is perfect; the grey is harder, and more ponderous than the white; and the black is closer and more bituminous than either. From these masses, square pieces like bricks are dug out, and laid in the sun to dry for fuel, and are called turfs,

Natural Productions and Manufactures.] The chief commodities of this county are cheese, salt, and millstones. The cheese is esteemed the best in England, and furnished in great plenty by the excellent pasturage on which the cattle are fed. The salt is produced not from the water of the sea, but from salt springs, which rise in Northwich, Namptwich, Middlewich, and Dunham, at the distance of about six miles from each other; and about thirty from the sea. The pits are seldom more than four yards deep, and never more than seven. In two places in Namptwich the spring breaks out in the meadows, so as to fret away the grass; and a salt liquor ouzes through the earth, which is swampy to a considerable distance. All these springs lie near brooks and in meadow grounds. The water is so very cold at the bottom of the pits, that the briners cannot stay in them above half an hour at a time, nor so long, without frequently drinking strong waters. Some of these springs afford much more water than others; but it is observed, that there is more salt in any given quantity of water drawn from the springs that yield little, than in the same quantity drawn from those that yield much; and that the strength of the brine is generally in proportion to the scantiness of the spring. It is also remarkable, that more salt is produced from the same quantity of brine in dry weather, than in wet. Whence the brine of these springs is supplied, is a question that has never yet been finally decided: some have supposed it to come from the sea; some from subterraneous rocks of salt, which were discovered in those parts, about the middle of the last century; and others from subtil saline particles, subsisting in the air, and deposited in a proper bed. It is not probable that this water comes from the sea, because a quart of sea water will produce no more than an ounce and an half of salt, but a quart of water from these springs, will often produce seven or eight ounces.

The stone which is wrought into mill-stones, is dug from a quarry at Mowcop Hill, near Congleton.

Though we generally pass over the towns unnoticed, we must not omit a short description of the antient city of Chester, which is distant 182 miles from London; and is governed

governed by a mayor, twenty-four aldermen, two sheriffs, and forty common council men. It has nine churches, not ill built, one of which is the cathedral, having the parish church in the south isle, dedicated to St. Werburgh. The cathedral, with the bishop's palace, and the houses of the prebendaries, are on the north side of the city, which is built in a square form, and surrounded by a wall, with battlements, that are two miles in compass. The two principal streets intersect each other at right angles, and form an exact cross. At the intersection, which is nearly in the center of the city, there is a spacious area, called the Pentise, in which stands the town-house, with an exchange, a neat building, supported by columns thirteen feet high, of one stone each. The houses, which in general are timber, are very large and spacious, and are built with a piazza before them, so that foot passengers go from one end of the city to the other, under complete shelter from the weather. This manner of building however has its disadvantage; for the shops which lie behind the piazza, are very close and dark, and in other respects incommodious. These piazzas are called rows; and the pavement is considerably above the level of the street, into which there are descents by steps, placed at convenient distances. The city has four gates, one at each end of the two great streets, which are placed exactly east, west, north, and south, and a castle, on a rising ground on the south side, which is in part surrounded by the river Dee, and is a place of considerable strength. A garrison is always kept in it.

Natural history and Curiosities.] In this county there are several mineral springs, particularly at Stockport there is a chalybeate said to be stronger than that at Tunbridge. In the morasses, or mosses, whence the country people cut their turf, or peat, for fuel, there are marine shells in great plenty, pine cones, nuts and shells, trunks of fir trees, and fir apples, with many other exotic substances. The morasses, in which these substances are found, are frequently upon the summits of high mountains; and the learned have been much divided in their opinions how they came there. The general opinion is, that they were brought thither by a deluge, not merely from their situation, but because seven or eight vast trees are frequently found lying much closer to each other than it was possible they should grow; and under the trees are frequently found the exuviae of animals, as shells and bones of fishes; and particularly the head of an hippopotamus was dug from one of these moors, some years

ago, and was seen by Dr. Leigh, who has written the Natural History of this county. There are however substances of a much later date than the general deluge, found among these trees and exuvæ, particularly a brass kettle, a millstone, and some amber beads, which were given to the doctor soon after they were dug up. The fir trees which are dug up by the peasants, are so full of turpentine, that they are cut out into slips and used instead of candles.

Various particulars.] This county sends four members to parliament; two for the county and two for Chester. It lies in the northern circuit, and diocese of Chester. It contains twenty vicarages, 68 parishes, and near 670 villages. Its division is into seven hundreds, in which are contained about 24,000 houses, and upwards of 12,000 inhabitants. The area of the county is commonly thought to be about 720,000 acres.

C O R N W A L L.

Name.] CORNWALL, the most western county of England, is supposed by some to derive its name from the British word Corn, a horn, either because the whole county is shaped like a cornucopia, or because on the western extremity it shoots out into two promontories, or horns, called the Land's End, and the Lizard Point.

Air and Soil.] Four fifths of the circumference of this county being washed by the sea, the air is necessarily more damp than in places that lie remote from the coast. A dry summer is here extremely rare; but the rains are rather frequent than heavy; and there are few days so wet, but that some part of them is fair, and few so cloudy, but that there are intervals of sunshine. Storms of wind are more sudden and more violent than within the land, and the air is impregnated with salt, which rises with the vapours from the sea; this quality of the air is very unfavourable to scorbutic habits; it is also hurtful to shrubs and trees, and in general to tender shoots of whatever kind, which after a storm, which drives the sea air upon them, generally appear shriveled and have a salt taste, for this reason there are no such plantations of wood on rising grounds, nor any such hedge-rows of tall trees, in Cornwall, as there are in the northern counties of England which, though farther from the sun, are not exposed to blasts from the sea.

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In Cornwall however, the winters are more mild than in any other part of the island, so that myrtles will flourish without a green-house, if they are secured from the salt winds that blow from the sea; the snow seldom lies more than three or four days upon the ground, and a violent shower of hail is scarce ever known. The spring shows itself early in buds and blossoms, but its progress is not so quick as elsewhere. The summers are not hotter in proportion, as the winters are less cold; for the air is always cooled by a breeze from the sea, and the beams of the sun are not reflected from the surrounding water with so much strength, as from the earth; it happens therefore, that though Cornwall is the most southern county in England, yet the harvest is later, and the fruit has less flavour, than in the midland parts.

As the county abounds in mines, the air is filled with mineral vapours, which in some parts are so inflammable as to take fire, and appear in flame over the grounds from which they rise. But notwithstanding the saline and mineral particles that float in the atmosphere, the air of Cornwall is very healthy; for it is in a great measure free from the putrid exhalations that in other places rise from bogs, marshes, and standing pools; and from the corrupt air that stagnates in the dead calm that is often found among thick woods. In Cornwall, the country is open, the soil in general sound, and the air always in motion, which may well atone for any noxious effluvia supposed to rise either from mines or the sea.

In the mines of this county there are often found the ochrous earths of metals, the rusty ochre of iron, the green and blue ochres of copper, and the pale yellow ochre of lead, the brown yellow of tin, and the red ochre of bismuth; the ochre of lead, in its natural state, mixes well with oil, and gives a colour between the light and brown ochre; as it is solid, and will not fly off, it might perhaps be useful in painting.

Natural productions.] The principal products of Cornwall are tin and copper; these metals are found in veins or fissures, which are sometimes filled with other substances, and the substance, whatever it is, with which these fissures are filled, is in Cornwall called a lode, from an old Anglo Saxon word, which signifies to lead, as the miners always follow its direction. The course of the fissures is generally east and west, not however in a straight line, but wavy, and one side is sometimes a hard stone, and the other loose clay. Most
of

of these lodes are impregnated with metal, but none are impregnated equally in all parts. These lodes are not often more than two feet wide, and the greater part are not more than one: but in general, the smaller lode the better metal: the direction of these lodes is seldom perpendicular, but declines to the right or left, though in different degrees.

Tin is the peculiar and most valuable product of this county; it affords employment, and consequently subsistence to the poor, affluence to the lords of the soil, a considerable revenue to our prince of Wales, who is duke of Cornwall, and an important article of trade to the nation, in all foreign markets.

Copper is no where found richer, or in greater variety of ores than in Cornwall; though the mines have not been worked with much advantage longer than sixty years. The most common ore is of a yellow brass-colour; but there is some green, some blue, some black, some grey, and some red; the green, blue, and black yield but little; the grey contains more metal than the yellow, and the red more than the grey. There are besides, in almost all the considerable mines, small quantities of malleable copper, which the miners, from its purity, call the virgin ore. This is combined and allayed with various substances; sometimes with a gravelly clay, and sometimes with the rust of iron; its figure also is very various; sometimes it is in thin plates, shaped like leaves, sometimes it is in drops and lumps, sometimes branched, fringed, or twisted into wires, sometimes it shoots into blades, crossed at the top like a dagger, and sometimes it has the appearance of hollow fillagree; it has also been found in powder, little inferior in lustre to that of gold; in a congeries of combined granules, and sometimes in solid masses of several pounds weight, maturated, unmixed, and highly polished.

The annual income to the county from copper, is at this time nearly equal to that from tin; and both are still capable of improvement. The water in which the copper ore is washed, has been lately discovered to make blue vitriol of the best kind; and the water which comes from the bottom of the mines, and which is now suffered to run off to waste, is so strongly impregnated with copper, that if it was detained in proper receptacles, it would produce great quantities of malleable copper without any hazard or attendance, and without any other charge than the purchase of a much less quantity of the most useless old iron; for old iron, immersed in this water, will in about fourteen days produce much more than

than its weight of what is called copper-mud, whence a great proportion of pure copper may be obtained.

Beside these natural productions of the earth, the inhabitants reap still more advantageous benefits from the sea, the Pilchard fishery of this coast being now the greatest in the world; and producing more than an annual income of an hundred thousand pounds.

The tanners are in many respects a community distinct from the other inhabitants of the county. They have an officer, called the lord warden, who is appointed to administer justice among them, with an appeal to the duke of Cornwall, in council, or to the crown. The lord warden appoints a vice warden to determine all stannary disputes every month, and he constitutes four stewards, each for a particular district, who hold courts every three weeks, and decide by juries of six, with an appeal to the vice warden, from him to the lord warden, and finally to the crown. They have also a parliament, consisting of twenty-four gentlemen tanners, six to be chosen for each of the stannary divisions, by the mayor and council of the towns of such division respectively. The towns are Launceston, Lestwithiel, Truro, and Helston. The twenty-four persons thus chosen are called stannators, and chuse their speaker, who is approved by the lord warden. Whatever is enacted by this body of tanners, with the subsequent assent of the crown, has all the authority, with respect to tin affairs, of an act of the whole legislature.

Various particulars.] Cornwall sends no less than forty-four members to parliament (which is above five times as many as Middlesex, London, and Westminster send, tho' these latter contain above five times as many inhabitants) two knights for the shire, and as many members for each of the following towns; Bodmin, Bossiney, Camelford, Dunevet, Launceston, East-Low, Foy, Grampond, Helston, St. Germans, St. Ives, Kellington, Leskard, Lestwithiel, St. Maws, St. Michael, Newport, Penryn, Portpigham, Saltash, Tregony, and Truro. It lies in the diocese of Exeter, and in the western circuit. It contains 89 vicarages, 161 parishes, and about 1,230 villages. The division of it is into nine hundreds, containing near 25,380 houses, and about 126,870 inhabitants, and an area computed at 960,000 acres.

CUMBERLAND.

C U M B E R L A N D.

Name.] **T**HIS county is generally supposed to have been called Cumberland, from Cumbri, a name given to the ancient Britons, who long maintained their ground in it, against the encroachments of the Saxons.

Air, Soil, and Natural Productions.] The air of this county, though cold, is less piercing than might be expected from its situation, being sheltered by lofty mountains on the north. The soil is in general fruitful, the plains producing corn in great abundance, and the mountains yielding pasture for numerous flocks of sheep, with which they are perpetually covered. The face of the country is delightfully varied by lofty hills, vallies, and water; but the prospect would be still more agreeable, if it was not deficient in wood, many plantations of which have been made, but without sufficient success to encourage the practice. The Derwent produces salmon in great plenty, and the Eden char, a small fish of the trout kind, which is not found in any waters of this island, except the Eden and Winandermere, a lake in Westmoreland. At the mouth of the river Irt, on the sea coast, near Ravenglas, a market town in this county, are found pearl muscles; for the fishing of which, some persons obtained a patent not very long ago, but it does not appear that this undertaking has yet produced any considerable advantage. Several mountains here contain metals and minerals; and in the south part of the county, which is called Copeland, the mountains abound with rich veins of copper, as they do also in Derwent Fells, particularly at Newland, a village near Keswick, where it is said there was once found, a mixture of gold and silver. In this county there are also mines of coals, lead, lapis calaminaris, and black lead, a mineral, found no where else, called by the inhabitants wadd. The wadd mines lie chiefly in and about Derwent Fells, where this mineral may be dug up in any quantity.

Natural Curiosities.] Among the natural curiosities of this county we may reckon the mountains, some of which are remarkable for their height, particularly Hard-knot-hill, Wry-nose, and Skiddaw. Hard-knot-hill, at the foot of which rises the river Esk, is a ragged mountain, so steep, that it is very difficult to ascend it; about a hundred and fifty years ago, some huge stones were discovered upon the very summit, which Camden supposed to have been the foundation of a castle, but which may with greater probability

be considered as the ruins of some church or chapel; for in the early ages of Christianity, it was a work of most meritorious devotion, to erect crosses and build chapels upon the tops of the highest hills and promontories, not only because they were more conspicuous, but because they were proportionably nearer to Heaven.

Wry-nose is situated about a mile south-east of Hard-knot-hill, near the high road from Penrith to Kirby, a market town in Lancashire. Near this road, and on the top of the mountain, are three stones, commonly called shire stones, which though they lie within a foot one of another, are yet in three counties; one in Cumberland, another in Westmoreland, and the third in Lancashire.

Skiddaw stands north of Keswick, and, at a prodigious height, divides like Parnassus into two heads, from whence there is a view of Scroffel-hill, in the shire of Annandale, in Scotland, where the people prognosticate a change of weather, by the mists that rise or fall upon the tops of this mountain, according to the following proverbial rhyme:

If Skiddaw have a cap,
Scroffel wots full well of that.

The principal antiquity in this county, and perhaps in all Britain, is that rampire built by the Romans, as a barrier against the incursions of the northern Britons, called by the English the Picts Wall. It runs the whole breadth of Great Britain, crossing the north parts of the counties of Cumberland and Northumberland, and extending above eighty miles, from that part of the Irish Sea called the Solway Frith, on the west, to the German ocean on the east. It was begun by the emperor Adrian, and built in the manner of a mural hedge, with large stakes driven deep into the ground, and wreathed together with wattles. It was faced with earth and turf, and fortified on the north with a deep ditch.

The Romans being called from Britain, for the defence of Gaul, the North Britons broke in upon this barrier, and in repeated inroads, put all they met with to the sword. Upon this the South Britons applied to Rome for assistance, and a legion was sent over to them, which drove the enemy back into their own country; but as the Romans at this time had full employment for their troops, it became necessary for them to enable the South Britons to defend themselves for the future; they therefore assisted them to build a wall of stone, eight feet broad and twelve feet high, of equal extent with the mural hedge, and nearly upon the same ground. This wall

wall was completed under the direction of Ælius, the Roman general, about the year 430; and the tracks of it, with the foundations of the towers or little castles, now called Castle Steeds, placed at the distance of a mile one from another, and the little fortified towns on the inside, called Chesters, are still visible. The neighbouring inhabitants say, that here are sometimes found pieces of tubes or pipes, supposed to be used as trumpets, and to have been artfully laid in the wall between each castle or tower, for giving the quickest notice of the approach of the enemy, so that any matter of moment could be communicated from sea to sea in an hour. In the rubbish of this wall was found, some time ago, an image of brass, about half a foot long, which, from the description the ancients have given us of the god Terminus, whose image they used to lay in the foundation of their boundaries, appears to be a representation of that deity.

In a place where there are such evident traces of Roman power, we are not to be surprized that many monuments have been lately dug up of their religious or military implements, altars with various inscriptions, and arms of different kinds have been found along this wall, and are now kept with classical veneration in the cabinets of the curious. But as our work is rather calculated for the busy part of mankind than the speculative and sedentary, we hope to be excused this useless enumeration.

Various particulars.] This county sends six members to parliament, two for the shire, two for Carlisle, and two for Cockermouth. It lies partly in the dioceses of Chester and Carlisle, and in the northern circuit. It is divided into five wards, containing thirty-seven vicarages, ninety parishes, near 447 villages, 14,825 houses, and about 74,125 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed to contain 1,040,000 acres.

D E R B Y S H I R E.

Name.] **I**T is generally thought that this county was called Derbyshire from Derby, the name of the county town; some have derived both from Derwent, the name of the principal river; and others have supposed it to be formed to express a park or shelter for deer, an opinion which the arms of Derby, the county town, seem to favour, being a buck couchant in a park.

Air Soil, and natural Productions.] The two parts into which the river Derwent divides this county are very different, as well with respect to the air as to the soil, except just on the banks of the river, where the soil is on both sides remarkably fertile. In the eastern division the air is healthy, and its temperature agreeable. The soil every where fruitful, and therefore well cultivated, producing grain of almost every kind, in great abundance, particularly barley. But in the western division, the air in general is sharper, the weather more variable, and storms of wind and rain more frequent. There the face of the country is rude and mountainous, and the soil, except in the vallies, rocky and sterile; the hills however afford pasture for sheep, which in this county are very numerous. But notwithstanding its barrenness, it is yet as profitable to the inhabitants as the eastern part, for it produces great quantities of the best lead, also antimony, mill-stones, and grind-stones, besides marble, alabaster, a coarse sort of crystal spar, green and white vitriol, alum, pitcoal, and iron.

Trade.] With these commodities, and with malt and ale, of which great quantities are made in this county, the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade; but it does not appear that they have any manufactory of note.

Curiosities.] The most remarkable curiosities of this county are those of the Peak, which, being seven in number, are commonly called the Seven Wonders of the Peak.

The first is the magnificent palace of the duke of Devonshire, called Chatsworth House, the only one of the Seven Wonders that is not the production of nature. It stands about six miles south-west of Chesterfield, on the east side of the Derwent, having the river on one side, and on the other a very lofty mountain, the declivity of which is planted very thick with firs. The heads of these trees gradually rising as the mountain ascends, might seem to a poetical imagination, to have climbed one above another, to overlook and admire the beauties of the building below. The front, which looks to the gardens, is a piece of regular architecture. The hall and chapel are adorned with paintings by Verrio, an Italian master of some eminence; particularly a very fine representation of the death of Cæsar in the Capitol, and of the resurrection of our Lord. The chambers, which are large and elegant, form a magnificent gallery, at the end of which is the duke's closet, finely beautified with Indian paintings. The west front, which faces the Derwent, is adorned with a magnificent portal, before which there is a
stone

stone bridge over the river, with a tower upon it, that was built by the countess of Shrewsbury. There is also in an island in the river, a building like a castle, which, seen from the house, has a good effect. In the garden there is a grove of cypress, and several statues extremely well executed. There is also a very fine piece of water, in which there are several statues representing Neptune, his Nereids, and sea horses; on the banks is a tree of copper representing a willow, from every leaf of which water is made to issue by the turning of a cock, so as to form an artificial shower. Advantage has been taken of the irregularity of the ground to form a cascade; at the top are two sea nymphs with their urns, through which the water issues; and in the basin, at bottom, there is an artificial rose, so contrived, that water may be made to issue from it, so as to form the figure of that flower in the air. There are many other beauties both of art and nature, peculiar to the place, of which the bounds of this work will not admit a particular description, and of which no description, however minute and judicious, could convey an adequate idea. This palace was built by William, the first duke of Devonshire. The stone used in the building was dug from quarries on the spot, including the marble, which is finely veined, and found in such plenty, that several people have used it to build houses.

From this house there is a moor, extending thirteen miles north, which has neither hedge, house, nor tree, but is a dreary and desolate wilderness, which no stranger can cross without a guide. This plain however contributes not a little to the beauty of Chatsworth; for the contrast not only renders it more striking, but it contains a large body of water, covering near thirty acres of ground, which is not only a common drain to the adjacent country, but supplies all the reservoirs, canals, cascades, and other water-works in the gardens of Chatsworth House, to which it is conducted by pipes, properly disposed for that purpose.

Upon the hills beyond the garden is a park, where are also some statues and other curiosities; but even these hills are over-looked by a very high rocky mountain, from which the view of the palace, and the cultivated valley in which it stands, breaks at once upon the traveller like the effect of enchantment.

The second wonder of the Peak is a mountain, situated nine or ten miles north-west of Chatsworth House, called Mam-Tor, a name which signifies *Mother Tower*. This mountain, though it is perpetually mouldring away, and the earth

earth and stones are falling from the precipice above in such quantities, as to terrify the neighbouring inhabitants with the noise, is yet of such an enormous bulk, that the decrease is not perceived.

The third wonder is Eden-Hole, near Chapel in the Frith: Eden-Hole is a vast chasm in the side of a mountain, twenty-one feet wide, and more than forty feet long. In this chasm, or cave, appears the mouth of a pit, the depth of which could never be fathomed: a plummet once drew 884 yards, which is something more than half a mile, of line after it, of which the last eighty yards were wet, but no bottom was found. Several attempts to fathom it have been since made, and the plummet has sometimes stopped at half that depth, owing probably to its resting on some of the protuberances that stand out from the sides. That such protuberances there are, is proved by an experiment constantly made, to shew its great depth to those that visit the place, by the poor people that attend them, who always throw some large stones down into it, which are heard to strike against the irregularities of the side with a fainter and a fainter sound, that is at length gradually lost. The earl of Leicester, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, hired a poor wretch to venture down in a basket, who, after he had descended two hundred ells, was drawn up again; but, to the great disappointment of the curious enquirer, he had lost his senses, and in a few days after died delirious.

The fourth wonder of the Peak is a medicinal water, which rises from nine springs, near Buxton, a little village, not far from the head of the river Wye, whence they are called Buxton Wells. The bed or soil, from which the water issues, is a kind of marle; and it is remarkable, that, within five feet of one of the hot springs, there is a cold one.

The use of these waters, both for drinking and bathing, is much recommended; and the wells are therefore greatly frequented in the summer season. The water is said to be sulphureous and saline: when drank it creates a good appetite, removes obstructions, and, if mixed with the chalybeat water, with which this place also abounds, it answers all the intentions of the celebrated waters of the Bath in Somersetsshire, or those of the Hot Well below Bristol. The use of this water by bathing, has been recommended by physicians in all scorbutic, rheumatic, and nervous disorders.

These wells are inclosed within a handsome stone building, erected at the charge of George earl of Shrewsbury. Here is a convenient house for the accommodation of strangers, built at the charge of the duke of Devonshire. There is a bath-

room, which is arched over head, and is rendered handsome and convenient. The bath will accommodate twenty people at a time to walk and swim in. The temper of the water is blood warm, and it may be raised at pleasure to any height.

The fifth curiosity, called a wonder, is the spring called Tideswell, situated near the market-town to which it has given its name. The well is about three feet deep, and three feet wide; and the water, in different and uncertain periods of time, sinks and rises, with a gurgling noise, two thirds of the perpendicular depth of the well. Many conjectures have been formed to account for this phænomenon. Some have thought that in the aqueduct a stone stands in equilibrio, and produces the rise and fall of the water by vibrating backwards and forwards; but it is as difficult to conceive what should produce this vibration at uncertain periods, as what should produce the rise and fall of the water. Others imagine that these irregular ebbings and flowings, as well as the gurgling noise, are occasioned by air, which agitates or presses the water from the subterraneous cavities; but these do not tell us what can be supposed first to move the air: others have imagined the spring to be occasionally supplied from the overflowings of some subterraneous body of water lying upon a higher level.

The sixth wonder of the Peak is a cave, called Pool's Hole, said to have taken its name from one Pool, a notorious robber, who being outlawed, secreted himself here from justice; but others will have it that Pool was some hermit, or anchorite, who made choice of this dismal hole for his cell. Pool's Hole is situated at the bottom of a lofty mountain, called Coitmoos, near Buxton. The entrance is by a small arch, so very low, that such as venture into it are forced to creep upon their hands and knees, but it gradually opens into a vault more than a quarter of a mile long, and, as some have pretended, a quarter of a mile high. It is certainly very lofty, and looks not unlike the inside of a Gothic cathedral. In a cavern to the right, called Pool's Chamber, there is a fine echo, though it does not appear of what kind it is; and the sound of a current of water, which runs along the middle of the vault, being reverberated on each side, very much encreases the astonishment of all who visit the place. Here on the floor are great ridges of stones; water is perpetually distilling from the roof and sides of this vault; and the drops, before they fall, produce a pleasing effect, by reflecting numberless rays from the candles carried by the guides; they also, from their quality, form chrystallizations of various forms, like the figures of fret-work; and in some places, having been long accumu-
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lated one upon another, they have formed large masses, bearing a rude resemblance to men, lions, dogs, and other animals.

In this cavity is a column, as clear as alabaster, called *Mary Queen of Scots Pillar*, because it is pretended she went in so far; and beyond it there is a steep ascent, for near a quarter of a mile, which terminates in a hollow in the roof, called the *Needle's Eye*; in which when the guide places his candle, it looks like a star in the firmament. If a pistol be fired near the *Queen's Pillar*, the report will be near as loud as a cannon. There is another passage by which people generally return. Not far from this place are two springs, one cold and the other hot, but so near one another, that the thumb and finger of the same hand may be put into both streams at the same time.

The seventh and last wonder of the Peak is a cavern, unaccountably called the *Devil's Arse*, and sometimes the *Peak's Arse*. It runs under a steep hill, about six miles north-west of *Tideswall*, by an horizontal entrance sixty feet wide, and something more than thirty feet high. The top of this entrance resembles a regular arch, chequered with stones of different colours, from which petrifying water is continually dropping. Here are several huts, which look like a little town, inhabited by a set of people who seem in a great measure to subsist by guiding strangers into the cavern, which opens at the extremity of this entrance. The outward part of this cave is very dark; it is also rendered very slippery, by a current of water which runs across the entrance; and the rock hangs so low, that it is necessary to stoop in order to go under it; but having passed this place, and another current, which sometimes cannot be waded, the arch opens again to a third current, near which are large banks of sand; after those are passed, the rock closes.

Various particulars.] Derbyshire sends four members to parliament; two knights for the shire, and two burgesses for Derby town. It lies in the diocese of *Litchfield and Coventry*, and in the midland circuit. It contains 53 vicarages, 106 parishes, and near 500 villages. Its division is into five hundreds, supposed to contain 21,155 houses, upwards of 105,500 inhabitants, with an area of about 680,000 acres.

D E V O N S H I R E.

Name.] THE English Saxons so called this county from the ancient British names Deunan and Deuffneynt, which signify Deep Vallies, the greatest part of the towns and villages in this district being in a low situation.

Air and soil.] The air of this county is mild in the vallies, and sharp on the hills; but in general it is pleasant and healthy. The soil is various: in the western parts it is coarse, moorish, and barren, and in many places a stiff clay, which the water cannot penetrate; it is therefore bad for sheep, which are here not only small, but very subject to the rot, especially in wet seasons. This part of the county is, however, happily adapted to the breeding of fine oxen, which the Somersethire drovers purchase in great numbers, and fatten for the London markets: In the northern parts of this county the soil is dry, and abounds with downs, which afford excellent pasture for sheep, and which, being well dressed with lime, dung and sand, yield good crops of corn, though not equal to those produced in the middle parts of the county, where there is in some places a rich marle for manuring the ground; and in others a fertile sandy soil. In the eastern parts of Devonshire the soil is strong, of a deep red, intermixed with loam, and produces great crops of corn, and the best pease in Britain. There are a few villages north-west of Dartmouth, which are famous for an excellent rough cyder, said to be the best in the kingdom, and so near wine, that the vintners mix it with port. Most barren places here are rendered fruitful by a shell sand, such as that used in Cornwall; and in places remote from the sea, where this sand cannot be easily got, the turf, or surface of the ground, is shaved off and burnt to ashes, which is a good succedaneum. The southern parts of this county are much the most fertile, and are therefore called the garden of Devonshire.

Natural productions.] As this county abounds in fine rivers, salmon is here not only excellent, but in great plenty.

There are also, in this county, mines of lead, tin, and silver, but scarcely worth the working.

Its manufactures are kerseys, serges, long clls, shalloons, narrow cloths, and bone-lace; in which, and in corn, cattle, wool, and sea-fish, the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade.

Among the towns in this county, Plymouth deserves particular notice; which, from a small fishing town, is become
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the largest in the county, and is thought to contain near as many inhabitants as the city of Exeter. Its port, which consists of two harbours, capable of containing one thousand sail, has rendered it one of the chief magazines in England. It is defended by several forts, mounted with near three hundred guns, and particularly by a strong citadel, erected in the reign of Charles the Second, before the mouth of the harbour. This citadel, the walls of which include at least two acres of ground, has five regular bastions, contains a large magazine of stores, and mounts 165 guns. The inlet of the sea, which runs some miles up the country, at the mouth of the Tamar is called the Hamouze; and that which receives the little river Plym is called Catwater. About two miles up the Hamouze are two docks, one wet and the other dry, with a bason 200 feet square; they are hewn out of a mine of slate, and lined with Portland stone. The dry dock is formed after the model of a first rate man of war; and the wet dock will contain five first rates. The docks and bason were constructed in the reign of king William the Third; and in this place there are conveniencies of all kinds for building and repairing ships; and the whole forms as compleat, though not so large an arsenal, as any in the kingdom.

The ships that are homeward bound generally put into this port for pilots to carry them up the Channel; and, in time of war, the convoys for ships outward bound generally rendezvous here.

In the entrance of Plymouth Sound there is a rock, called Edystone Rock, which is covered at high water, and on which a light-house was built, by one Winstanly, in 1696. This light-house was blown down by a hurricane that happened in November, 1703; and the ingenious builder, with several other persons that were in it, perished in its ruins: another light-house, however, was erected, in pursuance of an act of parliament of the fifth of queen Anne; which too has been destroyed, and another light-house is now finished.

At Brixham, a village about three miles west of Dartmouth, is a spring, called Lay Well, which ebbs and flows from one to eleven times in an hour. The rise and fall of it, at a medium, is about an inch and a quarter; and the area of the bason into which it is received is about twenty feet. It sometimes bubbles up like a boiling pot: the water, which is as clear as crystal, is very cold in the summer, yet never freezes in the winter. The neighbouring inhabitants have a notion that, in some fevers, it is medicinal.

In the church at Tiverton was a chapel built by the earls of Devonshire for their burial-place. In this chapel, which is now demolished, there was a monument erected for Edward Courtney, earl of Devonshire, and his countess, with their effigies in alabaster. It was richly gilded, and inscribed as follows :

Ho, ho, who lies here ?
 'Tis I, the good earl of Devonshire,
 With Kate, my wife, to me full dear,
 We liv'd together fifty-five year.
 That we spent, we had :
 That we left, we lost ;
 That we gave, we have.

Various particulars.] This county, including two knights for the shire, sends twenty-six members to parliament, two for each of the following places: Exeter, Plymouth, Plymton, Totness, Okehampton, Honiton, Barnstaple, Tavistock, Ashburton, Tiverton, Beraldstone, and two for Clifton-Dartmouth Hardness. It lies in the diocese of Exeter, and in the western circuit. The number of vicarages is 117, of parishes 394, and of villages about 1730. It is divided into 30 hundreds, containing near 56,300 houses, 281,500 inhabitants, and the area of it is computed at 190200 acres.

D O R S E T S H I R E.

Name.] **T**HE present name of this county is immediately derived from the Saxon name Douretta, which signifies a people living by the water or sea side.

Air and Soil.] The air of this county, which has been often stiled the garden of England, is in general healthy. On the hills it is somewhat sharp, but mild and pleasant in the vallies, and near the coast. The soil is rich and fertile; the northern part, which was formerly overspread with forests, now affords good pasture for black cattle; and the southern part, which chiefly consists of fine downs, feeds an incredible number of sheep.

Natural Productions.] The rivers of this county afford plenty of fish; but the tench and eels of the Stour are particularly famous. The port towns supply the inhabitants with all sorts of sea fish, and the rocks upon the coast abound with samphire and eringo. Here are swans, geese,
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and ducks without number, and great plenty of wood-cocks, pigeons, pheasants, partridges, field-fares, and other game. This county also abounds with corn, cattle, wool, hemp, and timber.

There is in this county a peninsula, called Portland Island, the sea having formerly flowed round it, though it is now joined to the main by a beach, called Chessil Bank, which the surge has thrown up. It is scarce seven miles in compass and but thinly inhabited; for though it affords plenty of corn and pasture, yet wood and coal are so scarce, that the inhabitants are forced to dry the dung of their black cattle for fuel. The land here is so high, that in clear weather it gives a prospect above half way over the English Channel. The island is rendered inaccessible by high and dangerous rocks, except on the north side, where it is defended by a strong castle, that was built by king Henry the Eighth, called Portland castle, and another erected on the opposite shore, called Sandford-castle. These command all ships that come into the road, which for its strong current setting in from the English and French coasts, is called Portland Race. These currents render it always turbulent, and have frequently driven vessels not aware of them, to the west of Portland, and wrecked them on Chessil Bank; on the two points of which there are light-houses, to warn the mariner of his danger. This peninsula is famous for its quarries of excellent stone, called Portland stone, reckoned the best in the kingdom for duration and beauty.

There is another peninsula of this county, supposed also to have been once surrounded by the sea, called Purbeck Island. It is situated between Warham and the English Channel; and besides a very useful stone, called Purbeck stone, furnishes some fine marble, and the best tobacco pipe clay in the world. Besides these exports this county is remarkable for its linen and woollen manufactures, and its fine ale.

Curiosities,] At Hermitage, a village about seven miles south of Sherborne, there is a chasm in the earth, whence a large plat of ground, with trees and hedges upon it, was removed intire to the distance of forty rods, by an earthquake, which happened on the thirteenth of January 1585.

We have also an account that on the twentieth of June 1653, a shower of blood fell at Pool from a black cloud, and tinged the herbage with red, and that in confirmation of the fact, a great number of the leaves so tinged, were sent to London for the inspection of the curious of that time.

At Dorchester a fire broke out on the sixth of August 1613, which consumed 300 houses, with the two churches of Trinity and All Saints. The damage was computed at 200,000*l.* but no life was lost.

In the reign of queen Elizabeth a fire broke out at Blandford which destroyed the whole town; and on the fourth of June 1731, it was again burnt, 600 houses, with the church and other public buildings being destroyed, besides a village beyond the bridge, in which only twenty-six houses were left standing. The progress of this fire was so rapid, and the consternation of the people so great, that most of their goods and merchandize were destroyed with the houses: it happened also that the small-pox raged at this time in the place, with great violence, so that many of the sick, who were taken out of bed to escape the flames, perished in the fields.

At Melpash, a village near Bemister, lived Sir Thomas More, who being sheriff of Dorsetshire in the year 1533, ordered all prison doors in the county to be thrown open in a frolic, and the malefactors to be set at liberty; but afterwards reflecting upon the folly and danger of what he had done, he applied in a very penitent manner to Sir Thomas Powlet, who was then lord treasurer to Henry the Eighth, to intercede with the king in his behalf; Powlet consented, and one of More's daughters, who were coheiresses of his fortune, which was very great, soon after married Powlet's second son; and this is said to have been made the condition of his intercession.

Antiquities.] Dorsetshire is that district which in the time of the Romans was inhabited by the Durotriges, a name purely British, compounded of Dour, water, and Trig, an inhabitant, and signifying a people who dwell by the water or sea side. They were afterwards by the Britons called Dourgweir, a name synonymous with Durotriges. At the first settlement of the Saxons in Britain, this county was part of the West Saxon kingdom, and continued so till their monarch Egbert, having subdued the rest of the Heptarchy, became king of that part of the island called England. After the monarchy was settled in Egbert, most of the Saxon princes, who succeeded him, admiring the beauty of this county, resided and were buried in it.

The inhabitants of Portland were formerly reckoned the best slingers in England, and became as famous among their countrymen as the inhabitants of the islands of Majorca and
Minorca,

Minorca, who acquired the name of Baleares, were among the ancient Greeks and Romans.

Various particulars.] This county sends twenty members to parliament, whereof two are knights of the shire, and two for each of the following towns: Dorchester, Pool, Lime, Weymouth, Melcomb-Regis, (which, tho' united, each sends two) Bridport, Shaftsbury, Wareham, and Corfe-Castle. It lies in the diocese of Bristol, and in the western circuit. It reckons 68 vicarages and 248 parishes. It is divided into 28 hundreds, containing upwards of 21,900 houses, about 109,700 inhabitants, and an area of 772,000 acres.

D U R H A M.

Name.] **T**HIS county takes its name from the city of Durham, and is sometimes called the Bishopric; and sometimes the County Palatine of Durham, having formerly been a kind of royalty, under the jurisdiction of a bishop, subordinate to the crown.

Air, Soil, and Natural Productions.] The air of this county is healthy, and though sharp in the western parts, is yet mild and pleasant towards the sea, the warm vapours of which mitigate the cold, which, in a situation so far north, must be severe in the winter season. The soil is also different; the western parts are mountainous and barren, the rest of the county is fruitful, and, like the southern counties, beautifully diversified with meadows, pastures, cornfields, and woods. It abounds with inexhaustible mines of lead and iron, and particularly coal, called Newcastle-coal, from Newcastle upon Tyne, a large borough town in Northumberland, the port where it is shipped to supply the city of London, and the greatest part of England. The rivers abound with fish, particularly salmon, known in London by the name of Newcastle salmon; and these two articles, with an excellent kind of mustard, include the whole traffic of the place. The coal trade of this county is one great nursery for seamen; and the ports of the Bishopric of Durham supply the royal navy with more men than any other county in the kingdom.

In the channel of the Were, a little below Branspeth, a village near Durham, there are many very large stones, which are never covered but when that river overflows, and over which if water is poured, it will in a short time become
brackish;

brackish; and at Saltwater Haugh, not far distant, there is a salt spring in the middle of the Were, which is best perceived in the summer, when the water of the river is low; then it is seen bubbling up. The water of this spring tinges all the stones near it with a red colour; it is as salt as any brine, and when boiled, it produces a great quantity of bay salt, though not so palatable as common salt.

Nesham, a village upon the Tees, south-east of Darlington, and in the road from London to Durham, is remarkable for a ford over the river, where the bishop, at his first coming to take possession of his see, is met by the country gentlemen, and where the lord of the manor of Sockburn, a village south-east of Nesham, upon the same river, advances into the middle of the stream, and presents him with a faulchion, as an emblem of his temporal power, which he returns to him again, and then proceeds on his way.

Sheales, in this county, is of considerable note for its salt works, there being in this place above 200 pans for boiling the sea water into salt, which are said to require 100,000 chaldrons of coals every year. The salt made here supplies London, all the intermediate country, and every place that is supplied with that commodity by the navigation of the river Thames.

Various particulars.] The bishoprick of Durham sends four members to parliament; viz. two knights for the county, and two burgeses for Durham. It lies in the diocese of its own name, and the northern circuit, though as a county palatine it might have judges peculiar to itself. It contains 59 vicarages, 118 parishes, near 230 villages, 15,980 houses, and 79,900 inhabitants.

E S S E X.

Name.] **T**HE name Essex is a contraction of the ancient Saxon names, somewhat of similar sound, importing its eastern situation, and which the Normans changed into Effexsa.

Air.] The air of this county in general is unhealthy, especially to strangers. Some parts of it, particularly the hundreds of Rochford and Dengy, bordering upon the sea and the Thames, are a rotten oozy soil; the country is besides full of marshes and fens, which produce noisome and pernicious

pernicious vapours, and subject the inhabitants to agues and such other disorders as usually rise from a moist and putrid atmosphere. But great part of the western and northern divisions of the county is as healthy as any other district in the island.

Soil, and Natural Productions.] It is observed of this county that the soil is generally best where the air is worst; for the fenny hundreds that border upon the sea and the Thames, abound with rich pastures and corn lands; but in most of the inland parts the soil is chiefly gravel and sand, and fit neither for corn or grass. The northern parts of this county are remarkable for the production of saffron; and in some of these parts the soil is so rich, that after three crops of saffron, it will yield good barley for twenty years together, without dunging. Other parts of Essex yield hops in great abundance; in general it has plenty of wood; and no county in England is better stored with provisions of every kind.

It furnishes the markets of London with corn, fat oxen, and sheep. There is always a good breed of serviceable horses in the marshes and great plenty of all sorts of sea and river fish, but especially oysters, in its waters. It abounds with wild-fowl, and by the sea side the inhabitants have decoys for ducks, that in the winter season are generally of great emolument to the owners.

The principal manufactures of this county are cloths and stuffs, but particularly baize and says, of which, not half a century ago, such quantities were exported to Spain and the Spanish colonies in America, to cloath the nuns and friars, that there has often been a return from London of 30,000*l.* a-week in ready money, to Colchester only, and a few small towns round it.

At Dagenham, a village near Barking, the river Thames broke in some time ago, and overflowed a tract of near 5000 acres of land, since called Dagenham Breach; but after ten years inundation, and several fruitless attempts to drain the land, and reduce the water to its former channel, it was at length happily effected by captain Perry, a gentleman who had been several years employed by Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy, in his works at Veronitza, a city upon the river Don.

The spring at the bottom of the cliff, between Beacon Hill and the town of Harwich, petrifies not only the earth, that falls into it from the top of the cliff, but wood also; and
a large

a large piece of wood thus petrified, is preserved in the repository of the Royal Society.

At the bottom of this cliff, in a stratum of stone, have been found a great variety of shells, both of the turbinated and bivalve kinds; and upon the shore, under the hill, is found the stone from which our common copperas is prepared, and which the people here for that reason call copperas stone. To prepare copperas from these stones, they are mixed with earth, and disposed into light beds, above ground, where they dissolve by the rains and dews; this solution is received into trunks, properly disposed, which conduct it into a large leaden cistern, whence it is again conveyed into a leaden boiler, where, after boiling some time, it is drawn off into coolers, where it shoots into crystals. These stones are also found in some places on the coast of Kent, where there are works of the like kind for making copperas from them.

Dunmow is a place of great antiquity, and supposed by some to be the *Cæsaromagus* of the Romans; in several parts of the road between this place and Colchester, there are still to be seen the remains of an old Roman way, which the inhabitants call the Street, probably from *Strata*, a word by which Bede and some other ancient writers denominate a Roman road. Here was formerly a priory; and it is recorded, that in the reign of king Henry the Third, the lord Fitzwalter instituted a custom, that whatever married man made oath, kneeling upon two sharp pointed stones in the church-yard of the priory, that for a year and a day after marriage, he neither directly nor indirectly, sleeping or waking; repented his bargain, had any quarrel with his wife, or any way transgressed his nuptial obligation, such married man should be intitled to a fitch of bacon. The records of this place mention no less than four persons who have claimed and received the bacon; one of them was so lately as the year 1748.

There is a custom in the town of Maldon, that if a man dies intestate, his lands and tenements descend to his youngest son, or if he dies without issue, to his youngest brother. This custom is called *Borough English*, and is said to have been originally much more general, and to have taken its rise from the wanton and diabolical tyranny of the ancient feudal lords, who, when any of those who held under them married, claimed the first night with the bride: as some doubt therefore naturally arose whether the first born child was legitimate,

legitimate, a custom was established to cut such child off from its inheritance, and as the most distant from suspicion, the youngest was preferred in its stead.

Various particulars.] Essex sends eight members to parliament, viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgessees for each of the following towns, Colchester, Harwich, and Maldon. It lies in the diocese of London and the home circuit. It contains 125 vicarages, 415 parishes, and 1100 villages. Its division is into eighteen hundreds, containing about 34,800 houses, 174,000 inhabitants, and 1,240,000 acres.

G L O C E S T E R S H I R E.

GLOCESTERSHIRE, or Gloucestershire, takes its name from the city of Gloucester. 'Tis generally divided into three districts. The eastern part of the county, bordering upon Warwickshire, Oxfordshire, and Berkshire, is called Cotswould; the middle part, the Vale of Gloucester; and the triangular part, included between the Wye, the Severn, and a small river called the Leden, is called the Forest of Dean. The Vale of Gloucester manifestly derived its name from its situation, and the Forest was probably called the Forest of Dean, from Dean, the principal town in the district; some have supposed the word Dean to be a corruption of Arden, a name used both by the ancient Gauls and Britons to signify a wood; and there is a wood in Warwickshire called Arden to this day.

Air.] Though the air of this county is equally healthy throughout, yet it is in other respects very different; for Cotswould being a hilly country, the air there is very sharp, but in the Vale it is soft and mild, even in winter; such indeed is the difference, that of Cotswould it is commonly said, eight months in the year are winter, and the other four too cold for summer; and of the Vale, that eight months are summer, and the other four too warm for winter.

Soil, and Natural Productions.] Cotswould being thus exposed, is not remarkable for its fertility, and the corn is so slow in coming up, that, 'as long a coming as Cotswould barley,' is become a proverb of the county; the hills of Cotswould however afford excellent pasturage, and great numbers of sheep are fed upon them, whose wool is remarkably fine; the breed of sheep which produce the fine Spanish
wool,

wool, is said to have been raised from some of these sheep, which were sent as a present by one of our kings to a king of Spain.

In the Vale the soil is very fertile, and the pastures are also very rich. The cheese, called Gloucester cheese, is made in this part of the county, and, next to that of Cheshire, is the best in England. The forest of Dean, which contains 30,000 acres, being twenty miles long and ten broad, was formerly covered with wood, and was then a harbour for robbers, especially towards the banks of the Severn; so that, in the reign of Henry the Sixth, an act of parliament was made on purpose to suppress them. The woods have been since reduced to narrower bounds, by clearing great part of the ground, where many towns and villages have been built. The oaks that grow where the woods are still preserved, are reckoned the best in England; and from this forest most part of the timber formerly employed in ship-building was brought; which was so well known to the Spaniards, that, when they fitted out their famous Armada in 1558, to invade England, the people who had the direction of that expedition, were expressly ordered to destroy this forest, as the most speedy and effectual way to ruin our marine; on the other hand, to cultivate and preserve the wood in a sufficient part of this district, has been the constant care of our legislature. Great part of it was inclosed by an act of parliament passed in the reign of king Charles the Second; and some time ago, many cottages which had been built in and near the woods, were ordered to be pulled down, because the inhabitants damaged the trees, by cutting or lopping them for fuel. In this part of the county there are also many rich mines of iron and coal, for the working of which several acts of parliament have passed; and at Taynton, a little village near Newent, a market town of this county, a gold mine was discovered about the year 1700, of which a lease was granted to some refiners, who extracted some gold from the ore, but did not go on with the work, because the quantity of gold was so small, as not always to answer the expence of the separation.

Besides these advantages, this country abounds with grain, cattle, fowl, and game; the inhabitants have also bacon and cyder in great plenty, each excellent in its kind, and the rivers afford great quantities of fish, especially the Severn, which abounds with salmon, lampreys and conger eels.

[*Manufactures.*] The principal manufacture of this county is woollen cloth; and it was computed, that before our wool began to be clandestinely exported to France, 50,000 pieces
of

of cloth were made yearly in this county, which being estimated at ten pounds a-piece, the fine with the coarse, amounts to 500,000 l.

Curiosities.] It is remarkable of the river Severn, that the tides are higher one year at the full moon, and the succeeding year at the new moon; and that one year the night tides are higher than the day tides, and the next year the day tides higher than the night tides: it is also remarkable, that the tide of the river Wye, at Chepstow-bridge, frequently rises to the height of seventy feet above low water mark; and in 1738, the bridge was much damaged by the swell of the river greatly above that height.

On the bank of the river Avon, near Bristol, is a very high and steep rock, called St. Vincent's Rock; and on the opposite bank is the county of Somerset. There are other rocks of an equal size, which, with the river flowing below, them, afford a very striking and romantic prospect, which is heightened by the ships and other vessels that are continually passing between them, to and from Bristol. In St. Vincent's rock is found a kind of spars, commonly called Bristol stones, which, before the composition called French paste was invented, were prized for their lustre, which came nearer to that of a diamond than any thing then known.

At Bisley, a village near Stroud, was born and educated, the famous friar Bacon, who, from his superior learning, and in particular his mathematical knowledge, gained the reputation of a conjurer. He died in the year 1284.

Ancient customs] The inhabitants of this county have a proverb, "the father to the bough, the son to the plough," which alludes to an ancient privilege, by which the estate of a father, though a felon, descended to the son. This privilege was confirmed to them by a statute of the seventh of Edward the Second, but it has not been claimed many years. The custom called Borough English, still remains in many parts of this county. It is also a custom at the miners court, in the Forest of Dean, for a miner who gives testimony as a witness, to wear a particular cap; and that he may not defile holy writ with unclean hands, he touches the Bible, when the oath is administered to him, with a stick.

Various particulars.] Gloucestershire sends eight members to parliament; two knights for the shire, and two burgesses for each of the following boroughs, Gloucester, Cirencester, and Tewkesbury. It lies in the diocese of Gloucester, and the Oxford circuit. It contains 96 vicarages, 280 parishes, and upwards of 1200 villages. The division is into 21 hundreds

reds, containing about 26,760 houses, and 133,800 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 800,000 acres.

H A M P S H I R E.

Name.] **T**HIS county had its name from the county town of Hampton, since called Southampton.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of this county is for the most part pure and healthy, especially upon the downs, which cross the county from east to west, dividing it nearly into equal parts; and it is observed, that the vapours in the low grounds that are next the sea, are not so pernicious as in other countries. The hilly parts are barren, and fit only for sheep, but the lower grounds produce a great quantity of grain, particularly wheat and barley. Upon the sea coast of this county, they have a particular method of fencing against the incursions of the tides, which is, by laying the banks with a weed they call sea-oar, whose slender but strong filaments, are more durable than even walls of stone. In the breed of horned cattle here, there is nothing particular; but in sheep and hogs, this county excels all others. The sheep are remarkably fine, both in their flesh and their wool, and as the hogs are never put into styes, but supplied with great plenty of acorns, the bacon is by far the best in England. Hampshire is also particularly famous for its honey, of which it is said to produce the best and the worst in Britain; the honey collected upon the heath is reckoned the worst, and that of the champain country the best. This county is abundantly supplied with sea and river fish, as well as with game of all kinds. It has more wood than any other county in England, especially oak, and the greatest part of the English navy is built and repaired with the timber of this county.

Manufactures.] The chief manufacture is kerseys and cloth, in which a good foreign trade is carried on; from the many ports and harbours with which this country abounds.

Among the curiosities of this county may be reckoned the city of Winchester. The date of the first building of which, is fixed at nine hundred years before our Saviour's nativity. In the time of the Romans it was a place much frequented, some say by reason of the looms which were worked there on the private account of the emperors. The West Saxon kings frequently resided there, and after the Norman conquest, we find

find several important affairs transacted in that city. King Charles the Second was so charmed with the delightful country which surrounds it, that he began a palace on the south side of the West Gate, where the castle stood, on an eminence commanding the town; but that king's death, and the revolution which soon followed, put a stop to this design. The cathedral, a venerable fabrick, was several ages building, and at last finished by William of Wickham, whom we shall have occasion to mention hereafter. The choir seats, the bishop's throne, the font and the altar, are all curious in their kind. The many antient monuments here, shew how much this place has been regarded in former ages.—The buildings in the town, like the cathedral, though not very magnificent, yet from their air of antiquity have a venerable appearance; the streets are spacious and neat, and the suburbs without the walls large, so that it measures from east to west a mile. In the south suburbs stands the college which the great William of Wickham, bishop of this see in king Edward the Third's time, built to promote learning, knowing by experience how much the want of it is prejudicial to the greatest natural genius. Not far from hence is St. Cross's, an hospital for thirteen brothers, with a daily allowance of bread and beer for poor travellers.

The chief manufacture is kerseys and cloth, in which a good foreign trade is carried on, from the many ports and harbours with which this country abounds.

Portsmouth, which may be called the key of England, and is the only regular fortification in the kingdom, was begun by king Edward the Fourth, and augmented by Henry the Seventh and Eighth; queen Elizabeth also, was at so great an expence in improving the works here, that nothing was thought wanting to compleat them: but king Charles the Second added very much to their strength, extent, and magnificence, and made this one of the principal harbours in the kingdom, for laying up the royal navy; he furnished it with wet and dry docks, store-houses, rope-yards, and all materials for building, repairing, rigging, arming, victualling; and compleatly fitting to sea, ships of war of all rates. At this place all our fleets of force, and all squadrons appointed as convoys to our trade, homeward or outward bound, constantly rendezvous, and a thousand sail may ride here in perfect security.

The mouth of the harbour, which is scarce so broad as the river Thames is at Westminster, is, upon the Portsmouth

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side,

side, defended by a castle called South Sea Castle, built by king Henry the Eighth, and situated about a mile and an half south of the town.

The town of Portsmouth is fortified, on the land side, by works raised of late years, about the docks and yards; and, within these few years, the government has bought more ground for additional works; and no doubt this town may be made impregnable, as well by land as by sea, since a shallow water may be brought quite round it.

Here are dwelling houses, with ample accommodations for a commissioner of the navy, and all the subordinate officers and master workmen, necessary for the constant service of the navy in this port day and night; and the contents of the yards and store-houses are laid up in such order, that the workmen can readily find any implement even in the dark. The quantities of military and naval stores of all kinds, that are laid up here, are immense. The rope-house is near a quarter of a mile long, and some of the cables so large, that one hundred men are required to work upon them at a time; and this labour, though divided among so many, is notwithstanding so violent, that the men can work at it only four hours in a day. The number of men continually employed in the yard is never less than a thousand. The docks and yards resemble a distinct town, and are a kind of marine corporation within themselves.

The Isle of Wight.] The present name of this island appears to have been immediately derived from the Roman names Vecta, Vectis, and Victesis; the origin of which names doth not with any certainty appear.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of this island is pleasant and healthy, and the inhabitants in general are stout and vigorous, and live to a great age.

The soil is very fruitful, the north part of the island being excellent pasturage and meadow ground, and the south part a fine corn country. Through the middle of the island, from east to west, there runs a ridge of mountains, which yield plenty of pasture for sheep; and the wool of the sheep fed in these mountains, being reckoned as good as any in England, turns out much to the advantage of the inhabitants. Here is found the milk-white tobacco-pipe clay, called Creta, by writers of natural history, of which great quantities are exported from hence, together with very fine sand, of which drinking-glasses are made. Here is abundance of sea-fish of all kinds, great plenty of hares, rabbits, partridges, pheasants, lapwings, and other wild fowl. In this island are two parks
well

well stocked with deer; but there being only one forest, wood is so scarce, that it is imported hither in great quantities from the continent. It has been observed of this island, that it yields more corn in one year, than the inhabitants consume in seven; and therefore great quantities of corn are annually exported from this place.

Nature has fortified this island almost all round with rocks; and where these are wanting, art has supplied the deficiency with castles, forts, and block-houses, to defend it against any hostile invasion. The most dangerous of these rocks are the Shingles and the Needles upon the west side of it; the Bramble and the Middle on the north, and the Mixon on the east.

Various particulars.] Hampshire sends twenty members to parliament; two knights for the shire, and two burgessees for each of the following towns: Southampton, Winchester, Portsmouth, Petersfield, Stockbridge, Christ-church, Lymington, Whit-church, and Andover. It lies in the diocese of Winchester, and in the western circuit. It numbers 77 vicarages, 253 parishes, and 1062 villages. Its division is into 33 hundreds, containing about 26,850 houses, and 134,200 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 1,312,500 acres.

HEREFORDSHIRE.

Name.] **T**HIS county takes its name from the city of Hereford, a bishop's see, and the county-town.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of this county is pure, and consequently healthy, particularly between the rivers Wye and Severn, which has given occasion to a proverb very common among the inhabitants of the county: "Blessed is the eye between Severn and Wye." The soil of Herefordshire is extremely fertile, yielding fine pasture and great quantities of corn; it is also well stocked with wood, and there are some apple-trees, particularly the red-streaks, which thrive here better than in any other county; the hedges on the high-ways are full of them, and the hogs grow fat by feeding on the windfalls, which give a reddish colour and sweet taste to their flesh: but from these apples a much greater advantage arises to the inhabitants, for they afford such quantities of cyder, that it is the common drink all over the county; and a few years ago, when the smooth cyder was preferred to the rough, it was esteemed the best in England; and a great quantity

quantity of rough cyder has been made here since the rough was preferred to the smooth. The county abounds with springs of fine water, and the rivers afford abundance of fish.

Curiosities.] As an extraordinary instance of the longevity of the inhabitants of this county, Mr. Serjeant Hoskins, a gentleman of considerable estate in these parts, invited king James the First, while he was on a progress this way, to his house; where, having elegantly entertained him, he procured ten old men and women, whose ages put together amounted to more than 1000 years, to dance the morrice before him.

Below a hill on which stands Richard's Castle, about five miles north of Leominster, is a well, called Bone Well, in which a great quantity of small bones is always found, and of which there is constantly a fresh supply, in a very short time after it is cleared of them. Some imagine these to be the bones of some small fish, and others the bones of frogs; but whence or how they came to be collected here, it is not easy to conjecture.

Various particulars.] This county sends eight members to parliament; two knights for the shire, and two for each of the following boroughs: Hereford, Lempster (alias Leominster) and Weobly. It lies in the diocese of Hereford and the Oxford circuit. It reckons 87 vicarages, 176 parishes, and 391 villages. It is divided into 12 hundreds, containing about 15,000 houses, and 75,000 inhabitants. The area contains near 660,000 acres.

H E R T F O R D S H I R E.

Name.] **T**HIS county takes its name from Hertford, or Hartford, the county town.

Air and soil.] The air of this county is very pure, and consequently healthy; and is often recommended by physicians to valetudinarians, for the preservation or recovery of health. The soil is, for the most part, rich, and in several places mixed with a marle, which produces excellent wheat and barley. The pastures, however, are but indifferent; such as are dry generally producing fern and broom; and those that are wet, rushes and moss: but, by an invention not many years practised, called bush-draining, the wet lands are greatly improved.

Natural productions.] The chief produce of this county is wood, wheat, barley, and all other sorts of grain; but the wheat

wheat and barley of Hertfordshire are so much prized in London, that many thousand quarters, both of barley and wheat, are sold every year, as the produce of this county, of which not a grain ever grew in it.

The inhabitants are chiefly malsters, millers, and dealers in corn; no manufactures worth notice being established in any part of the county.

Curiosities.] In the church of St. Albans, in a town of that name, not many years ago was discovered the tomb of Humphrey duke of Gloucester, brother to king Henry the Fifth, containing a leaden coffin, in which was the duke's corpse preserved, almost entire, by a sort of pickle, in which it lay. On the wall, at the east end of the vault, is a crucifix painted, with a cup on each side of the head, another about the middle, and a fourth at the feet. In this church are also several other funeral monuments and remarkable inscriptions: among the rest are the effigies of king Offa, the founder of the church, on his throne; one of St. Alban the Martyr, and another of Humphrey duke of Gloucester, already mentioned, with a ducal coronet, and the arms of France and England quartered; and in niches on the south side of the church are the effigies of seventeen kings of England.

Antient custom.] The manor of Wimley, or Wimondley Magna, near Hitchin, is held by the lord, upon condition that, on the coronation-day, he performs the office of cup-bearer to his sovereign: the cup is to consist of silver gilt, and is returned to the cup-bearer, as the fee of his office, which has been appendant to this manor ever since the Conquest.

Various particulars.] This county sends six members to parliament; two knights for the shire, and two burgesses for St. Albans, and as many for Hertford. It lies partly in the diocese of London, and partly in that of Lincoln, and in the home circuit. It reckons 54 vicarages, 120 parishes, and near 950 villages. Its division is into eight hundreds, containing about 16,500 houses, and 82,800 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 451,000 acres.

HUNTINGTONSHIRE.

Name.] HUNTINGTONSHIRE takes its name from Huntington, or Huntingdon, the county-town.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of this county is rendered less wholesome than that of some other counties, by the great number of fens, meers, and other standing waters with which it abounds, especially in the north part.

The soil is, in general, very fruitful. In the hilly parts, or dry lands, it yields great crops of corn, and affords excellent pasture for sheep; and, in the lower lands, the meadows are exceeding rich, and feed abundance of fine cattle, not only for slaughter, but for the dairy; and the cheese made at a village called Stilton, near Yaxley, a market-town, known by the name of Stilton cheese, is usually called the Parmesan of England. The inhabitants of Huntingtongshire are well supplied with fish and water fowl by the rivers and meers, but they have scarce any firing besides turf.

This county is not remarkable for any manufacture, so that its trade must chiefly consist in such commodities as are its natural productions.

Curiosities.] Opposite to Huntington, on the other side of the Ouse, is Godmanchester, thought to be the largest village in England, and so remarkable for husbandry, that no town employs so many ploughs. Near this place, in the road from London to Huntington, is a tree, well known to travellers by the name of Beggar's Bush. How it came by this name is uncertain; but we are told that king James the First, being on a progress this way with his chancellor, lord Bacon, and hearing that Bacon had lavishly rewarded a man for some mean present, told him, He would soon come to Beggar's Bush, as he should himself too, if they continued both so very bountiful. It is now a proverb common in the county, that, when a man is observed to squander his fortune, He is in the way to Beggar's Bush.

Various particulars.] This county sends four members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgessees for Huntington. It lies in the diocese of Lincoln and in the Norfolk circuit. It contains 29 vicarages, 79 parishes, and 229 villages. It is divided into three hundreds, containing near 8220 houses, and upwards of 41,000 inhabitants. The area is computed at 240,000 acres.

KENT.

K E N T.

Name.] TIME has not yet deprived this country of its antient name, the people having been called Cantii by the writers of antiquity.

Air and soil.] As great part of this county lies upon the sea, the air is thick, foggy, and warm, though often purified by south and south-west winds; and the shore being generally cleaner than that of Essex, the marshy parts of Kent do not produce agues in the same degree as the Hundreds of Essex; and the air in the higher parts of Kent is reckoned very healthy. The soil is generally rich, and fit for plough, pasture, or meadow; and that part of the county which borders upon the river Thames abounds with chalk-hills, from whence not only the city of London, and the parts adjacent, but even Holland and Flanders, are supplied with lime or chalk; and from these hills the rubbish of the chalk is carried in lighters to the coasts of Essex, Suffolk and Norfolk, where it is sold to the farmers as manure for their lands.

Natural productions.] The county affords some mines of iron, and in general abounds with plantations of hops, fields of corn, and orchards of cherries, apples, and other fruit: it produces also woad and madder for dyers; and, on the cliffs between Dover and Folkestone, two considerable market-towns of this county, there is found plenty of samphire: hemp and sainfoin grow here in great abundance; and the south and west parts of Kent, especially that called the Weald, are covered with woods of oak, beech and chefnut trees, which afford great timber for shipping and other uses; here are also many woods of birch, from whence the broom-makers in and about London are abundantly supplied. The cattle here of all sorts are reckoned larger than they are in the neighbouring counties. Here are several parks of fallow deer, and warrens of grey rabbits; and this county abounding in rivers, and being almost surrounded by the sea, is well supplied with all manner of fish; and, in particular, is famous for large oysters.

It is not, however, remarkable for any sort of manufacture; and its trade chiefly consists in such commodities as are the natural produce of the county.

Curiosities.] Of the artificial curiosities of this county, we may reckon the hospital of Greenwich, the left wing of which was formerly a royal palace, but, in the year 1694, was appropriated, by king William the Third, for a royal hospital for aged and disabled seamen, the widows and children of such

as lost their lives in the service of the crown, and for the encouragement of navigation. The other wing was begun in the reign of king William, carried on in the reigns of queen Anne and king George the First; and that, together with the rest of the building, was finished in the reign of king George the Second. Such is the noble symmetry, architecture, and decorations, and such the charming situation, and ample endowment of this spacious and sumptuous edifice, that there is scarce such a foundation and fabric in the world. Its hall, which is very superb, was finely painted by the late Sir James Thornhill.

In the year 1705, was the first admission of one hundred disabled seamen into this hospital; but the number now is near two thousand men and one hundred boys. To every hundred pensioners are allowed five nurses, being the widows of seamen, at ten pounds a-year, and two shillings a-week more to those who attend in the infirmary. The pensioners are cloathed in blue, with brass buttons; are allowed stockings, shoes, and linen; and, besides their commons, have one shilling a-week to spend, and the common warrant-officers one shilling and sixpence. The hospital is governed by a governor, a lieutenant-governor, and other officers.

Here is a noble and most delightful park, enlarged, planted, and walled round by king Charles the Second. It is well stocked with deer, and has a most agreeable prospect, both of the city of London and of the river Thames. On the top of a steep hill, in this park, Humphrey, duke of Gloucester, began a tower, which was finished by king Henry the Seventh, but afterwards demolished, and a royal observatory erected in its place, by king Charles the Second, furnished with all sorts of mathematical instruments for astronomical observations; besides a deep dry well for observing the stars in the day time. This place was successively the residence of those celebrated astronomers, Mr. Flamsteed and Dr. Halley: from Mr. Flamsteed this observatory took the name of Flamsteed House, by which it is now commonly known, and is at present in possession of Dr. Bradley, as astronomer to his majesty.

At Chatham, a village upon the river Stour, about three miles south of Canterbury, as some persons were sinking a well, in the year 1668, they found, at the depth of about seventeen feet, a parcel of petrified bones, of an uncommon size and figure, among which were four perfect teeth, almost as large as a man's hand. Some believed them to be the bones of a marine animal, which had perished there, upon a supposition that the long vale, of twenty miles or more,
through

through which the river Stour runs, was formerly an arm of the sea. Some were of opinion that they are the bones of an elephant; many elephants are said to have been brought over into Britain by the emperor Claudius, who landed near Sandwich, and might probably come this way in his march to the Thames. The shape and size of these teeth are thought to agree with those of an elephant, and the depth at which they were found, is accounted for by the continual washing down of the earth from the hills.

The inhabitants of this county are said to have been the first in England that were converts to Christianity, and by their courage and resolution, they retained some privileges, which the inhabitants of every other county lost, by a capitulation with William the Conqueror; particularly a tenure called Gavelkind, by virtue of which, first, Every man possessed of lands in this county is in a manner a freeholder, not being bound by copyhold, customary tenure, or tenant right, as they are in other parts of England. Secondly, The male heirs, and, in default of such, the female, share all the lands alike. Thirdly, The lands of a brother, if he have no legal issue, are shared by all the surviving brethren. Fourthly, An heir, when fifteen years old, is of age to sell or alienate. Fifthly, Though the ancestor be convicted of felony or murder, the heirs shall enjoy his inheritance; and this is alluded to by the Kentish proverb; 'The father to the bough, and the son to the plough;' but this privilege extends not to treason, piracy, outlawry, or abjuring the realm.

Curiosities.] There is a ridge of chalky hills, reaching all the way from Folkestone to Dover; some of which, in the neighbourhood of Folkestone, we are told, in No. 340 of The Philosophical Transactions, had been observed to sink considerably in the last century.

Various particulars.] Kent sends sixteen members to parliament, two knights for the shire, and two for each of the following boroughs; Canterbury, Rochester, Maidstone, Queenborough, Dover, Romney, and Sandwich.—It lies in the diocese of Canterbury, and partly in that of Rochester, and in the home circuit. It reckons 163 vicarages, 408 parishes, and above 1170 villages. Its division is into five lathes, under each of which are several hundreds, containing near 39,240 houses, and 196,200 inhabitants. The area of this county is computed at 1,248,000 acres.

L A N C A S H I R E.

Name.] LANCASHIRE, the name of this county, was immediately derived from Lancaster, that of the county town.

Air.] The air of this county in general is more serene than that of any other maritime county in England; so that the inhabitants are strong and healthy, except near the fens and sea shore; where sulphureous and saline effluvia, which on the approach of storms are extremely fetid, produce fevers, scurvy, consumptions, rheumatisms, and dropsies. There are also certain tracts in the more inland parts of the county, which the inhabitants call mosses, that are moist and unwholesome.

Soil and Natural Productions.] The soil of this county on the west side generally yields great plenty of wheat and barley, and though the hilly tracts on the east side are for the most part stoney and barren, yet the bottoms of those hills produce excellent oats. In some places the land bears very good hemp; and the pasture is so rich, that both oxen and cows are of a larger size here than in any other county in England; their horns also are wider and bigger. In this county are mines of lead, iron, and copper, and of antimony, black lead and lapis calaminaris; also quarries of stone for building. Here is likewise great plenty of coal, and a particular kind called cannel or candle coal, which is chiefly found in the manor of Haigh, near Wigan, a large market town of this county. This coal will not only make a much clearer fire than pit coal, but will bear a good polish, and when polished, looks like black marble; so that candle-sticks, cups, standishes, snuff-boxes and other toys, are made of it. In some of the coal pits are found alum, brimstone, and green vitriol.

The mosses or morasses of this county are generally distinguished into three kinds; the white, the grey, and the black; all which, being drained, bear good corn. They also yield turf for fuel, and marle to manure the ground; trees are sometimes found lying buried in these mosses, and the people make use of poles and spits to discover where they lie. These trees, when dug up, serve also for firing, and they burn like a torch, which some suppose to be owing to the bituminous stratum in which they lie; but others to the turpentine which they contain, being generally of the fir kind.

This

This county has great plenty and variety of fish: upon the sea coasts are found codfish, flounders, plaife, and turbots; the sea dog, inkle fish, and sheath fish, are taken upon the sands near Liverpool; sturgeon is caught near Warrington; and along the whole coast are found green-backs, mallots, soles, sand-eels, oysters, lobsters, shrimps, prawns, the best and largest cockles in England, the echin, torculars, wilks, and perriwinkles, rabbit-fish, and pap-fish; and such abundance of muscles, that the husbandmen near the sea coasts, manure their ground with them.

Almost all the rivers of the county abound with fish; the Mersee in particular with sparlings and simelts; the Ribble with flounders and plaife; the Lon with the best of salmon; and the Wire is famous for a large sort of muscle, called Hambleton hookings, because they are dragged from their beds with hooks, in which pearls of a considerable size are very often found. The Irk, a small river that falls into the Mersee, is remarkable for eels, so fat, that few people can eat them; the fatness of these eels is imputed to their feeding upon the grease and oil which is pressed by a number of water mills upon this stream, out of the woolen cloths that are milled in them.

There are also several lakes in this county, which abound with fish, particularly Kennington Meer, about five miles from Winandar Meer, in Westmoreland, which has very fine charrs and other fish.

Manufactures.] The principal manufactures of this county are woollen cloth, cottons and tickens.

At Ancliff, about two miles from Wigan, there is a curious phænomenon, called the burning well, the water of which is cold, and has no smell; yet so strong a vapour of sulphur issues out with it, that upon applying a flame to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning spirits, which lasts several hours, and emits so fierce a heat, that meat may be boiled over it: but this water being taken out of the well, will not emit vapour in a quantity sufficient to catch fire.

Many uncommon birds have been observed on the coasts of this county; particularly the sea-crow, distinguished by its blue body, and its black head and wings, and by its feeding upon muscles; the puffin; the asper, which is a species of sea eagle; the sparling fisher; the cormorant; the curlew-hilp; the razor-bill, a bird like a water-wagtail, found of a red colour, and called by Dr. Leigh, in his *Natural History* of this county, the copped wren; besides these,

these, there are red-shanks, perrs, swans, the tropic-bird, king's fisher, and heyhough.

Various particulars.] Lancashire sends twelve members to parliament; two knights for the shire, and two burgessees for each of the following boroughs, Lancaster, Liverpool, Preston, Wigan, Clithero, and Newton. It lies in the diocese of Chester, and in the northern circuit. It contains twelve vicarages, thirty-six parishes, about 894 villages. The division of it is into five hundreds, containing about 40,200 houses, and 201,000 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 1,150,000 acres.

M I D D L E S E X.

Name.] **T**HIS county was called Middlesex, from its having been inhabited by the Middle Saxons, who were thus distinguished, in respect of their situation in the Middle between the three ancient kingdoms of the East, West, and South Saxons, by which they were surrounded.

Air and Soil.] The air of Middlesex is very pleasant and healthy, to which a fine gravelly soil contributes not a little. The soil produces plenty of corn; and the county abounds with fine fertile meadows and gardeners' grounds; for the art of gardening, assisted by the rich compost from London, is brought to much greater perfection in this county than in any other part of Britain.

Natural Productions and Manufactures] Its natural productions are cattle, corn and fruit; and its manufactures are too many to be enumerated.

Cities and Market Towns.] The cities are London and Westminster; and the market towns are Brentford, Edgware, Enfield, Stanes, and Uxbridge.

London is situated in fifty-one degrees and thirty minutes north latitude; and being the metropolis of the British dominions, is the meridian from which all British geographers compute the measures of longitude.

London is supposed to be equal, if not superior, to every other city upon earth, for the numbers and wealth of its inhabitants, its extensive commerce, its admirable policy, its many establishments to promote literature, manufactures and trade, and its numerous foundations of charity to support the indigent, and relieve every species of distress. It was a Roman city; and very early under the Romans was celebrated for the multitude of its merchants, and the vast extent of
its

its trade. During the Saxon heptarchy, it was the metropolis of the kingdom of the East Saxons, and was always the chief residence of the kings of England. Its first charter from William the Conqueror, dated in the year 1067, is still preserved in the city archives.

London is situated to great advantage, on the north side of the Thames, on a gentle rise from that river, and on a gravelly and loamy soil, which conduces very much to the health of its inhabitants. The country round it consists of gardeners grounds, delightful plains, and beautiful elevations adorned with a great number of magnificent country houses, belonging to the citizens.

For twenty miles round London, the roads leading to it are the finest that can be imagined; being kept in constant repair by a toll collected at turnpikes; and the distances from London in all the great roads to it throughout Britain, are marked on stone posts, called mile-stones, set up, one at the end of every measured mile.

No city is better lighted in the night than London; the allowance for the public lamps being more than 10,000*l.* a year, exclusive of many thousand lamps belonging to public houses and others, which are lighted at the private expence of particular citizens.

The cities of London and Westminster are better supplied with water than perhaps any other in the world: almost every house is furnished with pipes, which bring it in great plenty from the Thames, the New River Head, or from some ponds at Hampstead, a village in the neighbourhood: the city also abounds with fine springs, some of which are medicinal.

London and Westminster are reckoned to extend seven miles and an half in length; from Blackwall in the east, to Tothill-fields, or to the fields beyond Grosvenor and Cavendish squares, in the west; and six miles three quarters along the Thames, from Poplar to Peterborough house, beyond Westminster horse-ferry: the breadth, from Newington Butts, on the south side of the borough of Southwark in Surry, to Jeffrey's alms-houses in Kingland Road in Middlesex, is three miles thirty-one poles; though in other places, as from Peterborough House to the British Museum, it is but two miles; and in others, as in Wapping, not half a mile: and the circumference is judged to be at least eighteen miles.

The civil government of the city of London, as distinct from Westminster, is vested in a mayor, who has the title of Lord, twenty-six aldermen, a recorder, a chamberlain, 236 common-council men, and other officers.

The lord mayor is elected annually at Guildhall, on Michaelmas-day, when the aldermen below the chair, who have served the office of sheriff, are put in nomination, out of whom the liverymen, who are chosen from among the freemen of each company, and are about eight thousand in number, return two to the court of aldermen, who usually chuse the senior alderman: upon the eighth of November he is sworn into his office at Guildhall, and the next day he is inaugurated at Westminster. For this purpose, he is met in the morning by the aldermen and sheriffs at Guildhall, from whence they ride with great state in their coaches to the stairs on the Thames side, called the Three Cranes, where they take water in the lord mayor's barge, being attended by the barges of the twelve principal companies, and others, in their furred gowns, with their music, colours, and streamers; and saluted from the shore and water by great guns. After landing at Palace-yard, Westminster, the companies march in order to Westminster-hall, followed by the lord mayor and aldermen: having entered the hall, they walk round it with the city sword and mace carried before them, to salute the courts sitting there; and then walk up to the court of Exchequer, where the new lord mayor is sworn before the barons. His lordship then walks round the hall again, and invites the judges to dinner at Guildhall; after which he returns with the citizens by water to Black-friars; from whence they ride in their coaches, preceded by the artillery company, being a band of infantry, constituting part of the city militia, in buff coats; attended by the city companies, with their flags and music, to Guildhall; where they generally meet the lord chancellor, the judges, several of the nobility, the ministers of state; and foreign ambassadors, who are invited to a magnificent entertainment; which is also sometimes honoured with the presence of the king, queen, and princes of the blood.

The lord mayor's jurisdiction extends, in some cases, a great way beyond the city; not only over a part of the suburbs, but upon the river Thames, east as far as its conflux with the Medway, and west to the river Colne: and he keeps courts annually for the conservation of the river Thames, in the counties it flows through, within the limits already mentioned. He always appears abroad in a state coach; he is robed with scarlet or purple, richly furred, with a hood of black velvet, a great gold chain, or collar of SS, and a rich jewel hanging to it; and his officers walk before, or on each side of his coach. He usually goes on Sunday morning,
attended

attended by some of the aldermen, to St. Paul's cathedral, where, on the first Sunday in term time, all or most of the twelve judges are present, whom, after divine service, he invites to dinner. If a lord mayor elect refuses to serve, he is liable to be fined.

The city is divided into twenty-six wards; over each of these wards there is an alderman; and on the death of any of the twenty-six aldermen, the wardmote, which is a court kept in every ward of the city, upon a precept immediately issued by the lord mayor, meet and return the names of two substantial citizens to his lordship, and his brethren the aldermen, who chuse one of them; and he that is chose must serve, or pay a fine of 500*l.* All the aldermen are justices of the peace in the city by charter.

The two sheriffs of this city, which is a county of itself, are also sheriffs of the county of Middlesex, and are chosen at Guildhall on Midsummer-day, by the liverymen, but not sworn till Michaelmas-eve, when they enter on their office; and two days after are presented in the Exchequer court in Westminster-hall, to the lord chancellor, by the lord mayor and aldermen. Each sheriff has an under-sheriff, six clerks, thirty-six serjeants; and every serjeant a yeoman, who belongs to either of the prisons, called Woodstreet compter, or the Poultry compter. If the person chosen sheriff does not chuse to serve, he is fined 400*l.* to the city, and 13*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* to the ministers of the city prisons, unless he swears himself not worth 10,000*l.* and if he serves, he is obliged to give bond to the corporation.

After the sheriffs are elected, the livery chuse the chamberlain of the city, and other officers, called the bridge-masters, auditors of the city and bridge-house accounts, and the ale-conners. The recorder is appointed by the lord mayor and court of aldermen. His place is for life.

The common-council, constables, and other officers, are chosen by the house-keepers of the ward, on St. Thomas's-day, at a wardmote then held by the alderman.

The court of common-council, which is the name given to the assembly of the lord mayor, aldermen, and common-council men, make bye-laws for the city, and upon occasion, grant freedoms to strangers. It is called and adjourned by the lord mayor; and out of it are formed several committees for letting the city lands, and other services.

The lord mayor and court of aldermen, are a court of record, in which all leases and instruments are executed that pass under the city seal. They fix the price of bread, deter-

mine all differences relating to lights, water-courses, and party walls, suspend or punish offending officers, and annually elect the rulers of the watermens company: they also appoint most of the city officers, as the four common pleaders, the comptroller of the chamber, the two secondaries, the remembrancer, the city solicitor, the sword-bearer, the common hunt, the water bailiff, four attorneys of the lord mayor's court, the clerk of the chamber, the three serjeant carvers, three serjeants of the chamber, the serjeants of the channel, the two marshals, the hall-keeper, the yeomen of the chamber, four yeomen of the water-side, the yeomen of the channel, the water-bailiff, twomeal-weighers, two fruit meters, the foreign taker, the clerk of the city works, six young men, two clerks of the papers, eight attorneys of the sheriffs court, eight clerk sitters, two prothonotaries, the clerk of the bridge-house, the clerk of the court of requests, the beadle of the court of requests, thirty-six serjeants at mace, thirty-six yeomen, the gauger, the scaler and searchers of leather, the keeper of the Green-yard, two keepers of the two compters, of Newgate and of Ludgate, the measurer, the steward of Southwark, the bailiff of the hundred of Oslulfston, and the city artificers: but the rent-gatherer is put in by Mr. Chamberlain, and the high bailiff of Southwark by the common-council.

The military government of this city is lodged in a licutenancy, consisting of the lord mayor, aldermen, and other principal citizens, who receive their authority from the king by commission. These have under their command, the city trained bands, consisting of six regiments of foot, distinguished by the names of the white, orange, yellow, blue, green and red; each consisting of eight companies of one hundred and fifty men each, and the whole of seven thousand two hundred men. Besides these six regiments, here is a corps called the artillery company, from its being taught the military exercise in the Artillery Ground. This company is independent of the rest, and consists of seven or eight hundred volunteers. All these, with two regiments of foot, of eight hundred men each, commanded by the lieutenant of the Tower of London, make the whole militia of this city, exclusive of Westminster and Southwark, above ten thousand men including officers and drums.

It would exceed the bounds limited us in this work to particularise every remarkable article belonging this great metropolis. However, we shall just touch upon the principal, and refer the reader to the several large volumes wrote

on this subject, and among others to Mr. Maitland's History of London. The Tower affords several objects to attract attention; as the Armory, in which are arms for 110,000 men placed in a beautiful disposition, and kept in excellent order; the crown jewels, the records, mint, &c. The Monument, a stately pillar of the Tuscan order, two hundred and two feet high, was raised in memory of the great fire in 1666. The cathedral of St. Paul is one of the most august pieces of architecture that any modern age has produced, though the effect it ought to have is much lessened from the crowd of buildings with which it is too closely surrounded. Had the builder's, Sir Christopher Wren, plan been followed, according to which the cathedral was to have had an area suitable to its bigness; all the principal streets to be laid in direct lines upon rebuilding the city after the fire, the houses built uniform and placed on piazzas like Covent-Garden; the parish-churches disposed in proper points of view, and a continual quay with suitable buildings ranged along the river-side: had, I say, this plan been put into execution, the symmetry arising from so many beautiful vistas, would perhaps have surpassed all that has ever yet appeared on the face of the earth. The Custom-house, Bank, Gresham-College, which contains a very large collection of the greatest rarities; the College of Physicians, a stately edifice with a fine collection of books suitable to the profession; several of the city halls, the several libraries, Westminster-Abby and Hall, many private houses belonging to the nobility and gentry, deserve particular notice of the curious, and have afforded ample matter for several volumes.—The number of parish churches (many of which are very beautiful) are as follows: ninety-seven within the walls of London, seventeen without the walls, and eleven in the city and liberties of Westminster.

At Chelsea is a royal hospital for superannuated and disabled soldiers. It contains near five hundred persons (officers, &c. included) and is under very good regulations. To defray the expences, one day's pay is deducted from every officer and soldier yearly, which, in time of a land-war, has been known to amount to upwards of thirteen thousand pounds.—At the same place is the Physick-garden, which affords much amusement to those who are curious in botany.—Coway-Stakes (on the river Thames, about four miles below Staines) is so called on account of the stakes fixed in the banks on the north-side by the Britons, to hinder Julius Cæsar from passing the river. Near this place is Shepperton, where, in a piece of ground called Warre-Close, have been dug up men's bones, swords,

spurs, &c. At Hedgerley, near Uxbridge, are the remains of a camp, which appears to be British. Staines, in the south-west edge of Middlesex, is so called from a stone formerly fixed here as the boundary of the city of London's jurisdiction up the river Thames. Heston, not far from Harrow on the Hill, is famous for bearing fine wheat, which in former days was appropriated to the king's table. Brentford, appointed by act of parliament for election of knights of the shire for Middlesex. Here Edmund Ironside, after he had forced the Danes to raise the siege of London, came up with those invaders of his country, and defeated them with great slaughter. The high cross at Tottenham, and St. Eloy's well in the same parish, which is always full but never overflows, are both remarkable. In that skirt of London next Spittal-Fields, have been found many urns, as also coins of Claudius, Nero, Vespasian, and Antonius Pius, from whose lieutenant Lollius Urbicus, the antient name of this place, viz. Loleworth, is supposed to be derived.

Various particulars.] This county sends eight members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, four burgeses for London, and two for Westminster. It lies in the diocess of London, and the home circuit. Exclusive of London and Westminster, it contains thirty-one vicarages, seventy-three parishes. It is divided into five hundreds, containing near 5000 houses and 25,000 inhabitants. The area of the whole is computed to be about 247,000 acres.

MONMOUTHSHIRE.

Name.] **M**onmouthshire takes its name from Monmouth, the county town.

Air, soil, natural productions, and manufactures.] Its air is temperate and healthy, and the soil fruitful; the eastern parts are woody, and the western parts mountainous; the hills feed cattle, sheep, and goats; and the vallies produce plenty of hay and corn: the rivers abound with salmon, trout and other fish: here is great plenty of coals; and the principal manufacture is flannel.

Curiosities.] In 1607, a fenny tract of country called the Moor, near the mouth of the river Usk, was, by a spring tide, overflowed by the Severn, which swept away many houses, and destroyed a great number of the inhabitants, and much cattle.

An eminence near the mouth of the Severn, and a little eastward of the mouth of the Usk, is remarkable for glittering stones, which, when the sun shines, have the appearance of gold, whence this place has obtained the name of Gold Cliff.

Various particulars.] This county sends only three members to parliament, two knights for the shire, and one burges for Monmouth. It lies in the diocese of Landaff, and in the Oxford circuit. The number of parishes is 127. Its division is into six hundreds, containing near 6,500 houses, and 38,900 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 340,000 acres.

N O R F O L K.

Name. **N**ORFOLK, or Northfolk, derived its name from its northern situation in respect of Suffolk: it was intended to express the northern people, or northern branch of the East Angles.

Air and soil.] The air of this county, near the sea-coast, is aquish, and otherwise unsalutary; but in the inland parts, it is both healthy and pleasant, though frequently piercing. The soil is more various than perhaps that of any other country, and comprehends all the sorts that are to be found in the island; arable, pasture, meadow, woodlands, light sandy ground, deep clays, heaths and fens: the worst of these, however, are far from being unprofitable, the sandy heaths feeding sheep and breeding rabbits, and even the fens affording rich pasture for cattle.

Natural productions and manufactures.] The natural productions of this county are corn, cattle, wool, rabbits, honey, saffron, herrings, and other sea fish, in great abundance; and in the river Yare is caught a delicious fish, peculiar to itself, called the Ruffe. Jet and ambergrease are sometimes found on the coasts of this county: and the principal manufactures are worsted, woollens, and silks, in which all the inland parts are employed; the Norwich stuffs being a very considerable article in our trade.

The principal town of this county, Norwich, stands upon the side of a hill, and is reckoned near two miles in length from north to south, one mile in breadth, and six miles in compass. Though it is a populous city, yet the houses are but thinly scattered; and from the intermixture of gardens and trees, it has been compared to a city in an orchard.

The town, upon the whole, is irregular; but the buildings, both public and private, are very neat and beautiful.

The worsted manufacture, for which this city has been long famous, and in which children earn their subsistence, was first brought hither by the Flemings, in the reign of king Edward III. and afterwards very much improved by the Dutch, who fled from the duke of Alva's persecution; and being settled here by queen Elizabeth, taught the inhabitants to make great variety of worsted stuffs, as says, baize, serges and shaloons, in which this town carries on a vast trade, as well foreign as domestic. Camblets, druggets, and crapes are woven here in great perfection, besides other curious stuffs, of which it is said this city vends to the value of 200,000 l. a year. Four wardens of the worsted weavers are chosen yearly out of the city, and four out of the neighbourhood, who are sworn to take care that there be no frauds committed in the manufacture.

Lynn also is a rich large town, well built, and well inhabited; and, from the ruins of the works demolished in the late civil wars, it appears to have been a strong place. It has a spacious market-place, in the quadrangle of which is a statue of king William III. and a fine cross, with a dome and gallery round it, supported by sixteen pillars. The market-house is a free-stone building, after the modern taste, seventy feet high, and adorned with statues, and other embellishments.

The town of Yarmouth is distant from London 122 miles, and was anciently one of the cinque ports. It makes a very good appearance from the sea, is the neatest, the most compact, and the most regularly built of any town in England; the streets being straight, and parallel to each other, and there is a view cross all the streets, from the key to the sea, the town standing in a peninsula, between the sea and the harbour. Yarmouth is walled, but the chief strength by land is the haven, or river, which lies on the west side of it, with a drawbridge over it; the port or entrance secures the south, and the sea the east; but the north, which joins it to the mainland, is open, and only covered with a single wall, and some old demolished works. Here is a market-place, the finest and best furnished of any in England, for its extent; and the key is the handsomest and largest of any perhaps in Europe, that of Seville in Spain only excepted: it is so commodious, that people may step directly from the shore into any of the ships, and walk from one to another, as over a bridge, sometimes for a quarter of a mile together; and it is at the same time so
spacious,

spacious, that in some places it is near a hundred yards from the houses to the wharf. On the wharf is a custom-house and town-hall, with several merchants houses that look like palaces.

Though Yarmouth is not so large a town as Norwich, it is generally superior in traffic and wealth; and upwards of half a century ago, above 1100 vessels belonged to this port, besides the ships which its merchants were owners of, or concerned in, at other ports. Except Hull in Yorkshire, Yarmouth has more trade than any other town on the east coast of England.

Curiosities.] The Greater Ouse in this county, is remarkable for its sudden and impetuous inundations, particularly at the full moon, in the autumnal and vernal equinoxes, when a vast body of water from the sea runs up against the stream, through the channel of this river, with prodigious violence, overflowing the banks, and sweeping off every thing in its way.

Various particulars.] This county sends twelve members to parliament, viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgesses for each of the following boroughs: Norwich, Lynn-Regis, Yarmouth, Thetford, and Castlerising. Norfolk is in the diocese of Norwich, and the Norfolk circuit. It contains 164 vicarages, 660 parishes, and near 1500 villages. It is divided into 31 hundreds, containing upwards of 47,000 houses, and near 236,000 inhabitants. The area of this county is computed at 1,148,000 acres.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE.

Name.] **T**HIS county takes its name from Northampton, the county town.

Air.] Its air is so pure and healthy, that the nobility and gentry have more seats here, than in any other county of the same extent in England; and it is so crowded with towns and villages, that in some places thirty steeples may be seen at one view. There is however a small tract of country called Fenland, about Peterborough, bordering on Lancashire and Cambridgeshire, which is often overflowed by great falls of water from the uplands, in rainy seasons; but the inhabitants do not suffer the water to stay so long upon the ground, even in winter, as to affect the air, of which the healthfulness of the inhabitants is an undeniable proof.

Soil and natural productions.] The soil of this country is fruitful both in corn and grass, but produces very little wood; and as it is an inland county, and few of its rivers are navigable, the inhabitants find it very difficult to supply themselves with fuel. The rivers however yield great plenty of fish, and the county abounds with cattle and sheep: it produces also much saltpetre, and many pigeons. The face of the county is level, and less of it lies waste than of any other in England.

Manufactures.] Its manufactures are serges, tammies, shalloons, boots and shoes.

Northampton is the chief town, as neat a place as any in England; it was formerly walled, and within the walls, which were two miles in compass, there were seven churches, and two without: of these churches four only remain; the largest of which, called Allhallows, stands in the center of the town, at the meeting of four spacious streets; it has a stately portico, supported by eighty lofty Ionic columns, with a statue of king Charles II. on the balustrade. Here is a sessions and assize house, which is a beautiful building, in the Corinthian stile; and a market-place, so regular and spacious, as to be accounted one of the finest in Europe. On the west side of the town are still to be seen the remains of an old castle. Here is a county gaol, and three hospitals, and an inn, called the George-Inn, the building of which cost 2000*l*. It was however given by John Dryden, esq. towards the endowment of a charity school, for thirty boys and ten girls.

Curiosities.] One of the principal curiosities in this county is a well at Oundle, in which, it is said, is sometimes heard a noise like the beat of a drum, which the people in the neighbourhood regard as the presage of some great calamity.

Not far from Broughton, near Kettering, there is a petrifying well, from whence a scull, perfectly petrified, was in the last century brought to Sidney college in Cambridge, where it is still preserved.

At Oxendon, near Kettering, there is a remarkable echo, formed by the tower of a church, that will repeat twelve or thirteen syllables very distinctly.

Various particulars.] This county sends nine members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgessees for each of the following boroughs; Northampton, the city of Peterborough, Brackley, and one for Higham-Ferrers. It lies in the diocese of Peterborough, in the midland circuit. It contains 85 vicarages, 326 parishes, and about 550 villages. The division of it is into twenty hundreds, containing near

24,800

24,800 houses, and 124,000 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 550,000 acres.

N O R T H U M B E R L A N D.

Name.] **N**ORTHUMBERLAND in the old Saxon, signifies the “land or country north of the ri-
“ver Humber.”

Air, soil, and natural productions.] Tho’ from its northern situation its air is not so cold as might be imagined; for, as it lies in the narrowest part of England, and between the German and Irish seas, it has the same advantage over inland countries in the same degrees of latitude, that the island of Britain has over other countries on the continent, in the same climate, that of being warmed by the vapours from the sea; this is the reason why snow seldom lies long in this county, except on the tops of high mountains; the air is also more healthy than might be expected in a country bordering on the seas, as appears by the good health and longevity of the inhabitants; this advantage is attributed to the soil of the coast, which being sandy and rocky, emits no such noxious and noisome vapours, as constantly rise from mud and ouze.

The soil is different in different parts; that on the sea coast, if well cultivated, yields great abundance of good wheat and other grain; and along the banks of the rivers, particularly the Tyne, there are large and rich meadows; but the western parts are generally barren, consisting chiefly of a heathy and mountainous country, which however affords good pasture for sheep.

On the tops of some of the mountains in this county, especially those tracts in the western parts of it, called Tyndale and Readsdale, from their situation along the courses of the rivers Tyne and Read, there are some bogs that are impassable without the help of horses, which the inhabitants train up for that purpose, and are therefore called Bog-trotters.

The rivers here afford great plenty of fish, particularly salmon and trout. The lords of the adjacent manors have the property of the fishery, which is farmed by fishermen, who dry the far greatest part of what they catch, and barrel, and transport them beyond sea. Northumberland abounds more with coal, especially about Newcastle, than any other county in England. This coal is as properly pit-coal as any other, but is called sea-coal, because it is brought by sea to all parts

of Great Britain, as well as to France, Flanders, and other countries: the trade of this county in coal, therefore, is very great; London alone consuming near 700,000 chaldrons in one year. Here are also lead mines, and great plenty of timber.

However, it does not appear that Northumberland is remarkable for any particular manufacture.

Newcastle had its name from a castle built here by Robert, the eldest son of William the Conqueror. This town stands upon the north bank of the river Tyne, at the distance of 276 miles from London. In the time of the Saxons it was called Moncafter, or Monkchester, and before the Norman conquest was in possession of the Scots, whose kings sometimes resided here. It is a borough as ancient at least as Richard II. who granted it the privilege of having a sword carried before the mayor: king Henry VI. made it a town and county incorporate of itself, independant of Northumberland; and it is governed by a mayor, nineteen aldermen, a recorder, a sheriff, a town clerk, a clerk of the chamber, two coroners, eight chamberlains, a sword-bearer, a water bailiff, and seven serjeants at mace.

This town of Newcastle, which is next to the city of York, and the principal of this county, is the handsomest and largest in the north of England: it is extremely populous; but the situation of it, especially the most busy part of the town, towards the river, is very uneven, it being built on the declivity of a steep hill, and the houses very close together. The upper or north part of it, inhabited by the genteeler sort of people, is much more pleasant, and has three level, well built, and spacious streets. The town is encompassed with a strong wall, in which are seven gates, and as many turrets, with divers cazemates, bomb proof: the castle, which is ruinous, overlooks the whole town. Here is a magnificent exchange, and a handsome mansion-house for the mayor, besides six churches or chapels. St. Nicholas, the mother church, is a curious fabric, built in the manner of a cathedral, by David king of Scotland, with a fine steeple of uncommon architecture.

Here is a noble custom-house, and the finest key in England, except that at Yarmouth; also a stately bridge over the Tyne, consisting of seven arches, which are very large. This bridge is built upon on both sides, and has a large gatehouse on it, with an iron gate to shut it up: beyond this gate the liberties of Newcastle do not extend, for which reason it has the arms of the town carved in stone on the west side of it, and those of the bishop of Durham on the east; and yet there

is a suburb of Newcastle, called Gateside, situated on the other side of the river, in the bishopric of Durham.

Here is a considerable manufacture of hardware and wrought iron, many glass-houses and ship-yards, where vessels for the coal trade are built in great perfection. The trade of this place in coal, exclusive of other traffic, is so great, that it employs above 6000 keelmen, or coal lighter-men, who have formed themselves into a friendly society, and, by their own contributions, built an hospital for such of their fraternity as are disabled either by accident or age. This is a famous place for grindstones; but the fish that is sold in London by the name of Newcastle salmon, is taken in the Tweed, and sent to Shields, a small port near the mouth of the Tyne, where it is pickled, and put on board vessels for exportation.

This town has the greatest public revenue in its own right, as a corporation, of any town in England, it being computed at no less than 8000 l. a year.

Curiosities.] One of the greatest curiosities in this county is that famous range of mountains near Woller, upon the borders of Scotland, called the Cheviot-Hills. These mountains are so high, especially upon the north side, that snow may be seen in some of their cliffs till Midsummer: they serve as a land-mark at sea; and one of them, which is much higher than the rest, looks at a distance like the famous peak of Teneriff, and may be plainly seen at the distance of sixty miles. On the top of this mountain there is a smooth pleasant plain, about half a mile in diameter, with a large pond in the middle of it.

Antiquities.] Northumberland, with some of the adjoining counties in Scotland, was in the time of the Romans inhabited by the Ottadini, or Ottatini, a people supposed to have been so called from their situation upon, or beyond, the river Tyne; as the ancient Britons called the country on the west of the river Conway, in the county of Caernarvon in Wales, by the name of Uch-Conway; and the country on the west side of the river Gyrow, in Denbeighshire, by the name of Uch-Gyrow, and named several other particular districts, from the river or mountain beyond which, with respect to them, such districts were situated, it is probable, that they gave the name Uch-Tin to the country bordering upon, or beyond, the Tyne; and that from the British name Uch-Tin, or Uch-Dyn, the Romans formed Ottatini, or Ottadini.

But as it appears, that those Britons who in the time of the Romans dwelt near the Picts Wall, of which an account has been given in the description of Cumberland, were all known by

by the general name of Mæataæ, and it is thought that the Ottadini were a tribe or division of the Mæataæ, some have conjectured, that instead of Mæataæ, we should read Næataæ, which name might be derived from Naid, or Nawd, a word that in the ancient British language signifies a *defence* or *security*, as the wall upon which they bordered might be termed. Be that as it will, the Mæataæ were the people, who in that memorable revolt of the Britons against the Romans, in which the Caledonians were brought into the confederacy, first took up arms.

The greatest part of the Picts Wall, the boundary of the Roman province in Britain, passing through this county, here are to be seen more numerous memorials of funerals and battles, and other antiquities, than in any other county in Britain.

Various particulars.] This county sends eight members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgesles for each of the following boroughs; Newcastle upon Tyne, Morpeth, and Berwick upon Tweed. It lies in the diocese of Durham, and in the northern circuit. There are in it 9 vicarages, 40 parishes, about 280 villages, 22,740 houses, and 113,700 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 1,370,000 acres.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE.

Name.] **N**OTTINGHAMSHIRE takes its name from Nottingham, the county town.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] It is reckoned to have as good a climate as any county in England; but the different qualities of the soil, have divided the county under two denominations. The east side, which is very fruitful in corn and pasture, is called the Clay: this division is subdivided into the North Clay and the South Clay: and the west part of the county, which is generally woody or barren, is called the Sand.

There is a large forest, called Shirwood Forest, which comprehends almost all the western parts of this county, and contains several parks, towns, and seats. The officers of this forest, in 1675, were a warden, his lieutenant and steward, a bow-bearer, and a ranger, four verdurers, twelve regarders, four agisters, and twelve keepers or foresters, all under a chief forester: besides these, there are several woodwards for every township within the forest, and one for every principal wood.

The

The western parts, however, besides wood, yield some coal and lead. Here are also found marles of several sorts, and a stone, not unlike alabaster, but softer, which, when burnt, makes a plaster harder than that of Paris; and this plaster the inhabitants of Nottinghamshire generally use for flooring. Other productions of this county are liquorice, cattle, abundance of fowl, and fresh water fish.

Manufactures.] The principal manufactures are stockings, glass and earthen wares. The inhabitants also make great quantities of malt, and fine strong ale.

Nottingham, its chief town, is situated on the side of a hill, formerly known by the name of the Dolorous Hill, or Golgotha, from a great slaughter of the ancient Britons in this place, by a king of the north, called Humber. This hill commands a pleasant view of the river Trent, which runs parallel to the town, and is thus far navigable by barges. Nottingham is large and well built, and has more gentlemen's seats in it, than perhaps any other town of its extent in the kingdom. It formerly had a castle, which was supposed to have been built by William the Conqueror, or by his natural son, William Peverel. This castle being demolished about the time of the restoration of king Charles II. the duke of Newcastle, who bought the ground-plot, in 1674, erected a most stately house upon it, which is now not only the ornament of this town, but one of the finest seats in England.

The rock on which this town stands being so soft, as to yield easily to the pick-axe and spade, affords excellent cellar-ing, with two or three vaults, one under another.

This town has a stately bridge over the Trent, consisting of nineteen arches; and as that river sometimes overflows the neighbouring meadows, there is a causey erected near a mile long, quite from the river to the town, with arches at proper distances. It has also a very handsome stone bridge over the Lind, which is kept in repair at the common charge of the town and county.

This town, being situated in the forest of Shirwood, has the advantage of an excellent sporting country around it; and there is a fine plain on the north side, famous for horse races. Few inland towns have a better trade than this, which chiefly consists in its manufactures of glass, earthen ware, and stockings. The best malt in England is made here, and sent by land to Derbyshire, Cheshire, Lancashire, and Yorkshire. Great quantities of ale are also made in this
town,

town, and sent to most parts of England: all the low lands hereabout are sowed with barley.

Various particulars.] This county sends eight members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgessees for each of the following boroughs; Nottingham, East Retford, and Newark upon Trent. It lies in the diocese of York, and in the midland circuit. It contains 94 vicarages, 168 parishes, and 450 villages. The division of it is into 6 wapentakes and 2 liberties, containing about 17,550 houses, and 87,800 inhabitants. The area of it is computed to contain 550,000 acres.

O X F O R D S H I R E.

Name.] **T**HIS county is called Oxfordshire, from the city of Oxford, an university and bishop's see.

Air.] Its air is as good as that of any other county in England; for the soil is naturally dry, free from bogs, fens, and stagnant waters, and abounding with quick limpid streams, that necessarily render it sweet and healthy.

Soil and natural productions.] The soil in general is very fertile, both for corn and grass; but there is a great variety in it, and consequently several degrees of fruitfulness. There are no less than five sorts of wheat sown in this county, all adapted to as many kinds of soils. Oxfordshire abounds with meadows, which are not surpassed by any pastures in England. Here is plenty of excellent river fish, of various kinds. The other productions of this county are cattle, fruit, free stone, and several sorts of earths used in medicine, dying and scouring; but it is thinly strewed with wood, and fuel is consequently very scarce.

Manufactures.] Witney is remarkable for a manufacture of blankets.

Oxford, the principal city, was by the Saxons called Oxenford, a name generally supposed to have been derived from a ford or passage for oxen over the river Thames at this place. It is distant 55 miles from London, and is governed by a mayor, a high steward, a recorder, four aldermen, eight assistants, two bailiffs, a town-clerk, two chamberlains, all that have served the office of bailiff and chamberlain, and twenty-four common council men. The mayor, for the time being, officiates at the coronation of our kings, in the buttery, and has a large gilt bowl and cover for his see.

The

The magistracy of this city is subjected to the chancellor or vice-chancellor of the university, in all affairs of moment, even relating to the city; and the vice-chancellor every year administers an oath to the magistrates and sheriffs, that they will maintain the privileges of the university: also, on the 10th of February annually, the mayor and sixty-two of the chief citizens solemnly pay each one penny, at a church here called St. Mary's, in lieu of a great fine laid upon the city, in the reign of king Edward III. when sixty-two of the students were murdered by the citizens.

It is situated on the bank of the Thames, near its confluence with several rivers, in a beautiful plain, and a sweet air. It is one of the largest cities in England, including the buildings of the university, which are about two thirds of it. The private buildings in general are neat, and the public ones sumptuous; the streets are spacious, clean and regular; and here is a cathedral, with fourteen elegant parish churches.

The university of Oxford is one of the noblest in the world, particularly for the regularity of its constitution, the strictness of its discipline, the opulency of its endowments, and the conveniency of its mansions for study: it consists of twenty colleges and five halls, and is a corporation governed by a chancellor, a high steward, a vice-chancellor, two proctors, a public orator, a keeper of the archives, a register, three esquire beadles, carrying silver maces gilt and wrought, and three yeomen beadles, with plain silver maces, and a verger with a silver rod. The chancellor is usually a peer of the realm, he is the supreme governor of the university, and is chosen by the students in convocation, and continues in his office for life. The high steward is named by the chancellor, but must be approved by the university. His office, which continues also for life, is to assist the chancellor in the government of the university, and to hear and determine capital causes, according to the laws of the land, and the privileges of the university. The vice-chancellor, who is always in orders, and the head of some college, is appointed by the chancellor, and approved by the university: he is the chancellor's deputy, and exercises the power of his substituent, by governing the university according to its statutes: he chuses four pro-vice-chancellors out of the heads of colleges, to officiate in his absence. The two proctors are masters of arts, and are chosen annually in turn out of the several colleges and halls. Their business is to keep the peace, punish disorders, inspect weights and measures, appoint scholastic exercises, and the taking of degrees. The public orator writes letters in the name of the
university,

university, and harangues princes and other great personages, who visit it. The keeper of the archives has the custody of the charters and records. And the register records all the public transactions of the university in convocation.

The number of officers, fellows, and scholars, maintained by the revenues of the university, is about 1000; and the number of such scholars as live at their own charge is usually about 2000; the whole amounting to 3000 persons, besides a great number of inferior officers and servants, belonging to the several colleges and halls, which have each their statutes and rules for government, under their respective heads, with fellows and tutors.

Here are four terms every year for public exercises, lectures, and disputations, and set days and hours when the professor of every faculty read their lectures; and in some of the colleges are public lectures, to which all persons are admitted.

The public schools, of which there is one for every college, form the ground apartments of a magnificent quadrangle, the principal front of which, on the outside, is 175 feet in length. In the center of this front there is a tower, the highest apartments of which are appointed for astronomical observations and philosophical experiments. Three sides of the upper story of the quadrangle form one entire room, called the picture gallery, which is filled with portraits of founders, benefactors, and other eminent persons. This quadrangle was first built by queen Mary, and was rebuilt chiefly at the expence of Sir Thomas Bodley, in the time of king James I. who also partly erected a public library here, which he furnished with such a number of books and manuscripts, that, with other large donations, it is now become one of the principal libraries in Europe, and is called the Bodleian library. The building is a part or member of the picture gallery, over the public schools, and consists of three spacious and lofty rooms, disposed in the form of a Roman H. The middle one was erected by Humphry duke of Gloucester, over the divinity school, about the year 1440, and by him furnished with books. The gallery on the west was raised at the expence of the university, together with the convocation house beneath, in the time of king Charles the First: and the vestibule, or first gallery, with the porcholium under it, was built by Sir Thomas Bodley. In one of the schools are placed the Arundelian marbles, and in another an inestimable collection of statues, &c. presented to the university by the countess dowager of Pomfret.

About half a century ago, Dr. John Radcliffe, a physician of great eminence, left 40,000 l. to build a library for the Bodleian

leian collection of books and manuscripts, with a salary of 150*l.* a-year to a librarian, and 100*l.* a-year towards furnishing it with new books. In consequence of this legacy, the first stone of a new building was laid, on the 17th of May 1737; and the library was opened with great solemnity the 13th of April 1745, by the name of the New or Radclivian Library. It stands in the middle of a magnificent square, formed by St. Mary's church, the public schools, and two colleges; one called Brazen Nose, and the other All Souls. It is a sumptuous pile of building, standing upon arcades, which, circularly disposed, inclose a spacious dome, in the center of which is the library itself, and into which there is an ascent by a flight of spiral steps, well executed. The library, which is a complete pattern of elegance and majesty in building, is adorned with fine compartments of stucco. It is inclosed by a circular series of arches, beautified with festoons, and supported by pilasters of the Ionic order; behind these arches are formed two circular galleries above and below, where the books are disposed in elegant cabinets: the compartments of the ceiling in the upper gallery are finely stuccoed: the pavement is of two colours, and made of a peculiar species of stone brought from Hart's Forest in Germany; and over the door is a statue of the founder. The finishing and decorations of this Attic edifice are all in the highest taste imaginable.

There is, belonging to this university, another most magnificent structure called the Theatre, erected for celebrating the public acts of the university, the annual commemoration of benefactors to it, with some other solemnities. The building is in form of a Roman D; the front of it, which stands opposite to the divinity school, is adorned with Corinthian pillars, and several other decorations; the roof is flat, and not being supported by columns or arch-work, rests on the side walls, which are distant from each other 80 feet one way, and 70 the other; this roof is covered with allegorical painting. The vice-chancellor, with the two proctors, are seated in the center of the semicircular part; on each hand are the young noblemen, and doctors, the masters of arts in the area, and the rest of the university, and strangers are placed in the galleries.

Each college has its own particular library and chapel, and most of them are adorned with cloisters, quadrangles, piazzas, statues, gardens and groves.

The names of the colleges are University College, Baliol College, Merton College, Exeter College, Oriel College, Queen's College, New College, Lincoln College, All Souls College,

College, Magdalen College, Brazen-nose College, Corpus Christi College, Christ-Church College, Trinity College, St. John Baptist's College, Jesus College, Wadham College, Pembroke College, Worcester College, and Hartford College.

The halls are, St. Edmund's, St. Magdalen's, St. Alban's, St. Mary's, and New-inn Hall.

These halls are the only remains of numerous hostels, or inns, which were the only academical houses originally possessed by the students of Oxford.

These societies are neither endowed nor incorporated; they are subject to their respective principals, whose salaries arise from the room-rents of the houses. The principals are appointed by the chancellor of the university, that of Edmund Hall excepted, who is nominated by Queen's College, under the patronage of which Edmund Hall still remains. The other halls were formerly dependant on particular colleges.

The earliest accounts of the university of Oxford are equally doubtful with those of the city: the foundations of both are by some referred to the British king Memprick; by some to another British king, named Arviragus, who reigned in the time of the emperor Domitian, about the seventieth year of the Christian æra; and by others to king Vortigern, already mentioned.

Upon the whole, it is probable that this university was founded soon after the Christian religion was established in England; for, in the papal confirmation of it, under the pontificate of Martin the Second, in the sixth century, it is stiled an ancient academy or university.

We have however no credible accounts of this university before the time of king Alfred, towards the end of the ninth century; Alfred is therefore generally considered as its founder, though he was in fact no more than the restorer of learning at this place.

At the accession of Alfred learning had suffered so much by the wars of the Romans, Danes, and Saxons, that few persons could read English, and scarce a single priest in the kingdom understood Latin.

To remedy this inconvenience, Alfred first ordered *Gregory's Pastoral* * to be translated into English, and sent a copy of it to every bishop in the kingdom: he then procured several
men

* This Gregory was the first pope of the name; he is called St. Gregory, and Gregory the Great, and was born in the latter part of the sixth century: being elected to the pontificate upon the death of Pelagius the Second, he is said to have hidden himself in a cavern; and it is pretended that he was miraculously discovered in his retreat by a column of fire, which appeared to rise from the rock, under which he
was

men of literature, and among others were Grymbald, and John the Monk, two men eminent, as well for their piety as for their learning, whom, in 886, he settled at Oxford, which was before that time an university, or seminary, of literature.

Grymbald, and the learned men that accompanied him hither, having prescribed new statutes, institutions, and forms of reading, to the students, the old scholars refused to comply. They pleaded that letters flourished here before the arrival of Grymbald; and that, if the students were less in number before his arrival than afterwards, it was owing to their having been expelled in great numbers by the tyranny of Pagans and Infidels: they further insisted, that they were ready to prove, by the undoubted testimony of their annals, that good rules and orders had long subsisted for the government of the place; that these rules were prescribed by Gildas, Melkin, Nennius, Kentigern, and others, of great learning and piety, who had prosecuted their studies at Oxford, and formed and improved the constitution of its university.

After the animosity between Grymbald and the old students of Oxford had subsisted three years, it broke out with such violence, that, upon Grymbald's complaint, king Alfred came in person to Oxford, and was at great pains in hearing both parties, and endeavouring to accommodate their differences; and having exhorted them to friendship and reconciliation, he left them, in hopes that they would comply; but the students continuing their opposition, Grymbald retired to the monastery at Winchester, which Alfred had then lately founded.

During the stay of Grymbald at Oxford, he and St. Neot's were regents, and readers of divinity; grammar and rhetoric were taught by Asser, a monk, a man of extraordinary parts and knowledge; logic, music, and arithmetic, by John, a Monk of St. David's; and geometry and astronomy, by another John, a monk, and the colleague of Grymbald, a person of admirable knowledge at that time in those sciences.

For the advancement of learning in this place, king Alfred built three halls, as is generally believed, all subject to one head, and called by the names of Great University Hall, Little University Hall, and Less University Hall; and in these halls he placed twenty-six students in divinity, whom he endowed with annual stipends, paid out of the royal exchequer. Others

was concealed. He was reproached, by John bishop of Ravenna, for secreting himself after his election, as a resistance of the Holy Ghost! And as an answer to this reproach, he wrote a celebrated book, called the *Pastoral*, or the *Duty of Pastors*.

are of opinion, that king Alfred founded only one hall here, under a threefold distinction, from the professions or sciences taught in it. Such however is the foundation of what is now called University College, which is allowed to be the most ancient in Oxford. Some however maintain that this college was a mansion for scholars long before the time of king Alfred, and that St. John de Beverley, who died in 721, received his education here. Its subsistence prior to Alfred, they say, appears by a parliamentary petition in the reign of Richard the Second; and they insist, that Alfred only rebuilt the house which he called Great University Hall, and provided the students with exhibitions.

In the reign of king Ethelred, this college or hall was sacked and burnt, together with the city, by the Danes; and they were scarcely rebuilt, when king Harold, who succeeded to the crown in 1036, being much incensed against this place, for the murder of his friends, in a tumult, banished the scholars from their studies. By an edict of Edward the Confessor, the scholars were however restored to their ancient pensions and habitations; but William the Conqueror, being desirous to abolish the English tongue, and therefore unwilling to have the doctrines of the church any longer preached in it, was vigorously opposed by the clergy and scholars of Oxford; upon which he retracted the stipends granted them by king Alfred, and the scholars were thus reduced to live on charitable contributions, till the college was a second time endowed.

This college, according to some writers, was at the time of the conquest let out to the scholars by the citizens, into whose possession it is supposed to have come during the Danish wars; but this circumstance is by no means probable, since the edict of Edward the Confessor restored the scholars to their ancient privileges. However, it is certain that for some time before the reign of Henry the Third, the scholars rented the college of the citizens: by what means it became the property of the city does not appear; but such was the city's right to this college, that it had power to sell it, and it was actually bought of the city by William, archdeacon of Durham, who died in 1249; and by his last will and testament, bequeathed it to the students, and endowed it with three hundred and ten marks, for the maintenance of ten or twelve scholars.

At what time this place was dignified with the title of an university is uncertain; but in the year 1256, in an address from the university to the king, at St. Alban's, complaining that the bishop of Lincoln encroached upon its privileges, it

is expressly called an 'university, and the second school of the church, after the university of Paris:' and before this time, the popes, in their decretals, allowed the title of an university to those only of Paris, Oxford, Bononia, and Salamanca.

Though in the reign of Henry the Third, particularly in the year 1231, there appears to have been no less than 30,000 students at this university, consisting of English, Scots, French, and Irish, yet there was but one college or hall, till after the year 1260, when the foundation of another college was projected by Sir John Baliol of Bernard Castle, in Yorkshire, knight, father of John Baliol, king of Scotland, who settled some yearly exhibitions upon certain poor scholars, till he could provide a house and other accommodations for them; but dying in 1269, his widow, Devorgilla, having been requested by him to compleat his design, hired of the university a house in a street, then called Horsemanger-street, but now Canditch, in which she placed her exhibitioners, consisting of a principal and sixteen fellows, and prescribed statutes for their government in 1282. Afterwards, in 1284, she purchased another tenement, called St. Mary's Hall, which she rebuilt, and to which the society was removed by her charter, giving it the name of Baliol College.

After Baliol college, the other societies of this university were successively endowed. Walter de Merton, lord high chancellor of England, in the reign of king Henry the Third, and afterwards bishop of Rochester, first founded and endowed a college of twenty poor scholars, and two or three chaplains, at Malden, near Kingston, a market town of Surrey, in the year 1261; but because the liberal arts were taught only in the universities, and he was not willing that his students should be ignorant in them, he translated this society to a building he erected for them in St. John's Street at Oxford in 1267, prescribed a body of statutes for them in 1274, and gave the college the name of *Domus Scholarium de Merton*.

In the year 1314, Water Stapledon, bishop of Exeter, purchased two buildings in the city of Oxford, one called Hart Hall, and the other Arthur's Hall, where he instituted a society, consisting of a rector and twelve scholars, by the name of the society of Stapledon Hall; but not liking the situation, he bought a piece of ground in the parish of St. Mildred in this city, and having erected convenient lodgings and other accommodations for them, he translated the society to this building, which was at first called Stapledon Inn, but afterwards Exeter College.

About the year 1318, the Hebrew tongue began to be read at this university, by a Jewish convert, towards whose stipend every clerk in Oxford contributed one penny for every mark of his ecclesiastical revenue.

Camden, Prynne, and other antiquarians, ascribe the foundation of Oriel College to king Edward the Second, in 1324; but it does not appear that he contributed much farther to this foundation, than granting a licence to Adam le Brome, his almoner, in 1324, to build and endow a college here, by the name of St. Mary's Hall. To this society, king Edward the Third, in 1327, being the first year of his reign, gave a large building in Oxford, called le Oriel, to which the fellows removing from St. Mary's Hall, this was called Oriel College.

Robert Eglesfield, a bachelor of divinity in this university, and a native of Cumberland, at the desire of queen Philippa, consort of king Edward the Third, in the year 1340, purchased certain houses in the parish of St. Peter in the East, in the city of Oxford, which he converted into a collegiate hall, by the name of Aula Scholarium Raginæ de Oxon; and having obtained a royal charter of confirmation, dated the eighteenth of January, 1340, he endowed this hall for a provost and twelve fellows, in allusion to Jesus Christ and his twelve apostles. He intended also to endow it with revenues for the maintenance of seventy poor scholars, in reference to Christ's seventy disciples; but this part of the design was never executed. By the founder's rules, the fellows were to be chosen out of Cumberland and Westmoreland, in preference to any other county.

After the founder's death, king Edward the Third gave two tenements to this college, and settled them on the society, by the name of Queen's College, or Hall, in remembrance of his queen Philippa, who was a great benefactress to it.

About this time the students of Oxford growing wanton and insolent, separated themselves into two parties or factions, distinguished by the names of the Northern and Southern men; and after many acts of violence and hostility, the Northern men retired to Stamford in Lincolnshire, and began to prosecute their studies in some halls or colleges which had been erected there when it was an university; but in a few years they returned to Oxford again, and laws were enacted, prohibiting the profession of the liberal arts and sciences at Stamford, to the prejudice of Oxford university.

William of Wickham, bishop of Winchester, having erected and endowed a college at Winchester, for teaching
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a certain number of boys grammar learning, formed a design, about the year 1369, of building a college in Oxford, to which they might be removed at a proper time, and pass through a regular course of academical studies: he therefore obtained of king Richard the Second, in the third year of his reign, a licence, dated the thirtieth of June, 1379, for carrying his design into execution; he laid himself the first stone of a magnificent structure, which, being finished in 1386, he called New College; and on the fourteenth of April, in that year, the warden and fellows were admitted with great solemnity. The statutes, habits, customs, and privileges of this college are different from those of any other college in the university.

Richard Fleming, bishop of Lincoln, in 1427, being the sixth year of Henry the Sixth, began a college here for one rector, seven fellows, and two chaplains, which he designed as a seminary of divines, who might confute the doctrines of Wickliff; but before this design was completed, he died, and Thomas Rotheram, bishop of Lincoln, in the year 1475, finished the building of the college, and encreased its revenues; he gave it a body of statutes, and called it Lincoln College.

In the year 1437, Henry Chichley, archbishop of Canterbury, began a college here, which he endowed for a warden and forty fellows, chiefly with the lands of alien priories, which were dissolved in the reign of Henry the Fifth. In 1438, the bishop procured a charter for incorporating this society; he called the college Collegium Animarum omnium defunctorum de Oxon, and hither he soon afterwards sent a body of statutes, directing the election of the fellows to be upon All Souls day annually.

All the buildings of this college, except the cloisters upon the east side of the quadrangle, were erected during the life of the founder.

In 1458, William Patten, called also Wainfleet, bishop of Winchester, founded a college here, on the site where an hospital dedicated to St. John had formerly stood; and endowed it, among other lands, with those belonging to the hospital, for the maintenance of a president, and fifty graduate scholars, whom he directed to be augmented or reduced, as the revenues encreased or diminished. He called the society by the name of Mary Magdalen College.

In the year 1511, being the third of Henry the Eighth, William Smith, bishop of Lincoln, and chancellor of this university, and Richard Sutton of Prestbury, near Maccles-

field, a market town of Cheshire, founded a college for a principal and sixty scholars, and called it Brazen-nose College, from a hall of the same name, distinguished by a large brass nose upon the gate, on the site of which hall this college was partly built.

In 1513, Richard Fox, bishop of Winchester, founded a college here for a warden, certain monks, and secular canons, designed as a seminary to the priory of St. Swithin in Winchester; but the founder, in 1516, converted this college to the use of secular students, like the other colleges of the university; and enlarging the buildings, endowed it for a president, twenty fellows, two chaplains, two clerks, two choristers, and three lecturers in philosophy and divinity, giving it the name of Corpus-Christi College.

In 1525, the seventeenth of Henry the Eighth, Thomas Wolfey, cardinal of Sancta Cæcilia, and archbishop of York, obtained two bulls of Pope Clement the Seventh, for dissolving above forty monasteries, and converting their estates towards building and endowing two colleges, one at Ipswich, a borough town of Suffolk, the place of the cardinal's nativity, and another at Oxford; he also procured a royal charter, dated the thirteenth of July, 1525, empowering him to build and endow a college, by the name of Cardinal College, upon the site of a priory dedicated to Frideswide, one of the religious houses just dissolved, and to settle in this college a dean, secular canons, and other gownmen, for the study of the liberal arts and sciences; and towards their maintenance, to purchase an estate of 2000*l.* per annum, and convey it to the society.

The cardinal, two days after the date of the charter, laid the foundation of this college with great solemnity; but being impeached of high treason in 1529, before the buildings were finished, all the estates and possessions of this society were forfeited to the king, which put a stop to the buildings for three years; at the end of which time, the king issued out letters patent, ordering the building to be carried on, the same revenues to be settled on the society, and the foundation to be called King Henry the Eighth's College; but being afterwards dissatisfied with this appointment, he suppressed the institution in 1545, and in the year following erected the church of this college into a cathedral, by the name of the cathedral church of Christ in Oxford, founded by king Henry the Eighth, and settled in it a bishop, dean, and eight canons, eight clerks, eight choristers, a music-master, an organist, and forty students, who were to be chosen yearly from Westminster-school, and the number of whom was augmented by queen Elizabeth.

Among

Among the religious houses dissolved by king Henry the Eighth, there was a college here for the education of the monks of the cathedral church of Durham, which was therefore called Durham College. This house being granted by king Edward the Sixth, in 1552, the seventh year of his reign, to his physician George Owen, was, in 1554, purchased by Sir Thomas Pope, knight, who, in 1555, repaired the building, and endowed it for a president, twelve fellows, and eight scholars, calling it Trinity College.

In 1555, being the second of Philip and Mary, Sir Thomas White, alderman of London, purchased a building belonging to this university, called St. Bernard's College, formerly in possession of the monks of St. Bernard; and in 1557, endowed it, by the name of St. John Baptist's College, for a president, fifty fellows and scholars, three chaplains, three lay clerks, and six choristers; but the chaplains, lay clerks, and choristers, were about twenty years afterwards suppressed by the president and fellows.

In 1571, Hugh Price, doctor of the canon laws in this university, procured a charter from queen Elizabeth, for building and endowing a college here for a principal, eight fellows, and eight scholars; the queen agreed to furnish timber for the building, upon condition that she should have the first nomination of the principal, fellows and scholars, and that the college should be called Collegium Jesu infra civitatem & universitatem Oxon. ex fundatione reginæ Elizabethæ; whence this society claim the honour of a royal founder.

Nicholas Wadham, esq. some time a gentleman commoner in this university, having laid the design of building a college here, directed it to be carried into execution by his will; and accordingly, Dorothy his widow and executrix, in 1609, purchased the site of a dissolved priory of the canons of St. Austin in this city, and erected a noble quadrangle, with statues of herself and her husband over the western gate; and having procured a royal charter, empowering her to endow it for a warden, fifteen fellows, fifteen scholars, two chaplains, two clerks, and other inferior officers, by the name of Wadham College, it was opened, and the several members admitted accordingly, on the twelfth of April 1613.

Thomas Tisdale, of Glimpton, near Woodstock, esq. by his will, dated the thirtieth of June, 1610, left 5000*l.* to purchase an estate, for the maintenance of certain fellows and scholars, to be chosen from the free school of Abingdon in

Berkshire, into any college of this university. The trustees of this will offered to encrease the society of Baliol College, by Mr. Tisdale's legacy, with seven fellows and six scholars; but not coming to an agreement, Dr. Richard Whightwick, formerly a member of Baliol College, persuaded the trustees of Mr. Tisdale's will to purchase a building, originally belonging to the priory of St. Frideswide, called Broadgate-hall, for the settlement of this charity; and promised, upon that condition, that he himself would be a considerable benefactor. Mr. Tisdale's trustees, therefore, procured a royal charter, dated June the twenty ninth, 1624, empowering them to found a college within the limits of Broadgate-hall, for one master, ten fellows, and ten scholars, by the name of Pembroke College; which name was given it in honour of William earl of Pembroke then chancellor of the university. The royal charter also empowered George archbishop of Canterbury, William earl of Pembroke, and Dr. Richard Whightwick, to make a body of statutes for the society, who were allowed to purchase lands and tenements to the yearly value of 700l. Soon after this, the fellows and scholars were put in possession of their college; but the number of students increasing so much, that the building could not accommodate them, the society annexed to their college certain chambers, called Abingdon Lodgings, and Camby Lodgings.

In this university there was a hall called Gloucester-hall, from having been originally a seminary for educating the monks of Gloucester. On the suppression of abbeys it fell into the king's hands; and afterwards, by a royal grant from queen Elizabeth, it came to one Mr. Doddington, from whom it was purchased by Sir Thomas White, founder of St. John Baptist's College, and by him repaired in some measure, endowed, and conveyed to that society, who made it a house for students, under a principal; but in 1714, this hall was endowed by Sir Thomas Cooke of Aftley, near the city of Worcester, in the county of that name, bart. for a provost, six fellows, and six scholars; upon which it was erected to a college, by the name of Worcester College.

Here was a building formerly called Hart-hall, from Elias de Hartford, who, in the reign of Edward the First, demised it under this name to some scholars of the university. It was afterwards purchased by Walter Stapledon, bishop of Exeter, and founder of Exeter College, who, on the tenth of May, 1312, had a charter granted him, for assigning this hall, together with another tenement called Arthur's Hall, to twelve scholars. So long as the bishop's scholars continued here, it

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was called Stapledon Hall ; but they removing, it recovered its former name. Exeter College had long the nomination of a principal to this hall, and many of the fellows of New College resided here with their warden, while that college was building. Here were formerly twelve students, to whom the university paid a yearly pension of 50*l.* upon account of the abbot and monks of Glastenbury, a market-town of Somersetshire, for the maintenance of such youth as were sent hither from Glastenbury school : but this hall being endowed by its late principal, Dr. Richard Newton, for a principal, four senior fellows, or tutors, and junior fellows, or assistants, besides a certain number of students, or scholars, was, upon the eighth of September, 1740, erected to a college, by the name of Hartford College.

At Burford there was an ancient custom of carrying an artificial dragon about the streets on Midsummer eve, which is supposed to allude to a certain banner on which a golden dragon was painted, that was taken by Cuthred, a West Saxon prince, from Ethelbald, a Mercian prince, in a battle fought in a field near this place, which is still called Battle Edge.

When Dr. Plott wrote his natural history of this county, an ancient custom used by young men at marriages, was still continued in the parish of Deddington. The bridegroom set up a post perpendicular to the horizon, and placed a slender piece of timber, moveable upon a spindle, cross the top of it ; at one end of the moveable piece hung a board, and a bag of sand at the other. The young men who attended the bride and bridegroom, being mounted on horseback, with each a staff in his hand, by way of lance, ran at the board, as knights were used to do at the ring ; and he that first broke it with his staff, in his career, received some honorary prize : nor was this prize obtained without some danger to the adventurer, for as the cross piece of timber, to one end of which the board hung, turned very freely upon its axis, a smart blow upon the board brought the bag of sand, which hung at the other end, round with proportionable violence ; from which the rider generally received a hearty bang upon his back, neck, or head, and was frequently unhorfed, to the great merriment of the spectators.

Curiosities.] Among the curiosities, is Blenheim, a magnificent palace, so called in memory of the battle in which the united forces of France and Bavaria were defeated, and the French general, marshal Tallard, taken prisoner. This noble seat was bestowed, together with the manor of Woodstock,

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on the duke of Marlborough and his heirs, as a grateful acknowledgement for his bravery and conduct on the occasion just now mentioned. The edifice, though very grand, has not escaped the censures of the connoisseurs, which however lose their force in the breast of every Englishman, when he beholds Blenheim-house, and reflects on the glorious day from whence it takes its name.

Various particulars.] This county sends nine members to parliament: viz. two for the city of Oxford, two knights for the shire, two representatives of the university, two burgeses for Woodstock, and one for Bambury. It contains sixty two vicarages, 280 parishes, and 451 villages. The division of it is into fourteen hundreds, containing about 19,000 houses, and 95,000 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 534,000 acres.

R U T L A N D S H I R E.

THE air of Rutlandshire is esteemed as good as that of any in England. The soil is very fruitful, both in corn and pasture; and that of the Vale of Catmose in particular, is equal to any in the kingdom. It affords also great abundance of wood, for firing. This county produces much cattle, particularly sheep; and the rivers, the waters of which are remarkably good, yield great plenty of fish.

An ancient custom is still preserved at Okeham, its principal market town, which requires that every peer of the realm, the first time he comes within the precincts of this lordship, shall forfeit a shoe from the horse he rides on, to the lord of the castle and manor, unless he agrees to redeem it with money; in which case a shoe is made according to his directions, and ornamented, in proportion to the sum given, by way of fine, and nailed on the castle hall door. Some shoes are of curious workmanship, and stamped with the names of the donors; some are made very large, and some gilt.

Various particulars] This county sends but two members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire. It lies in the diocese of Peterborough, and in the midland circuit. There are in it ten vicarages, forty-eight parishes, and 111 villages. The division of it is into five hundreds, containing about 3260 houses, and 16,300 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 110,000 acres.

S H R O P,

S H R O P S H I R E.

Name.] SHROPSHIRE is also called Salop, or the county of Salop, from Salop, a name by which the town of Shrewsbury was afterwards called by the Normans.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air is pure and healthy, but, the county being mountainous, it is in many places sharp and piercing.

The soil is various: the northern and eastern parts of the county yield great plenty of wheat and barley, but the southern and western parts, which are hilly, are not so fertile, yet afford pasturage for sheep and cattle; and along the banks of the Severn there are large rich meadows, which produce abundance of grass. Here are mines of copper, lead, iron, stone, and lime-stone, and the county abounds with unexhaustible pits of coal. Between the surface of most of the coal ground, and the coal, there lies a stratum of a black, hard, but very porous substance, which being ground to powder in proper mills, and well boiled with water in coppers, deposits the earthy or gritty parts at the bottom, and throws up a bituminous matter to the surface of the water, which by evaporation is brought to the consistency of pitch: an oil is also produced from the same stratum, by distillation, which, mixed with the bituminous substance, dilutes it into a kind of tar. Both these substances are used for caulking of ships, and are better for that purpose than pitch or tar; for they never crack, and it is thought they might be useful against the worm.

Shrewsbury is famous for the manufactures of Welch cottons and flannels; and Bridgenorth, a borough town, for stockings. Bridgenorth is also furnished with common artificers of every kind, who make and sell clothes, iron tools, and instruments of all sorts, and the other ordinary manufactures of the kingdom.

The market towns are Bishops Castle, Bridgenorth, Church Stretton, Clebury, Drayton, Ludlow, Newport, Oswestry, Shrewsbury, Wellington, Wem, Wenlock Great, and Whitchurch.

Bishops Castle takes its name from its having formerly belonged to the bishops of Hereford, who probably had a seat or castle here. It is 150 miles from London, and is an old corporation, consisting of a bailiff, recorder, and fifteen aldermen.

men. Its market is famous for cattle and several other commodities, and is much frequented by the Welch.

Bridgenorth is also called Brugmorfe, or Bruges: which of these three names it was first called by, is uncertain. It was probably called Bridge, from a bridge over the Severn; and Bridge might be corrupted into Brugge, and Bruges; North was added upon building another bridge to the south of it. Some however contend, that though for these reasons it might have been called first Bridge, and then Bridge North, yet that its original name was Brugmorfe, a word formed of Brugh, or Burgh, Borough, and Morfe, the name of a neighbouring forest, of which forest however no traces remain. It has also been thought, that Bridgenorth is not formed of Bridge and North, but is a corruption of Brugmorfe; but this is not probable, because, allowing Brugmorfe to have been its first name, it has certainly been called Bridge and Bruges, without the addition of Morfe or North; and it is absurd to suppose, that Brugmorfe was both corrupted and curtailed, so as to make only Bridge, or Bruges; besides, the bridge from which it is supposed to be called Bridge, and that other bridge, which produced the addition of North, are known to exist; but we have no good evidence that there ever was the forest pretended to have been called Morfe.

Bridgenorth is distant from London 135 miles, and is a very ancient town, having been built in 582, by the widow of Ethelred, king of the Mercians. It was afterwards fortified with a wall and castle, both now in ruins: it had several great privileges granted it by charters from Henry the Second, and king John; and it is governed under king John's charter, by two bailiffs, elected yearly out of twenty-four aldermen, by a jury of fourteen men, together with forty-eight common council men, a recorder, town clerk, and other officers.

It is a large and populous town, pleasantly situated in a healthy air. The greatest part of it stands upon a rock, on the western bank of the Severn, and the rest on the opposite side of the river, which has here a very great fall. These two parts are called the upper and lower towns; the situation of the western division being sixty yards higher than the other. The upper and lower towns are connected by a stone bridge of seven arches, upon which there is a gate and gatehouse, with several other houses. The whole consists principally of three streets, well paved and well built; one of which, in the Upper Town, lying parallel to the river, and called Mill-street, because it leads to some mills, is adorned
with

with stately houses, which have cellars dug out of the rock.

Here are two churches, and a free-school for the sons of the burgeses, which was founded in the reign of queen Elizabeth, and an hospital for ten poor widows of the Upper Town. Upon the top of a hill above the town, are the remains of a castle, whence the hill is called Castle Hill. This place is supplied with good water by leaden pipes from a spring half a mile distant; and the water of the Severn is also thrown up to the top of Castle Hill by an engine, which was the contrivance of those who erected the water-works at London Bridge. From the high part of the town a hollow way leads down to the bridge, that is much admired by strangers, being hewn through the rock to the depth of twenty feet; and though the declivity is very great, yet the way is rendered easy by steps and rails.

Bridgenorth is a place of great trade, both by land and water: its markets are stocked with all sorts of provisions, and its fairs are resorted to from many parts of the kingdom, for cattle, sheep, butter, cheese, bacon, linen-cloth, hops, and several other commodities.

Church Stretton is 130 miles distant from London, and is remarkable for a good corn market.

Clebury stands on the north side of the river Temd, at the distance of 118 miles from London. It formerly had a castle, but has now nothing worthy of note.

Drayton is a little obscure place, 149 miles distant from London, distinguished only by its market.

Ludlow is 136 miles from London, and was incorporated by king Edward the Fourth. It has a power of trying and executing criminals, distinct from the county, and is governed by two bailiffs, twelve aldermen, twenty-five common-council men, a recorder, a town clerk, a steward, chamberlain, coroner, and other officers. It stands on the north side of the Temd, near its conflux with the Corve, on the borders of Worcestershire and Herefordshire. The country round is exceeding pleasant, fruitful, and populous, particularly a vale on the banks of the river Corve, called Corvedale. The town is divided into four wards: it is surrounded with walls, in which are seven gates, and has an old castle, built by Roger de Montgomery, soon after the Conquest, great part of which is in ruins; some apartments however are still entire, with their furniture: the battlements are very high and thick, and adorned with towers. It has a neat chapel, in which are the coats of arms of several of the
Welch

Welch gentry; and over the stable doors are the arms of queen Elizabeth, the earl of Pembroke, and others. The walls of the castle were at first one mile in compass, and there was a lawn before it, which extended near two miles, and a great part of which is now inclosed. This castle was a palace belonging to the prince of Wales, in right of his principality; and in an apartment of the outer gate-house of this castle, the famous Butler, author of *Hudibras*, is said to have written the first part of that celebrated poem.

This is a neat and flourishing town. It has a large parochial church, with a handsome tower, and a ring of six good bells. This church was formerly collegiate, and in the choir of it there is an inscription relating to prince Arthur, elder brother to king Henry the Eighth, who died here, and whose bowels were deposited in this choir. There is in the same choir a closet, called the Godt House, where the priests used to keep their consecrated utensils. In the market place there is a conduit, with a long stone cross on it; and in a niche on the cross, is the image of St. Laurence, to whom the church was dedicated. Here is an alms-house for thirty poor people, and two charity schools, in which fifty boys and thirty girls are both taught and cloathed. This town has a good bridge over the Temd, which turns a great many mills in the neighbourhood, and across which are several wears.

This place, where provisions are very cheap, receives much benefit from its being a great thoroughfare to Wales, and from having the education of the Welch youth of both sexes. Horse-races are annually kept in the neighbourhood, at which the best of company are present; and the inhabitants are reckoned very polite.

Newport is 133 miles distant from London, and is a good town, with a free grammar school, founded by William Adams, a native of this place, and a haberdasher of London, and endowed by him to the value of 7000*l.* with a library, a house for the master, and a salary of 60*l.* a-year, which is said to be now worth 100*l.* and 30*l.* a year for an usher. Near the school he also erected two alms-houses, and gave 550*l.* towards building a town house. Here is also an English free school for the poor children of the town, endowed by a private gentleman with 20*l.* a-year, to which the crown has made an addition of 5*l.* a year.

Oswestry, or Oswaldstry, was originally called Maserfield, and derives its present name from Oswald, a king of Northumberland, who being defeated here, and slain in battle by Penda, a prince of Mercia, was beheaded and quartered by order

order of the conqueror; and his head being fixed upon a pole in this place, the pole or tree, was probably called Oswald's Tree; whence the town might by corruption be afterwards called Oswaldstry and Oswestry.

It stands upon the borders of Denbighshire, at the distance of 157 miles from London, and is a very old town. It was anciently a borough, and is still governed by two bailiffs, burgeses, and other officers. It is surrounded with a wall and a ditch, and fortified by a castle. It has a church and a good grammar school, with an excellent charity school for forty boys, besides girls, who are cloathed as well as taught. This place had formerly a great trade in Welch cottons and flannels, but it is now so much decayed, that there is scarce a house in it fit to accommodate a traveller.

It is most delightfully situated on an eminence, surrounded by the Severn river on every side but the north, which renders it a peninsula, in form of a horse shoe. It is walled round; and on the north side, where the river does not defend it, is fortified by a castle, built by Roger de Montgomery, soon after the Norman conquest; but the walls and castle are now in a ruinous condition. The streets are large, and the houses in general well built.

Curiosities.] One of the greatest curiosities in this county is a well at Brosely, a little to the north-east of Wenlock, which exhales a vapour that, when contracted to a small vent, by an iron cover with a hole in it, catches fire from any flame applied to it, and burns up like a lamp, so that eggs, or even meat, may be boiled over it. Upon taking off the cover the flame goes out; and it is remarkable, that a piece of meat boiled in it, has not the least smell or taste of its sulphureous quality. The water is extremely cold, and as much so immediately after the fire is put out, as before the vapour was lighted.

Various particulars.] This county sends twelve members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgeses for each of the following boroughs: Shrewsbury, Bridgenorth, Ludlow, Wenlock, and Bishop's Castle.—It lies partly in the diocese of Hereford, and partly in that of Coventry and Litchfield, and in the Oxford circuit. There are in it fifty-two vicarages, 170 parishes, and 615 villages. The division of it is into fourteen hundreds, containing about 19,000 houses and 95,000 inhabitants. The area of it is computed at 890,000 acres.

S O M E R S E T S H I R E.

Name.] **T**HE county of Somerset is supposed to have derived its name from Somerton, which was once its principal town.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] Its air is said to be the mildest in England: it is in most places very healthy, and upon the hilly parts exceeding fine. The soil is various: the eastern and western parts of the shire are mountainous and stoney; they yield however good pasture for sheep, and by the help of art and industry, are made to produce corn. The lower grounds, except such as are boggy or fenny, afford corn and grass in great plenty; and a valley of a very large extent, divided into five hundreds, and called Taunton Dean, or the Vale of Taunton, from Taunton, a borough town, is so exceeding rich, that it affords corn, grass, and fine fruit in great abundance, without manure. The grain of this county supplies many foreign and domestic markets.

There is no part of the kingdom where wood thrives better than in Somersetshire; and teazle, a species of thistle, much used in dressing cloth, is almost peculiar to this county. In this county also, on the beach of the Bristol Channel, there is found a weed, or sea plant, of which the inhabitants make cakes, called laver, which are wholesome and nourishing food, and not to be found in any other part of the kingdom.

Somersetshire is famous for the best October beer in England, and for great plenty and variety of cyder; and the best cheese in the kingdom is said to be made at Cheddar, near a market town called Axbridge.

The oxen of this county are as large as those of Lancashire or Lincolnshire, and the grain of the flesh is said to be finer. The vallies fatten a prodigious number of sheep, of the largest size in England: the south shore also furnishes the inhabitants with lobsters, crabs, and mackrel; the Bristol Channel and the Severn with soles, flounders, plaise, shrimps, prawns, herrings, and cod; the Parret produces plenty of excellent salmon, and the Avon abounds with a sort of blackish eels, scarce as big as a goose quill, called elvers, which are skimmed up in vast quantities with small nets, and which, when the skin is taken off, are made into cakes and fried. There is great plenty of wild fowl in this county, but, there being but few parks, venison is scarce.

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Here is a tract of mountains called Mendip Hills, which occupy a vast space of ground, and stretch from Whatley, near Frome-Selwood, a market town on the east, to Axbridge, another market town, on the west, and from Glastonbury, a market town on the south, to Bedminster, near the city of Bristol, on the north. These mountains are the most famous in England for coal and lead mines, but the lead is less soft, ductile, and fusible, than that of Derbyshire, and consequently not so proper for sheeting, because, when melted, it runs into knots. It is therefore generally exported, or cast into bullets and small shot. In these hills there are also mines of copper and okre; and the lapis calaminaris, which melted with copper, turns it into brass, is dug up here in greater quantities than in any other part of England.

The beautiful fossil called Bristol stone, is found in great abundance in some rocks upon the banks of the Avon, near Bristol, and has been already taken notice of in the description of Gloucestershire; and at Bishop's Chew, or Chew Magna, near Winton, a market town, there is dug up a red bole, which is called by the country people redding, and is distributed from thence all over England, for marking of sheep and other uses. It is said to be sometimes substituted by apothecaries for a sort of medicinal earth brought from Armenia, called bole armoniac.

Manufactures and trade.] All sorts of cloth are manufactured in this county, as broad and narrow kerseys, druggets, serges, durroys, and shalloons, together with stockings and buttons; and in the south-east parts are made great quantities of linen. The value of the woollen manufacture alone, in the first hands, has been rated at a million a-year; and if a calculation was made of the other manufactures of the county and its produce, by mines, tillage, feeding, grazing, dairies, and other articles of trade, it is thought that the account would be more than the produce of any other county, Middlesex only excepted.

Bath, one of the principal cities of this county, took its name from some natural hot baths, for the medicinal virtues of which, this place has been long celebrated and much frequented. This city is 108 miles from London. It is a bishop's see, united to that of Wells, and is governed under a charter of queen Elizabeth, by a mayor, eight aldermen, and twenty-four common council men.

It stands in a valley, upon the north bank of the river Avon, and is incircled by hills, in the form of an amphitheatre.

theatre. The city is surrounded with walls, which, though slight, and almost entire, are supposed to have been the work of the Romans, and the upper part seems to have been repaired with the ruins of Roman buildings. The small compass of ground inclosed by these walls, is in the form of a pentagon, and in the walls there were four gates and a postern, which were lately all demolished and taken away. The gates were the North Gate, which was the entrance from London; the West Gate, a handsome stone building, where some of the royal family have formerly lodged; the South Gate, which led to a bridge over the Avon; and the East Gate, which led to a ferry over the same river.

There are in this city a cathedral and three parish churches. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Peter.

On the south side of this there are some remains of an abbey, to which the church formerly belonged. The gate-house of the abbey is still standing: it has been a long time converted into lodgings, and has been honoured with the residence of king James the Second, queen Mary, consort of king William, queen Anne, and her royal consort, George prince of Denmark.

There are in this city a free school, and two charity schools; one for fifty boys, and the other for fifty girls, who are clothed and taught. Here is an hospital dedicated to St. John, and founded by Fitz Joceline, bishop of this see in the twelfth century, for the poor sick people who come hither for the benefit of the waters, with a handsome chapel of white free-stone. Here also is an alms-house, called Ruscot's charity, and endowed for the maintenance of twelve men and twelve women. There are other alms-houses in this place, supported chiefly by the chamber of the city; and in July 1738, the first stone was laid of a general hospital or infirmary, which was lately finished, and is a good building, 100 feet in front, and 90 deep: it will accommodate 150 patients, and is intended for the reception of the sick and lame from all parts of the kingdom.

Here is a market place, over which is a town hall, erected on twenty-one stone pillars. The hall is a large stone building, and adorned with several paintings; and in a square near the cathedral, called Orange Square, in compliment to the late prince of Orange, there is a monumental stone, which was erected in 1735, at the expence of the late Mr. Nash of this city, many years master of the ceremonies at the publick rooms, with an inscription, importing that the prince's health was restored by drinking the waters of this place.

In this city there are five hot baths, called the King's bath, the Queen's bath, the Cross bath, the Hot bath, and the Leper's bath. There is also a cold bath. In each bath there is a pump, for applying the water in a stream, upon any particular part of the body, when it is required; and each is furnished with benches to sit on, rings to hold by, and proper guides for both sexes.

The King's bath is sixty feet square, supplied by many hot springs that rise in the middle of it. Contiguous to this bath is a neat pump-room, where the company meet to drink the water, which is conveyed to it from the springs, as hot as it can be drank, by a marble pump. There is in this bath the figure of an ancient British king, called Bleyden the Southfayer, with an inscription, importing that he discovered the use of these springs 300 years before the Christian æra.

The Queen's bath is separated from the King's bath only by a wall. It has no spring, but receives its water from the king's bath, and is therefore less hot.

The Cross bath had its name from a cross that formerly stood in the middle of it. It is of a triangular form, and its heat is also less than that of the King's bath, because it has fewer springs. This bath, which is most frequented by persons of quality, was covered by James Ley, earl of Marlborough. On one side is a gallery, where gentlemen and ladies stand and converse with their friends in the bath. On the opposite side is a balcony for music, which plays all the time of bathing; and in the middle there is a marble pillar, adorned with curious sculptures, which was erected at the expence of the earl of Melfort, in compliment to king James the Second and his queen, and in memory of their meeting here. The guides of this bath say, that in a strong westerly wind a cold air blows from the springs; but when the wind is easterly, and the weather close, with a small rain, the water is so hot, as scarce to be endured, though the King's bath and the Hot bath are then colder than usual. It is also observed, that in hot weather a large black fly is frequently seen in the water of this bath, and is said to live under water, and to come up from the springs. This bath will fill in fifteen or sixteen hours all the year round, and is more temperate than either the King's bath or the hot bath. The water is said to corrode silver.

The Hot bath was thus called from having been formerly hotter than the rest, but it was not then so large as it is now.

The Leper's bath is formed from the overflowings of the Cross bath, and is allotted for the use of the poor people, supported by the charity of the place.

The Cold bath is supplied by a fine cold spring, and was erected by contribution not many years ago.

These hot springs were fenced in by the Romans with a wall, to separate them from the common cold springs, with which this place abounds; and there is a tradition, that they also made subterranean canals to carry off the cold waters, lest they should mix with these. As this city lies in a valley, surrounded with hills, the heat of these waters, and their milky detergent quality, are ascribed to the admixture and fermentation of two different waters, distilling from two of those hills, one called Clarton Down, and the other Lansdown. The water from Clarton Down is supposed to be sulphureous or bituminous, with a mixture of nitre; and the water from Lansdown is thought to be tinged with iron ore.

These waters are grateful to the stomach, have a mineral taste, and a strong scent; they are of a bluish colour, and send up a thin vapour; they are neither diuretic nor cathartic, though if salt be added, they purge immediately. After long standing, they deposit a black mud, which is used by way of cataplasms for local pains, and proves of more service to some, than the waters themselves. This mud they also deposit on distillation. They are beneficial in disorders of the head, in cuticular diseases, in obstructions and constipations of the bowels, which they strengthen by restoring their lost tone and reviving the vital heat. They are found of great use in the scurvy and stone, and in most diseases of women and children, and are used as a last remedy in obstinate chronic diseases, which they sometimes cure.

The seasons for drinking the Bath waters are the spring and autumn: the spring season begins with April and ends with June; the autumn season begins with September and lasts till December, and some patients remain here all the winter. In the spring this place is most frequented for health, and in the autumn for pleasure, when at least two thirds of the company come to partake of the amusements of the place: in some seasons there have been no less than 8000 persons at Bath, besides its inhabitants. There is an officer put in by the mayor to superintend the baths, to keep order among the bathers and their guides.

Without the walls of this city there is a quadrangle of elegant stone buildings, called Queen Square, lately erected: the front extends 200 feet, and is enriched with columns and pilasters

pilasters of the Corinthian order. On one side of this square is a fine chapel, and in the center, an obelisk seventy feet high, with an inscription, importing, that ‘ it was erected by Richard Nash, esq. in memory of honour bestowed, and in gratitude for benefits conferred, on this city by the prince and princess of Wales, in 1738,’ when their royal highnesses lodged in this square.

On the 10th of March 1739-40, the first stone of another new and magnificent square was laid, on the south side of the city, upon the bank of the river. The principal side of this square, according to the original plan, was to have the appearance of but one house, though it was to have been divided into several: it is 500 feet long, and the two wings are 260 feet each. In each front are 63 windows, and in each wing 31. This building, from the neighbouring hills, looks like one grand palace. It was to have been adorned with above 300 columns and pilasters of the Corinthian order; upon the corner of every side, there was to have been a tower, and in every front a center-house and pediment; but in executing this plan, it was judged proper to lay aside the ornaments. In this square is a superb ball-room, in form of an Ægyptian hall, 90 feet long and 52 broad, and an assembly room of the same dimensions, with a garden and bowling-green. On the east side is a grand parade, called the North Parade, 200 yards in length; and a terrace, 500 yards in circumference, with several other walks; and a bridge of one arch, 120 feet wide, over the river Avon, on the south side of this square.

Here is also another grand parade, called the South Parade, the west side of which is now building, with a row of stately houses; and the north side of an area, 620 feet in length from north to south, and 310 feet in breadth, called the Royal Forum, is now inclosed with a magnificent pile of buildings, consisting of nine houses, and forming one uniform structure, crowned with a balustrade.

In the year 1749, the number of private houses in this city was computed at 1362, many of which are inhabited by persons of fortune, but the far greater part by such as keep lodgings so convenient, that this place is thought capable of accommodating 12,000 persons at one time. The houses in general are handsome, and neatly furnished.

The stone of which the houses here are built, is, for the most part, dug out of quarries upon Clarton Down, where there are frequent horse-races. From these quarries it is brought down a steep hill to the river Avon, by means of a

curious machine, invented by the late Mr. Allen, postmaster, and formerly mayor of this city, a gentleman long eminent for many amiable virtues. Stone is therefore purchased in this place at so small an expence, that building is cheaper here than perhaps in any other part of the kingdom. From the same quarries stone is also sent by the Avon to Bristol, London, and other places, in great abundance, for building; and of the stone of these quarries Mr. Allen built for himself near this city, one of the most magnificent villas in England.

Bristol is reckoned the second city in the British dominions, for trade, wealth, and number of inhabitants. It is 115 miles distant from London; and was made a county of itself in the reign of Edward the Third. It first had the privilege of a mayor in the reign of Henry the Third, and is now governed by a mayor, a recorder, twelve aldermen, and forty-two common-council men. It is a bishop's see; and the tradesmen of the city are incorporated into several companies, each of which has a hall, or some large hired room, for their meetings; and by a charter of queen Elizabeth, every man that marries the daughter of a citizen of Bristol, becomes free of the city.

This city stands upon the north and south sides of the river Avon, and is therefore partly in the county of Gloucester, and partly in that of Somerset; but though the greatest part of the city now stands upon the Gloucestershire side of the river, yet before Bristol was made a county of itself, it was by the parliament rolls always reckoned to be in Somersetshire.

The north and south parts of this city are connected by a stone bridge over the Avon, consisting of four broad arches; but it is encumbered with houses, built on each side of it, which renders the passage on foot not only inconvenient but dangerous, there being no room for posts, and the pavement being made very slippery by the constant passage of carriages without wheels, called sledges; for carts are not permitted, for fear of shaking and damaging the arches of the vaults and gutters that are made under ground, for carrying the filth of the city into the river.

The streets of this city are narrow, ill-paved, and irregular; they are always dirty; and the houses are built like those in London before the fire in 1666, with the upper floors projecting beyond the lower; they are crowded close together, and many are five or six stories high. The Gloucestershire side of the city is four miles and a half in circumference,

cumference, and the Somersetshire side two miles and a half, so that the whole circumference of the city is seven miles. It is supposed to contain 13,000 houses, and 95,000 inhabitants.

Bristol has the most considerable trade of any port in the British dominions except London. It was computed near half a century ago, that the trade of this city employed no less than two thousand sail of ships. It has a very great trade to the West-Indies, fifty West-India ships having frequently arrived here at once. It has also a considerable trade to Guinea, Holland, Hamburg, and Norway; and a principal branch of its commerce is that with Ireland; from whence tallow, linen, woollen, and bay yarn, are imported in vast quantities. Its trade to the Streights is also very considerable, and it has acquired the whole trade of South Wales, and the greatest part of the trade of North Wales, by the conveniency of the Severn and the Wye.

Curiosities.] Among the number of curiosities, we may reckon these: On the south side of Mendip Hills, near a place called Wokey, within a mile of the city of Wells, is a very remarkable cave, known by the name of Wokey Hole. The entrance to this cave is parallel to the horizon, at the bottom of a rock 180 feet high, and over the rock is a steep mountain, the top of which is thought to be a mile above the bottom of the rock. At the entrance into the cave there is a steep descent of 50 or 60 feet; the cave itself is about 200 feet in length, in some parts 50 or 60 feet broad, and in others not above 10 or 12, and the greatest height is about 50 feet, though in some places the roof is not above four or five feet from the bottom. There are several partial divisions of it, which the imaginations of some people have distinguished into a kitchen, a hall, a dancing room, a cellar, and other apartments; and water of a petrifying quality, being constantly dropping from the roof, and forming a variety of stony figures, fancy has improved them into resemblances of old women, dogs, bells, organs, and other things. The echo of any noise within this cavern is so strong, that a large stone, such as a man may lift up without much difficulty, being dropped on the rocky bottom of the cave, sounds with a noise as loud as the report of a canon.

At the extremity of this cave there issues a stream of water sufficient to drive a mill; and passing with great rapidity and noise the whole length of the cavern, it bursts out through the rock, near the entrance into the valley. Here are always people ready, for a small reward, to attend strangers into this cave with lights.

Near Glastonbury there is a hill called the Torr, from a tower that formerly stood on it, which rises like a pyramid, to a great height, and serves as a land-mark to seamen.

Near Chedder there are two rocks, called Chedder Cliffs, and between these is a frightful chasm, the sides of which are near three hundred feet high: through this chasm is the road from Axbridge to Bristol; and from the bottom of one of the hills there issues a stream, so rapid, that it is said to drive twelve mills within a quarter of a mile of the spring.

Various particulars.] Somersetshire sends eighteen members to parliament: viz: two knights for the shire, and two burgessees for each of the following boroughs: Bristol, Bath, Wells, Taunton, Bridgewater, Minehead, Ivelchester, and Milborn Port. It lies in the diocese of Bath and Wells, and in the western circuit. There are reckoned in it 132 vicarages, 385 parishes, and 1,660 villages. It is divided into thirty-seven hundreds, containing about 44,680 houses, and 223,400 inhabitants. The area of it is computed at 1,075,000 acres.

S T A F F O R D S H I R E.

Name.] **T**HE name of this county is derived from Stafford, the county town.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] Its air is in general pure and healthy; but in some parts it is sharp and cold, particularly in the mountainous places, north-west of a market town called Stone.

The arable and pasture land is excellent; and even the mountainous parts, by good tillage, will produce considerable crops of corn: but they are remarkable for a short and sweet grass, which makes the cattle as fine as those of Lancashire. On the banks of the Trent and the Dove, the meadows are as rich as any in England, and maintain great dairies, which supply the markets with vast quantities of butter and cheese. The rivers afford plenty of almost all sorts of fresh water fish; and the county in general abounds with provisions of all kinds.

Besides plenty of turf and peat, for firing, this county yields three sorts of coals, which are distinguished by the names of pit coal, peacock coal, and cannel coal. The pit coal is dug chiefly in the south part of the county, at Wednesbury, Dudley, and Sedgley, not far from Wolverhampton.

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The peacock coal, so called from its reflecting various colours, like those of a peacock's tail, is found at Henley Green, near Newcastle under Line, and is better for the forge than for the kitchen. The cannel coal, which gives a very clear and bright flame, derives its name from *canwil*, an ancient British word for candle. It is so hard as to bear polishing, and is used in this county for paving churches, and other public buildings: it is also manufactured into snuff boxes and other toys.

Under the surface of the ground, in several parts of this county, are found yellow and red okers, tobacco pipe-clay, potters clay, fullers earth, and a sort of brick earth, which burns blue, and is supposed to be the earth of which the Romans made their urns. Here also are found stones and minerals of various sorts; as fire-stone, for the hearths of iron furnaces and ovens, lime-stone, iron-stone, or ore, the best kind of which is called *mush*, and is found at Rushall, near Walshall, a market town. This is the ore from which the best iron is extracted. Some of these iron-stones are as big as the crown of a man's hat, and some of them being hollow on the inside, contain about a pint of sharp cold liquor, which is said to be very grateful to the taste, and of which the workmen are very fond. Copper stones, or ore, are dug out of Ecton Hill, near Leek; and lead ore is dug in other parts of the county. Here are also found the hæmatites or blood-stone, alabaster, divers kinds of marble, quarry stones, mill-stones, and grind-stones, of several colours.

The principal manufactures of this county are cloth and iron utensils, all kinds of which are made here in great perfection.

Curiosities.] There are in this county medicinal springs of various qualities; some impregnated with bitumen, some with salts, and others with sulphur. Of the bituminous kind is a warm spring at Beresford, south-east of Leek, near the bank of the Dove, and another at Hints, near Tamworth. Of the saline kind, the strongest are the brine pits at Chartley, near Stafford, of the water of which, as good white salt is made as any in England. Among the springs of a weaker brine, there is one in Blue Hill, near Leek, which tinges the stones and earth it touches, with a rusty colour, and which galls will turn as black as ink. Of the sulphureous sort is St. Erasmus's Well, at Ingestre, two miles north-east of Stafford, and another spring at Codsal, north-west of Wolverhampton. There are also other medicinal waters in this county, not reducible to either of these classes,

classes, which are said to have performed great cures, as Salter's Well, near Newcastle under Line, which has the reputation of curing the king's evil; Elder Well, at Blim-hill, near Penkridge, said to cure disorders of the eyes; and a well, called the Spaw, near Wolverhampton, which is reputed to have cured diseases of various kinds.

At Wrottesley, north-west of Wolverhampton, have been found stones of a prodigious size, one of which, after being hewn, is said to have made an hundred loads; and another, after ten loads were cut off from it, required thirty yoke of oxen to draw it, and was made into a great cistern in a malt-house here, which wets thirty-seven strikes of barley at one time.

In the hall of Dudley Castle, about four miles from Wolverhampton, there is a table of one intire oak plank, which was originally seventy-two feet nine inches long, and three feet broad, but was reduced to its present length of fifty-two feet, to suit the hall it stands in.

At Bescot, not far from Litchfield, there is a ditch which affords a kind of natural phosphorus; for the mud of this ditch rubbed upon any thing in the dark, emits a faint bluish flame for near a quarter of an hour.

At Tettenhall, near Wolverhampton, there is a pasture called the Clots, in which if any horned cattle graze for one summer, their colour, however black before, will, it is said, turn to a whitish dun.

At Statfold, not far from Wolverhampton, there is a church with a steeple, which was repaired upwards of a century ago; and it has been affirmed by the inhabitants, that the top stone of this steeple, being thrown by one of the workmen from the pinnacle into the church-yard, broke in two pieces, and discovered a living toad in the center of it, which died soon after it was exposed to the air.

Near Newcastle under Line there is a quarry, where a stone is said to have been dug, in the middle of which, when sawed asunder, was found a human skull, with teeth in it.

At Horborn, south of Walshall, upon the borders of Warwickshire, resided one John Sands, who died in the year 1625, at the age of 140 years; and his wife lived to be 120.

On the night of the 4th of November 1678, in the space of a few hours, three successive shocks of an earthquake, accompanied with a rumbling noise like distant thunder, were felt at Brewood and its neighbourhood; and the night follow-
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ng, another less considerable shock, attended with the like rumbling noise, was perceived about this place.

Various Particulars.] Staffordshire sends ten members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, and two for each of the following boroughs: Litchfield, Stafford, Newcastle under Lyne, and Tamworth.—It lies in the diocese of Litchfield and Coventry, and in the Oxford circuit. There are in it 39 vicarages, 150 parishes, and 670 villages. It is divided into five hundreds, containing about 23,740 houses, and 118,700 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 810,000 acres.

S U F F O L K

Name.] **S**UFFOLK is a corruption or contraction of the the ancient Saxon name which signifies a Southern People, and was applied to the inhabitants of this county to distinguish them from those who inhabited the next county to the north, and were called Northfolk.

Air, Soil, and Natural Productions.] The air of this county is pure, pleasant, and healthy, even near the sea shore, because the beach being generally sandy and shelly, shoots off the sea, and prevents stagnating water and stinking mud.

The soil of the county of Suffolk is different in different parts of it: the eastern parts bordering on the sea, are sandy, and full of heaths, but yield abundance of rye, peas, and hemp, and feed vast flocks of sheep. The middle part of the county, which is called High Suffolk, or the Woodlands, consists chiefly of a rich deep clay and marle, and produces wood, and good pasture that feeds great numbers of cattle; the parts bordering on Essex and Cambridge, likewise afford excellent pasture, and abound with corn, all except a small tract towards Newmarket, in Cambridgeshire, which is for the most part a green heath. It is said that the feeding cattle and sheep on turneps, was first practised in Suffolk.

The milk of this county is reckoned the best in England; and it has been long observed, that the Suffolk cheese is greatly impoverished to enrich the Suffolk butter. It is however found, that the cheese of this county is very proper for long voyages, being preserved by its dryness; but the butter that is made here in great quantities, and sent to all parts in England, is not to be equalled in any part of the kingdom.

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It is observed that more turkeys are bred in this county, and that part of Norfolk which borders upon it, than in all the rest of England; London and the counties round it being chiefly supplied with turkeys from hence.

Fuel is very plenty in this county; High Suffolk, affording wood in great abundance, and Low Suffolk, or that part of the county which runs along the sea side, being constantly supplied with coals from Newcastle.

Manufactures.] The manufactures are woolen and linen cloths.

Curiosities.] Among the curiosities of this county may be reckoned the periodical rendezvous of swallows along this coast, from Orfordness to Yarmouth; for about the end of summer an incredible number of these birds gather here into a body, where they wait the first northerly wind to transport themselves out of Britain, probably to some warmer climate. They are sometimes wind-bound for several days, but it no sooner blows fair, than they all take wing together, and never appear till the following spring, when they arrive here in vast bodies, and from hence distribute themselves all over Britain.

Various particulars.] Suffolk sends sixteen members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgeses for each of the following boroughs: Ipswich, Dunwich, Orford, Aldborough, Sudbury, Eye, and St. Edmund's-Bury.—It lies in the diocese of Norwich, and in the Norfolk circuit. There are in it 95 vicarages, 575 parishes, and 1,500 villages. The division of it is into 17 hundreds, containing about 34,420 houses, and 172,000 inhabitants. The area of Suffolk is computed at 995,000 acres.

S U R R Y.

Name.] **S**URRY, or SURREY, is immediately derived from the Saxon name signifying south of the river, and was given to this county from its situation south of the Thames.

Air, Soil, and natural Productions.] The air and soil of the middle and extreme parts of this county are very different. Towards the borders of the county, especially on the north side, near the Thames, and on the south side, in and near a vale, called Holmsdale, that stretches for several miles from Darking to the county of Kent, the air is mild and healthy, and the soil fruitful in corn and hay, with a fine mixture of woods and fields; but in the heart of the county, the air is bleak; and though there are some delightful spots, the county
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in general consists of open and sandy ground, and barren heaths. In some places there are long ridges of hills or downs, which afford nothing but warrens for rabbits and hares, and parks for deer; and from this difference in the air and soil, the county has been compared to a coarse cloth with a fine list. The air of Cottman Dean, near Darking, has been reputed the best in England. It is observed of the inhabitants of the middle parts of Surry, that they are generally of a pale complexion, resembling the natives of Picardy in France; and that even the cattle here are of a lighter colour than is usually met with in any other part of England, which is attributed to the air and soil. Near Darking there grows a wild black cherry, of which a very pleasant wine is said to be made, not much inferior to French claret. This country produces great quantities of box-wood and walnut tree; and the downs, particularly Banstead Downs, which stretch 30 miles in length, from Croydon to Farnham, being covered with a short herbage, perfumed with thyme and juniper, the mutton here, though small, is remarkably sweet. Near Ryegate a borough town, is dug up great plenty of fullers earth; the county in general is well provided with river fish, and the Wandle is famous for plenty of fine trout.

Manufactures.] The principal manufacture of this county is woollen cloth, particularly kerseys.

Curiosities.] This county has few curiosities: the most extraordinary appears to be a human skeleton, which was discovered in the reign of Charles the Second, in the churchyard of Wotton, about five miles from Darking, and which measured nine feet three inches in length.

In 1739, the small pox carried off about 500 persons at Godalming in three months, which were more than one third of the inhabitants.

Dulwich wells, or Sydenham wells, on the borders of Kent, about five miles from London, are famous for their purgative quality, and were formerly much frequented; and Stretham, about half way between London and Croydon, has a fine medicinal spring, which was discovered in 1660, and has also been greatly frequented by persons of all ranks from London.

Leith-hill, or Lith-hill near Wotton, is remarkable for its extent. It consists of one continued, and almost imperceptible ascent from Wotton, for near three miles to the south; and from the summit sinks, on the south side, with a gentle declivity of about eight miles, as far as Horsham, a borough town of Suffex. This is by much the highest hill in Surry, and from the top of it may be seen, in a clear day, all Surry and

and Suffex, part of Hampshire, Berkshire, Oxfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Hertfordshire, Middlesex, Essex, and Kent, and, by the help of a telescope, some part of Wiltshire; so that the whole circumference of the view is thought to be near 260 miles.

Various Particulars.] This county sends fourteen members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgeses for each of the following boroughs: Guilford, Southwark, Blechingley, Ryegate, Gatton, and Haslemere.—It lies in the diocese of Winchester and in the home circuit. There are in it 35 vicarages, 140 parishes, and about 450 villages. It is divided into thirteen hundreds, containing near 34,220 houses, and 171,000 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 592,000 acres.

S U S S E X.

Name.] **S**USSEX is a corruption or contraction of the ancient Saxon name which signifies the country of the South Saxons,

Air, Soil, and Natural Productions.] The air of this county, along the sea coast, is agreeable to strangers, but the inhabitants are in general very healthy. In the north part of the county, bordering upon Kent and Surry, or in the woody tract of the three counties, called the Weald, or Wild, which is said to be 120 miles long, and in some parts thirty broad, the air is foggy, but not unhealthy; and upon the Downs, in the middle of the county, it is exceeding sweet and pure.

In the Weald of Suffex the soil is rich and deep, and produces great abundance of oats and hops; but the roads are the worst in England; for many of the large trees, which are carried through this part of the county in the summer time to the river Medway, in Kent, on a carriage called a tug, drawn generally by twenty oxen, are often dropped upon the road, which is otherwise frequently choaked up by tugs, and remain there perhaps for years. The north of Suffex is for the most part covered with woods, which chiefly supply the navy docks with timber, and the iron works in this county with fuel, and from which vast quantities of charcoal are made.

The middle part of the county is delightfully chequered with meadows, pastures, groves, and corn fields, that produce wheat and barley; and in the south part, towards the sea, are high hills, called the South Downs, consisting of a fat chalky soil, very

very fruitful both in corn and grass, and feeding vast multitudes of sheep, remarkable for very fine wool.

In the Weald of Suffex is found the mineral called talc; and in the eastern parts of the county, towards the borders of Kent, is dug great plenty of iron ore; and here are many forges, furnaces, and water mills, both for cast and wrought iron: and though the iron found in this county is said to be brittle, yet cannons are frequently cast with it.

Suffex is particularly famous for a delicious bird, called the Wheat-ear, perhaps from its being most in season about the time that the wheat is ripe: it is about the size of a lark, and very fat. In the river Arun are caught vast quantities of mullets, which in the summer season come up from the sea as far as Arundel, in great shoals, and feed upon a particular weed here, which gives them a high and luscious taste, that render them a great delicacy. This river is also famous for trout and eel. Near the city of Chichester are found the finest lobsters in England. At Selsey, south-east of Chichester, a sort of cockle is found in great plenty, which is much admired; and the mackarel and herrings, taken in their seasons at Rye, are reckoned the best of their kind.

Manufactures.] The principal manufactures of this county are cast and wrought iron; and the best gunpowder in the world is said to be made at a market town called Battel.

Curiosities.] Among the few natural curiosities of this county, may be reckoned the stream of the Lavant, which is sometimes very low, even in the winter, when other rivers are at their greatest height; and yet at other times is ready to overflow its channel.

At Selscomb, north-east of Battel, is a chalybeat spring, as highly impregnated as those at Tunbridge in Kent.

Beachyhead, thus called from an adjacent beach, south-west of Hastings, is reckoned the highest cliff of all the south coast of England, for it projects over the beach to a greater perpendicular height than the Monument at London. Hares closely pursued, have tumbled over the edge of this precipice, with a hound or two after them, and have been dashed to pieces. The beach underneath, upon which, in stormy weather, many ships have been lost, has several large caverns made in it by the sea.

Various particulars.] Suffex sends twenty members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgesses for each of the following boroughs; Chichester, Horsham, Midhurst, Lewes, Shoreham, Bramber, Steyning, East-Grimstead, and Arundel. This county lies in the diocese of Chichester,

Chichester, and the home circuit. It contains 123 vicarages, 312 parishes, and 1060 villages. The division of it is into six rapes, containing about 21,500 acres, and 107,600 inhabitants.

WARWICKSHIRE.

Name.] **T**HIS county derives its name from Warwick, the county town.

Air, Soil, and natural Productions.] The air of Warwickshire is mild, pleasant and healthy, and the soil rich. The two parts into which it is separated by the river Avon, are distinguished by the names of the Feldon and the Woodland. The name Feldon signifies a champaign country; this division lies south of the Avon, and produces excellent corn and pasture. The Woodland, which is the largest of the two divisions, lies north of that river, and produces plenty of timber: but great part of it being now cleared of the woods, it yields also abundance of fine corn and pasture. The cheese made in Warwickshire is not inferior to any in England.

Manufactures.] The city of Coventry, in this county, has a manufacture of tammies and ribbands; and Birmingham, a market town, is famous for the manufacture of small iron and steel wares.

One of the principal towns is Birmingham, or Bromicham, which stands upon the borders of Staffordshire, at the distance of 109 miles from London. It is a large, well built, populous town, famous for the most ingenious artificers in all sorts of iron and steel small wares, and in the manufactures of snuff-boxes, buckles, buttons, and other goods of the like kind, which are made here in vast quantities, and exported to all parts of Europe.

Stratford is commonly called Stratford upon Avon, from its situation upon that river, and to distinguish it from several other towns in England of the same name. It is 97 miles from London, and is a corporation governed by a mayor, a recorder, a high steward, twelve aldermen, of whom two are justices of the peace, and twelve capital burghesses.

This is a large populous town, and has one parish church and a chapel of ease. The church is dedicated to the Trinity, and is thought to be almost as old as the Norman Conquest; but several parts of it hath been at different times rebuilt. It was formerly

formerly collegiate, and is celebrated for containing the remains of Shakeſpear, our great dramatic poet, who, in 1564, was interred in one of the ayles on the north ſide of the church. His grave is covered with a ſtone, which has the following inſcription :

Good friend, for Jeſus' ſake forbear
To dig the duſt incloſed here.
Bleſt be the man that ſpares theſe ſtones,
And curſt be he that moves my bones.

And in the wall over the grave, there is a buſt of him in marble.

Curioſities.] The natural curioſities of this county are not many. King's Newnham, near Rugby, is remarkable for three medicinal ſprings, the water of which is ſtrongly impregnated with alum, of a milky colour, and reckoned a good medicine for the ſtone. It is obſerved of this water, that being drank with ſalt, it is aperient, but with ſugar, reſtringent.

At Leamington, eaſt of Warwick, there is a ſalt ſpring, which riſes near the river Leam, the water of which is uſed by the poorer ſort of people, to ſeaſon their bread.

At Shuckborough, north-eaſt of Kinton, the aſtroites, or ſtar-ſtones, are frequently found.

On the fifth of September, 1694, a fire broke out at Warwick by which the greateſt part of the town was reduced to aſhes, and the damages ſuſtained were computed at 100,000*l*.

At Burford, near Warwick, one Samuel Fairfax, who was born in 1647, lived to the age of twelve years, under the ſame roof with his father and mother, grandfather and grandmother, and great grandfather and great grandmother, all in perfect health, and dwelling together with the greateſt harmony of duty and affection; and none of them had been twice married.

Antiquities.] At Coventry there is a yearly proceſſion through the city, on the Friday after Trinity Sunday, with the figure of a naked woman on horſeback, in commemoration of the following tranſaction. Leofric, earl of Mercia, and firſt lord of this city, who died in the thirteenth year of Edward the Confefſor, on account of ſome offence given him by the citizens, loaded them with very heavy taxes; for the remiſſion of which, Godiva, his lady, the daughter of Thorold, ſheriff of Lincolnſhire, a woman of moſt exemplary virtue and piety, inceſſantly ſolicited him. Being, at length, tired with her importunities, he hoped to put an end to them, by ſaying that he would take off the new duties, provided ſhe

would ride naked in open day-light, through the most frequented parts of the city, assuring himself that her modesty would never comply with the condition. Godiva, however, being sensibly touched with compassion for the distress of the city, took a resolution to relieve it, even upon the terms proposed. She, therefore, after having issued orders to the citizens, that all their doors and windows should be shut, and that nobody should attempt to look out, rode naked, through the streets, on horseback; but her hair being loose about her, was so long that it covered her down to the legs. It is added, that, during the time of her riding in this manner, through the streets, no person ventured to look at her except a taylor, who, as a punishment for his violating the injunction of the lady, which had been published with so pious and benevolent a design, was struck blind.

The taylor is now known by the name of Peeping Tom; and the window through which he is said to have peeped, is still to be seen, with his effigy in it, which is new dressed on the anniversary of the procession: and in a window belonging to one of the churches in the city, called Trinity church, there are pictures of earl Leofric, and his countess Godiva, with the following inscription:

I Lurick, for the love of thee,
Do set Coventry toll-free.

South of Kinton, there is a valley, called the Vale of the Red Horse, from the rude figure of a horse cut out upon a red soil on the side of a hill, and supposed, like the white horse in Berkshire, to have been a Saxon monument. The trenches which form this figure, are trimmed and kept clean by a freeholder in the neighbourhood, who enjoys his lands by that service.

Various particulars.] Warwickshire sends six members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, two burgessees for Coventry, and two more for Warwick.—This county lies partly in the diocese of Litchfield and Coventry, and partly in that of Worcester, and in the midland circuit.—There are in it 87 vicarages, 158 parishes, and 780 villages. It is divided into four hundreds, and one liberty, containing about 21,970 houses, and 109,860 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 670,000 acres.

WESTMORELAND.

Name. **W**ESTMORELAND is so called from the nature of the country, which, in general, is a moor, or barren heath, and from its western situation, with respect to another moorish tract of mountains, called the English Appenine.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of this county is sweet, pleasant, and healthy; but in the mountainous parts, sharp and piercing.

This county consists of two divisions, the barony of Westmoreland, sometimes called the Bottom, and the Barony of Kendal. The Barony of Westmoreland, which comprehends the north part of the county, is an open champaign country, twenty miles long, and fourteen broad, consisting of arable land, and producing great plenty of corn and grass. The Barony of Kendal, so called from the town of the same name, which comprehends the south part of the county, is very mountainous; the vallies, however, are fruitful, and even the mountains yield pasture for sheep and cattle. Here are several forests and parks, and both baronies afford great plenty of wood.

This county is well supplied with fish; and the charre, a delicate sort of trout, mentioned in the account of Cumberland, is peculiar to the river Eden, Winander Mere, and Ulleswater. The western mountains of this county are supposed to contain vast quantities of copper ores, and some veins of gold: but, as the expence of winning the ores, on account of their depth, and some other inconveniencies, has been found more than equivalent to the value of what metals could be obtained for; the design, therefore, of working these mines, has been laid aside.

Manufactures.] The chief manufactures of this county, are stockings and woollen cloth.

Curiosities.] The only natural curiosity of this county is a petrifying spring, called the Dripping Well, in Betham Park, near Burton.

Various particulars.] Westmoreland sends four members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgeses for the borough of Appleby. It lies partly in the diocese of Chester, and partly in that of Carlisle, and in the northern circuit. There are in it 26 parishes, and 220 villages. The two baronies of Westmoreland and Kendal, are the only principal division of this county; for, not being thought able

in former times to pay any subsidies, considering the charge the inhabitants were at in the border service, it was never divided into hundreds, rapes, or wapentakes, like other counties. The earl of Thanet is hereditary sheriff of this county. There are reckoned in it about 6,500 houses, and 33,000 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 510,000 acres.

W I L T S H I R E.

Name.] **T**HE name of this county is derived from Wilton, a borough town, and formerly the chief town in the county.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of Wiltshire is sweet and healthy; it is sharp on the hills, but mild in the vallies, even in winter.

The northern part of this county, called North Wiltshire, abounds with pleasant risings and clear streams, forming a variety of delightful prospects; the southern part is very rich and fruitful, and the middle, called Salisbury Plains, from the city of Salisbury in their neighbourhood, consists chiefly of downs, which afford the best pasture for sheep. The soil of the hills and downs in general is chalk and clay, but the vallies between them abound with corn fields and rich meadows; and here are made great quantities of as good cheese as any in England.

In some parts of Wiltshire, particularly about East Lavington, a market town, is found a sort of herbage, called Knotgrass, near twenty feet in length, and used in feeding hogs. In the Upper Avon, near Ambresbury, is found a small fish called a loach, which the people in this neighbourhood put into a glass of sack, and swallow alive. The north part of the county yields plenty of wood; and in the south parts, particularly at Chilmark, near Hindon, a borough town, are exceeding good quarries, where the stones are very large; some of them are 60 feet in length, and 12 in thickness, without a flaw. As there is no coal in this county, fuel is scarce.

Manufactures.] The best sort of English broad cloths, both white and dyed, are manufactured in this county.

The city of Salisbury, which is 83 miles distant from London, and a bishop's see, owes its origin to a cathedral founded here in 1219, in the fourth year of king Henry the Third, by
bishop

bishop Poor, who removed hither from Old Sarum, upon which the greatest part of the citizens of that place followed him. New Sarum, or Salisbury, as it then began to be called, increased so fast, that it was incorporated by king Henry the Third, and is now governed by a mayor, a high steward, a recorder, a deputy-recorder, twenty-four aldermen, thirty common-council-men, a town-clerk, and three serjeants at mace.

This is a large, well built, clean city, situated in a valley, and watered by the Upper Avon, on the west and south, and by the Bourne on the east. The streets are generally spacious, and built at right angles. The cathedral, which was finished in 1258, at the expence of above 26,000*l.* is, of a Gothic building, the most elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lanthorn, with a beautiful spire of free stone, in the middle, which is 410 feet high, being the tallest in England. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. The outside is magnificent, there being no outside wall, but only buttresses and windows. The windows are said to be 'as many in number as the days in a year; and a particular description of its several ornaments would swell to a considerable volume. The bells for the service of this church, which are eight in number, hang in a strong, high built steeple, erected in another quarter of the church-yard; the walls of the spire, which towards the top are little more than four inches thick, being judged too weak for such a weight of metal; so that in the cathedral there is only one bell, which rings when the bishop comes to the choir.

This church has a cloister, which is 150 feet square, and of as fine workmanship as any in England. The chapter-house, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and yet the roof bears all upon one small pillar in the center, so much too weak in appearance for the support of such a prodigious weight, that the construction of this building is thought one of the greatest curiosities of the kind in Europe.

There is a library well furnished with books, belonging to this cathedral, and adjoining to it is a close, for the residence of the canons and prebendaries, which is so large and well built, that it looks like a fine city of itself.

Besides the cathedral, there are in this city three other churches, and three charity schools, in which 170 children are taught and cloathed. It has an hospital, or college, founded in 1683, by bishop Ward, for ten widows of poor

clergymen; and here are several boarding-schools for young gentlemen and ladies.

This city has a spacious market-place, in which is a fine town-house; and the water of the Avon runs through the streets in canals lined with brick. There are no vaults in the churches, nor cellars in any part of the city, the soil being so moist, that the water rises up in graves dug in the cathedral, and is sometimes too feet high in the chapter-house.

The principal manufactures of this city, are flannels, druggets, and the cloths called Salisbury whites. It is also famous for the manufactures of bone-lace and scissars; and may be reckoned as flourishing a city as any in England, that depends entirely on a home trade,

Old Sarum, or Salisbury, stands at the distance of one mile north of the city of Salisbury, and was formerly the see of a bishop, who had a castle and cathedral here; but king Stephen quarrelling with bishop Roger, seized the castle and put a garrison in it, which was the first occasion of the ruin of this ancient city; for, not long after, bishop Poor translated the episcopal seat to the valley below it, where the city of Salisbury now stands, and founded a cathedral there; and the citizens being often vexed at the insolence of the garrison, and labouring under inconveniences for the want of water, and on account of the bleakness of the air, to which the height of their situation exposed them, removed to the new city. Old Sarum is now reduced to a single farm-house, and yet it sends two members to parliament, who are elected by the proprietors of certain adjacent lands.

Curiosities] The natural curiosities of this county are very few. At Holt, a village north of Bradford, a medicinal spring was discovered in 1718, which is in great repute for the cure of scorbutic and scrophulous distempers.

It is said that the steeple of the cathedral church of Old Sarum, which was built not long after the Conquest, was set on fire by lightning, the very next day after the church was consecrated.

At Tetbury, near Hindon, was a church with a steeple, which was thrown down by a storm of thunder and lightning, in the month of January, 1762.

A remarkable accident happened in the year 997, at a great synod or convocation, which was held at Calne, and at which the king, nobility, and bishops, were present, to decide a contest between the regular and secular priests, relating to the celibacy of the clergy, and to the monks holding of benefices, which

which the seculars considered as an encroachment upon their rights. In the course of the debate, as a Scotch bishop was zealously pleading for the seculars, all the timbers of the assembly room suddenly gave way, and the whole fabric fell to the ground. By this accident most of the secular priests were killed, and buried under the ruins, and many of the other priests were wounded, and some killed; but the seat of archbishop Dunstan, the chief advocate for the monks, and the president of the synod, remaining firm and unhurt, his preservation was interpreted as a miraculous declaration of Heaven in their favour: upon which the secular priests in Dunstan's province were turned out, and monks put in their room.

In November, 1725, it rained so excessively at Calne, that the river suddenly overflowing, some persons were drowned in the street in sight of their neighbours, who could not venture to their relief; the flood damaged several houses, and vast quantities of goods; and, among many other things of great weight, carried off a cask of oil, containing an hundred gallons.

Cosham, near Chippenham, is remarkable for its healthy situation, it being very common to find many inhabitants in this village, 80, 90, or even 100 years old; and not long ago, it is said, that ten persons of this place, whose ages together amounted to upwards of a thousand years, danced the Morrice dance at a gentleman's house in the neighbourhood.

On a hill called Rundway-hill, near Devizes, is a square camp, with a single trench, supposed to be Roman. Many Roman coins, of different emperors, have been found in the neighbourhood of Devizes, together with pots and other earthen vessels, supposed to be of Roman antiquity. In 1714, a large urn, full of Roman coins, was found buried under the ruins of an ancient building, near the same place; and several brass statues of heathen deities were found crowded between flat stones, and covered with Roman brick. This collection of deities, which was carried about the kingdom as a show, and is supposed to have been buried about the year 234, when the Roman troops were called out of Britain, consisted of a Jupiter Ammon, about four inches long, weighing somewhat more than four ounces: Neptune, with his trident, the teeth of which are much shorter than usually represented: this figure is about four inches in length, and weighs four ounces: a Bacchus, much of the same weight and dimensions: a Vulcan, something less than any of the figures already mentioned: a Venus, about six inches long, the left arm

arin broken off, but the figure much the best finished of the whole collection: a Pallas, with a spear, shield and helmet, between three and four inches in length: a Hercules, about four inches long, weighing six ounces and a half. Besides these, there were a Mercury, a Vestal Virgin, the Wolf with Romulus and Remus, some Egyptian deities, and a coin of the emperor Alexander Severus.

But the most curious and famous remain of antiquity in this county, and, indeed, in all Britain, is a pile of huge stones in Salisbury Plain, about six miles north of the city of Salisbury, called Stone-henge; concerning the origin, use, and structure of which, antiquarians are much divided.

The name Stone-henge is purely Saxon, and signifies no more than hanging stones, or a stone gallows. It probably alludes to the disposition of several of the stones of which this wonderful fabric consists. Some, however, suppose the true name to be *Stonhengest*, and suppose it to have been a monument erected by *Ambrosius*, a British king, in memory of the Britons slaughtered at, or near, this place, by *Hengist*, the Saxon. But *Dr. Stukeley*, who not many years ago wrote a learned treatise upon this piece of antiquity, has endeavoured to show that the original name of Stone-henge was *Ambres*, from which he supposes the adjacent town of *Ambresbury* had its name. The ancient Britons called it *Choir-gaur*, which *Dr. Stukely* is of opinion, signifies the Great Church, or Cathedral. The *Choir-gaur* of the ancient Britons, was, by the monks latinized *Chorea Gigantum*, or the Giant Dance, a name suited to the superstitious notions they had of the structure, and to the reports of magic concerned in raising it.

Stone-henge is situated near the summit of a hill, and consists of the remains of two circular and two oval ranges of rough stones, having one common center. The outer circle is 108 feet in diameter, and in its perfection consisted of thirty upright stones, of which there are seventeen still standing, and seven more lying upon the ground, either whole, or in pieces. The upright stones are from eighteen to twenty feet high, from six to seven feet broad, and about three feet thick; and, being placed at the distance of three feet and an half one from another, are joined, at top, by imposts, or stones laid across, with tenons fitted to mortises in the uprights, for keeping them in their due position. Of the imposts, or cross stones, there are six still standing, each of which is seven feet long, and about three feet and an half thick. The upright stones are wrought a little with a chissel, and something tapering towards

wards the top, but the imposts are quite plain: all the uprights are fixed in a kind of sockets, dug in a chalky soil, with small flints rammed in between the stone and the socket.

The inner circle, which never had any imposts, is somewhat more than eight feet from the inside of the outward one, and consisted originally of forty stones, the general proportion of which are one half the dimensions of the uprights of the outer circle every way. Of the forty original stones, which composed this circle, there are about nineteen left, and of these only eleven standing. The walk between these two circles, is 300 feet in circumference; and from this walk the structure has a surprising and awful effect on the beholders.

At the distance of about nine feet from the inner circle, is the outer oval range, which is supposed to be the principal part of the work, and by most writers is called the cell and the adytum. The stones that compose it are stupendous, some of them measuring thirty feet in height. This range consists of five compages, or trilithons, as they are sometimes called, being formed of two uprights, with an impost at top, like the outer circle; and of these compages three are entire, but two somewhat decayed. The inner oval is composed of twenty stones, each about six feet high; and near the eastern extremity of this oval, is a stone of coarse blue marble, about sixteen feet long, and four feet broad, which lies flat upon the ground, is somewhat pressed into it, and is supposed to have been an altar.

This work is inclosed by a deep trench, near thirty feet broad, and upwards of an hundred feet from the outer circle. Over this trench there are three entrances, the most considerable of which faces the north-east. At each entrance, on the outside of the trench, there seems to have been two huge stones set up in the manner of a gate; and parallel to these, on the inside, two other stones, of a smaller size. The whole number of stones of which this structure consisted, is computed to be just 140.

The rude magnitude of Stone-henge has rendered it the admiration of all ages; and as the enormous stones which compose it, appear too big for land carriage, and as Salisbury Plains, for many miles round, scarce afford any stones at all, it has been the opinion of some antiquaries, that these stones are artificial, and were made on the spot; and they are inclined to this opinion from a persuasion that the ancients had the art of making stones with sand, and a strong lime, or cement; but most authors are agreed, that these stones are all
natural,

natural, and that they were brought from a quarry of stones, called the Grey Wethers, on Marlborough Downs, near the town of that name, at the distance of fifteen or sixteen miles north of Stone-henge.

The use and origin of this work have been the subjects of various conjectures and debates; and much is to be lamented, that a tablet of tin, with an inscription, which was found here in the reign of Henry the Eighth, and might probably have set these points in a clear light, should not be preserved: for as the characters were not then understood by such as were consulted upon the occasion, the plate was destroyed, or at least thrown by and lost. The common tradition is, that Stone-henge was built by Ambrosius Aurelianus, as already mentioned. Some will have it to be a funeral monument, raised to the memory of some brave commander; and others maintain that it was erected to the honour of Hengist, the Saxon general; but this structure is probably more ancient.

Sammes, in his *Antiquities of Britain*, conjectures it to have been a work of the Phœnicians: and the famous Inigo Jones, in a treatise called *Stone-henge Restored*, attempts to prove that it was a temple of the Tuscan order, built by the Romans, and dedicated to the god Cœlum, or Terminus, in which he is confirmed by its having been open at top. Dr. Charleton, physician in ordinary to king Charles the Second, wrote a treatise called *Stone-henge restored to the Danes*, attempting to prove that this was a Danish monument, erected either for a burial-place, as a trophy for some victory, or for the election and coronation of their kings. And soon after the publication of Dr. Charleton's treatise, Mr. Webb, son-in-law of Inigo Jones, published a vindication of the opinions of his father-in-law upon this subject.

But antiquarians have since agreed, that it was an ancient temple of the Druids, built, as Dr. Stukely thinks, before the Belgæ came to Britain, and not long after Cambyfes invaded Egypt, where he committed such horrid outrages among the priests and inhabitants in general, that they dispersed themselves to all quarters of the world, and some, no doubt, came into Britain. At this time, the Doctor conjectures the Egyptians introduced their arts, learning, and religion, among the Druids, and probably had a hand in this very work, being the only one of the Druids where the stones are chiseled, all their other works consisting of rude stones, not touched by any tool, after the Patriarchal and Hebrew mode. And he thinks such a transmigration of the Egyptians at that time, the more probable, because then the Phœnician

nician trade was at its height, which afforded a ready conveyance into this country.

The heads of oxen, deer, and other beasts, have been dug up in and about these ruins, together with wood, ashes, and other undoubted relics of sacrifices: and around this supposed temple there are a great number of barrows, or monumental heaps of earth thrown up in the form of a bell, and each inclosed with a trench from 105 to 175 feet in diameter. These barrows extend to a considerable distance from Stone-henge, but they are so placed as to be all in view of that temple. In such barrows as have been opened, skeletons, or the remains of burnt bones, have been found. In one of them was an urn, containing ashes, some bones, and other matters, which the funeral pile had not consumed. By the collar bone, and one of the jaw bones, which were still entire, it was judged that the person there buried, must have been about fourteen years old; and from some female trinkets, and the brass head of a javelin, it was conjectured to be a girl who had carried arms. The trinkets consisted of a great number of glass and amber beads, of various shapes, sizes, and colours, together with a sharp bodkin, round at one end and square at the other. In some other barrows were found human bones, together with those of horses, deer, dogs, and other beasts and birds: in others, some bits of red and blue marble, and chip-pings of the stones of the temple; and in others were found a brass sword, and an ancient brass instrument called a Celt.

At Abury, on Marlborough Downs, near the town of that name, are a few huge stones, like those of Stone-henge. These stupendous remains are also supposed to be the ruins of an ancient temple of the Druids. Dr. Stukely is of opinion that this temple is much more ancient than Stone-henge; and it was so large, that the whole village is now contained within its circumference; a high rampart, with a proportionable ditch on the inside, surrounds it, which proves that it was not a fortification, because then the ditch would have been on the outside of the rampart.

Various particulars.] Wiltshire sends thirty-four members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, and two bur-gesses for each of the following boroughs, New Sarum, Wilton, Downton, Hinton, Heytesbury, Westbury, Calne, Devizes, Chippenham, Malmesbury, Cricklade, Great Bedwin, Lurgershall, Old Sarum, Wooten-Basset, and Marlborough. It lies in the diocese of Salisbury, and in the western circuit. There are in it 107 vicarages, 304 parishes, and

and 950 villages. The division of it is into twenty-nine hundreds, containing near 27,100 houses, and 108,170 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 676,000 acres.

WORCESTERSHIRE.

Name.] **T**HE present name of this county is derived from Worcester, the name of its city.

Air, Soil, and natural Productions.] The air of this county is exceeding sweet and healthy, and the soil is very rich, both in tillage and pasture, the hills being covered with flocks of sheep, and the vallies abounding in corn and rich meadows.

Here is a remarkable rich valley, called the Vale of Eſam, or Evesham, from Evesham, a borough town of this county, situated in the middle of the valley, to which it gives name. The Vale of Evesham runs along the banks of the river Avon, from Tewksbury, in Gloucestershire, to Stratford upon Avon, in Warwickshire. It abounds with the finest corn, and pasture for sheep, and is justly reckoned the granary of all these parts. Hops are much cultivated in this county; and it yields great plenty of all sorts of fruit, particularly pears, with which the hedges every where abound, and of which great quantities of excellent perry are made. The rivers here afford plenty of fish, and the Severn abounds with lampreys.

This county is remarkable for many brine pits and salt springs; and at Droitwich, a borough town, there are several such springs, from which so much salt is made, that the taxes paid for it to the crown, at the rate of 3s. 6d. a bushel, are said to amount to no less than 50,000l. a year.

Manufactures and Trade.] The chief manufactures of Worcestershire, are cloth, stockings, gloves, and glass; in which, together with the salt, hops, and other commodities of this county, the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade.

Curiosities.] The only natural curiosities in this county are its springs. Many salt springs have been discovered in Worcestershire, besides those at Droitwich: of the many salt springs about that place, three pits only are made use of; these afford the saltest brine; and one of these pits yield as much brine in twenty-four hours, as will produce 450 bushels of salt: but what is most remarkable, is, that springs of fresh water rise in some places almost contiguous to the salt springs; and

and that several salt springs issue out in the very channel of the river Salwarp at this place.

Various Particulars.] This county sends nine members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgessees for each of the following boroughs, Worcester, Droitwich, and Evesham, and one for the borough of Bewdley.—Worcestershire is in the diocese of Worcester, and the Oxford circuit. There are reckoned in it 55 vicarages, 152 parishes, and 500 villages. It is divided into seven hundreds, and two limits, containing about 20,600 houses, and 103,100 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed to be near 540,000 acres.

Y O R K S H I R E.

Name.] **T**HIS county took its name from the city of York.

As the air, soil, and productions of this large county, are different in different parts, it is necessary to anticipate its general division into three parts, called Ridings. The name Riding is only a corruption of the original Saxon name *dbrithing*, which was applied to the third part of a province or county; and the division into ridings, though now peculiar to Yorkshire, was, before the Conquest, common to several other counties in the north of England. The ridings of this county, each of which is as large as most shires, are distinguished by the names of the West Riding, the East Riding, and the North Riding. The West Riding is bounded by the river Ouse on the east, which separates it from the East Riding; and by the Ure, on the north, which parts it from the North Riding; and the East and North Ridings are separated by the Derwent.

The air in the West Riding, is sharper, but healthier than in either of the other two ridings. The soil on the western side of this division is hilly and stony, and consequently not very fruitful, but the intermediate vallies afford plenty of good meadow and pasture ground; and on the side of this riding, next the river Ouse, the soil is rich, producing wheat and barley, though not in such abundance as oats, which are cultivated with success in the most barren parts of this district. The West Riding is famous for fine horses, goats and other cattle; and there are some trees, natives of this riding, which are seldom found wild in any other part of England, particularly the fir, the yew, and the chestnut. Sherborn, a market town, is remarkable for fine cherries; and this riding
abounds

abounds with parks and chaces; it contains also many mines of pit-coal and jet. At Tadcaster, a market town, there is a lime quarry; and at Sherborn, a sort of stone is dug up, which is soft when newly taken out of the ground, but when exposed to the weather, becomes very hard and durable. In many parts of this riding, there are also mines of stone, which, after being calcined, is, after certain preparation by a peculiar process, made into alum.

The chief manufactures of the West Riding, are cloth and iron wares; and this riding is remarkable for curing legs of pork, into hams, like those of Westphalia.

The East Riding is the least of the three; and the air here, on account of the neighbourhood of the German Ocean, and the great æstuary of the Humber, is less pure and healthy; yet on the hilly parts, towards the north-west, in a large tract called York Wolds, the air is but little affected by either of these waters; the soil, however, in general, is dry, sandy, and barren, yet the sea-coast and vallies are fruitful, and the Wolds produce some corn, and feed great numbers of black cattle, horses and sheep; and the wool of the sheep is equal to any in England. This division yields plenty of wood, pit-coal, turf, jet, and alum stones; and the inhabitants are well provided with sea and river fish.

Its principal manufacture is cloth.

The North Riding is the northern boundary of the other two; and the air here is colder and purer than in either of them: the eastern part of this riding, towards the Ocean, is called Blackmoor; and consists of a hilly, rocky, and woody country; and the north-west part, called Richmondshire, from Richmond, a borough town, the capital of the district, consists of one continued eminence, or ridge of rocks, and vast mountains, the sides of which yield good grass, and the vallies at the bottom are very fruitful; the hills feed deer of a very large size, and goats; and contain mines of lead, copper, alum stone, and coal; but the coal and alum mines only are wrought. Swaledale abounds with fine pasture; and Wentedale, watered by the Ure, is a rich fruitful valley, abounding with wood, and stocked with vast herds of cattle. Towards the sea-coast are found great quantities of jet; and at Eggleston, north-west of Richmond, there is a fine quarry of marble. The sea, near this coast, swarms with herring, in the herring season; and large turbot, and great variety of other fish, are also caught here; the rivers abound with all sorts of fresh-water fish, and the Ure is remarkable for cray-fish.

The

Manufactures.] The chief manufactures of this riding are cloths, stockings, and alum.

The city of York is a county of itself, incorporated by king Richard the Second, with a jurisdiction over thirty-six villages and hamlets in the neighbourhood called, the Liberty of Anity. It is governed by a lord mayor, twelve aldermen in the commission of the peace, two sheriffs, twenty-four prime common-council men, eight chamberlains, seventy-two common-council men, a recorder, a town-clerk, a sword-bearer and a common serjeant. The city is divided into four wards: and the lord-mayor and aldermen have the conservancy of the rivers Ouse, Humber, Wharfe, Derwent, Aire, and Don, within certain limits; and the representatives of this city in parliament have a right to sit upon the privy counsellors bench, next to the citizens of London, a privilege which the representatives of both cities claim on the first day of the meeting of every new parliament.

This city of York is pleasantly situated in a large plain, in a fruitful soil and a healthy air. It is surrounded with walls, and has four large well built gates, and five posterns; the houses are generally old, and built of timber; it had formerly forty-one parish churches, and seventeen chapels, besides a cathedral; but the parishes are now reduced to twenty-eight, and the parish churches in use are no more than seventeen.

The cathedral having been burnt down in the reign of king Stephen, the present fabric was begun in the reign of king Edward the First, and is by some thought to be the finest Gothic building in England. It extends in length 525 feet, in breadth 110 feet, and in height 99 feet. The length of the cross isles is 222 feet; the nave, the biggest of any, except that of St. Peter's church at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher, than that of St. Paul's cathedral at London. At the west end are two towers, connected and supported by an arch, which forms the west entrance, and is reckoned the largest Gothic arch in Europe. In the south tower, on the west side, is a deep peal of twelve bells, the tenor weighing fifty-nine hundred weight. At the south end of the church there is a circular window, called the Marigold window, from the glass being stained of the colour of Marigold flowers. And at the north end is a very large painted window, said to have been erected at the expence of five maiden sisters. The other windows are exquisitely painted with scripture history. The front of the choir is adorned with statues of all the kings of England, from William the Conqueror to Henry the

the Sixth; and here are thirty-two stalls, all of fine marble with pillars, each consisting of one piece of alabaster.

This cathedral has a chapter-house, which is reckoned one of the neatest Gothic structures in England. It is of an octagon form, sixty-three feet in diameter, without any pillar to support the roof, which rests upon one pin placed in the center. The windows are finely painted and finished, with an arch at the top; and within is the following barbarous verse, in gilt letters, which shews the high conception entertained of the excellence of this structure, by those who lived at the time when it was erected.

Ut rosa flos florum, sic est domus ista domorum

Of the parish churches three only are remarkable. All-hallow's church, a Gothic structure, has the most magnificent steeple in England; St. Mary's church has a steeple in the form of a pyramid, which is much admired; St. Margaret's church has a steeple like St. Mary's, and a magnificent porch, on the top of which is a crucifixion cut in stone.

York has two charity schools, one for sixty boys, the other for twenty girls, all taught and cloathed; and an infirmary lately erected.

William the Conqueror built a castle here, which was repaired in 1701, and is now the place where the assizes are held; part of it is also used for a prison: It has a handsome chapel, with a good stipend for a preacher, and a gift of a large loaf of fine bread to every debtor that attends the service; the wards are all kept clean; the very felons are allowed beds; and there is an infirmary separated from the common prison, where the sick are properly attended.

Halifax is so called by a very small variation of its ancient name Halig-fax, which, in the old English language, signifies holy-hair; it was originally called Horton, and its name is said to have been changed to Halig-fax by the following incident: A secular priest of this village being violently enamoured of a young woman, his passion at length turned his brain, and happening to meet her in a retired place, he murdered her, horridly mangled her body, and cut off her head. The head being afterwards, for what reason does not appear, hung upon a yew tree, was soon regarded with a superstitious veneration, and frequently visited in pilgrimage; but at length rotting away, the devotion of the vulgar was transferred to the tree, and so many branches were continually torn off, and carried away as relicks, that it was at length reduced to a bare trunk: this trunk succeeded to the honours of the tree, as the tree had succeeded to those of the head; and the devotees, who still visited

visited it, conceived a notion, that the small fibres in the rind, between the bark and the body of the tree, were, in reality, the very hairs of the young woman's head: a miracle now became a new object of devotion, and the resort of pilgrims was greater than ever; so that, in a short time, from a small village rose a considerable town, and acquired the new name of Halig-fax.

This town is 199 miles distant from London, and stands near the river Calder, on the gentle descent of a hill. It has a venerable old church, and twelve chapels; it is reckoned the most populous, if not the largest parish in England; for, besides the church and chapels, it contains sixteen meeting-houses, most of which have bells and burial grounds. Here is a free-school, called Queen Elizabeth's School; a good hospital, founded in 1642, by Nathaniel Waterhouse, esq. for twelve old people, and a work-house for twenty children.

The extraordinary industry, spirit and ingenuity of the inhabitants in the manufacture of cloth, particularly kerseys and shalloons, has rendered Halifax one of the most flourishing towns in England: it has been computed, that 100,000 pieces of shalloon are made in a year in this town alone; and that one dealer has traded by commission for 60,000*l.* per annum, to Holland and Hamburg, in the article of kerseys alone. It is observed, that the inhabitants of Halifax are so employed in the woollen manufacture, that they scarce sow more corn than will keep their poultry; and that they feed few oxen or sheep. Their markets are thronged by prodigious numbers of people, who come to sell their manufactures, and buy provisions.

Kingston upon Hull, but by contraction, more commonly Hull, was called Kingston, or King's-town, from its having been founded by king Edward the First, and Kingston upon Hull, from its situation on the river Hull.

It is distant from London 169 miles, and is said to have been first incorporated by king Edward the Third; but king Henry the Sixth made it a town and county incorporate of itself; and under the charter of that prince it is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, a recorder, a chamberlain, a water-bailiff, a sheriff, a town-clerk, and sword and mace-bearers. It is said, that this town has a privilege to give judgment on life, though it now does not exert that privilege. The mayor had two swords given him, one by king Richard the Second, and the other by king Henry the Eighth, though only one sword is carried before him. He had also a cap of maintenance, and an oar of lignum vitæ given him, which is an ensign of his
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jurisdiction, as admiral within the liberties of the Humber. In the reign of king Henry the Eighth, this town was, by an act of parliament, erected into an honour; and, in the reign of king William the Third, it was enabled to build work-houses, and houses of correction.

This town is situated at the influx of the river Hull into the Humber, and near the place where the Humber opens into the German Ocean. It lies so low, that by cutting the Humber banks, the country may be laid under water for five miles round. It is surrounded by a wall and a ditch, where it is not defended by the river Humber; and is fortified by a castle, a citadel, and a block-house. The town is large, close built, well paved, and exceeding populous. Here are two churches, several meeting-houses, a free-school, founded by John Alcock, bishop of Worcester, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, with a hall over it for the merchants of the town, who have founded and endowed an hospital here, called Trinity House, in which are maintained many distressed seamen, both of Hull and other places, that are members of its port. This house is governed by twelve elder brothers six assistants, two wardens, and two stewards; and in one of the apartments is a manufactory of sail cloth, in which the town carries on a good trade. There is a charity-school, an hospital, called God's House, founded in 1584, by Michael de la Pole, earl of Suffolk; and other hospitals or work-houses for the poor.

Hull has not only the most considerable inland traffic of any port in the north of England, but a foreign trade superior to any in the kingdom, excepting the ports of London, Bristol and Yarmouth; the customs here being reckoned at between 30 and 40,000*l.* a year. The inland trade of this place, is rendered so very considerable, by the many large rivers that fall into the Humber, not far distant from it; for by these rivers, it trades not only to almost every part of Yorkshire, but to Lincolnshire, Nottinghamshire, Staffordshire, Derbyshire, Cheshire, and Warwickshire; the heavy goods of which counties, are brought hither, and exported to Holland, Hamburg, France, Spain, the Baltic, and other parts of Europe; and for which are returned, iron, copper, hemp, flax, canvas, Russia linen and yarn, besides wine, oil, fruit, and many other commodities. By these rivers also, such quantities of corn are brought hither, that Hull exports more corn than London. The trade of Hull with London, especially for corn, lead and butter, and with Holland and France, in times of peace, not only for these commodities, but for cloth, kerseys, and other manufactures of Leeds, Halifax, and other towns of Yorkshire,

shire, is so considerable, as to employ, not only ships, but fleets; the Hull fleets, to London, being generally from fifty to sixty sail; and, in time of war, frequently a hundred sail, or more; so that more business is done in this port, in proportion to its extent, than in any other port of Europe.

Leeds, is so called by a variation of the Saxon name, *Loyder*, generally supposed to have been derived from *Leod*, which signifies, a people or nation, and might be applied to this place, from its having been populous in the time of the Saxons. Others, however, suppose the name Leeds to have been originally derived from the British word, *Llwydd*, a pleasant situation.

This town is distant from London, 181 miles, and is governed, under a charter of king Charles the Second, by a mayor, twelve aldermen, and twenty-four assistants: it is one of the largest and most flourishing towns in the county, with two churches, one of which only, dedicated to St. Peter, is parochial; this is a venerable old pile, built of free stone, in the manner of a cathedral; and, on the inside, it is finely painted in fresco, by Parmentier. The other church, called St. John's, was built in 1634, at the charge of John Harrison, esq. a native of this town, who also endowed it with 80l. a year, and 10l. to keep it in repair; and, near it, erected a house for the minister. Here is a presbyterian meeting-house, which was erected in 1691, and is called, *The New Chapel*; it is the best meeting-house in the north of England. In this town and suburbs are several other meeting-houses; and here is a free-school, with a library, founded by Mr. Harrison, the founder of St. John's church, who also built an hospital here for the relief of the poor, and endowed it with 80l. a year, besides 10l. for a master to read prayers. In 1699, alderman Sykes, of this town, built a work-house of free-stone, where poor children are taught to mix wool, and perform other easy parts of that manufacture; and part of the same building has been used for many years as an hospital for aged poor. Here are, likewise, three alms-houses, built by Mr. Lancelot Iveson, who was mayor of the town, in 1695, and two charity-schools of blue-coat boys, to the number of an hundred.

This town has a market-cross, erected at the charge of Mr. Harrison, already mentioned; a guild-hall, with a marble statue of queen Anne; a magnificent hall for the sale of white cloth, and a house, called *Red-hall*, because it was the first brick building in the town, erected by Mr. Metcalf, an alderman of Leeds, in which king Charles the First had an

apartment, still known by the name of the King's Chamber. Here is also a good stone bridge over the river Aire.

Leeds has been long famous for the woollen manufacture, which its merchants, and those of York and Hull, ship off for Holland, Hamburgh, and the north; and here is a long street full of shops or standings for the market. After ringing the market-bell, about six or seven o'clock in the morning, the chapmen repair to the mart, match their patterns, and treat for the cloth, of which 20,000*l.* worth is frequently bought up in an hour's time: at half an hour after eight o'clock, the bell rings a second time; upon which, the clothiers and their chapmen retire with their tressels, and make room for the lincndrapers, hard-ware-men, shoe-makers, fruiterers, and other traders: at the same time, the shambles are well provided with all sorts of fish and flesh, and 500 horse loads of apples have been bought up here in a day. This place trades not only in these commodities to York, Hull, and Wakefield, by the river Aire, but furnishes the city of York with coals.

This place is also famous for some medicinal springs, one of which, called St. Peter's Well, is remarkably cold, and has proved very beneficial in rheumatisms, rickets, and some other complaints; and another, called Eyebright-well, has been found useful in disorders of the eyes.

Sheffield stands upon the borders of Derbyshire, at the distance of 140 miles from London, and is the chief town of a district, called Hallamshire, containing about 600 cutlers, incorporated by the stile of The Cutlers of Hallamshire, who, it is computed, employ no less than 40,000 men in the iron manufactures, particularly files and knives, for which this place has been famous many hundred years. It is a large, thriving, and populous town; but the streets are narrow, and the houses are black, occasioned by the perpetual smoke of the forges.

Here is a church, which was built in the reign of king Henry the First; and, upon a petition of the inhabitants to queen Mary, representing that the parish was too large and populous for the vicar to serve it, without assistants, she incorporated twelve of the principal inhabitants, and their successors for ever, by the stile of The Twelve Capital Burgessees of Sheffield, empowering them to elect three priests to assist the vicar; and, for that purpose, endowed them with certain lands and rents belonging to the crown. A chapel was built here lately and consecrated by the name of St. Paul; and there are two chapels, one at Attercliffe, and the other at Ecclesale, two hamlets in this parish. King James the First founded a gram-
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mar school here, and appointed thirteen school-burgesſies to manage the revenue, and nominate the maſter and uſher. Here are two charity ſchools, one for thirty boys, and the other for thirty girls; and in 1673, an hoſpital was erected in this town, and endowed with 200l. per annum, by Gilbert Talbot, earl of Shrewsbury; and another earl of Shrewsbury, great-grand-father to earl Gilbert, left 200l. a year, for ever, to the poor of the pariſh.

The lord of the manor has a priſon here, and holds a court every three weeks. This town has a fine ſtone-bridge over the river Don; and, in the neighbourhood, are ſome mines of alum.

Curioſities.] One of the moſt remarkable curioſities of this county, is a ſpring, at a village called Gigleſwick, about half a mile from Settle, which frequently ebbs and flows three times in an hour, when the water ſinks and riſes two feet.

About a mile eaſt of Beverley is a ſpaw, which is ſaid to be of great ſervice in the cure of ſcorbutic and other cutaneous diſorders.

In York Would, after very rainy ſeaſons, water frequently gulleth out of the earth, and riſes to a conſiderable height. Theſe jets the inhabitants of the county call viſpies, or gipſies, and believe them to be the forerunner of a famine, or ſome other public calamity. To account for theſe phænomena, it is ſuppoſed that the rain-water, being received and collected in large baſons or caverns of the hills in this mountainous tract, finds a vent below, towards the bottom of the hills, but that this vent not being large enough for the water to iſſue as faſt as it gathers above, it is forced up into jets or ſpouts, upon the principle of artificial fountains; and after ſprings and ſummers ſo wet as to produce theſe ſpouts, a ſcarcity of corn has frequently happened throughout the kingdom; ſo that the notion of theſe ſpouts being prognosſtics of famine, is better founded than many others of the ſame kind.

Near Sheffield is a park, where, in the laſt century, an oak tree was cut down, which had 10,000 feet of board in it; and, in the ſame park, another oak was felled, the trunk of which was ſo large, that two men on horſeback, one on each ſide of it, as it lay along upon the ground, could not ſee the crowns of each others hats.

In a village called Cuckhold's Haven, not far from Sandbeck, near Tickhill, there now grows, or very lately did grow, a yew tree, the ſtem of which is ſtraight and ſmooth, to the height of about ten feet; the branches riſe one above another, in circles of ſuch exact dimensions, that they appear

to be the effect of art. The shoots of each year are exactly conformable one to another; and so thick, that the birds can scarce find any entrance. Its colour is remarkably bright and vivid, which, together with its uncommon figure, gives it at some distance the appearance of a fine artificial tuft of green velvet.

The top of the high cliff, south of the town of Scarborough, at the bottom of which is the Scarborough spaw, was fifty-four yards above high-water mark, till the 29th of December, 1737, when a part of the cliff, containing above an acre of pasture land, sunk, by degrees, for several hours, with cattle feeding on it, and, at length, settled about seventeen yards below its former perpendicular height. By the pressure of such an immense weight, computed at no less than 561,360 tons, the sandy ground beyond the cliff, towards the sea, where the wells were, rose for about one hundred yards in length, twenty feet above its former level; the spaw, and the buildings around it, being on the ground that was thus elevated, the water entirely failed; but, upon a diligent search, the spaw was again recovered; and the water, upon trial, seemed rather to be more efficacious than before.

On the tops of some of the vast mountains near Richmond, are found great quantities of stones, like cockle shells, some of which are buried in the middle of firm rocks, and others in beds of lime-stone, at six or eight fathoms under ground. Some call them run lime-stones, and suppose them to be produced by a more than ordinary heat, and a quicker fermentation, than they allow to the formation of the other parts of the quarry.

Near Whitby are found the cornua ammonis, or serpent-stones, as they are commonly called, from their spiral figure.

A remarkable instance of longevity was one Henry Jenkins, a native of the North Riding of this county, who died in 1670, at the age of 169 years. As there were no registers old enough to prove the time of his birth, it was gathered from the following circumstances. He remembered the battle of Flodden-Field, fought between the English and Scots, in 1513, when he was twelve years old; several men in his neighbourhood, about one hundred years of age, agreed, that from their earliest remembrance, he had been an old man; and at York assizes he was admitted to swear to 140 years memory. He frequently swam rivers after he was an hundred years old; and he retained his sight and hearing to his death. He had been a fisherman an hundred years, but towards the latter end of his days he begged. A monument was erected to his memory, by subscription,

subscription, at Bolton, on the river Swale, in 1743, on which is an inscription, purporting that he was 169 years old, and was interred there on the 6th of December, 1670.

Antiquities.] In the church of Doncaster is a tomb-stone, with this remarkable inscription :

Howe. Howe. Who is heare? I Robin of Doncastere, and Margaret my feare; that I spent that I had, that I gave that I have, that I left that I lost. A. D. 1579. Quoth Robertus Byrkes, who in this world did reign threescore years and seven, and yet lived not one.

In digging large canals in the last century, for draining the marsh land near Thorn, which before that time was a moorish and fenny tract of country, were found gates, ladders, hammers, shoes, and other such things, together with the entire body of a man, at the bottom of a turf-pit, about four yards deep; his hair and nails not decayed. Here were also found several Roman coins; and from these circumstances, and the subterraneous wood found here, it is conjectured that this, and other such places, were anciently forests, in which the Britons had taken refuge, and which were, therefore, cut down and burnt by the Romans.

At Kirklees, about three miles from Hutherfield, is a funeral monument of the famous outlaw, Robinhood, who lived in the reign of king Richard the First, with the following inscription.

Here undernead dis laid stean,
Lais Robert, earl of Huntingtun,
Nea arier az hie sa geud,
An pipl kauld im Robin Heud.
Sick utlawz hi an is men
Vil England niver si agen.

Obiit 24 Kal. Decembris, 1247.

Various particulars.] Yorkshire sends thirty members to parliament: viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgessees for each of the following boroughs: York, Kingston upon Hull, Knaresborough, Scarborough, Rippon, Richmond, Heydon, Borough-bridge, Malton, Thirsk, Aldborough, Beverley, Northallerton, and Pontefract.—It lies in the diocese of York, (except Richmondshire, in the North-Riding, which belongs to the diocese of Chester) and in the northern district. There are in it 242 vicarages, 563 parishes, and about 2,330 villages. It is divided into twenty-three wapontakes, containing near 106,150 houses, and about 530,750 inhabitants. The area of this large county is computed to contain 3,779,000 acres.

W A L E S.

A N G L E S E A.

Name.] **A** N G L E S E A, or Anglesey, takes its name from the old English words, *Engles ea*, and *Anglesey*, The English Island; and was so called upon its being reduced under the power of the English in the reign of Edward I.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of this island is reckoned healthy, except in autumn, when it is frequently foggy, and apt to produce agues, and other disorders that arise from a cold vapid air. The soil, though it appears rough, being stony and mountainous, is so fruitful in corn and cattle, that the Welch in their language call it *Mam Gymry*, the Mother or Nurse of Wales. This island abounds with fish and fowl, and in several parts of it are found great plenty of excellent millstones and grindstones.

Manufactures.] It does not appear that this island has any manufacture.

Antiquities.] This island was known to the Romans by the name *Mona*, from the British name *Mon*, and *Tir Mon*, or the Land of *Mon*; but whence the name *Mon* was derived does not appear. The ancient Britons called it also *Ynys Dowlh*, or the Shady Island, from its having been anciently covered with woods and forests; and by the Saxons it was called *Monecz*, from the British name *Mon*.

The island of Anglesea was celebrated in the time of the ancient Britons, for having been more particularly the seat of the Druids. The first attempt made by the Romans to bring it under their subjection, was in the reign of the emperor Nero, when Suetonius Paulinus, the Roman general, invaded it; but being obliged to return to the eastern parts of Britain, before he could reduce it; to quell the *Iceni*, who had taken up arms against the Romans, he left *Julius Agricola* to command in Anglesea, who subdued it after a bloody and obstinate engagement with the natives, who were animated by the presence of their Druids, and their wives and daughters, who incessantly called upon them to maintain their ancient liberties against the tyranny of their invaders.

Some have asserted, that after the Romans had withdrawn their legions out of Britain, this island was inhabited by the Irish, some places and monuments here being still called by Irish names; but there are no records of any authority that
mention

mention the reduction of this island by the Irish, or their settling in it.

Not far from the city of Bangor in Caernarvonshire, is Gaer, where it is thought the Romans passed the Menen into the island of Anglesea, the horse at a ford, and the foot in flat-bottomed boats, as mentioned by Tacitus. Opposite to this supposed passage, on the north-side of Newburgh, is Gwydryn hill, remarkable for two lofty summits, on one of which are the ruins of an ancient fort, supposed to have been built by the Romans. On the other summit is a very deep pit in the rock, about twenty-seven feet in circumference, and filled with fine sand.

Near Gwydryn-hill is a village called Tre'r Druw, which signifies the Druids town, and which, in all probability, was the chief residence of the British Druids belonging to this island. South of Tre'r Druw, and on the east side of Newburgh, is a village called Tre'r Beirdd, which signifies the Bards Town. And between Tre'r Druw and Tre'r Beirdd, is a square fortification, generally believed to be a Roman camp, and the first camp which the Romans formed after their arrival in Anglesea. What renders this conjecture the more probable, are the traces of a round British fortification over against it.

On the west side of the Roman camp are twelve stones, each of which are about twelve feet high and near eight in breadth. These stones are supposed to have been set up as sepulchral monuments of some of the most eminent Druids, or of some other ancient Britons, who died here fighting for their liberties against the Romans.

In this island there are several monuments, each of which is called Cromlech, and consists of three, four, or more rude stones, pitched upon one end, and serving for pillars or supporters to a vast stone of several tons weight, laid over them transversely, like those mentioned among the antiquities of Cornwall.

These are generally believed to be sepulchral monuments, though some have supposed them to be federal testimonies. And at Bod-Owyr, north of the British camp already mentioned, is a remarkable Cromlech, more elegant than any of the rest, and neatly wrought.

Various particulars.] Anglesea sends two members to parliament: viz. one knight for the shire, and one burgher for Beaumaris. It lies in the diocese of Bangor, and has seventy-four parishes. It is divided into six hundreds, containing about 1,840 houses, and 12,040 inhabitants. The area of it is computed to be about 200,000 acres.

BRECKNOCKSHIRE.

Name.] **T**HE name Brecknockshire is formed from the Welch name Brycheinog, which is supposed to have been derived from Brechanius, an ancient British prince of this county, famous for having four and twenty daughters, who after their death were all reputed saints.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of this county is remarkably mild every where, except on the hills, which is attributed to its being surrounded with high mountains. The soil, particularly on the hills, is very stony; but as abundance of small rivers issue from the mountains, the valleys which receive these streams are very fruitful both in corn and pasture. Brecknockshire produces not only black cattle, goats, and deer, but great abundance of fowl and fresh-water fish; and on the east side of the town of Brecknock, is a lake about two miles long, and nearly as broad, called Brecknock Mere, which abounds with otters, and such quantities of perch, tench, and eel, that it is commonly said to be two thirds water, and one third fish.

Manufactures.] The principal manufactures of this county are cloth and stockings.

Antiquities.] On the top of a mountain near Lhan Hammwlch, a village not far from Brecknock, is an ancient monument, called Ty Ihtud, or St. Itud's Hermitage. It consists of four large flat and unpolished stones, three of which are pitched in the ground, and the fourth laid on the top for a cover: they form an oblong square cell, open at one end, about eight foot long, four wide, and four high: on the inside it is inscribed with crosses and other figures; and is supposed to have been surrounded by a circle of large stones, and erected in the times of paganism.

Various particulars.] This county sends two members to parliament: viz. one knight for the shire, and one burges for Brecknock. It is in the diocese of Landaff and contains sixty-one parishes. The division of it is into six hundreds, containing about 5,900 houses, and 35,300 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 620,000 acres.

C A E R-

CAERMARTHENSHERE.

Name.] **T**HE name of this county is derived from Caermarthen, Carmarthen, or Caermardhin, the name of the county town.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of this county is reckoned more mild and healthy than that of the neighbouring counties; and the soil, not being so mountainous and rocky as that of other counties in Wales, is more fruitful in corn and grass. This county is pretty well clothed with wood; feeds vast numbers of good cattle; abounds with fowl and fish, particularly salmon, for which the rivers here are famous; and contains many mines of pit-coal.

Curiosities.] The only natural curiosity in this county is a fountain or spring at Kastleh Karreg, east of Caermarthen, which constantly ebbs and flows twice every twenty-four hours.

Merlin, the famous British prophet or soothsayer, was born at Caermarthen in this county, towards the end of the fifth century. He is said to have been a person of extraordinary learning for the age in which he lived; and it is thought that he obtained the reputation of a conjurer by his knowledge in the mathematics. About a mile east of Caermarthen is a hill covered with wood, called Merlin's Grove; to which it is said the prophet often retired, the better to pursue his studies without interruption. He is reported to have been buried at Drumelzer, in the shire of Peebles in Scotland.

Antiquities.] Under the Romans, Caermarthenshire, Cardiganshire, and Pembrokehire, were inhabited by a tribe of Britons called by Ptolemy the Dimetæ and Demetæ. Pliny has allotted this district to the Silures; but in this he was mistaken, as appears by later writers, who have constantly called these three counties by the name of Dimetia, which is supposed to have been a variation of the British name Dyved, used at this day for these counties, by a practice common with the Romans of changing the V into M in latinizing British names; yet some have supposed that the name Demetæ was derived from the British words Deheu-meath, which it is pretended signify the Southern Plain.

The river Towy is the Tobius of Ptolemy, and Caermarthen his Maridunum: Maridunum is evidently derived from the British Kaer Vyrddin, by a change of the V into M. Antoninus, who terminates his Itinerary at this place, calls it Muridunum.

At Kastelh Karreg are still visible the ruins of a large fort; and here are likewise vast caverns, supposed to have been copper mines wrought by the Romans.

At a place called Pant y Polion, near Kastelh Karreg, were found two sepulchral stone monuments of the Romans, one of which had an inscription which is read as follows: *SERVATOR FIDEI, PATRIÆQUE SEMPER AMATOR. HIC PAVLINVS JACET CVLTOR PIENTISSIMVS ÆQVI.* It is supposed that the name Pant y Polion is derived from Paulinus to whose memory this monument was erected. The other monument had an inscription also, but it is very imperfect and more modern.

Near Llan Newydh, not far from Caermarthen, is erected a rude stone pillar about six feet high, and a foot and an half broad, with this inscription in a barbarous character:----*SEVERINI FILII SEVERI.* And in other parts of this county are three or four more such stone pillars, with Roman inscriptions in like characters.

At Kilmaen Lhwyd, west of Caermarthen, about the beginning of the last century, was discovered a considerable quantity of Roman coins of base silver, and of all the Roman emperors from the time of Commodus, who first debased the Roman silver, to the fifth tribuneship of Gordian the Third, anno Domini 243: and at a place called Bronyskawen, in the parish of Lhan Boydy, not far from Kilmaen Lhwyd, is a large camp called y Gaer, in the entrance of which, in the year 1692, were discovered two very rude leaden boxes, buried very near the surface of the ground, containing 200 Roman coins, all of silver, and some of the most ancient found in Britain.

The camp in which these coins were found, is of an oval form, and upwards of 300 paces in circumference: the entrance is four yards wide, and near it the bank or rampart is about three yards high, but elsewhere it is generally much lower. On each side of the camp is a barrow or tumulus, one near it, and the other; which is much bigger, at the distance of 300 yards.

Newcastle in Emlin, situated north-west of Caermarthen, upon the south bank of the Teivy, is by some supposed to have been the Loventium of the Dimetæ mentioned by Ptolemy.

Near the east end of Llanidoverly church, Roman bricks, and other remains of Roman antiquity, have been dug up; and there is a fine Roman way from this church to Lhan Brân, which lies some miles north of Llanidoverly.

Near

Near Tre'lech, north-west of Caermarthen, is a remarkable barrow called Krig y Dyrn, supposed to signify the king's barrow. It consists of a heap of stones covered with turf about eighteen feet high, and 150 feet in circumference: it rises with an easy ascent, and is hollow on the top, gently inclining from the circumference to the center, where is a rude flat stone of an oval form, about nine feet long, five feet broad, and a foot thick, covering a kind of stone chest, consisting of six more stones. This barrow is supposed to have been the burying place of some British prince of very great antiquity.

Gwâl y Vilaſt, or Bwrth Arthur, near Lhan Boydy, is a monument consisting of a rude stone, about thirty feet in circumference, and three feet thick, supported by four pillars about two feet high.

On a mountain near Kilmaen Lhwyd, is a circular stone monument, call Buarth Arthur, or Meineu Gwyr, like that of Rollrich in Oxfordshire. It does not appear from the name Buarth Arthur, that this monument has any relation to the famous British king of that name, any more than many other monuments in Wales have, which are named after prince Arthur, only by an ignorant credulity of the vulgar, who attribute to that hero whatever object of antiquity is great or extraordinary throughout the country; thus they call several stones, each of which are many tons in weight, his coits; some they call his tables, some his chairs, and so of others.

Various particulars.] This county sends two members to parliament: viz. one knight for the shire, and one burges for Caermarthen. It lies in the diocese of St. David's, and contains eighty-seven parishes. Its division is into six hundreds, in which are about 5,350 houses, and near 17,000 inhabitants. The area of it is computed to contain about 700,000 acres.

CAERNARVONSHIRE.

Name.] **T**HE name of this county is derived from Caernarvon, the county town.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of Caernarvonshire is rendered cold and piercing, not only by the great number of lakes, but by the very high mountains, which, towards the middle of the county, swell one above another,

so as to have acquired the name of the British Alps. The tops of many of these mountains are eight or nine months in the year covered with snow, and on some of them the snow is perpetual, whence they are called Snowdon Hills; and upon these hills it frequently snows, while it only rains in the vallies.

The extremities of the county, particularly those bordering on the sea, are nevertheless as fruitful and populous as any part of North Wales: they yield great plenty of fine barley, and feed vast herds of cattle and sheep: between the hills are also many pleasant and fruitful vallies, the beauty of which is much heightened by the dreary wastes that surround them: great flocks of sheep and goats feed also upon the mountains. This county yields abundance of wood, the lakes and rivers produce plenty of fresh-water fish, and the coast is well supplied with sea fish of all sorts. The river Conway is famous for a large black muscle, in which are frequently found pearls as large and of as good a colour as any in Britain or Ireland.

Curiosities.] The principal curiosities of this county are its vast mountains, rocks and precipices. Klogwyn Karnedh y Wydha, a mountain east of Caernarvon, is by some reckoned the highest in all the British dominions, being the summit of a cluster of very lofty mountains, the tops of which rise one above another: from this spot may be seen part of England, Scotland, Ireland, and the Isle of Man.

Pen maen mawr, near Aberconway, is a vast mountain, or rock, that rises perpendicular over the sea to an astonishing height. About the middle of the rock, and on that side of it next the sea, there is a road, seven feet wide, for passengers, at the perpendicular height of 240 feet above the level of the sea, and as many feet below the top of the rock: and on the side of the road next the sea there is a wall breast-high, which was built not many years ago, to the building of which the city of Dublin in Ireland greatly contributed. On the other side of the hill there is a narrow foot-way, over which the top of the rock projects, so as to form a very extraordinary and frightful appearance to the traveller below.

Glyder is another very high mountain, on the sea-side, not far from Pen maen mawr, and is remarkable for a prodigious heap of stones, of an irregular shape, on its summit, many of which are as large as those of Stonehenge. They lie in such confusion as to resemble the ruins of a building, some of them reclining, and some lying cross one another; a phenomenon which has never yet been perfectly accounted for.

On the west side of this mountain there is, among many others, one very steep and naked precipice, adorned with a vast number of equidistant pillars; the interstices between which are supposed to have been the effects of a continual dropping of water down the cliff, which is exposed to a westerly sea wind: but why the water should have dropped at these regular distances, before the hollows were formed, we are not told: possibly the whole mass of the rock may consist of vast bodies of stone, with fabulous or earthly matter between them; and if so, the rain may have washed away the sand or earth from between the stony and solid parts of the mass on the top and the sides, and so formed the appearance of ruins above, and of pillars below, which may be considered as skeletons of these parts of the mountain.

In a lake in this county, called Lhyn y kwn, near the lake of Llyn Peris, it is pretended that a kind of trout is frequently found that has but one eye.

At Aberconway is a tomb-stone with the following very extraordinary inscription. “ Here lieth the body of Nicholas
“ Hookes of Conway, gent. who was the one and fortieth
“ child of his father, William Hookes, Esq. by Alice his
“ wife, and the father of seven and twenty children. He
“ died the 20th day of March, 1637.”

About a mile from this fortification is a hill, on the top of which stands the most remarkable monument in all this county. It is called Y Meineu hirion, and consists of a circular entrenchment, about 80 feet diameter, on the outside of which are still standing twelve rough stone pillars, from five to six feet high: these are again inclosed by a stone wall; and near the wall, on the outside, are three other such rough pillars, ranged in a triangular form. This work is supposed to have been an ancient British temple: and near it are several monuments, consisting of vast heaps of stones, which, according to tradition, are sepulchral monuments of ancient Britons, who fell in a battle fought here against the Romans.

Various particulars.] This county sends two members to parliament: viz. one knight for the shire, and one burges for Caernarvon. It lies in the diocese of Bangor, and consists of sixty-eight parishes. Its division is into ten hundreds, containing about 2,769 houses, and upwards of 16,000 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 370,000 acres.

C A R D I G A N S H I R E .

Name. **T**HIS county is named from Cardigan, the county town.

Air, soil, and natural Productions.] The air of this county varies with the soil ; for the southern and western parts being more a champaign country than the greatest part of the principality, the air is mild and pleasant, and the soil very fruitful ; but the northern and eastern parts being one continued ridge of mountains, are comparatively barren and bleak ; yet in the worst parts of the shire there is pasture for vast herds of cattle and flocks of sheep, and this county is so full of cattle, that it has been called the nursery of cattle for all England south of Trent. It abounds in river and sea fish of all kinds, and the Teivy is famous for great plenty of excellent salmon. Coals and other fuel are scarce ; but in the north parts of the county, particularly about Aberistwyth, are several rich lead mines, the ore of which appears often above ground. These mines were discovered in 1690, and some of them yield silver.

Manufactures.] This county does not appear to have any manufacture.

Curiosities.] The only natural curiosity mentioned in the accounts of Cardiganshire, is the horn of an ox, which is preserved in the church of Lhan Dhewi Brevi, not far from Tregaron. It is called Matkorn yr ych bannog, or Matkorn ych Dewi, which signifies the interior horn of an ox, and is about a foot and an half in circumference at the root : it is as heavy as if it were stone, and is said to have been kept in this church ever since the time of St. David, who lived in the beginning of the sixth century.

Variouſ particulars.] This county sends two members to parliament : viz. one knight for the shire, and one burgesſ for Cardigan. It lies in the diocese of St. David's, and contains seventy-seven parishes. Its division is into five hundreds, in which are reckon'd about 3160 houses, and near 35,000 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 520,000 acres.

DENBIGHSHIRE.

Name.] **D**ENBIGHSHIRE takes its name from Denbigh, the county town.

Air and soil.] The air of this county is reckoned very healthy, but it is rendered sharp and piercing by a vast chain of mountains, which almost surrounds the county, and the top of which is for the much greater part of the year covered with snow. The soil is various, and almost in the extremes of good and bad: the west part is healthy, barren, and but thinly inhabited, except the sea-coast and the bank of the Conway: the hills upon the eastern borders of the county look, at a certain distance, like the battlements or turrets of castles: and this part is as barren as the west, except where it borders the river Dee: but the middle part of the county, consisting of a flat country, seventeen miles long from north to south, and about five miles broad, is one of the most delightful spots in Europe: it is extremely fruitful, and well inhabited: it is surrounded by high hills, except upon the north; where it lies open to the sea, and is called the Vale of Clwyd, from its being watered by the river of that name. The inhabitants of this county in general are long lived; but those of the Vale of Clwyd are remarkable for their vivacity.

Natural productions.] The hills and heaths of Denbighshire feed vast numbers of goats and sheep, and being manured with turf-ashes, they produce plenty of rye: the valleys abound with black cattle and corn, and the county abounds with fish and fowl, and contains several lead mines, that yield plenty of ore, particularly about Wrexham, a market-town.

Manufactures.] There is a considerable manufactory of gloves at Denbigh, and another of flannels at Wrexham.

Antiquities.] Amongst the hills south-west of Ruthin is a place called Kerig y Drudion, the Druid Stones; and here are still to be seen two stone monuments, supposed to have been erected by the ancient Druids: they are called by the Welch Kistieu Maen, or Stone Chests; and one of them is distinguished from the other by the name of Karchar Kynrik Rwth, or Kynrik Rowth's Prison. They stand north and south, at the distance of a furlong one from another; they are in the form of a chest, and consist each of seven stones; of these stones, four, which compose the top, bottom, and two sides, are above six feet long, and three broad; a fifth stone forms the south end of the chest; and the north

end is the entrance, secured by a sixth stone, which formed the door, and was upon occasion removed; this door-stone was clasped or fastened by a seventh stone of a vast weight, which was laid over the top stone, and, when the door was to be fastened, was removed towards the north end. Though these stone chests have given the name of Druid Stones to the place where they are found, and though one of them is also called Kynrik Rwth's Prison, yet it is not probable that they were intended for prisons by the Druids, who constructed them. Kynrik Rwth was a petty tyrant in this neighbourhood, of much later times than the Druids; and he thought fit to shut up some person that offended him in one of these cells, which gave occasion to call it his prison; but for what use they were first intended is not conjectured.

In some places in this county, several stone pillars have been found inscribed with strange letters, which some believe to be the characters which were used by the Druids. At Clocainnog, near Ruthin, a tomb-stone has been found, with a Roman epitaph. The spot where this stone was found, is called Bryn y Bedheu, or The Hill of Graves; and near it is an artificial hill, or tumulus, called Krig Vryn, Barrow-hill.

Various particulars.] Denbighshire sends two members to parliament: viz. one knight for the shire, and one burges for the borough of Denbigh. It lies partly in the diocese of St. Asaph, except the greatest part of the vale of Clwyd, which is in the diocese of Bangor, and contains fifty-seven parishes. Its division is into twelve hundreds, in which are reckoned about 6,400 houses, and 38,000 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed to contain about 410,000 acres.

F L I N T S H I R E.

Name.] **T**HIS county derives its name from Flint, the county town.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of this county is cold, but healthy, as appears from the long lives of many of the inhabitants. The soil, as it is not so mountainous as in most of the other counties of Wales, is more fruitful, yielding some wheat and great plenty of rye, oats, and barley; the vallies afford pasture for black cattle, which, though very small, are excellent beef: great quantities of butter and cheese are made in this county, which also produces much honey, from which a liquor is made that is called metheglin, frequently

frequently drank in this and some other counties in Wales. Flintshire abounds with all sorts of fish and fowl, but has little or no wood; it has however great plenty of pit coal, and the mountains of this county yield mill-stones and lead ore in great abundance.

Manufactures.] This county has no manufacture.

Antiquities.] At Holywell, near Caerwys, is a spring, from which the village took its name, and which, were we to believe the popish legends, rose miraculously in memory of St. Winifrid, a Christian virgin, ravished and beheaded in this place by a pagan tyrant. The spring is commonly called St. Winifrid's Well, to which many miraculous cures have been ascribed by monkish writers. It issues out of a rock of free-stone, where the monks of Basingwerk, in the neighbourhood, cut out a neat chapel, and over the well built a small church, with St. Winifrid's story and her pretended restoration to life by St. Beuno, painted on the glass windows of the chancel; but this church falling into decay, it was rebuilt in the time of Henry the Seventh, and is still standing. It is supported upon stone pillars, which surround the well, and is now converted to a school: the well is floored with stone, and the water of it issues out with such a rapid stream, as to turn several mills at a very small distance from the fountain. From the rapidity of this stream, some have conjectured it to be a subterranean rivulet which bursts out here; and from a muddy and bluish appearance of the water, that it runs through a mine of lead or tobacco-pipe-clay, though others are of opinion, that it runs through an iron mine.

Various particulars.] Flintshire sends two members to parliament: viz. one knight for the shire, and one burghers for the borough of Flint. The greatest part of this county lies in the diocese of St. Asaph; the rest belongs to that of Chester, and contains twenty-eight parishes. It is divided into five hundreds, in which are reckoned about 5000 houses, and 32,000 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed at 160,000 acres.

GLAMORGANSHIRE.

Name.] **T**HE name of this county is a contraction or variation of the Welch names Gwlad Morgan, Morganwg, or Vorganwg, the county of Morgan, Morganwg, or Vorganwgan; and it is supposed to have been thus called

from a prince or abbat of the name of Morgan, though some writers derive the name from the British word Mor, the sea, this being a maritime county, washed on the south side by the Severn Sea.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] In the north part of this county, which is mountainous, the air is cold and piercing; but on the south side, towards the sea, which is more level, it is mild and pleasant: the soil, on the north side, is for the greatest part barren, but between the mountains there are some fruitful vallies, which afford very good pasture; for the level part, being more capable of cultivation, produces large crops of corn and remarkably sweet grass; and the county in general abounds with sheep and other cattle, butter and fish. The south part is so fruitful, pleasant, and populous, that it is often called the garden of Wales: the mountains yield coals and lead ore.

Curiosities.] Among the curiosities of this county is a promontory near Penrife, which is the most westerly point of Glamorganshire, and is called Warmhead-point: it stretches about a mile into the sea; and, at half flood, the isthmus, which joins it to the mainland, is overflowed so, that it becomes then a small island. Towards the extremity of this point, there is a small cleft or crevice in the ground, into which if dust or sand be thrown, it will be blown back again into the air; and if a person applies his ear to the crevice, he will hear distinctly a deep noise like that of a large pair of bellows. These phœnomena are attributed to the undulatory motion of the sea under the arched and rocky hollow of this promontory, which occasions an alternate inspiration and expiration of the air through the cleft.

At Newton, on the sea-side, north-west of the mouth of the Ogmor, is a spring about eighteen feet in circumference, the water of which at high tides sinks nearly to the bottom, but when the sea ebbs it rises almost to the brim. To account for this phœnomenon, it is supposed that at full sea the air in the veins of the spring not being at liberty to circulate, is deprived of its usual vent, which prevents the water from springing out; but that the sea retiring from the shore, and these veins or natural aqueducts, being freed from such obstructions, the water is permitted to issue through them.

At Caerphilly, north of Llandaff, is a ruinous castle, thought to be the noblest remains of ancient architecture in all Britain. It stands in a moorish bottom, near the river Rhymny, and has been larger than any castle in England, except that of Windsor. It is thought to have been originally

nally a work of the Romans, though the ruins plainly show that it has been at least rebuilt since their time. Some think that this place was the Bullæum Silurum of the Romans, which the ancient Britons might call Kaer Vwl, and which being afterwards corrupted first into Kaer Vyl, and then from the genitive case Bullæi of the Roman name, into Kaer Vily, might by an easy variation make Caerphilly, the present name. It must however be observed, that there is no other reason but the magnificence of the structure, for believing it to have been a Roman work, for no remains of Roman antiquity have been discovered here.

Amidst the many stupendous pieces which compose this vast pile of ruins, is a large tower towards the east end, between seventy and eighty feet high, with a vast fissure from the top almost to the middle, by which the tower is divided into two separate leaning parts, so that each side hangs over its base in such a manner, that it is difficult to say which is most likely to fall first. Its lineal projection at the top, on the outer side, is found to be no less than ten feet and an half: and what renders it still more remarkable is, that it has continued to recline from the perpendicular in this manner for many ages past; nor does it appear from history or tradition how or when this rent first happened.

The hall, or, as some think it, the chapel of this castle, is about seventy feet long, thirty-four feet broad, and seventeen feet high. On the south side there is an ascent to this room by a direct stair-case, about eight feet wide, the roof of which is vaulted and supported by twenty arches, which rise gradually one above another. Opposite the stair-case, on the north side of the room, there is a chimney about ten feet wide, and on each side of the chimney are two windows like church windows; the sides of these windows are adorned with sculptures of leaves and fruit. In the walls, on each side of the room, are seven triangular pillars, placed at equal distances: from the floor to the bottom of the pillars, the height is about twelve feet, and each pillar is supported by three busts, which vary alternately from old to young, and from men to women.

Various particulars.] Glamorganshire sends two members to parliament: viz. one knight for the shire, and one burges for Cardiff. It lies in the diocese of Landaff, and reckons 118 parishes. The division of it is into ten hundreds, in which are contained between 9 and 10,000 houses, and near 58,000 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed to contain about 540,000 acres.

M E R I O N Y T H S H I R E.

Name.] **M**ERIONYTHSHIRE, Meryonythshire, or Merionydhshire, is so called by a small variation of the Welch name *Sîr Veirionydh*, the etymology of which is unknown.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] This being a rocky mountainous country, the air is cold and bleak; it is also reckoned unhealthy, because mixed with the vapours that rise from the Irish sea, which might be still more noxious, if the sharp winds, which almost continually blow here, did not prevent them from stagnating.

The soil is rocky and mountainous, and perhaps the worst in Wales; it yields but very little corn, and the inhabitants live chiefly on butter, cheese, and other preparations of milk, and yet they are stout and handsome, but reckoned idle and incontinent: they apply themselves almost wholly to grazing of cattle, for which the vallies in this county afford excellent pasture. The number of sheep that feed upon the mountains is incredible; and it is said that Merionythshire feeds more sheep than all the rest of Wales. This county is also well provided with deer, goats, fowl, and all sorts of fish, particularly herrings, which are taken on the coast in great abundance.

Curiosities.] In the year 1694, the country about Harlech was annoyed above eight months by a strange fiery exhalation; it was seen only in the night, and consisted of a livid vapour, which arose from the sea, or seemed to come from Caernarvonshire, cross a bay of the sea eight or nine miles broad, on the west side of Harlech. It spread from this bay over the land, and set fire to all the barns, stacks of hay and corn, in its way: it also so infected the air, and blasted the grass and herbage, that a great mortality of cattle, sheep and horses ensued. It proceeded constantly to and from the same place, in stormy as well as in calm nights, but more frequently in the winter than in the following summer. It never fired any thing but in the night; and the flames, which were weak, and of a blue colour, did no injury to the inhabitants, who frequently rushed into the middle of them to save their hay or corn.

This vapour was at length extinguished by blowing horns, ringing bells, firing guns, or putting the air into motion by
various

various other ways, whenever it was seen to approach the shore.

Among the several conjectures which have been made concerning the cause of this surprising phænomenon, some have thought it proceeded from locusts, many of which are said to have been drowned in the bay, and to have died ashore, about two months before; but to this hypothesis it is objected, that no such effect was ever known as the consequence of a swarm of locusts perishing either at sea, or on shore, in places where they have been much more numerous. Something like this, both in appearance and effect, happened somewhere upon the coast of France, in the year 1734.

In some part of this county, there is a boggy moorish ground called Mownog y Stratgwyn, near Maes y Pandy, where turfs are cut for fuel; and in this place a wooden coffin was discovered about the year 1684, containing a skeleton of a very large size: the wood was gilt, and so well preserved, that part of the gilding remained very fresh. This is perhaps the only instance upon record of an interment in a moor of peat or turf; and yet the bituminous earth of which such moors consist, is known by experience to preserve wood better than any other; for trees are frequently found in it very sound, though they must have been buried in times that history has not reached.

Various particulars.] Meryonythshire sends but one member to parliament: viz. a knight for the shire. It lies in the diocese of Bangor, and contains thirty-seven parishes. The division of it is into six hundreds, in which are 2500 houses, and about 17,000 inhabitants. The area of this county is computed to contain 500,000 acres.

MONTGOMERYSHIRE.

Name.] **T**HIS county derives its name from Montgomery, the county town.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of this county is sharp and cold on the mountains, but healthy and pleasant in the vallies. The northern and western parts being mountainous, the soil is stony, and consequently sterile, except in the intermediate vallies, which yield corn, and abound in pasture; but the southern and eastern parts, consisting chiefly of a pleasant vale along the banks of the Severn, are exceeding fruitful. The breed of black cattle and horses here, is remarkably larger than that in the neighbouring Welch coun-

ties, and the horses of Montgomeryshire are much valued all over England. This county abounds also with fish and fowl; and here are some mines of lead and copper, particularly in the neighbourhood of Llanidlos, a market town.

Various particulars.] Montgomeryshire sends two members to parliament: viz. one knight for the shire, and one burges for the town of Montgomery. It lies in the three several dioceses of St. Asaph, Bangor, and Hereford. Under that of St. Asaph is contained Newtown, Welch-Pool, Llanvylhin, and Machynlhet; under that of Bangor, is Llanidlos; and under that of Hereford, is Montgomery. It hath forty-seven parishes, and is divided into seven hundreds, containing about 5,600 houses, and near 34,000 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed to contain about 560,000 acres.

P E M P R O K E S H I R E.

Name.] **P**EMBROKESHIRE takes its name from Pembroke, the county town.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of this county is more healthy than is common to places so much exposed to the sea. The soil is fertile; for here are but few mountains, and these lie chiefly in the north-east part of the county, and yield good pasture for cattle and sheep: towards the sea-coast, there is plenty of good corn and rich meadows. The county abounds with cattle, sheep, goats, and wild fowl of various kinds, some of which are seldom seen in any other part of Britain, and among which are the falcons, called peregrins, the puffins, and the Harry birds. It is well supplied with fish of all kinds; and among the rocks, upon some parts of this coast, is found that sort of sea-weed called laver, mentioned among the natural productions of Somersetshire. Great plenty of pit-coal is found here, and culm.

Curiosities.] Among the curiosities of this county is reckoned a vault, called the Wogan, under Pembroke Castle, remarkable for a very fine echo.

On a cliff which hangs over the sea, about half a mile from the city of St. David's, is a stone, so large, that it is supposed to exceed the draught of an hundred oxen: it is called by the Welch, Y Maen Sigl, or the Rocking Stone, from its having been mounted up about three feet high upon other stones, in such an equilibrium, that a slight touch would rock it from one side to the other; but the parliament soldiers,

soldiers, in the civil wars under Charles the First, regarding this stone as the object of a superstitious tradition, destroyed its equipoise, so that it is at present immoveable.

The sea sand in several parts on the coast of this county, having at different times been washed away, by a long continuation of violent stormy weather, discovered very large trees, some of which, having been felled, lay at full length, while the trunks of others stood upright in their native places. These trees lay so thick, and were in such quantities, that the shore for a considerable space appeared like a forest cut down. The marks of the ax were as plain in the trees, as if they had been but just felled, but the wood was become as hard and black as ebony. It appears therefore, that great part of the coast of this county was anciently a forest, upon which the sea broke in. One of the places in which such discoveries have been made, was about St. David's Head, in the reign of king Henry the Second; and another was upon the coast near Tenby, about the end of the reign of queen Elizabeth.

The rocks off St. David's Head, called the Bishop and his Clerks, are once or twice a-year the resort of great flights of several sorts of birds; among which are the eligug, razor-bill, puffin, and Harry-bird. They visit these rocks commonly about Christmas, and stay a week or more; and they return again in April, about the time of incubation, and leave the rocks before August. It is remarkable, that these birds constantly come to the rocks, and leave them, in the night; for in the evening, when they are about to depart, the rocks shall be covered with them, and in the morning not a bird to be seen; on the other hand, at the season when they return, not a bird shall appear in the evening, and the next morning the rocks shall be full of them. Some of these birds hatch their eggs upon the bare rocks, without any nest, and some hatch them in holes like rabbit holes.

Near Stackpoor Boshier, upon the sea-coast, not far from Pembroke, is a pool or pit of water, called Boshierston Meer, so deep, that it could never be founded; yet before a storm it is said to bubble, foam, and make a noise so loud as to be heard at the distance of ten miles. It is supposed to have a subterraneous communication with the sea.

At Killgarring is a steep cataract of the river Teivy, called the Salmon Leap, from the admirable dexterity of that fish in leaping over the cataract. When a salmon in its way up the river from the sea, arrives at this cataract, it forms itself into a curve, by bending its tail to its mouth; and sometimes,

in order to mount with the greater velocity, by holding its tail between its teeth, then disengaging itself suddenly, like an elastic spiral violently reflected, it springs over the precipice.

There are in this county several rude stone monuments, such as that described among the antiquities of Caermarthen-shire, under the name of *Meineu Gwyr*, and that in Glamorganshire, called *Karn Lhechart*; but the most remarkable monument of this kind in Pembrokeshire, is one called *y Gromlech*, near *Pentre Evan*, in the parish of *Nevern*: it consists of a circle of rough stones, pitched on one end, about 150 feet in circumference, in the middle of which is a large rude stone, about eighteen feet in length, nine in breadth, and three feet thick, supported on eight stone pillars, about eight high. A portion of this stone, about ten feet long and five broad, is broken off, and lies by the side of it, and under it the ground is neatly paved with flag stones.

Various particulars.] Pembrokeshire has the particular privilege of sending three members to parliament: viz. one knight for the shire, one burges for *Haverford-West*, and another for the town of *Pembroke*. It lies in the diocese of *St. David's*, and contains forty-five parishes. The division of it is into seven hundreds, in which are reckoned about 4,300 houses, and near 25,900 inhabitants. The area of the county is computed to contain about 420,000 acres.

R A D N O R S H I R E.

Name.] THIS county derives its name from *Radnor*, the county town.

Air, soil, and natural productions.] The air of this county is cold and piercing: the soil in general is but indifferent, the northern and western parts being so rocky and mountainous, that it is fit only to feed cattle and sheep. The eastern and southern parts of the county, are however well cultivated, and pretty fruitful in corn: the mountainous parts, are well provided with wood, and watered with rivulets, and some standing lakes; and the rivers afford plenty of salmon and other fish.

Curiosities.] At *Llandrindod*, in this county, is a mineral water, which is much resorted to by good company. The water of this place is of three sorts: rock-water, pump-water, and well-water. The rock-water is supposed good in all chronic diseases, from a lax fibre, in scorbutic eruptions,
in

in weak nerves, asthma, palsies, agues, nervous fevers, all disorders in women, and seminal weakneses in both sexes. The pump-water is said to be an excellent remedy for the scurvy, hypochondriac, melancholy, fevers, leprosy, and the gravel. The well-water is chiefly recommended for bathing in such disorders as tepid bathing is recommended for.

Various Particulars.] Radnorshire sends two members to parliament: viz. one knight for the shire, and one burges for the town of Radnor. It is in the diocese of Hereford, and contains fifty-two parishes. Its division is into six hundreds, into which are reckoned about 3150 houses, near 19,000 inhabitants. The area of this county is computed 310,000 acres.

The I S L E of M A N,

Name.] **T**HE present name of this island appears to have been immediately derived, with little or no variation, from Mona, the name by which Julius Cæsar mentions it. Ptolemy calls it Monoeda; and Pliny, Monabia; which names are supposed to signify the more remote Mona, in order to distinguish it from the island of Anglesea, also known to the Romans by the name Mona. This opinion seems to be confirmed from the practice of later writers, particularly Bede, who calls the Isle of Man, Menavia Secunda, in contradistinction to Menavia Prior, the name by which he calls the isle of Anglesea; and yet a late writer is of opinion, that the name Man is derived from the Saxon word *Mang*, which signifies *among*, and is supposed to have been applied to this island from its situation between Great Britain and Ireland; being in a manner surrounded by England, Sootland, Ireland and Wales.

The Isle of Man, which is the see of a bishop, lies about half way between Great Britain and Ireland, directly west of that part of the British continent, called Cumberland; and the bishop's palace, which is in the parish of Kirk-Michael, nearly in the middle of the island, is situated in $54^{\circ} 16'$ of north latitude. It is about thirty miles long, about fifteen miles broad, in the widest part of the island, and is no where less than eight miles in breadth.

There are a few inconsiderable streams in the Isle of Man, which can scarcely be called rivers, and are not distinguished by any particular names or descriptions in any account of the island. In some maps, however, we meet with the Neb, which

which rises in the southern part of the island, runs north-west, and falls into the sea at Peel, one of the principal towns; and the Clanmey, a small stream, which runs nearly parallel to the Neb.

Air, Soil, and natural Productions.] The air of the Isle of Man, is cold and piercing, especially in winter: but it is reckoned very healthy, no contagious distemper having ever been known in the island, and the inhabitants living generally to a great age. This island being very rocky and mountainous, the soil is generally barren; oats and potatoes being the chief produce of the lands, which the inhabitants manure, by lime and sea wreck. The black cattle of this island, are generally less than those of England; here are however, some good draught and saddle horses; in the mountains is a breed of small horses, little more than three feet high; also of small swine, called parrs, and another of sheep, which run wild upon the mountains: the wild sheep are accounted excellent meat; and several of them, distinguished by the name Loughton, are remarkable for very fine wool, of a buff colour. Here is an airy of eagles, and two or three of hawks, remarkable for their mottled colour. The Isle of Man is well supplied with fish, particularly herrings, which are the staple commodity of the island, and of which there is such a considerable fishery, that more than 20,000 barrels have frequently been exported in one year to France, and other countries. No coal mines have been yet discovered upon this island: but here is plenty of peat for fuel; good quarries of black marble, and other stones for building; and mines of lead, copper, and iron, which, though now neglected, have been formerly worked to great advantage.

Manufactures and trade.] The principal manufactures of this island, are linen and woollen cloths, in which a considerable foreign trade is carried on; other articles of trade, are black cattle, wool, hides, skins, honey and tallow: but particularly herrings. It is said, that this is a place of refuge for persons, who have committed crimes, or incurred debts, out of it; and that many persons, who owe large sums in London, Paris, and Amsterdam, live here, at a small expence unmolested, so long as they do not trespass against the laws or government of the island. It is also said, that as no customs are paid in this island, vast quantities of goods from the East and West Indies, from France, Holland, and other places, are landed here, put into ware-houses, and afterwards run ashore in many parts of Ireland, Scotland, and the west of England.

Civil and ecclesiastical government.] The Isle of Man, has lately been taken under the British jurisdiction; but formerly, though held of the British crown, was no part of the kingdom of Great Britain; but governed by its own laws and customs, under the hereditary dominion of a lord, who had formerly the title of king, and who, though he has long ago waved that title, is still invested with regal rights and prerogatives.

In the several courts of this island, as well ecclesiastical as civil, both parties, whether men or women, plead their own causes. It is but of late years, that attornies come into any practice here, and still law suits are determined without much expence. The manner of summoning a person before a magistrate is somewhat remarkable. Upon a piece of thin slate, or stone, the magistrate makes a mark, which is generally the initial letters of his name and surname; this is delivered to the proper officer, who shews it to the person summoned; acquaints him with the time and place in which he is to make his appearance, and at whose suit; and if he disobeyes the summons, he is fined or committed to goal, till he gives security for his future obedience and pays costs.

Civil and ecclesiastical Divisions.] The Isle of Man, which is supposed to contain about 20,000 inhabitants, is divided into six divisions, called shreadings, each of which has its own coroner, or constable, who, in the nature of a sheriff, is entrusted with the peace of his district, secures criminals, brings them to justice, and is appointed, by the delivery of a rod, at the Tinwald-court, or annual convention. It contains four market-towns, which, being situated on the sea-coast, has each a harbour, and a castle, or fort to defend it. The island, which is a diocese of itself, lies in the province of York, and has seventeen parishes.

Market towns.] Peel is situated on the western coast; and being a place of considerable trade, here are several good houses. Upon a small island, close to the town, is an ancient castle, called Peel-Castle, in which is a garrison, and which is one of the strongest and best situated castles in the world. The island upon which it stands, is a huge rock, of a stupendous height above the level of the sea, so that it is unaccessible from all quarters but the town, from which it is separated by a small strait, fordable in low tides. The ascent towards the castle, which is surrounded with three walls, well planted with cannons, from the place of landing to the first wall, is by sixty steps cut out of the rock: the walls are prodigiously thick, and built of a bright durable stone. From

th:

the first to the second wall, is an ascent of thirty steps, also cut out of the rock: on the outside of the exterior wall, are four watch towers; and within the interior one, round the castle, are the remains of four churches, three of which are so decayed, that there are little remaining of them besides the walls and some few tombs, which seem to have been erected with more than ordinary care. The fourth church, which is the cathedral of the island, and is dedicated to St. Germain, the first bishop of Man, is kept in some better repair. Within it is a chapel, appropriated to the use of the bishop; and underneath the chapel, is a prison, or dungeon, for such offenders as incur the punishment of imprisonment, in virtue of a sentence of the ecclesiastical courts; and this is said to be one of the most dreadful places of confinement that imagination can form. The magnificence of the castle itself, is said to exceed that perhaps of any modern structure in the world; the largeness and loftiness of the rooms, the fine echoes resounding through them, the many winding galleries, the prospect of the sea, and the ships, which, by reason of the vast height, appear like buoys floating on the waves, fill the mind of the spectator with the utmost astonishment.

Ramfay is situated on the east coast, towards the north part of the island, and is only remarkable for a good fort, and excellent harbour; north of which is a spacious bay, where the greatest fleets may ride at anchor with the utmost safety.

Curiosities.] Among the curiosities of the Isle of Man is reckoned a mountain, called Snafield, which is 1740 feet perpendicular height, and from the top of which, there is a fine prospect of some parts of England, Scotland, Ireland and Wales.

It is said, that no fox, badger, otter, mole, hedge-hog, snake, or any noxious animal, is found in the Isle of Man; and it is not many years since there were any frogs upon it: but the frog spawn having been brought over, these animals have multiplied here, and are now to be met with in many parts of the island.

Before the southern promontory of the Isle of Man, is another small island, about three miles in circumference, and separated from Man, by a channel, a quarter of a mile broad, called the Calf of Man, which, at a particular season of the year, is resorted to by a vast number of sea fowl, particular puffins, which breed there in the holes of the rabbits; and what is more extraordinary, the rabbits quit their habitations to these fowls during the time they remain on the island. About the middle of August, when the young puffins are ready to
take

take wing, the inhabitants of this island have a method of catching them, in such quantities, that between four and five thousand of them are taken every year; part of which are consumed by the inhabitants themselves, and part pickled, and sent abroad, as presents. An incredible number of a great many other sorts of sea fowl, breed among the rocks of this little island.

Antiquities.] That the Isle of Man was, in the time of the Romans, inhabited by the Britons, is universally allowed: but when that people were afterwards dispossessed of the greatest part of their territories by the Saxons, Scots and Picts, this island fell to the share of the Scots; and Orosius acquaints us, that, so early as the reigns of the Roman Emperors Honorius and Arcadius, towards the end of the fourth century, both Ireland, and the Isle of Man, were inhabited by the Scots; the present inhabitants of the Isle of Man, appear to be the descendants of the ancient Scots, from their language, which is the Erse, and is the same with that still spoken in the highlands of Scotland, and in Ireland. The Norwegians, however, in their repeated invasions of Britain, conquered this as well as the greatest part of the western isles of Scotland, over which they set up a king, stiled King of the Isles, who chose the Isle of Man for the place of his residence: but, in the year 1266, in consequence of a treaty between Magnus the Fourth, king of Norway, and Alexander the Third, of Scotland, the western isles, and Man among the rest, were ceded to the Scots; and in 1270, Alexander, having driven the king of Man out of the island, united it, together with the rest of the western isles, to the crown of Scotland. In the reign of Henry the Fourth, of England, the Isle of Man fell into the hands of that Monarch, who, in 1405, gave it to John Lord Stanly, in whose house it continued till very lately, when the last Stanly, earl of Derby, dying without issue, the duke of Athol, his sister's son, succeeded him, as lord of Man and the Isles.

The ancient churches round Peel-castle, are supposed to have been originally pagan temples; and in one of them, there still stands a large stone, in the manner and form of a tripos. Upon several of the tombs in these churches, are fragments of letters still so-intelligible, as to put it beyond doubt, that there were different inscriptions in the different characters of the Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Arabian, Saxon, Scotch and Irish languages. There is perhaps no country in which are more runic inscriptions to be met with, than in this island; and most of them upon funeral monuments:
these

these inscriptions are generally found upon long, flat, rag stones, with crosses cut upon one or both sides, and other little embellishments, or figures of men, horses, stags, dogs, birds, and other devices: the inscriptions are generally upon one edge of the stone, and are to be read from the bottom upwards: one of the most perfect of these inscriptions, is upon a stone cross laid for a lintel, over a window, in Kirk Michael church. Upon another stone cross in the same church, is another fair runic inscription; and in the highway, near the church, is one of the largest monumental stones found in the island, which, from a runic inscription on it, appears to have been erected in memory of one Thurulf or Thrulf.

Many sepulchral tumuli, or barrows, are yet remaining in different parts of this island, particularly in the neighbourhood of the bishop's seat. In several of these barrows have been found urns, so ill burnt, and of so bad a clay, that most of them were broken in taking them out: they were however each full of burnt bones, white and fresh as when interred.

About half a mile from Douglas, are still standing some noble remains of a most magnificent nunnery, in which are several fine monuments with fragments of inscriptions; one of those inscriptions is as follows, *Illustrissima Matilda filia---Rex Mercie*—which Matilda is supposed to have been the daughter of Ethelbert, one of the Saxon kings of Mercia, who is related by historians to have died a recluse. On another monument is the following imperfect inscription—*Cartesmund Virgo immaculata—Anno Domini 1230*. It is supposed that this tomb was erected to the memory of Cartesmunda, the beautiful nun of Winchester, who fled from the violence threatned her by king John, and who it is probable from this inscription took refuge in the monastery of Douglas where she was buried.

In the last century, several brass daggers with other military instruments of brass, well made and polished, were dug up in some part of this island; and afterwards was found a target, in the manner of those still to be seen in some parts of the highlands of Scotland, studded with nails of gold, without any alloy, and rivetted with rivets of the same metal on the small ends.

Not many years ago, a very fine silver crucifix was dug up in this island, together with several pieces of old copper, silver, and gold coin.

SCOTLAND.

Situation and Extent.

Between $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1 \\ \text{and} \\ 6 \end{array} \right\}$ W. Lon. } Being $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 300 \text{ Miles in Length.} \\ \\ 150 \text{ Miles in Breadth.} \end{array} \right.$
 Between $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 54 \\ \text{and} \\ 59 \end{array} \right\}$ N. Lat. }

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by the Caledonian ocean, north; by the German sea, east; by the river Tweed, the Tiviot Hill, and the river Esk, which divide it from England, on the south; and by the Irish sea and Atlantic ocean, west.

Shires. Counties and other Subdivisions. Chief Towns.

- | | | | |
|---------------------|---|-----|---|
| 1. Edinburgh | } Mid-Lothain — | } { | Edinburgh, W. Lon. |
| 2. Haddington | | | East-Lothain — |
| 3. Berwick — | } The Mers and Bailiary of Lauderdale | } { | Dunbar, Haddington |
| 4. Roxborough | | | Tiviotdale, Lidfdale and Eskdale — |
| 5. Selkirk — | Ettorick Forest — | } { | Jedburgh, Hermitage, and Roxborough. |
| 6. Peebles — | Tweedale — | | Selkirk. |
| 7. Lanerk — | } Clydfdale — | } { | Peebles. |
| 8. Dumfries — | | | Nithfdale, Annandale |
| 9. <i>Wigtown</i> — | Galloway, West Part | } { | 4. North Lat. 55-50. Hamilton and Lanerk. |
| 10. Air — | Kyle, Carrick and Cunningham — | | Dumfries Annand. |
| 11. Dumbarton — | Lenox — | } { | <i>Wigtown.</i> |
| 12. Bute and | Bute, Arran and | | Aire, Balgenny, and Irwin. |
| 13. Cathness — | Cathness | } { | Dumbarton. |
| 14. Renfrew — | Renfrew — | | Rothfay. |
| 15. Sterling — | Sterling — | } { | Wick, W. Lon. 2. |
| 16. Linlithgow — | West-Lothain — | | N. Lat. 58-40. |
| 17. Perth — | } Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Glenfield and Raynork — | } { | Perth, Athol, Scone; Blair and Dunkeld. |
| 18. Kincardin — | | | Merns — |

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Shires,

Shires.	Counties and other Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
19. Aberdeen —	Mar, Buchan, and Strathbogie —	Old Aberdeen, W. Lon. 1.45. N. Lat. 57-12. New Aberdeen, Fraserburgh, Peterhead.
20. Inverness. —	Badenoch, Lochabar Part of Ross, and Murray. —	Inverness, Inverlochy.
21. Nairne and 22. Cromartie —	Western Part of Murray and Cromartie —	Nairne, Cromartie, Tayne, and Tarbat.
23. Argyle —	Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintire, and Lorn, with part of the Western Isles, particularly Isla, Jura, Mull, Vift, Terif, Col, and Lismore —	Inverary, Dunstaffnag, Killonmer, and Campbletown.
24. Fife — —	Fife — —	St. Andrew, Couper, Burnt Island, Dumfermlin, Dyfart, and Anstruther.
25. Forfar —	Forfar, Angus	Montrose & Forfar.
26. Bamff —	Bamff, Strathdovern Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin	Bamff.
27. Kirkcudbright	Galloway, East part	Kirkcudbright.
28. Sutherland	Strathnaver part and Dornoch —	Strathy. Dornoch.
29. Clacmanan and 30. Kinross	Fife part —	Culros and Clacmanan.
31. Ross —	Ross, Isles of Sky, Lewis, Harris, Ardross, and Glenelg —	Ross.
32. Elgin —	Murray —	Elgin.
33. Orkney —	Isles of Orkney and Shetland —	Kirkwall, W. Lon. 3. N. Lat. 59-45. Skalloway, near the Meridian of London, N. Lat. 61.

In all thirty-three shires, which chuse thirty representatives to sit in the Parliament of Great-Britain: Bute and Cathness chusing alternately, as do Nairne and Cromartie, and Clacmanan at Kinrofs.

The Royal Boroughs which chuse Representatives are

Edinburgh ——— ———	1	Innerkerthin, Dumfermlin,	}	1
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornock,	}	Queensferry, Culrofs, and		
Dingwal, and Tayne —		1	Sterling ——— ———	}
Fortrose, Inverness, Nairne,	}	Glasgow, Renfrew, Ruther-		
and Forres ——— ———		1	glen, and Dumbarton —	}
Elgin, Cullein, Bamff, Inve-	}	Hadington, Dunbar, North-		
rery, and Kintore ———		1	herwich, Lawder, and	}
Aberdeen, Bervy, Mon-	}	Jedburgh ——— ———		
trose, Aberbrothic, and		}	Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow	}
Brechin ——— ———	1		and Lanerck ——— ———	
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cow-	}	Dumfries, Sanquehar, An-	}	1
per, and St. Andrews		1		
Crail, Kilrenny, Anfruther	}	Kirkcudbright ——— ———	}	1
east and west, and Pitten-		}		
weem ——— ———	1		Stranrawer, and White-	}
Dyfert, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne	}	horn		
and Burnt Island ———		1	Aire, Irwin, Rothfay, Camp-	}
		beltown, and Inverary —		

ISLANDS of SCOTLAND.

THE islands of Scotland may be divided into three classes; 1, the Hebrides, or Western Islands, which went under the name of Hebridæ anciently; 2, the isles of Orkney or Orcades, in the Caledonian ocean, on the north of Scotland; and, 3, the isles of Shetland, still farther north-east.

Western Isles.] The Western Islands are very numerous, and some of them large, situate between 55 and 59 deg. of N. Lat. One of the largest is that of Sky, separated from the main land by a very narrow channel: this is about forty-five miles long, and twenty broad in many places, and is part of the shire of Ross. There are a great many commodious bays and harbours in the island; and above thirty rivers replenished with salmon, as their seas are with herrings, cod, turbot, and all manner of shell fish. They hang up and preserve their herrings, without salt, for eight months. They abound also in cattle, and wild and tame fowls.

The isle of Mull, part of the shire of Argyle, is twenty-four miles long, and as many broad in some places. It affords good pasture, and such corn as Scotland generally does: viz.

barley and oats, and they have plenty of cattle, deer, fish, fowl, and other game, as in the Isle of Sky. Near Mull lies the island of Jona, formerly the residence of the bishop of the isles, and some of their kings; and here are the tombs of several Irish and Norwegian kings.

The island of Lewis, the south end whereof is called Harris, is sixty miles long, and twenty broad, and is part of the shire of Ross. There are several commodious bays and harbours about it, and an exceeding good fishery of the kinds already enumerated; and the country produces rye, barley, and oats, flax and hemp, as well as horses, and black cattle.

The isle of Jura is twenty-four miles long and seven broad, being part of Argyleshire, said to be one of the most healthful parts of Scotland. South of it lies the island of Ila, and in the mouth of the Clyde lie Bute and Arran.

The islands of Northvift and Southvift lie south of Harris. These produce the like articles as the other islands; and the herring-fishery is so considerable on their coasts, that four hundred ships have been loaded in a season from Northvift.

The most westerly of these islands is that of St. Kilda, about fifty miles west of Northvift. It is a rock rising almost perpendicular in the middle of the sea, and almost inaccessible, about five miles in circumference; but has a staple of earth upon it which produces the same grain as the other islands. The inhabitants are about three hundred protestants: their houses are of stone, and they lie in little cabbins in the walls upon straw. They abound in Solan geese, of which they keep many thousands, and live chiefly on their eggs. They climb the steepest rocks for these eggs, and are reckoned the most dexterous people at this sport of any of the islands.

In these islands it is that they pretend to second sight, being the gift of some particular people called Seers, who, by certain visions, foretell the death or other accidents their neighbours will be exposed to; but these pretended visions are now generally laughed at by men of sense.

Orkney Islands.] The Orcades, or Orkney islands, lie north of Dungsby-head, between fifty-nine and sixty deg. of north latitude; divided from the continent by Pentland frith, a sea which is remarkable for its swift and contrary tides, which make it a very dangerous passage for strangers: there are violent whirlpools that whirl about both ships and boats till they founder, and are most dangerous in a calm. They reckon twenty-four different tides in this frith, which run with such impetuosity, that no ship, with the fairest wind,

can stem them; and yet the natives, who know the proper times, pass securely from one shore to the other.

Pomona is the largest of the Orcades, being twenty-four miles long, and its greatest breadth ten miles; a fruitful, well inhabited country, having nine parishes. The chief town, Kirkwall, is a royal borough, situate on a bay of the sea, near the middle of the island, an excellent harbour; besides which, are three other harbours in the island, and several lakes and rivulets abounding with salmon and other fish, and there are some lead mines in the island.

The island Hoy has the highest mountains in the Orcades, and such rocks and dreadful precipices on the coast, as terrify those that approach it. Here their sheep run wild, and are hunted like other game.

Several of these islands produce the like corn and pasture as the continent, and have cattle of all kinds; but their greatest riches are the herrings that annually visit their coasts.

In these islands they have mustered ten thousand men able to bear arms. It is said that these islands were the Thule of the ancients; but others are of opinion the north of Scotland was the ancient Thule.

Shetland Isles.] The islands of Shetland lie north-east of the Orcades, between sixty and sixty-one degrees of north latitude, and are part of the shire of Orkney: they are reckoned forty-six in number, including some little uninhabited holms, which afford them pasture for their cattle. The largest island, called Mainland, is sixty miles long, and twenty broad in some places, indented and cut through by fine bays, which form so many harbours. The inland part is full of mountains, lakes, and bogs, which render it excessive cold; it is best inhabited in the plain country near the sea-coast. Their seas are so tempestuous, that they can have no correspondence with any other country from October to April. The Revolution in Great-Britain, which happened in November 1688, was not heard of in Scotland until the following May. They import their corn from Orkney, having little of their own growth. Their ordinary drink is whey, which they keep in hogheads till it grows sour and very strong. They abound in black cattle, sheep, fish, and fowl, but hogs seem to be their aversion here as well as in the rest of Scotland. They traffic chiefly with their fish. Here it is the Dutch begin to fish for herrings at Midsummer, and continue it to the southward on the coasts of Scotland and England for six months, employing some seasons, a thousand or fifteen hundred vessels in this fishery, and usually make

two or three voyages in a season. Their chief town is Shalloway, in which there is a castle; but in the whole island there are scarce five hundred families.

Yell is the largest island next to this, being twenty miles long and nine broad.

Vuist lies the furthest north, being fifteen miles long and ten broad, has three harbours in it, and is esteemed the pleasantest of all the Shetland isles.

Mountains.] The chief mountains of Scotland are the Grampian mountains, which run from east to west, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleshire, almost the whole breadth of the kingdom, famous for the battle fought near them, between the Romans and the ancient Scots, or Caledonians, under the conduct of Calgacus.

A remarkable chain of mountains are those of Lammermoor, which run from the eastern coast in the Meres a great way west. Next to these are Pentland hills, which run through Lothian, and join the mountains of Tweeddale; and these again are joined by others, which traverse the whole breadth of Scotland.

Other remarkable mountains are these called Cheviot, or Treviot Hills, on the borders of England, Drumbender-law and North Berwick-law, both in East Lothian; Arthur's Seat in Mid-Lothian; Cairnapple, in West-Lothian; Tentock, in Clidfdale; Binmore, in Argyle; the Ochel mountains, and Largo-law, in Fife; in Angus, Dundee-law, and part of the Grampians; in Caithness, Ord; and in the Orkney islands, the mountains of Hoy.

Rivers.] The chief rivers are, Forth, Clyde, and Tay. Forth was called Bodotria anciently, and is the largest river in Scotland; it rises near the bottom of Lomon hill, and runs from west to east, discharging itself into the Frith of Forth.

Tay, the next largest river, issues out of Loch Tay in Broadalbin, and, running south-east, falls into the sea at Dundee.

Spey, the next most considerable river, issues from a lake of the same name, and running from south-west to north-east, falls into the German sea.

The rivers Don and Dee run from west to east, and fall into the German sea near Aberdeen.

The river Clyde runs generally from east to west, by Hamilton and Glasgow, and falls into the Irish sea; from whence their greatest foreign traffic is carried on to America, and other distant countries.

The rivers, Murray, Cromarty, and Dornock, rise from so many lakes of the same name in the north of Scotland, and

running from west to east discharge themselves into the German sea.

Lakes.] The lakes of the most note are those of Loch-tay, Loch-ness, and Loch-leven, from whence issue rivers of the same name; from Loch-lomond issued the river Lomond, and from Loch-jern, the river Jern. It is observed, that the lochs Tay, Ness, and Jern, never freeze; and there is a lake in Shaglash, which continues frozen all the summer.

Air.] From the northerly situation, and the mountainous surface of this country, the air is very cold, but much colder on the mountains or highlands, which are covered with snow great part of the year, than in the vallies, and much colder in the north than in the south. The Orcades lie almost under the same parallel with Bergen, capital of Norway; Stockholm, capital of Sweden; and Petersburg, capital of Russia; where they have nineteen hours day at the summer solstice, and nineteen hours night at the winter solstice; by the day here is meant from sun-rise to sun-set, for the sun is so very little below the horizon the remaining five hours, that it is light enough to see to read. But if the air be colder in Scotland than in England, the natives comfort themselves with an opinion, that it is clearer and more healthful, being purified by frequent winds and storms; which contribute, they imagine, to the brightness of their parts as well as health. They also imagine they resemble the French in their vivacity and enterprising genius.

Soil and Produce.] As to the soil and produce of Scotland, it is certainly a barren country generally, though there are some fruitful valleys. I take the Lothians and Fife to be very desirable countries, producing the same grain that England does; but in the highlands I am informed, oats is almost the only grain that grows there, of which they make both bread and beer.

They abound in good timber, especially oak and fir. There are some forests twenty or thirty miles long. Hemp and flax also thrive very well here. There wants no materials for building of ships and equipping our royal navy.

Minerals.] In their hills are mines of copper, iron, lead, and coals; quarries of marble and freestone; and they tell us of some mines which produce gold and silver, but not worth the working.

Animals.] They have great herds of small neat cattle, of which they drive many thousands annually into England lean, and they are fatted in our meadows and marshes, particularly in Romney-marsh in Kent, and in the hundreds of Essex.

Fisheries.] But the greatest advantages Scotland can boast of are its fisheries: These might prove a mine of infinite wealth to the whole island, as they have long been to the Dutch; and would add more to our strength and superiority at sea, than all our foreign traffic; for here we might breed many thousands of hardy sea-men that would always be at hand to man our fleets, when the rest are absent upon distant voyages. And this we at length seem sensible of, an act having lately passed for the encouragement of this fishery.

Herrings abound most in the western islands; they are so plentiful here, that they have been purchased for six-pence a barrel; and when they are cured and exported, they yield from twenty-five to forty shillings a barrel: and it is said, thirty-six thousand barrels of white herrings have been exported from Clyde in a season, besides great quantities from Dunbar, and other parts of Scotland.

The chief places for the herring-fishery are, Brasia-sound in Shetland; the coasts and bays of the Orkney-islands; Loch-brown in Ross; Lewis, Harris, Skye, and the lesser isles adjacent; from Loch-maddy, in Harris particularly, four hundred vessels have been loaded with herrings in a season; and in the bays of Altwig, a small island in the north-east end of Skye, the shoals of herrings are so thick, that many times they entangle the boats. About the isles of Mull, Isla, Jura, on the coasts of Argyle, the isles of Arran; Bute; and others in the frith of Clyde and the river Forth, on both sides the coast, especially towards Dundee, the herrings are very large and numerous.

The inhabitants of these islands are computed to amount to forty thousand able men, many of them without employment, and may be hired exceeding cheap; most of them are watermen, who can live hardy, and endure fatigue; and such is the commodiousness of their bays and harbours in these islands, that we could not fail of success, if we would employ these people.

There are also abundance of whales among these islands, it is said, which these people pursue in their boats to the shore, and kill and eat them.

In the Orkneys and North Vist there are great numbers of Seals; three hundred and upwards have been killed at a time.

Their salmon fishery is very considerable in the river Don and Dee at Aberdeen; and in the river Clyde; the town of Renfrew has employed sixty vessels in this fishery in a season, and great quantities are exported to France and Holland.

About

About the northern and western islands is the finest cod-fishery in Europe, of which the Dutch and Hamburgers run away with most of the profits, the islanders selling their fish to them, there being no British merchants to take them off their hands; though there cannot be a more profitable branch of business. It is related of an English merchant that used to buy cod-fish, and salt them upon the coast of Scotland (for there is salt enough) that in one voyage he had four thousand of these fish cured at a penny and two-pence a piece, and sold them again at eighteen-pence and half a crown a piece.

There are also sturgeon, turbot, mackarel, and all manner of sea-fish and shell-fish taken on their coasts, among the islands.

Manufactures.] Their principal manufacture is that of linen. They make as good holland, they tell us, as they do in the Netherlands: also cambric, dornic, and damask; and people of quality have frequently their linen and wollen spun and wove in their own houses. Their plaids seem to have been a manufacture peculiar to this nation, being worn in the highlands both by the men and women; but by a late act both the plaid and bonnet are expelled the country.

Traffic.] The Scots export and barter (for the goods of their countries) their salmon, herrings, coals, barley, tallow, butter, eggs, hides, sheep-skins, worsted, yarn, and stockings. Glasgow is the most considerable port in the kingdom for foreign traffic, particularly to America and Guinea. By the act of Union the Scots are intitled to trade to all the British plantations, and elsewhere, as the English do; and many of them come up to London, and become as considerable merchants and tradesmen here, as any of the English, and oftener raise fortunes here, than the natives; which they effect chiefly by their diligent application, frugality and temperance: but they seem more ready to imitate our vices, than the English are to imitate their virtues.

Constitution.] The constitution of the government is now the same in the whole united kingdom, only as to private right the Scots are still governed by their own laws, which are, however, subject to be altered by the British parliament; and some considerable alterations have been made since the Union, as in destroying the tenure by vassalage, the abolishing all torture in criminal proceedings, the allowing a general toleration of religion in Scotland as well as in England, and in the appointing judges to go the circuits in Scotland.

Revenues.] The revenues of this kingdom, before the Union, did not amount to more than one hundred and sixty thousand pounds *per annum*. And by that act, they are to pay but forty-eight thousand pounds *per ann.* land-tax, when England pays four shillings in the pound, which raises about two millions. All other taxes were to have been the same in Scotland as in England; but they have been indulged by taking off half the malt-tax in that part of the island.

Persons and Habits.] But before I enter upon a description of their genius and temper, it may be proper to say something of their persons, in which it is evident, they differ from their southern neighbours. Whether it proceeds from the purity of their air, or the thinness of their diet, they have certainly thinner countenances than the English, and usually a longer visage; and, like the Danes, who live in the same climate, their heads are adorned with golden locks. As to their stature, it is much the same with ours; but they are easily distinguished from South Britons by the tone and roughness of their voices.

The habits of the gentlemen are alike in every part of the island. In the Highlands the plaid and bonnet were worn till prohibited by a late act. And their wearing no breeches in the highlands seems a peculiarity.

Genius and temper.] As to their genius and temper, they have certainly more command of themselves in the beginning of life, and commit fewer extravagancies in their youth, than the English do: their frugality and temperance deserve our imitation; which is, indeed, the foundation of that discretion we observe in them, at a time of life when our young gentlemen are half mad.

Curiosities.] What they usually enumerate as curiosities are, the remains of Roman ways and camps in several places, and of the Roman wall called Graham's dyke, between the rivers Forth and Clyde, several of the stones having Roman inscriptions on them; particularly one, from whence it appears, that the *Legio secunda Augusta* built that wall. In some places there are lakes that never freeze; in another, a lake that continues frozen all summer; and, in a third, there is a floating island, and fish without fins; and it is frequently tempestuous in a calm.

Language.] The language of the Highlands differs very little from the Irish. Of the broad Scotch, which is generally

generally spoken, they give us the following specimen in their Lord's Prayer :

Ure Fader whilk art in Heven; ballued be thy name. Thy kingdom cumm. Thy will be doon in earth, az its doon in Heven. Gee us this day ure daily breed. And forgee us ure sinns, as we forgee them that sinn against us. And lead us not into temptation; butt delyver us frae evil. Amen.

Religion.] The established religion here is the presbyterian, or Calvinism, a sort of ecclesiastical republic, where all priests or presbyters are equal. They have a general assembly, or synod, of their clergy, which meet annually, consisting of ministers and elders deputed from every presbytery in the nation. These determine all appeals from inferior church judicatories, and make laws and constitutions for the government of the kirk. The crown usually appoints some nobleman high-commissioner, to sit among them, and prevent their running into excesses; but he has no vote in their assembly, and they insist that his presence is not necessary.

Besides this general assembly, they have thirteen provincial synods, sixty-eight presbyteries, and nine hundred and thirty-eight parishes. The lowest ecclesiastical court being their kirk session, which consists of the ministers, elders, and deacons of the parish, who are said to watch over the morals of the people, and have power enough to make any gentleman very uneasy, if they happen not to like him: a man that is subject to these petty jurisdictions, can hardly be denominated a freeman. But what is most remarkable in the kirk of Scotland is, that they insist the civil power ought to be subject to the ecclesiastical; carrying their authority, in these cases, as high as the church of Rome.

Calvinism was introduced into Scotland, in a tumultuous manner, at the Reformation, in the reign of Mary queen of Scots, and in the minority of her son James VI. But when king James was settled in the throne of England, episcopacy was established in Scotland by act of parliament, and continued to be so until the year 1688; when the presbyterian mob took upon them, in a riotous manner, without any authority, to expel the bishops and clergy, and plundered their houses, abusing them and their families in an outrageous manner, so that many of them were forced to fly into England: and the bishops having shewn some partiality to king James, his successor king William thought fit to get episcopacy abolished by act of parliament, and presbytery established in that kingdom. Not so much as a toleration was allowed the members of the church until the reign of
queen

queen Anne, when an act of parliament was obtained for that purpose, against which the Scots made all imaginable opposition.

Archbishoprics, and Bishoprics.] St. Andrews and Glasgow. *Bishoprics.*] Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brichen, Dumblain, Ross, Cathness, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle and the Isles.

Universities.] The universities of this kingdom are four: viz. those of St. Andrews, Aberdeen, Edinburgh and Glasgow.

Society.] A Society was incorporated, by patent, in the year 1708, for erecting schools in North-Britain, and the Isles; and, in 1716, an act passed for their establishment, and a fund of twenty thousand pounds was appropriated and made a stock for carrying on the design: and the society applying to king George II. for an additional charter, to erect workhouses for employing children in manufactures, housewifery, and husbandry, in the Highlands and Isles, his majesty not only granted them a patent, but a revenue of one thousand pounds *per ann.* And they have now upwards of one hundred schools, in which between four and five thousand boys and girls are educated.

I R E L A N D.

Situation and Extent.

Between	{	5 and 10	}	W. Lon.	}	Being	{	300 miles in length,
Between	{	51 and 56	}	N. Lat.	}			150 miles in breadth,

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by the Deucalsonian sea, on the north; on the west, by the great Atlantic ocean, which separates it from America; on the south, by the Virginia sea; and on the east, by the Irish sea, commonly called St. George's Channel, which divides it from that part of Great-Britain called Scotland, from whence it is distant not full thirty miles, and from Wales a part of Britain, from whence it is distant about sixty miles. The whole area, or superficial content of this island, is computed to take up about 11,067,712 Irish acres, plantation measure, the difference

ference between English and Irish acres, being as sixteen and a half is to twenty-one, and it is held to bear proportion to England and Wales, as eighteen is to thirty.

Four provinces, containing,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ Leinster, —} \\ 2. \text{ Ulster, —} \\ 3. \text{ Munster, —} \\ 4. \text{ Connaught, —} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Dublin, the capital} \\ \text{of the kingdom.} \\ \text{Londonderry, a city.} \\ \text{Cork, a city.} \\ \text{Galway, a town.} \end{array} \right\}$
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1. Leinster province on the east, containing twelve counties: viz.

1. Louth; containing Drogheda, Dundalk, the shire town, Carlingford, Athirdee, Dunleer.

2. Meath, east; containing Trim, the shire town, Kells, Athboy, Navan, Duleek, Ratoath, Ardraccan, the seat of a bishop.

3. Meath, west; containing Mullingar, the shire town, Athlone, Kilbeggan, Force, an inconsiderable village, Kinnegad.

4. Longford; containing Longford, the shire town, Granard, Laneshorough, St. John's Town.

5. Dublin; containing Dublin, the seat of an archbishop, Swords, Newcastle, Balruddery, Finglas, Glasnevin.

6. Kildare; containing Naas, the shire town alternately with Athy; Athy, the shire town alternately with Naas; Kildare, the head of a bishop's see; Harristown, a sorry village; Castledermont, Kilcullen, Rathangan, Kilcock, Monastereven.

7. King's County; containing Philipstown, the shire town, Bir, Tullamore, Banagher, Ballyboy, Geashill.

8. Queen's County; containing Marybarrow, the shire town, Mountmelick, Portarlinton, Ballyneckill, Mountrath, Stradbally, Ballyroan, Abbyeix, Burres in Ossory.

9. Wicklow; containing Wicklow, the shire town, Arklow, Cary's Fort, a sorry village, Rathdrum, Bray, Blessington, Dunlavan, Bartinglass, Carnew.

10. Carlow; containing Carlow, the shire town, Old-Leighlin, a bishop's see united to Ferns, Leighlin-Bridge, Tollo, Hacket's Town, Bagnal's Town, lately built by Mr. Bagnal, Clonegal.

11. Wexford; containing Wexford, the shire town, Enniscorthy, New Ross, Fethard, Gorey, alias New Burrow, Bannow, Clamines, Taghmon, Duncannon, only famous for its fort, Ferns, a bishop's see united to Leighlin.

12. Kilkenny; containing Kilkenny, a city, the shire town, and the seat of the bishops of Ossory, St. Kenny, alias Irish Town,

Town, Thomastown, Callan, Gowran, Knocktopher, Innistiogk or Ennisléog, Castlecomber, a village famous for its coal-pits, Ballyragget.

2. Ulster province in the north, contains nine counties: viz.

1. Donnegal or Tyrconnel; containing Donnegal, Ballyshannon, St. John's Town, Killybeggs, Lifford, the shire town, Lenterkenny, Raphoe, a bishop's see, Rathmullen, an inconsiderable sea-port, Rathmelton, Buncranagh.

2. Londonderry; containing Londonderry, a city, bishop's see, and the shire town, Colerain, Newtown-Limavaddy, Magherafelt, Ballinderry.

3. Antrim; containing Carrickfergas, the shire town, Belfast, Lisburn, Antrim, Randalstown, Ballymenagh, Bellycastle, an open colliery, Conor, a bishop's see united to Down, Larne, Ballymoney.

4. Tyrone; containing Omagh, the shire town, Dungannon, Augher, Strabane, Steward's Town, Clogher, a bishop's see.

5. Fermanagh; containing Enniskillen, the shire town, Newtown-Butler, Lisnaskea, Clabby, Maguire's Bridge.

6. Armagh; containing Armagh, a city, the primatical see, and the shire town, Charlemont, Lurgan, Portadown, Tandragee, Loughgall, Legacurry, alias Rich-hill.

7. Down; containing Down Patrick, the shire town, and a bishop's see, united to Connor, Newry, Dromore, a bishop's see, Killileagh, Bangor, Newtown, Hillsborough, Magherelin, Moyra, Donaghadee, Portaferry, Strangford, Killough, Saintfield, Banbridge, Logbrickland, Rathfryland, Warringstown.

8. Monaghan; containing Monaghan, the shire town, Claslough, Clounish, Carrickmacross, Castle-Blane.

9. Cavan; containing Cavan, the shire town, Kilmore, a bishop's see, Belturbet, Coothill, Killysbandra.

3. Munster province, in the south, contains six counties: viz. 1. Cork; containing Cork, a city, bishop's see, united to Ross, and the shire town, Bandon-Bridge, Cloyne, a bishop's see, Mailow, Ross, a bishop's see united to Cork, Baltimore, Younghall, Kinsale, Cloughnikilty, Charleville, Castlemartyr, Middleton, Rathcormuck, Donerail, Bantry, Skibbereen, Dunmanway, Macrump, Buttevant, Kanturk, Castlelyons, Curriglass, Killworth, Michlestown, Fermoy, Iniskean, Inishannon, Tymoleage, Newmarket, Ballyclough, Annagh, Douglas.

2. Waterford; containing Waterford, a city, the shire town, and a bishop's see, united to Lismore, Dungarvan, Lismore,

Lismore, a bishop's see, united to Waterford, Tallagh, Passage, Capoquin.

3. Tipperary; containing Cashell, a city, and archiepiscopal see, Conmell, the shire town, Tipperary, Carrick, Thurles, Nenagh, Featherd, Berrusakean, Roscrea, Clogheen, Silvermines, Cullen, Cabir.

4. Limerick; containing Limerick, a city, a bishop's see, united to Ardfert and Aghadoe, and shire town, Kilmallock, Askeaton, Rathkeal, Newcastle, Hospitall, Bruff, Kilfinan.

5. Kerry; containing Tralee, the shire town, Dingle Icough, Ardfort, a bishop's see, united to Limerick, Aghadoe, a bishop's see, united to Limerick, Killarney, Castle Island, Lixnaw, Listowell.

6. Clare; containing Ennis, the shire town, Killaloe, a bishop's see, Bryen's-Bridge, Kilfenora, now united to Clonfert, formerly to Tuam, Six Mile Bridge, Newmark, Corofin.

4. Connaught province, in the west: containing five counties: viz 1. Galway; containing Galway, the shire town, Loughrea, Athenree, Tuam, the see of an archbishop, Clonfert, the see of a bishop, Eyre, Court, Grot.

2. Roscommon; containing Roscommon, the shire town, Abby-Boyle, Tusk, Elpin, a bishop's see, Ballinasloe, remarkable for fairs, Castlereagh, Athlone, on the west of the Shannon.

3. Mayo; containing Castlebar, Balinrobe, the shire town, Foxford, Killala, a bishop's see, Newport, Minola, Ballina.

4. Sligo; containing Sligo, the shire town, Colooney, Achonry, a bishop's see, united to Killala.

5. Leitrim; containing James Town, Carrick, the shire town.

Air.] We can produce no better authority in behalf of what shall be advanced upon this article, than the venerable Bede, a writer of the eighth century, whose observations are for the most part confirmed by constant experience; who maintains, "that Ireland much surpasseth Britain in the healthfulness and serenity of the air, and that snow is seldom to be seen there above three days continuance." With this agrees Orosius an earlier writer than Bede; namely, "that in the temperature of the air and soil, it is much to be preferred to Britain." Ciraldus Cambrensis affirms, "that it is of all other countries the most temperate, where neither the scorching heats of Cancer drive men to the shade, nor the piercing cold of Capricorn to the fire; that snow is unusual, and continues but a short time; the mildness of the air so great, that there we feel the effects neither of infecting clouds, nor pestilential vapours." And in another place he says, "that nature hath
been

been more favourable than ordinary to this kingdom of Zeyhyrus." These things he speaks from experience, having attended king John in his expedition thither; and his words seem to carry the more weight, as they are the evidence of an enemy, who, upon other occasions; lays hold of all opportunities to depreciate Ireland: The opinions of these authors of antiquity, as to the temperate of the air of Ireland, seem; in some measure, to be confirmed by this, that the meadows and fields in this island appear green in the midst of winter; and the cattle are every day driven out to pasture, unless when the land is covered with snow. Perhaps also the exemption of Ireland from venomous creatures may be ascribed to the same cause, the air having no infectious particles in it to supply and nourish their poison. Thunder is not very common in this country, and an earthquake seldom or never felt; and when it happens, it is looked upon as a prodigy. Yet all the panegyrics of any ancient writers, upon the air and temperature of Ireland, must be received under some limitations: if they be intended as comparisons between Ireland and the south parts of Britain, they are certainly groundless; if with the northern parts (where Bede lived, and whom Cambrensis echoes) they may well be admitted: for the air seems to be more moist than that of England, and it is more subject to wind, clouds and rain, than to frost and snow: which qualities are, probably, occasioned by the numerous lakes, bogs and marshes, which have heretofore often proved fatal to foreigners, by throwing them into fluxes and dysenteries; to which cause hath been imputed the loss of many thousands of men at Dundalk, in the campaign of 1699, under duke Schomberg; though, to speak the truth, the misfortunes of that campaign may be as well ascribed to a wet and unwholesome encampment, and corrupt provisions, as to any ill qualities in the air; for which mismanagement, in regard to provisions, Mr. Shales, the purveyor-general of the army, was taken into custody, in consequence of an address of the house of commons of England to the king, and ordered to be prosecuted; but he escaped any further proceedings by means of powerful confederates, who were sharers in the profits of his corrupt management. However, let these effects be owing to what causes they will, it is certain the air of Ireland hath been much amended by the industry of the inhabitants, in draining their bogs and fenny grounds, (which Pliny observes, happened by the same means to the country about Philippi;) that now complaints upon this head are seldom heard of.

Soil

Soil and produce.] The soil of Ireland is in most places abundantly fruitful, and fit to be employed either under pasturage, meadow, or tillage; to which those, who have the least knowledge of that country, will yield their assent. From whence it necessarily follows, that as great quantities of land are not used in tillage, their breed of cattle must be infinite, which heretofore, indeed, was the greatest natural wealth of the inhabitants, and at present supplies no inconsiderable articles in their exports. Bede applies the character of the Land of Promise to it, calling it *a land flowing with milk and honey*. And Sir John Davis, (who knew it better than Bede, having spent several years in it in quality of attorney-general) calls it from the eighth chapter of Deuteronomy, “a land of brooks and water, of fountains and depths that spring out of valleys and hills, a land of wheat and barley, wherein thou shalt eat bread without scarceness, and shall not lack any thing in it.” And this agrees better with its true character, than what Cambrensis alledges; namely, “that corn in Ireland promises much hopes in the blade, more in the straw, but less in the grain; for that the grains of wheat there are shrivelled and small, and are difficult to be cleansed by the help of any van.” Whereas the neighbouring countries seldom produce a larger or heavier grain than what grows in the well-tilled parts of Ireland. Besides pasturage and tillage, Ireland produces great plenty of meadow ground, which is of infinite service to the inhabitants, by supplying them with vast quantities of hay for their black cattle, sheep, and horses in winter; and even their bogs, when drained, make excellent meadow land. The soil also is proper for hemp and flax, of which abundance is raised there, especially in the northern parts of the kingdom; and, being perfectly manufactured, supplies the most beneficial branch of their commerce; and this business is daily spreading into other parts of that land. But the country abounds in nothing more than wool, notwithstanding the prohibition from England against exporting it, either wrought or unwrought, to any other nation but England, and that only in unmanufactured wool and bay yarn. Yet means are found, from their large extended coasts, and numerous bays and creeks, to export it into France; which, to the infinite detriment of England, is become a rival to it in the woollen trade. This cannot be prevented but by some remedy adequate to the disease. Though there be great encouragements given to the linnen trade, yet the vast quantities of land in Ireland, fit for hemp and flax, can never be employed in that manufacture, and therefore will be continued under

sheep, unless the minds of the people were turned from thence to some other beneficial branch; and possibly an encouragement, given by parliament for premiums upon the exportation of corn, might in some measure answer the end.

[*Mountains.*] We are told, in the ancient and present state of the county of Down, “that there are two words in English, by which observable heights, rising above the surface of the ground, are distinguished; namely, Hill and Mountain, in the same sense as the Latins use *Collis* and *Mons*, and the Greeks *Βελος* and *Ορος*; and in these three languages they are only distinguished according to their degrees of elevation; the former word in each signifying a smaller, and the latter a more considerable height. The Irish language is more fruitful in this particular, and affords three words to mark out such elevations: namely, Knock, Slieve and Beinn; the first signifying a low hill, standing singly without any continued range; the second, a craggy high mountain gradually ascending, and continued in several ridges; and the last a pinnacle or mountain of the first magnitude, ending in a sharp or abrupt precipice. The two last are often seen compounded together in one and the same range.” Ireland affords instances of all these kinds, and yet is far removed from what may be denominated a mountainous country. Of the first kind, namely of hills, instances may be given in that extent of country, about ten miles in length, from Kells in the county of Meath to Bailyborough in the county of Gavan, which is almost nothing else but a continued chain of hills of no great elevation, all very fruitful land, both pasture and arable. The same may be observed of the little hills about Down-Patrick, compared to eggs set in salt, and of many others in several parts. The second kind of mountains, which, with an excessive elevation, rise towards the skies, are not very common in Ireland; and yet there are several such, which, though not to be compared to the Pyrenees, lying between France and Spain; to the Alpes, which divide Italy from France and Germany, or to other mountains in the world of the like vast height, yet may be justly accounted among the lofty mountains. In this number may be reckoned the mountains of Carlingford, extending from Dundalk to that place, which, in favourable weather, may be seen from the mountains south of Dublin, at about forty miles distance. Those about Louth-Sully in the northern parts of the county of Donnegal. The Curliews, which separate the counties of Sligoe and Roscommon in Connaught: the Mangerton mountains in the county of Kerry: Croagh-Patrick in the county of Mayo, from whence (as fabulous tradition re-
late’s)

lates) St. Patrick drove all serpents and venomous creatures out of Ireland into the sea: the Gaulty mountains in the county of Tipperary: Sleuboom, called by some writers the Blandine mountains, extended in a large ridge through part of the Queen's and King's counties, and a part of the county of Tipperary, celebrated by the immortal Spencer in his Fairy-Queen: the Brandon mountains in the county of Kerry, to the east of Smerwick bay: Slieu-galen in the county of Tyrone: the large mountains in the county of Wicklow, and among the rest Sugar-Loaf Hill: the mountains of Mourne and Iveah in the county of Down, which are reckoned amongst some of the highest in the kingdom, of which Slieu-Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular height to 1056 yards, and is one of the three sorts of mountains above described, which ends in an abrupt precipice. Many other mountains are passed over unnoticed for the sake of brevity; and yet the character given of Ireland by Cambrensis is by no means to be admitted for truth, who says, "that the inland parts of it enormously swell into lofty and inaccessible mountains;" the contrary of which experience evinces. The mountains of this country are of singular benefit to the inhabitants, not only as they serve for alembicks, where vapours, exhaled by the sun, are condensed into clouds, and descend into rain and showers, to render the lower grounds fruitful; but as in their bowels are generated beds of mines, minerals, coals, quarries of stone, slate and marble, veins of iron, lead and copper; in all which the mountains of this country abound in various parts. We are also indebted to them for the origin of springs and fountains, rivulets and rivers, so absolutely necessary to the well-being of mankind.

Capes or head-lands.] These bear a near resemblance to mountains, and many of them may be called by that name. As they are useful land-marks to navigators, it may be proper to point out a few of the principal of them.

Fair-Head, or Fair-Foreland, the most north eastern cape of all Ireland, forms one side of the bay of Ballycastle, as Kean-Bane, or the white cape much lower, does the other. Enistown-Head in the county of Donnegal. Cape-Horn, and Telen-Head, corrupted from St. Helen's-Head in the same county. Slime-Head, or Slin-Head, in the county of Galway. Loop-Head, or Cape-Laine, at the mouth of the Shannon. Cape-Dorset, the most S. W. cape of Ireland, in the Dorset island, between the bays of Kilmare and Bantry. Miffen-Head, the Notium of Ptolemy, in the county of Cork. Cape-Courcey, or the old head of Kinsale. Ardmore-Head.

forming the east side of the bay of Younghall. Arklow-Head, Wicklow-Head, Bray-Head near Dublin, and Heath-Head, which forms the north side of Dublin harbour. St. John's Foreland, a low cape in the county of Down; with many others.

Lakes.] In Ireland are innumerable lakes or loughs, (as they are there called) more in number than perhaps in any other country of the same extent in the world; and they abound more in the province of Ulster and Connaught, than in any other parts of the kingdom. These may be distinguished in two kinds, according to the compass of ground they cover. First, the smaller sort, under which are comprehended all those whose extent is discoverable to the naked eye at one time. Secondly, those of a larger kind, over which the naked eye cannot command a prospect at once. Of these lakes we shall mention only a few: and first of the smaller lakes. In the county of Down, Lough-Rin, Lough-Dinny, and Lough-Kernan, the latter remarkable for being the scene of a massacre in the rebellion of 1641. In the county of West-Meath, Lough-Leign, Lough-Direvrah, Lough-Feile, Lough-Iron, Lough-Inniel, Lough-Drin, having trouts in it of an emetic quality, and Lough Banean-Annagh. In the county of East-Meath, Lough-Ramor; in the county of Cavan, Lough-Silline; in the county of Donnegal, Lough-Fin, and Lough-Derg; in an island of which the superstitious purgatory of St. Patrick is yet to be seen. It would be endless to write the names of all the lakes of this kind in the kingdom, of which there are several even on the tops of mountains. But of all the lakes under this denomination, it would be unpardonable to omit Lough-Lene, in the barony of Maguniby in the county of Kerry, on account of the many singular beauties in it. It is about six English miles in length, and near half as much broad at a medium; and is interspersed with a variety of beautiful islands, many of them rich in herbage, and well inhabited. Eagles and ospreys are here in great numbers, and groves of the arbutus, (as they also are on the rocky parts about the lakes) which most part of the year bears a scarlet fruit like the strawberry, blossoms, leaves, and berries, green or yellow, according to their different stages of approach to ripeness. It is called by the inhabitants the Cane-apple; and by Hadrianus Junius, from Pliny, Unedo; because the taste of it is so unpleasent, that it is expedient only to eat one at a time. The trunks of these trees are frequently four feet and a half in circumference, or eighteen inches in diameter, and nine or ten yards, often more, in height: and,

we are told, they cut them down as the chief fuel to melt and refine the silver and lead ore discovered near the castle of Ross, which lies in the peninsula in this lake. In short, the beauties of it are not to be described, nor seen without rapture.

The second or larger kind of lakes may be properly ranked under two denominations; namely, first, fresh water lakes, which have no access of the tide, or mixture of the sea; and, secondly, salt lakes, into which the tide flows twice every day, and may more properly be called inlets of the sea, than lakes, though they have universally obtained the latter name. Of the fresh water lakes, which have no access of the tide, or mixture of sea-water, Lough-erne, and Lough-Neagh, are by much the largest in Ireland. Lough-erne is divided into two branches, the upper and lower, which are separated by a contraction of the waters into the compass of a considerable river for some miles S. S. E. of Enniskillen; after which, enlarging itself, it forms the Lower Lough. This lough in both branches takes its course through the whole length of the country of Fermanagh, from the S. E. point to the N. W. dividing it almost into two equal parts, and may be reckoned in length full twenty-three Irish miles, though of an unequal breadth. It is diversified with numerous fruitful pleasant islands, to the number (as is computed) of four hundred, most of them well wooded, and several of them inhabited by husbandmen, and others covered with cattle. It abounds likewise with a great variety of fish; such as huge pike, large bream, roach, eels, and trout; some of the last of an excessive size. But it is chiefly valuable for its salmon, which are caught in great draughts by nets, in the river which flows out of the Lough, the fishing of which is valued at 500l. a year. Were there any trade of consequence in this part of Ireland to deserve encouragement, the importance of this lake might be made much more considerable than it is, it affording, within a few miles of the sea, a free navigation, commodious for all the inland counties of the north-west of Ulster, and having the towns of Ballyshannon, Belleck, Enniskillen, and Belturbet, situated upon it, or on the branches leading into, or issuing from it. As things are circumstanced, these places might, with a little encouragement, be made rich by the linnen manufacture. Enniskillen might be a chief mart for it, the soil and flats about it being very convenient for bleach-yards; and the water of the lake having hereabout a particular softness and slimyness, that bleaches linen much sooner than can be done by other waters. It is not to be doubted but the happy national spirit, for carrying on this manufacture, and other useful branches

of trade, will, in time, exert itself properly along this lake, as is already done in other places.

Lough-Neagh is something of an oval figure, however indented on every side. It is esteemed to be the largest lake in Ireland; Lough-erne not equalling it in its area; and though the latter be more diversified with numerous islands and woods, yet, considered as a piece of water, it is inferior to this: neither is any fresh water lake in Britain equal to it, and perhaps few in Europe exceed it, those of Lagado and Onega in Muscovy and of Geneva in Switzerland excepted; it being estimated to be twenty English miles long from the north-west point to the south-east, near fifteen miles of the same measure from north-east to south-east, and from ten to twelve miles broad at a medium, overspreading near one hundred thousand acres of land. Within these dimensions is not reckoned a smaller lake, called Lough-Beg, or the Little-lake, joined to the north-west end of it by a narrow channel, being near four miles long, and as many broad. Lough-Neagh communicates its benefits to five several counties: namely, Armagh, Tyrone, Londonderry, Antrim, and Down, the later of which it only toucheth by a small point on the south-east side. It is fed by six considerable rivers, four of lesser note, and several brooks; yet has but one narrow outlet to discharge this great flux of water at Toom, first into Lough-Beg, and from thence through the Lower-Ban into the Deucalidonian sea; which, not affording a sufficient vent, occasions Lough-Neagh, in the winter season, to rise eight or ten feet above its level in summer, overflowing the low grounds on its coast, and thereby annually washing away, and gaining upon the high grounds. In addition to this mischief, the mud and sand continually rise at Toom, and choak up the narrow passage: and the eel-wards on the Lower-Ban and at Toom are every year raised and enlarged; so that the lands adjoining the lake must suffer more considerably, if some method be not taken to prevent it, by opening the narrow passage at Toom, removing the eel-wards near it, fixing them below the falls at Portna, and by blowing up or quarrying the rocks at the sharps near that place, to give a deeper and better vent to the waters. If the Lower-Ban could be cleared of the impediments, (which may be worthy of the thoughts of the commissioners of the inland navigation) and a way laid open for vessels from Colereign into Lough-Neagh, and from thence through the new canal to Newry, and Carlingford-Bay, it would not only promote the trade of the several counties bordering

dering on the river, lake, and canal, but would be of general emolument to the commerce of the kingdom.

This lake is remarkable for two properties: first, for a healing property; by which persons, who have bathed in it for evils, ulcers, and running sores, have in eight days been perfectly cured, and their sores dried up. Secondly, for petrifying wood, of which indisputable evidence hath been given not long since to the physico-historical society erected in Dublin, by a gentleman, who exhibited a variety of large and fair specimens of wood and stone contiguous found in the lake, and in the soil at a considerable distance from it, so clear and distinct, that there can be no room to doubt of the nature of either. The petrifying virtue however doth not seem to reside peculiarly in the water of the Lough, but rather to be owing to certain mineral exhalations common both to the water, and to the soil, and in some particular spots only.

On the shores of this lake have been found a variety of beautiful pebbles, crystals, cornelians, mochoas, agats, and other precious stones.

The lake also abounds with fish of various kinds in innumerable quantities, and of large sizes. It is remarked for two sorts of trouts; one called the Dologhan, which is said to be peculiar to it, being from fourteen to eighteen inches long, which last size it never exceeds, and always spawns in the river supplying the Lough. The other kind is called the Bodach; in English, the Churl; some of which have been taken that were thirty pounds weight. It specifically differs from the salmon trout; first, in size; secondly, in colour; the head and back of it being greenish, inclining to a sky colour; thirdly, the back fin is variegated with many black spots; fourthly, the tail forked; and, fifthly, the flesh of it is of a deep red, and of a good relish. It affords another uncommon fish called by the Irish the Pollan or fresh-water herring, and by the English the shad, or mother of herrings; which is scaled and shaped like a herring, is of a lighter blue on the back, and the head of it is smaller and sharper than that of a common herring. It was for a time supposed to be a peculiar inhabitant of this lake; but it is now known, that the same kind of fish is in Lough-erne, though not in so great plenty; that there are some of them in the rivers Severn and Thames, and one was taken in the Liffy near Dublin, several years ago. There is another species of fish in this lake, for any thing known, peculiar to it, called the fresh-water whiting, in shape exactly resembling a sea-whiting, but less in size, and a very ordinary, soft, insipid food.

In the river Shannon are four considerable pieces of water, which have obtained the name of lakes, though more properly they are only the outspreading of that river over the low lands adjoining to it. First, Lough-Boffin, about three miles broad, and more long, which is a boundary between part of the county of Leitrim, and part of the county of Roscommon. Second, Lough-Ree, about twelve miles long, and of unequal breadth, determining the county of Roscommon from the counties of Longford, and Westmeath, in which lie many small islands, but none of them of any fame except Inisbofin, or the island of the White-Cow, and that only for an abbey founded in it in the fifth century. Third, Lough-Derghart, about sixteen miles long, though, like Lough-Ree, of unequal breadth, lying equidistant between Banagher and Limerick, and separating part of the counties of Galway and Clare from a part of the county of Tipperary, in which also are several little islands of no note. Fourth, another nameless Lough, West of Limerick, which swells about eight or nine miles into the county of Clare, filled also with islands.

Of such lakes, as may more properly be called inlets of the sea than lakes, there are several in Ireland. First, Lough-Foyle, a large oval lake, about fourteen miles long, and from six to eight miles broad, into which the sea flows by a narrow channel, not much more than a mile over. On the river Foyle, and about three miles from the lake, stands the city of Londonderry, remarkable for the siege it sustained against king James's army in the year 1689. Ptolemy calls this lake the Agita; which Camden mistakes for, secondly, Lough-Swilly, spreading from the northern sea into the land, for about eighteen miles, and dividing the baronies of Kilmacrennan and Enisowen in the county of Donnegal. Third, Lough-Corrib, from the south end of which a river issues, called Galvia or Galiva in the annals of Donnegal, which washes Galway, and falls into a bay of that name. Fourth, Lough-Cuan, now called the lake of Strangford, in the county of Down, which, for the most part, is a boundary between the barony of Ardes and the rest of that country. The extent, from Newtown in the north to Strangford in the south, is about thirteen Irish miles or better; and if it be taken from its first entrance at Anguish-rocks, it may be reckoned upwards of a league more. In some places it is three, in some four, and in others upwards of four miles broad; and the tide flows to Newtown, at the remotest north end of it. The islands in it are numerous, yet probably not two hundred and sixty, as it is reported by Dr. Boat. By an actual survey

Survey it appears, that there are dispersed up and down in it fifty-four islands, small and great, known by particular names, and others nameless. On the side of it, near the coast of the barony of Dufferin, is a group of small islands, called the Scatterick Islands, some of which are noted for fattening and restoring distempered horses: some of them are stocked with rabbits; some have a great resort of swans to them, (which circumstance gives name to four of them) and of various other fowl, such as wild geese, great flights of barnacles, sweet and well-flavoured duck, goldheads, widgeon, teal, and four or five sorts of divers. A great and profitable manufacture is carried on in those islands, and on the flat stoney coasts surrounding the lake, by burning of sea-weed into kelp, which employs upwards of three hundred hands, and brings in a considerable profit to the proprietors yearly. The foregoing are the most considerable lakes that occur in Ireland: were those of every sort to be mentioned, it would exceed all compass.

Bays and harbours.] Perhaps no country in the world abounds more in fair, spacious, and commodious harbours, than Ireland, and yet no country to which less benefit arises from trade than this, occasioned by some circumstances too delicate to be insisted on; yet this much may be said, that it would be greatly to the advantage of our mother-country, if this were rich and flourishing; because its wealth would always center here. We shall then do little more than point out the bays and harbours useful to trade in this kingdom, and leave it to others to make the application of their benefits and uses.

Waterford haven runs between Leinster and Munster, being bounded by the barony of Sheilburn in the county of Wexford on the west, and the barony of Gualtire in the county of Waterford on the east; and the mouth of which is formed by Hook-point on one side, and the main-land of the county of Waterford on the other. It extends almost in a strait line near eight miles, from south to north, all the way deep and clear, and but little incumbered with rocks or sands, and is defended by Duncannon fort on the east side, which commands the harbour. Having passed Duncannon fort about a league, the haven divides itself into two arms; that to the west leads to the city of Waterford, and is the mouth of the river Suir; and the other leads to Ross, which is here called the river of Ross, being below the junction of the Barrow and the Noer. Both these arms are capable of receiving ships of large burden.

Carlingford

Carlingford haven, lying between the counties of Louth and Down, is a fair large bay, about four miles long and near as many broad; at the entrance very deep, so as the largest ships may anchor in it, and defended from all winds by the highlands and mountains on every side; but the mouth of it is dangerous, being full of rocks, between which the passages are narrow; and this, together with the want of trade, causes a small resort of shipping to it.

Strangford haven is more unsafe at the entrance than that of Carlingford, caused not only by the rocks and shoals, but by the excessive rapidity of the water.

But the bay of Carrickfergus is as safe and spacious as any in Ireland, some few in the west excepted. The entrance into it is bold, being about five miles wide, and having a depth of water from twenty to twelve fathom, which grows gradually shallower till you advance opposite to the town of Carrickfergus, where it is from five to eight fathom deep, in the middle of the road. It grows narrower by degrees for several leagues, from the mouth to the bridge of Belfast, where it is not more than three fourths of a mile broad, if so much; at full sea, not above eight or nine fathom deep; and at low water, not above a foot, except in freshes, when it is something deeper. From this shallowness, Carmoyl-Pool is used as the harbour for ships trading to Belfast, in which twenty vessels may ride afloat at low water, though within a cable's length barks lie round them dry; and from thence small ships sail up, at high water to the quay at Belfast. In this bay are but few shoals or rocks, except a reef of black rocks running out into the sea, for three or four hundred yards from the north side of it, called the Briggs; and except some foul ground, and a dangerous sunk rock on the county of Down side, lying between the Copland islands and Donaghadee, called the Deputy-Rock. There is also, a little south-west of Carrickfergus, one shoal, on which lies three fathom water, at ebb-tide, in the middle of the bay. Some kelp is burnt on the north side of this bay, but nothing like the quantities provided in Strangford lake, and about it. This bay will be always memorable for the landing of duke Schomberg, who anchored in Groom's-port bay, near Bangor, on the thirteenth of August, sixteen hundred and eighty-nine, being sent by king William, of ever glorious memory, to the assistance of the Protestants in Ireland; and for the landing of the king himself near Carrickfergus, on the fourteenth of June, sixteen hundred and ninety.

Lough-

Lough-Foyle, and Lough-Swilly, are mentioned before, under the title of lakes. Before the mouth of the first of these loughs, lies a great sand, called the Tuns, which proves but little incommodious to sailors, because, between it and the west side of the land, is a fair, broad, and deep channel, where, at all times, may be found fourteen or fifteen fathom water, and in the mouth itself eight or ten fathom. On the east side of the lough are very great sands, from one end to the other; and on the west, some small sands or shelves, which are no way inconvenient, as between them runneth a broad channel, in most parts three or four fathoms deep; and in that arm, whereon Londonderry stands, it is yet deeper, in some places not less than ten or twelve fathom; and before the town, four or five fathom; so that this is a commodious harbour.

Lough-Swilly is a fair large harbour, defended from all winds, and capable of containing a thousand large vessels; yet is little frequented.

Ship-haven lies to the west of Lough-Swilly, about five or six miles, and, though a fair large harbour, has little resort.

Killybeg's harbour lies on the west of the county of Donnegal, spacious enough to contain a great fleet. It has a large and bold opening to the sea on the south, and is secured within by the shelter of high lands surrounding it; so that ships of the greatest burden can make it at any time of the tide; and, when entered, are secured from the most violent hurricanes; and it has a depth of water of five, six, seven, and eight fathom, or more.

Donnegal haven lies about nine or ten miles to the east of Killybegs; and, in the entrance, is much incumbered with shelves, sands, and rocks; so that great circumspection must be used in passing in or out of it with safety.

Galway haven, seated in the west of Connaught, is, at the entrance of it, from the western ocean, namely, from Slime-Head in the north, to Loope-Head, called also Cape-Lean, in the south, (which are the proper boundaries of it) an extension of upwards of fifty miles, and it is not much less in the length. In the mouth of it lie three islands, called the South islands of Arran, which form three channels for passing up the bay; which islands are called, in certain letters patent of the thirty-first of queen Elizabeth, Aranmore, Inshimany, and Insharry. One of these channels passeth between the main land of the barony of Moycullen and Aranmore, and is called the North Sound; the second, running between Aranmore and Inshimany, is most in use, and commonly called St. Gregory's Sound; by which Sound's name that island hath been also called;

called; and the third lies between the main land of the barony of Corcumore, in the county of Clare, and Insharry, and is commonly called the South Sound. Another channel runs between Inshimany and Insharry, which, not being safely passable for sands and shelves, is therefore named the False Sound. The whole north side of this bay is very foul with sands and rocks, so that it is not safe to approach the shore nearer than two miles; at the end of which ledge of sands and rocks, and in the innermost part of the bay, lies a little island, called Innis-Kerrigh, in English, Mutton-Island; at the east end whereof a ship may anchor in five or six fathom water; but from thence northward to Galway, which is near two miles, none but small vessels and barks can sail, the town standing not upon the bay itself, but on a broad water like a river, issuing out of Lough-Corrib. The advantage of this bay affords a considerable trade to the town's-men.

The mouth of the Shannon, from Cape-Head, or Loop-Head, to Kerry-Point, is about nine miles; and, from thence to the city of Limerick, fifty; during all which course, the river is looked upon as the haven of Limerick; to the walls of which city, vessels of great burthen may go up, without meeting foul places, rocks, or sands, in the way, or any thing else, but many little islands, which are easily avoided. From the happy situation of this place, it formerly enjoyed an extensive share of trade and commerce, and was reckoned the principal mart of the province of Munster; but now both Cork and Waterford exceed it in that particular.

Smerwick, or St. Marywick haven, in the barony of Corcaguiny, and county of Kerry, is a small, but clean and well inclosed harbour, where a body of Spaniards landed, and fortified it in fifteen hundred and seventy-one.

On the other side of the same barony, lies a large bay, called Dingle-bay, which extends many miles into the land, between the forementioned barony, and that of Iveragh, and contains in it many small, but good havens, as Ventry-bay, and a little east of it, Dingle Icouch-bay, before the mouth of which lies a rock, called The Cow, which may be sailed about without danger, being always above water, except during spring tides.

Kilmare-bay forms a division between the baronies of Dunkeron on the north, and Glaneroughty on the south, both in the county of Kerry; and shoots several miles into the land, being throughout clean ground, and free from rocks and sands, except in very few places: this is as often called Kilmare-river, as a bay.

Bantry-

Bantry-bay divides the counties of Kerry and Cork, and is of a large extent, both in breadth and length, rivalling Kilmare-bay in those particulars, as well as in safety and anchorage. In this bay, not very far from the mouth of it, lies the island of Beer-haven, between which and the main land is a fair sound, which serves for a good and safe port, and is therefore called Beer-haven. Within the mouth of this sound lie some rocks, in the middle of the channel, at high water overflowed, which may be easily avoided; and on the south side of the sound, as you surround the island, there are two great rocks just in the mouth of it, between which ships may safely pass, as also between them and the land on either side. At the upper end of this bay is another island called Whiddy, near three miles long, between which and the main land, being the uttermost extent of the bay of Bantry, is good clean anchorage from three to six fathom. Ships may enter this sound in two places, on both sides of the islands. The south entrance is foul, rocky, and dangerous; but the north entrance affords room and depth enough in eight or nine fathom, and nothing to hurt, except a row of rocks a small musket-shot from the shore; which, being covered at high water, do not appear but at half ebb. Opposite to this island is the haven of Langref, in which is every where safe anchorage, and good ground, except on the right hand, close to the mouth, where are some foul grounds, which are dry at the ebb of the spring-tides. This bay of Bantry is rendered famous by a naval engagement between the English and French fleets, in the year sixteen hundred and eighty-nine.

Dunmanus-bay is separated from Bantry-bay by a narrow neck of land, which terminates at Mintrovally-point. This bay is wide and long, though not equal in either respect to those of Kilmare and Bantry; but it is a commodious road, and has good anchorage every where. The land, on the south side of this bay, stretcheth out far into the sea, the uttermost part whereof is Miffen-Head, being the southernmost cape of all the main land of Ireland, Cape Clear lying out further south-east, being in an island.

Baltimore-bay is much larger than any of the three immediately before-mentioned bays, though not stretching into the land as they do; but forming rather the figure of an half-moon. In this large bay lies Crook-haven, Soul-haven, and several others. Some writers have contracted the bounds of Baltimore-bay, by making Dunashad the entrance to the east, and Dunalong, in the island of Inishirkan, to the west; while others extend the bay from Dunashad to Miffen-Head.

The

The entrance into Castle-haven is very narrow, being not half a mile over, formed by Skiddy's island on the east, and Horse island on the west; but it is a safe, deep channel, and has good anchorage opposite to the town of Castle-Haven, which lies on the west shore.

The haven of Glandore, though small, is good, with a sufficient depth of water, and defended from all winds.

The haven of Kinsale is one of the most commodious and best harbours in the kingdom, well sheltered from the winds, and defended by a strong fort, called Charles-Fort, from king Charles II. in whose reign it was erected.

Cork-haven is also a safe and commodious harbour, narrow at the entrance, but deep and safe, and sheltered within from all winds, as far as the city of Cork; for a defence whereof against foreign enemies, two forts are now erected.

These are the principal unbarred havens in Ireland. Of the barred havens and those of lesser note, we shall do little more than mention their names.

Wexford, Wicklow, Dublin, which last harbour hath been much amended by the execution of the statute of the sixth of queen Anne, chap. the twentieth, called the Ballast Act. Drogheda, Dundalk, Dundrum, dangerous in the outer bay, but secure in the inner. Killough, Ardglass, Old-Fleet, Donaghadee, Glenarn, Ballycastle, much improved by parliamentary encouragement. Colerain, or Ban-Haven, being the mouth of the river Bann. St. Hellens, corrupted into Tellen. Mac-Sway's-Bay, Ballyshannon, Sligoe, Moy, Roundstone-Bray, Tralee, Yonghall, and Dungarvon. Besides many other bays and roads, where, in case of necessity, ships may find relief.

Rivers.] As Ireland abounds in lakes and bays, so also it is adorned with several considerable rivers, many of them navigable a good way into the land, much to the emolument of the inland traffic, and which may probably be made in time more commodious by joining some of them together by navigable canals; to the affecting of which the inhabitants have great encouragement by acts of parliament. We shall mention only a few of the principal of those rivers.

The Barrow, the Noer, and the Suir, have their sources from different branches of the same mountain; namely, Slieu-Bloom, out of which the Barrow rises in the barony of Tenehinch, and Queen's county; and taking a northerly course, it passes within a quarter of a mile of Mountmelick, and then visits Portarlinton; soon after which it turns to the south,
and

and washes Monastereven, Athy, Carlow, Leighlin-bridge, and before it arrives at Rofs, is joined by the Noer, from whence they both continue a southerly course under the name of the river of Rofs; south of which, being increased by the Suir, they all three are lost in the sea at Hook-Point, being at the mouth of the haven of Waterford.

The Noer rises out of a branch of the same ridge of mountains, called here (as it is said) Beinn-Duffe, i. e. the Black-Pinnacle, in the county of Tipperary; and taking a south-east course by Kilkenny, Thomas-Town, and Ennisteg, unites with the Barrow above a mile north of Rofs.

The Suir rises out of the same branch of Slieu-Bloom called Beinn-Duffe, and making first a S. E. and then a southerly course for upwards of forty miles, till it approaches near the county of Waterford, it takes a sudden turn to the north for about four miles; after which it keeps on an easterly course till it unites with the Noer and Barrow eastward of Waterford; running in its whole course by the towns of Thurle, Cashel, Clonmell, Carrick, and Waterford.

The Black-Water, called anciently Naimn, and Abhanmore, i. e. the Great-River, and sometimes the Broad-Water, rises out of the mountain of Slieu Logher, in the county of Kerry; from whence being swelled by many streams, it takes first a southerly course, and then eastward by Mallo, Fermoy, and Lisfmore, to Cappelquin, where it takes a sudden turn to the south, and keeps that course till it falls into the bay of Younghal. Vessels of considerable burthen may sail up to Cappelquin (where it is above twelve feet deep at low water) and flat boats much higher. There are several other rivers in Ireland, called the Black-Water, as one which falls into the Boyne at Navan in the county of Meath; another in the county of Longford, which falls into the Shannon north of Lanes-Borough, and another in the county of Wexford, which is lost in the sea at Bannow-Bay.

The river Bann, famous for a pearl fishery, but much more for that of salmon, takes its rise from the bosom of the mountains of Upper-Iveach in the county of Down, being the northern ridge of the mountains of Mourne: from whence it flows northward to Ban-Bridge, where it makes a good appearance; thence turns to N. N. W. and, after a course of about thirty miles, falls into Lough-Neagh near the Bannfoot ferry, in the county of Armagh; then finding its way through the Lough, it issues again from the north end of it, and bending its course northerly, divides the counties of Antrim

trim and Londonderry, and having washed Colerain, falls into the sea a little north-west of it.

The Lee, called also the Lagi, and in Latin Luvius, rises out of a lake in the barony of Muskerry, and county of Cork, marked in most maps by the name of Lough-Allin, and in others Lough-Lua, which seems to give it the name of Lee; and taking an easterly course for about twenty-six miles, is enlarged by many other rivers and rivulets till at length it embraceth the city of Cork, below which it is lost in the sea.

The Liffy or Annaliffy, is not remarkable for any thing else but for having the metropolis of the kingdom seated on its banks. It rises from the mountains near the Seven Churches in the county of Wicklow, and making a circling course through that county, and the counties of Kildare and Dublin, loses itself in the Irish sea below the city of Dublin.

The Boyne is a much more considerable river than the Liffy, and rises not far from Clanbullage in the King's county, and falls into the sea at Drogheda.

There are many other considerable rivers in this kingdom, which shall be passed over unmentioned to have more words to spare on the Shannon, the noblest and largest of them all: it rises out of a ridge of mountains called Slieu-Nerin, in the barony of Drumahair and county of Leitrim, where it soon forms a considerable lough called Lough-Alleyn, which is usually taken for the source of it. A journey from its rise to its mouth would complete upwards of one hundred and fifty Irish miles, from Limerick alone to the sea being near fifty. It divides the kingdom, as it were, into two peninsula's, and is a boundary between the province of Connaught and those of Leinster, Ulster, and Munster, unless the county of Clare be reckoned a part of Munster, as it sometimes is. In its course it receives numbers of large and small rivers, which swell and enlarge it, and pay a tribute to its glory; the principal of which are the Buelle or Boyle, and the Sick in the county of Roscommon; the Camlin and Sharroge in the county of Longford; the Inny, in the county of Westmeath; the two rivers Brosnagh in the King's county; the Mage, Deel, Smirlagh, Feale, Gally, Cashin, and Bruck, on the Limerick and Kerry side; and the Fergus or Forgio on the Clare side, besides innumerable smaller rivers. The banks of the Shannon are adorned with several towns of consequence, not to reckon pleasant seats; as Killaloe, a bishop's see, Banagher, Carrick, James-Town, Newtown, Forbes, Lanesborough, Athlone, and Limerick; together with villages of lesser account innumerable. It is
remarkable

together with villages of lesser account innumerable. It is remarkable also for several overspreadings of its waters, called loughs, in which are many pleasant and profitable islands; and these are Lough-Alleyn, Lough-Boffin, Lough-Ree, Lough-Cerghart, and one in the county of Clare; all which abound with fish of various kinds, of which the pike grows to an immense size. But with all the advantages and beauties of this river, it has one great defect; namely, a ridge of rocks south of Killaloe, spreading quite across it, which causes a cataract or water-fall, and stops all navigation further up, though otherwise so wide and deep, that with a few helps it would be navigable almost to its source, not only for boats, but for barks of reasonable burthen. The lord Stafford, in the time of his government, formed a design to remove this let, by causing a new channel to be cut for a small way to avoid the rock: to which end he sent some skilful surveyors to take a view of the river, and the parts adjoining, and to examine diligently whether the attempt were feasible or not; who made their report, that it was practicable, and might be effected for seven or eight thousand pounds; but his misfortunes ensuing, put an end to so commendable and good a work. Another design was laid to make this river navigable from the kay of Limerick to Carrickdrumrust in the county of Leitrim, by an act of parliament passed in the second year of king George I. by which four persons named in the act, and their nominees, were authorised, at their own expence, to proceed on this desirable project; and, for a recompence, were empowered to receive, for ever, two-pence for every hundred weight of goods, and three-pence for each passenger, for every ten miles, that should pass or be conveyed up or down the river: but, notwithstanding this encouragement, whether through inability or want of courage in the persons empowered, or from some other cause, not the least step hath been taken to carry on so necessary a work. The commissioners of the inland navigation have for some time been employed not only to make this river navigable, but to give to it, by cuts, canals, and sluices, a communication with some other rivers of this kingdom; which purposes are at length nearly effected.

Manufactures and Traffic.] The discouragements laid on Ireland by the act of navigation, and other laws made in England, are so many, that it cannot reasonably be expected this country should flourish so much in trade, as its natural situation, extended coasts, its rivers, bays, and harbours commodious for navigation, would seem to promise. And

these impediments will continue till the people of England shall think it their true interest to admit Ireland into a fuller participation of trade; which one time or other will be the case, not only as it will produce an increase of taxes, which riches can afford, but as the wealth of this country must in the event, as it now does for the most part, center in the capital of that kingdom; of which a hint has been given before. The chief exports of Ireland consist of linen-cloth and yarn, lawns and cambrics, which are fully manufactured, and exported to a considerable advantage, the English laws giving great encouragements to this branch of trade; which, in reality, with a few exceptions, may be said to be the source of whatever wealth is in Ireland. To these exports may be added wool and bay yarn, exported to England only; beef, pork, green hides, some tann'd leather, calf-skins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheese, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horse-hair, lead in no great proportion, copper-ore, herrings, dried fish, rabbit-skins, and fur, otter-skins, goat-skins, salmon, and a few other particulars. Writers even of yesterday report, that there is a considerable export from thence of pipe-staves, and that the country is not yet sufficiently cleared of woods; the contrary of which is well known, for there is a great scarcity of timber in Ireland for common uses; and what is necessary for building, &c. is imported from abroad. Many of the iron works there have been suffered to go into disuse for want of wood to supply them; and such as continue are chiefly fed by timber searched for in the bowels of the earth, in bogs, or morassy grounds, where they have lain for immemorial ages. It has been observed before, that wool and bay yarn are allowed to be exported into England, and into no other parts; and yet from a thirst after gain, all hazards are run to send them by stealth into other countries, to the great detriment of the English woollen trade, which the severities of repeated laws cannot prevent. These laws have driven not only the wool, but many of the most expert manufacturers, into France, where they have met with great encouragement; and the woollen trade is brought to such a condition there, that they are able to undersell the British in foreign markets; and, perhaps, the most effectual way to recover this valuable branch out of the hands of our enemies, would be to restore the woollen manufacture to Ireland, at least in the coarse branches of it, and to make it the interest of the people to employ their wool and hands at home.

Persons, habits, genius, and tempers.] If the characters of the native Irish be taken from any modern writers, it would lead

lead the reader astray; for they represent them much in the same light as Strabo, Pomponious, Mela, Solinus, and other ancients have done, without making any allowance for the reformation and civility of manners, introduced from time to time among them by their intercourse with the English. The ancient planters of Ireland are generally supposed to have come from different quarters of the world, and at different periods; for which reason, it would not be improper to distinguish between the inhabitants on the western coast, and those on the northern and eastern. The former are supposed to be a colony from Spain, as being the opposite continent to them. These generally resemble the Spaniards in their persons; being tall and slender, finely limbed, with grave and sedate countenances, having long eye-brows, and lank dark hair. The natives on the northern and eastern coasts, who are supposed to have arrived there from Britain, and probably into Britain from Gaul, are of a different composition; being of a squat set stature, with short broad faces, thick lips, hollow eyes, and noses cocked up, and seem to be a distinct people from the western Irish. The curious may carry these remarks further. Doubtless, a long intercourse, and various mixtures of the natives by marriages, have much worn out these distinctions, of which, nevertheless, there seem to be yet visible remains. To speak in general, they are a strong-bodied people, nimble, active, of great softness and pliancy in their limbs, (occasioned probably by the great moisture and temperament of the air) bold, haughty, quick-witted, cunning, hospitable, credulous, vain-glorious, full of resentment, and violent in all their affections.

The ancient habit of the Irish was a frize cloak, with a fringed or shagged border, and their under garment a doublet and close breeches called trowsers. The women wore a mantle over a long gown; and both men and women a kind of shoe without a heel, made of half-tanned leather, called a brogue. Now all sorts of people have conformed to the English dress, except in the brogue, which the common people yet use.

They are reproached for want of genius; and some have gone so far, as to call them a nation of blunderers; but these aspersions are in the mouths only of a few ignorant people; for Ireland hath produced some men of as great learning, and of as elevated a genius, as any nation in Europe can boast of; of whom it will be enough to mention Dr. James Usher of the last, and Dr. Jonathan Swift of the present century. Their bravery and military skill cannot be disputed; and we see, at

this day, generals of that nation in esteem in most of the armies in Europe. The natives of Ireland in the French service have often signalized themselves, of which the action at Cremona in Italy is a memorable instance. When prince Eugene had possessed himself of that city by surprize, and taken Villeroy, the French general, prisoner in his bed, the prince was driven out of the town by the Irish battalions then in the French service, headed by their general Mahony. And, it is said, that at Fontenoy, the Irish troops in the French service restored their battle when their principals were ready to give way. It would be well if as much could be said for their temper as for their genius and bravery.

Language.] The Irish and British or Welch language, are much the same in their structure, and differ principally by the intermixture of other languages with them from time to time, by which they have been more or less refined or polished, and an alteration in the pronunciation, whereof thousands of instances might be given, which would be little to the satisfaction of the reader, since the Irish language is in a manner lost, or, at least, understood by very few. Let it suffice therefore to give a specimen of this language in the Pater-noster, or Lord's prayer: viz. "Ar Nathair a taar Reamh: Naomthar hainen; Tigeadh do rioghachd: Deantor do thoilaran talamh, mar do nithear ar neamh. Ar naran hao tham hail tabhair dhuinn niu. Agus maith dhuinn dhifiaca, mar mhaitmidne dar hfeitheamhnaibh fein. Agus na leig sinn accathuhadh, achd Sáor inn ô olc. Oir is leachd fein an Rioghachd, agus an cumhachd, agus an ghloir go fionruighe. Amen."

Religion.] The religion established in Ireland, is the same as in England, both in doctrine and discipline, and no difference between the thirty-nine articles of each. The canons indeed of both churches do not exactly agree; though they had the same air and spirit, yet formerly they differed in a few articles, which we looked upon as inclining to Calvinism; to reform which, it was established in a convocation convened in Ireland in 1635, that some of the canons should be selected out of the English book of canons, and such others added, as should be judged agreeable to the genius and polity of the church of Ireland, which was accordingly done. The government of the church is under four archbishops; namely, Armagh, who is the primate of all Ireland; Dublin, (to which Glendalough has been united ever since the reign of king John;) Cashell (to which Emly was united by act of parliament 1568;) and Tuam, (to which Enehdune was united in the fourteenth century, Mayo in the fifteenth, and Kilfernora,

fernora, which was annexed to Tuam upon the restoration of king Charles the Second, and hath gone with it ever since, till lately that it is transferred to Clonfert, and Ardagh in its room disunited from Bilmore, and carried over to this archiepiscopal see.) Under the visitation of these four archbishops are nineteen bishops; namely, under Armagh, Meath, (to which Clonmacnois was united about the year 1598) Clogher, Down, (to which Connor was united by the pope in 1452) Kilmore, (to which Ardagh was united in 1661, but now lately transferred to Tuam) Dromore, Raphoe and Derry. Under the archbishop of Dublin, Kildare, Ossory, and Ferns, to which Leiglin has been annexed ever since the year 1600. Under the archbishop of Cashell, Limerick (to which Artfret and Aghadoe, were united in 1663,) Waterford, (which was united to Lismore in 1363, by the pope, and confirmed by king Edward the Third,) Cork, (united to Ross) Cloyne and Killaloe. Under the archbishop of Tuam, Elphin, Clonfert, (to which Kilmacduach, and lately Kilfenora, are united) and Killala, to which Achonry was united in 1607, and hath continued so ever since. These several prelates have their deans and other dignitaries to assist them with their counsel, except Meath, which hath neither dean nor chapter, cathedral, nor œconomy; but the archdeacon is the head officer of the diocese, the affairs of which are transacted by a synod, in the nature of a chapter, who have a common-seal, which is annually lodged in the hands of one of the body by the vote of the majority. This is the ecclesiastical state of the church of Ireland, as established by law.

There are several other religions professed in Ireland, though none but the foregoing are upon the foot of an establishment, but subsist by toleration and connivance; as presbyterians, anabaptists, quakers, &c. and above all, that most dangerous religion of the papists, who will not submit to the king's supremacy even in temporals, but place the same in a foreign jurisdiction. They have their bishops and other dignitaries, like the established church: but neither they, nor the inferior clergy of that communion, have any other revenues than the voluntary contributions of their poor disciples, whom they govern with an absolute sway.

University.] The only university in Ireland is that of Dublin, consisting of one college under the title of, The College of the holy and undivided Trinity near Dublin, founded by the most serene queen Elizabeth; in which a power is reserved of obtaining all degrees of batchelors, masters, and doctors, in all arts and faculties. It at first, by the charter,

consisted of a provost, three fellows in the name of more, and three scholars in the name of more. At present it consists of a provost, seven senior, thirteen junior fellows, and seventy scholars of the house, who have some maintenance upon the foundation; and the whole number educated in it are about five hundred. The first stone of it was laid on the thirteenth of March, 1591; and on the ninth of January, 1593, the first students were admitted into it. It was erected on the site of the dissolved Augustinian monastery of All Saints in the suburbs of Dublin, which had been granted by king Henry VIII. to the mayor and citizens of that city, and by them transferred to this use. The buildings of this college, in its first state, were narrow and mean; but since have been greatly enlarged, both in compass and magnificence. The original constitution of it hath been much changed since its foundation, by a new charter granted in 1637, and another set of statutes. By the first charter, the fellows were obliged to quit the college in seven years after they commenced masters of arts; by the second charter they were made tenants for life in their fellowships, if they thought proper. The first provides, that upon the vacancy of a fellowship or scholarship, the place shall be filled up by an election, within two months after the vacancy; and the election was placed in a majority of the fellows: by the new charter it was ordered, that upon the vacancy of a senior fellowship, the same shall be supplied within three days after the vacancy made known, by a majority of equal number of the surviving senior fellows, together with the provost; and, upon a vacancy of a junior fellowship or scholarship, that the same be filled by the provost and senior fellows, or the major part of them, together with the provost, on the Monday after Trinity Sunday following the vacancy. By the first constitution, the number of fellows were only seven, and they of equal authority, without distinction, into senior and junior. By the new charter, the number of fellows was enlarged, and distinguished into seven seniors and nine juniors, (which numbers has been since augmented) and the number of scholars was enlarged to seventy. The mortmain licence, which, by the first charter, was four hundred pound a year, was enlarged to six hundred pound. And the visitors, appointed by the first charter, were the chancellor, or his vice-chancellor, the archbishop of Dublin, the bishop of Meath, the vice-treasurer, treasurer at war, the chief-justice of the King's-bench, and the mayor of the city of Dublin, all for the time being, or the major part of them. By the new charter, the visitors were restrained to the chancellor

or his vice-chancellor, and the archbishop of Dublin. Out of this university have proceeded numbers of men, from time to time, of great learning and abilities, to enumerate whom is not within the present design.

Schools.] There are in Ireland several free-schools erected for the education of youth, and endowed both by public and private munificence, which shall be only in general hinted at; for a minute detail of their numbers and foundations would not be of any considerable use. King James I. endowed a free-school in each of the six escheated counties of Ulster, with lands of considerable value; namely, in the counties of Armagh, Tyrone, Donnegal, Londonderry, Cavan and Fermanagh. The first duke of Ormond erected and endowed a school at Kilkenny, with a good school-house and habitation for the master and scholars, and a rent-charge of one hundred and thirty pound a year for the maintenance thereof, together with a small portion of land. Erasmus Smyth, esq. endowed the school of Tipperary with one hundred marks annually, besides a house and garden, and a small parcel of land; and several other places in the kingdom have tasted of the fruits of his munificence. The statute of twelve Elizabeth provides, that there should be a free-school erected in every diocese in Ireland; the school-masters to be Englishmen, or of the English birth of Ireland; and the nomination to them all was lodged in the chief governor, except those of Armagh, Dublin, Meath, and Kildare, which was vested in the respective prelates of those sees.

The wisdom of man could not contrive a more effectual method for the instruction of the poor popish natives of Ireland in the principles of real Christianity, and for the inuring them to industry, labour, and obedience to their sovereign, than the institution of the incorporated society for promoting English protestant working schools. The first rise of this scheme was effected from small and inconsiderable beginnings. In the year 1717, Dr. Henry Maule, bishop of Meath, being then only a beneficed clergyman, promoted a private society in Dublin for the encouragement of English protestant charity-schools for teaching poor children to read and write, and instructing them in the principles of religion and virtue. Many good clergymen and laymen joined in the design, whose subscriptions were only half a crown a quarter: they had anniversary sermons, some of which were printed and spread abroad; and by their influence many charity-schools were erected in town and country. In 1730 a proposal was drawn up by Dr. Maule, then bishop of Cloyne, assisted by Mr. Dawson, cu-

rate of St. Michan's parish, intituled, An humble propofal for obtaining his majesty's royal charter to incorporate a fociety for promoting Chriftian knowledge amongft the poor natives of Ireland. What gave a foundation to this propofal was, the obfervations made on the great fuccefs of a legally eftablifhed charter for promoting the Gofpel in foreign parts; and that Scotland had grafted on the fame model, and obtained a charter to enable them to receive two thoufand pound a year in land, and money to any fum, for promoting the like defign. This propofal made its way into the court of St. James's, by the means of the late marquis of Montandre, mafter of the ordnance in Ireland, and was well relifhed by his majesty. The fame year many bifhops and gentlemen of diftinction met at the lord-primate Boulter's houfe, to concert means for forwarding a petition to the king upon the occafion; which was then drawn up, and a few days after figned in the Parliament-houfe, and was laid before his majesty, and graciously received: in purfuance of which, a charter was paffed on the twenty-fourth of Oétober, 1733, which was opened with folemnity in the council-chamber on the fixth of February following. The duke of Dorfet, then lord-lieutenant, was elected prefident, and the lord-primate Boulter vice-prefident and treafurer. A fubfcription was immediately fet on foot, to which the late earl of Kildare contributed five hundred pound, and hath fince bequeathed one thoufand five hundred pound to the fociety for encouraging the fchool at Caftle-Dermot, and for erecting two other fchools, one at Strangford, and the other at Manooth; and many others at the fame time contributed leffer fums. Though the lord-primate was not the firft contriver of this inftitution, yet he was the main inftrument in forwarding fo good a work, which he lived to fee carried into execution with confiderable fuccefs. He paid all the fees for paffing the charter through the feveral offices, fubfcribed twenty-three pound a year, and afterwards paid upwards of four hundred pound towards the building of a working-fchool on the lands of Santry near Dublin. The fociety were often obliged to his grace for their neceffary fupport, who, to his annual and occafional benefactions, frequently added that of being their conftant refource upon all emergencies, by answering the draughts made on him as treafurer, when he had no cafh of the fociety's in his hands, which amounted to confiderable fums. So that though his grace cannot be called the father of this infant, yet with truth he may be affirmed to be the indulgent nurfe and fupport of it while he lived; and it was unhappy for the fociety, that he

he was taken off at a short warning, when he had not the power of altering his will, which was made before the erection of it: for undoubtedly he would have been a nobler benefactor to a scheme, which in his life time he had so much at heart. His majesty contributed a thousand pounds in hand and a thousand pounds a year, to support the design; and the parliament of Ireland, for the same purpose, created a new fund in the hawkers and pedlars act, and appropriated the whole produce of the duties arising from thence to the use of the charter, amounting to near three thousand pounds a year. By means of those encouragements, together with the several large benefactions both from England and Ireland, and some even from the West-Indies, there have been thirty-four schools erected and filled with children, who are maintained therein with all necessaries, and instructed in the duties of true religion, brought up to labour and industry, and, when fitted for it, are put out apprentices to protestant masters; and, after their apprenticeships are expired, a portion of five pound is given to him or her who marries a protestant with the approbation of a committee of fifteen, and a certificate that he or she have duly served out their apprenticeship. Besides these thirty-four schools, eight more are now building, and most of them fit to receive inhabitants, and three or four intended to be immediately set forward. Add to these, a charter-nursery hired for that use in Dublin, where children, sent up from the country in rags, are clothed, fed, and taught, and attended by a master, mistress, and nurse; from whence they are transplanted to country schools, as occasion offers. There are between eleven and twelve hundred children at present provided for in these schools, besides the numbers in the nursery; and between seven and eight hundred have been already apprenticed.

Curiosities.] An exemption from serpents, and other venomous creatures, may be well esteemed a very uncommon curiosity, and not granted by God to any other part of the habitable globe, unless one may except the islands of Crete, now cyled Candia, and Ebusus or Yvica; which exemptions Solinus, chap. 17, and Pliny, Lib. 8, chap. 58, ascribe to them. Ireland has, indeed, spiders and neuts, but not poisonous. Another curiosity, not much inferior to the former, is the credulity of numbers in Ireland, and some of them men of learning, who impute this exemption to a miracle wrought by St. Patrick: whereas the before-mentioned Solinus, who lived some centuries before St Patrick, mentions this property as a matter well known in his time.

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The Irish wolf-dogs, being creatures of great strength and size, and of a fine shape, may be ranked among the curiosities of this country, which have been esteemed as presents fit to be sent to kings; of which there is an instance in Sir Thomas Rowe, ambassador to the great-mogul, who obtained large favours from that monarch on account of a present of those dogs, which he made in 1615. There is extant, in the Rolls Office of Ireland, a privy-seal from king Henry VIII. obtained at the suit of the duke of Alberkyrke of Spain, (who was of the privy-council to Henry VIII.) for the delivery of two gos-hawks, and four Irish greyhounds, to the Spanish marquis of Dessaraya and his son, and the survivor of them, yearly; which shews the value put by foreigners on such presents. The gos-hawk and ger-falcons may be also mentioned under this head, as they are esteemed the best in the world. The ger-falcon, the largest bird of the falcon kind, approaching the size of a vulture, and of the greatest strength next to the eagle. Belisarius, an ancient writer, gives a full account of this bird: "The ger-falcons, (says he) as they are but rarely to be met with, so they excel all other hawks in beauty. For, besides the shape and fashion of their body, they stand so erect, and delight the eyes with such an elegant composition of their limbs, that they give as it were a grandeur to the diversion of hawking. Their country is the remotest part of Germany verging to the north, called Norway: they build also in a island commonly called Hirlandia [Ireland.]" And, after giving a fabulous account of the excessive cold and barrenness of Ireland, he proceeds thus: "The merchants, who frequent this island, import into it a little rye and meal, and the cheapest wares of small account, which they barter for dried fish; and they bring those ger-falcon hawks to Maximilian, emperor of Germany, the feathers of which are more white and beautiful than those of other countries. For such as are brought to us from Norway are not white, nor so large, though we look upon them to be of a better kind. Nevertheless it is found by experience, that the ger-falcons build their nests only in these two parts of the world; from whence it happens, that naturally their flights are but dull and slow, and the falconers are obliged to exercise on them their skill and ingenuity; so that, by long exercise and custom, they are brought at length to mount above the highest quarry."

The mouse-deer whose horns have been often discovered under ground in bogs, of an immense size, and that large fowl the cock of the wood, equalling the peacock in size,
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are not now to be mentioned, the species of both being extinct in Ireland.

The tall, slender, round towers, built of lime and stone, and dispersed through various parts of this kingdom; as they are matters of antiquity, so they are purely matters of curiosity, the like not being to be found elsewhere in any part of Europe.

But among all the curiosities of Ireland, that stupendous and surprizing piece of nature's workmanship, commonly called the Giant's Causeway in the county of Antrim, is so singularly remarkable, that perhaps the like is not to be seen in any other part of the world. It is of a triangular shape, and extends from the foot of a steep hill into the sea, nobody knows how far; but at low-water the length of it is six hundred feet, or more, and of a considerable breadth. It consists of many thousand pillars, triangular and so on to octangular, most of them pentagonal and hexagonal, but all irregular, few of them having their sides of equal breadth. Their sizes are also unequal, being from sixteen to twenty-six, but generally about twenty inches diameter, and the two sides of the same pillar are seldom equal in breadth; yet the side of the next contiguous pillar is equally formed. Every pillar has as many others joined round it, as it has sides, except the outward ones, which shew one, two, or three faces to view. Some of them are much longer and higher than the rest, some shorter, and more broken, some for a pretty large space of an equal heigh, so that their tops make an even and plain surface. None of the pillars consist of one entire stone, but each column is made up of several joints or pieces, of twelve, sixteen, eighteen inches, and some even two feet long, not jointed together by flat surfaces; but when one part of the pillar is separated from the other, one piece is always concave, and the other convex, joined to each other in a kind of articulation. The vast height of the strait jointed pillars, especially of the most slender and most perfect among them, is amazing; some being thirty-two, others thirty-six feet high above the strand: how far they reach under ground is not yet discovered, though they have been traced eight feet deep, without receiving satisfaction as to the real depth. As to the properties of these pillars, and other particulars relating to them, the reader is referred to the Antiquities of Ireland, chap. 34; where he will find a more minute account of them, and of many other curiosities standing eastward and westward of them, no less surprizing than those described. Some wonderful things ascribed to Ireland by Nennius, a writer of the ninth century,

and from him copied by Cambrensis and others, are here omitted, because most of them, by experience, are found to be false; and such as carry any truth in them, are so blended with fable, that they are not worth repeating.

Constitution of government.] Since Ireland became subject to the crown of England, the constitution of the government there varies but little from that of the mother country. The kings of England have always sent vice-roys thither to administer the public affairs in their name, and by their authority, who, in different ages, have, in their letters patents and commissions been stiled by divers names; as, Custos or Keeper, Justiciary, Warden, Procurator, Seneschal, Constable, Justice, Justices, Deputy and Lieutenant; all which names import the same thing in effect; namely, the administrator of the public justice, and affairs of the kingdom, under the authority, and by the commission of the king; and were like the procursuls of the antient Romans. The jurisdictions and authority of these officers is ample and royal, yet modified by the terms of their commissions; in some restrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleasure, or the exigencies of the times. When any chief governor enters upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council chamber; and, having taken the usual oath before the lord-chancellor, the sword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is seated in the chair of state, attended by the lord-chancellor, the members of the privy-council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a serjeant at arms, and other officers of state. So that if he be considered in regard to his jurisdiction and authority, or his train, attendance or splendor, there is no vice-roy in Christendom that comes nearer the grandeur and majesty of a king. He has a council composed of the great officers of the crown; namely, the chancellor, treasurer, (when in the kingdom) and such other of the archbishops, earls, bishops, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majesty is pleased to appoint. When a chief governor dies, or his place becomes vacant by surrender or departure out of the realm without licence, the chancellor issues writs to the king's counsellors, in certain shires, to appear, and make an election of another, to serve until the king authorize one, and he be sworn; and this is done by virtue of a statute made in the reign of king Henry VIII.

As in England, so in Ireland, the parliament is the supreme court, which is convened by the king's writ, and prorogued or dissolved at his pleasure; yet, during the late reigns, they have

have been continued during the king's life; which is no diminution of his prerogative, since his majesty can call and dissolve them when he pleases. By the statute of the tenth of Henry VII. chap. 14, commonly called Poyning's Act, the legislature of Ireland received a considerable alteration: for whereas, before that act, it consisted of the king, by his representative, the chief governor or governors, for the time being, and the lords and commons, it was now provided, "That no parliament be holden for the time to come in Ireland, but at such season as the king's lieutenant and council there do first certify the king, under the great-seal of that land, the causes and considerations, and all such acts as to them seemeth should pass in the same parliament, and such causes, considerations and acts affirmed by the king and his council to be good and expedient for that land; and his licence thereupon, as well in affirmation of the said causes and acts, as to summon the said parliament under his great-seal of England, had and obtained; that done, a parliament to be had and holden after the form and effect afore-rehearsed. And if any parliament to be holden in that land hereafter, contrary to the form and provision aforesaid, it be deemed void and of none effect in law." By this act the privy-councils of the two kingdoms became branches of the legislature of Ireland; which before consisted only of the king, by his representative, and the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons. A statute made in the third and fourth of Philip and Mary, explains and enlarges Poyning's Act. For as, in that act, the king's lieutenant and council were the persons only named to certify the acts necessary to be passed, and the causes and considerations of holding a parliament, it was doubted, whether such a certificate from a lord-deputy, justice, or justices, or other chief governor, or governors and council, were sufficient within the terms thereof; it was therefore, by the said statute of Philip and Mary, declared, "That the certificate of any of the said chief governors and council should be sufficient." And it was further provided, "That, after the summons of every parliament, and during the sessions, such chief governor, or governors and council, may, under the great-seal, certify all such other considerations, causes, tenors, provisions, and ordinances, as they shall think good to be enacted; and upon return thereof, under the great-seal of England, such and no other shall and may pass and be enacted in the parliament of Ireland, in case the same be agreed and resolved upon by the three estates of the parliament of Ireland." Now, since these acts, laws take their first motion, either from the

privy-council of Ireland, or from either of the houses of parliament, but they must be certified over by the council, and upon their return, under the great-seal of England, either the lords or commons have a negative to them. Parliaments thus constituted, make laws to bind the kingdom, and raise taxes for the support of the government, and for the maintenance of an army of twelve thousand men, which are cantoned into barracks in several parts of the kingdom, and kept to a constant discipline; and from this excellent nursery are draughted into his majesty's service, wherever his affairs require it.

This parliament is constituted of archbishops, earls, viscounts, bishops, and barons, as many as the king pleases to create, (among whom are some Roman catholics, who may qualify themselves to sit when they please) and three hundred members of the House of Commons.

There are also in Ireland, as in England, four terms held yearly for the dispatch of controversies between party and party; and four courts of justice: namely, the Chancery, King's-Bench, Common-pleas, and Exchequer. In the first of which a single person presides under the name of the king's high-chancellor, and keeper of the great-seal. In the King's-Bench, and Common-Pleas, are a chief-justice and two judges in each; and in the Exchequer, the treasurer, the chancellor, chief-baron, and two barons, and in all of them subordinate officers.

Here is also a court of Exchequer-chamber, for correcting errors at law in the other courts; in which are the lord-chancellor, and lord-treasurer, the vice-treasurers, with the two chief-justices.

There are also judges of assize and gaol-delivery, being those of the supreme courts, who travel twice a year into the several counties (except that of Dublin) for the trial of prisoners and suits of nisi-prius between party and party; as also a court of admiralty, which has jurisdiction in maritime affairs, and is administered by commission from the admiralty of England. Besides these, there are spiritual courts; as the convocation, which used to be held at the same time with the parliament, but has not been convened, I think, since the year 1709; the courts of prerogative, where a commissary judges of the estates of persons deceased, whether intestate, or by will; and in every diocese a consistory court, from whence appeals lie to the supreme court of prerogative, and from thence to a court of special delegates appointed by the king.

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There are also governors of counties, and justices of the peace, appointed by the king's commissions through the several counties, to preserve the peace where they reside, whose power is grounded upon several statutes; and high and petty constables, and other officers instituted for the same end. But the chief officer of every county is the high-sheriff, who was heretofore chosen in the county court by the suffrages of the people; but now is nominated by the chief governor.

When to these we add seven commissioners appointed by the king to manage his revenue, and other inferior officers for collecting and getting it in; together with one hundred and eighteen cities and corporate towns, we may see how little the constitution of England and Ireland differ.

Revolutions and memorable events.] It is a general opinion, that the first inhabitants of Ireland were colonies from Great-Britain, which can scarce admit of a controversy, both on account of the near neighbourhood of Britain to it, from whence the passage is easy into Ireland, as from the language, rights and customs of the ancient Irish, between which and those of the ancient Britons there is a great analogy. Tacitus, in the life of Agricola, gives the same reasons why Britain was first inhabited from Gaul. What gives a further countenance to this opinion is, that Ireland, in antient times, was enumerated among the British islands, and reckoned as one of them, to which Pliny, Apuleius, Diodorus Siculus, and Pto'my, bear witness; and the later of these writers places several tribes of people in Ireland, who bore the same name with those in Britain. Thus the Brigantes, Coriondi, or Coritani, and Belgæ, are pointed out as inhabitants in different parts of Ireland, and people of the same names may also be found in Britain.

The first colony that assumed the regal title in Ireland, were called Firbolgs, Viri Belgæ, i. e. Belgians, who are with probability supposed to come from Belgæ of Britain, who were inhabitants of Somersetshire, Hampshire, Wiltshire, and the isle of Wight, and those British Belgians are supposed to come from the Belgæ, a people of Gaul. They are said to have settled in Ireland, and to have established some form of government in the year of the world 2657, which they ruled thirty-seven, some more probably say eighty years, under nine kings.

The Belgians were dispossessed by the Tuath-de-Danans, or Danonians, a people also from Britain, in the year of the world 2737, who governed Ireland for one hundred and ninety-seven years, during the reigns of nine monarchs; then the great revolution, brought about by the Milesian adventurers, took effect in the year of the world 2934.

It is by all accounts agreed, that the Milesians came from Spain, and having vanquished the Danonians, assumed the government which they administered for the space of 2187 years, during the reigns of one hundred and sixty-six kings, till the year of Christ 1172, when the Irish submitted to Henry II. king of England. During this long period several memorable events happened, which shall be mentioned in as short a method as is possible.

A. D. 432, St. Patrick preached the Gospel in Ireland, and having converted most part of the nation to Christianity, died in 493. Attempts were made thirty years before this by four holy men, Kieran, Ailbe, Declan, and Ibar, for the conversion of the Irish, and not without considerable success; but the bringing over the princes and the bulk of the people to the faith was reserved for St. Patrick.

Bede gives an account, "That in the year 684, Egfred, king of Northumberland, sent an army into Ireland under the conduct of his general Bertfrid, who miserably ravished that inoffensive nation, which had always maintained a most close and friendly intercourse with the English, not sparing either churches or monasteries, which people had offered no offence. The Irish recovered out of their first surprize, and invoking the divine aid, assembled their forces, and defended themselves so well, that Bertfrid was obliged to return home with disgrace, and a shattered army." Historians are silent as to the cause of this invasion; but it was probably occasioned by the Irish giving shelter and protection to Alfred, natural son to king Osway, who was father to Egfrid, and whom Osway had made king of Deira in his own life time, to the prejudice of Egfrid, and so separated the kingdoms of Deira and Bernicia, which before was united. The Deirians, by the instigations of Egfrid, revolted from Alfred, who was obliged to fly to Ireland for protection, and wait for a favourable opportunity to recover the kingdom.

A. D. 795, a more cruel enemy than Egfrid invaded Ireland; namely, the Danes and Norwegians, under the name Ostmen; who, by various battles and successes fixed themselves in several parts of that country, which they domineered

domineered over till the arrival of the English, during the space of three hundred and seventy seven years.

A. D. 964. About this year Edgar, king of England, subdued a great part of Ireland, with its most noble city of Dublin, as it is said in the preamble of a charter ascribed to him, which nevertheless is looked upon by some writers as a forgery of the monks.

A. D. 1014, Was fought the bloody and memorable battle of Clontarfe, near Dublin, on the twenty-third of April, between Bryan Boro, king of Ireland, and Sitrick the Dane, king of Dublin, in which king Bryan obtained the victory, though he, his son, and grandson, a great number of his grandees, and seven thousand, some say eleven thousand foldiers, fell in the battle.

A. D. 1066, Godred Crovan, king of Man, subdued Dublin, and a great part of Leinster, as is related in the chronicle of Man.

A. D. 1104, The same chronicle relates, "That Magnus, king of Norway, having subdued the isle of Man, and the Orcades, sent his shoes to Mortagh Mack-Loghlin, king of Ireland, commanding him to carry them upon his shoulders through his house on Christmas-day, in the presence of his ambassadors, to signify his subjection to him. The Irish received this news with great indignation; but the king considered better, and told the ambassadors he would not only carry, but also eat his shoes, rather than king Magnus should lay waste one province in Ireland; so he complied with the order, and honourably entertaining the ambassadors, sent them back with many presents to their master, with whom he made a league. The ambassadors returning, gave their master an account of the situation, pleasantness, fertility and healthfulness of the air of Ireland. Magnus hearing this, turned his thoughts wholly upon the conquest of that country; to which end he fitted out a fleet, and went before with sixteen ships to take a view of the island; but, having unwarily landed, he was surrounded by the Irish, and cut off, with most of those who attended him."

A. D. 1110. About this year, Gille, bishop of Limerick, and the pope's legate, introduced the Roman liturgy and form of public service into the church of Ireland, which was seconded by Malachy, archbishop of Armagh, who was also the pope's legate some years after; and in 1171 was perfected by another legate, Christian, bishop of Lismore, in a synod held at Cashell, which the year following was confirmed by

king Henry II. so late was it before the popish use of chaunting mafs was fettled in this kingdom.

A. D. 1155. At this time the foundation was laid for reducing Ireland to the obedience of the crown of England, which in the event took place, though not immediately, to the infinite happiness of that country, by civilizing the inhabitants thereof, and reclaiming them from a state of barbarism and contempt, to the flourishing and reformed condition they now are in. It will be therefore necessary to prosecute this subject more fully than the design of a concise brevity can well admit of.

About Michaelmas, king Henry of England held a great council of his peers at Winchester, with whom he consulted about conquering Ireland, not only on account of the piracies and outrages the Irish daily commit against his subjects, and the cruelties they exercised on those who fell under their power, whom they bought and sold as slaves, and used a Turkish tyranny over their persons, but principally as frequent aids were set against him from thence in his wars with France. This project, though then laid aside, was advanced so far, that the king sent an ambassador to pope Adrian, who granted him a bull, that by his authority and assent he might reduce Ireland, for the increase of the Christian religion, the correcting the evil manners of the people, and propagating virtue among them. The pope pretended by his bull, that all Christian islands belonged to the see of Rome; which, how infirm soever, was of infinite advantage in those times of dark ignorance, and unbounded superstition. The bull was soon after carried over to Ireland, and publicly read in a synod at Waterford. The king, on account of his embroiled affairs in France, as well as the difficulty of the enterprize, was prevailed on to postpone the design till a more favourable opportunity, which in a few years after presented itself. For,

A. D. 1168, Dermod Mac-Murrough, king of Leinster, having from his first advancement to the crown, been a great oppressor of his nobility, and a cruel tyrant over his other subjects, had now, by his power, forced several of the neighbouring princes (namely, O-Neil, O-Melaghlin, and O-Carrol) to give him hostages; and, debauching the wife of O-Roirk, king of Bresny, carried her away by her own consent in the absence of her husband. O-Roirk made suit to Rodorick O-Connor, king of Ireland, for aid to revenge this outrage; who promised him succour, and immediately dispatched couriers to the king of Ossory and Meath, and to Mack-

Mack-Turkill, the Danish petty king of Dublin; who all, though vassals and tributaries to Dermot, were readily prevailed on to revenge their own wrongs, and most of his other subjects deserted king Dermot.

Thus forsaken, he abandoned his country, and with sixty servants in his retinue, repaired to king Henry II. then in Aquitain at war with the French king, and in a most suppliant manner implored his aid. Though Henry could not assist him in person, yet taking his oath of vassalage and allegiance, he gave him credentials to all his subjects, English, Norman, Welch, and Scots, importing a free licence to assist him in the recovery of his kingdom. Dermot passed to Bristol, where he caused Henry's letters to be published, as well as his own overtures of entertainment, to all who would assist him. His chief dependance was upon earl Strongbow, a nobleman of great abilities and power, but by his profusion obnoxious to his creditors beyond measure, and from thence most ready to embrace all motions, that promised any means of extricating him from his difficulties. Him Dermot engaged by promising him his daughter Eva in marriage, and the reversion of the kingdom of Leinster after his death. In his journey to St. David's in Wales, he contracted for the assistance of Robert Fitz-Stephens and Maurice Fitz-Gerald, by promising them in fee the town of Wexford, and the two adjoining cantreds. From St. David's he sailed to Ireland, and wintered at Ferns in private among the clergy, impatiently waiting the arrival of his new confederates.

A. D. 1169. In May, Fitz-Stephens, accompanied by Meiler Fitz-Henry, Meiler Fitz-David, Maurice de Prindergast, Hervey of Mount-Maurice, and others, to the number of thirty knights, sixty in jacks, or light coats of mail, and about three hundred archers and footmen, landed near Wexford, and gave notice of their arrival to Dermot, who, with his natural son Donald, and five hundred men, immediately repaired to them; and the next day they assaulted Wexford, which in four days surrendered upon conditions, and the townsmen gave hostages and oaths for their future allegiance. Maurice Fitz-Gerald arrived soon after with fresh recruits; and Dermot, according to stipulation, granted Wexford and two cantreds to him and Fitz-Stephens; and two cantreds more, lying between Wexford and Waterford, to Hervey of Mount-Maurice; and these three settled the first English colony on these lands, which has continued in the barony of Forth to this day. From thence they marched

against Donald, prince of Ossory, twice chastised him, plundered the county of O-Phelam about Naas, and brought O-Tool and others to submission. Soon after earl Strongbow sent Reymond-le-gros into Ireland, with nine or ten knights, and seventy archers well appointed, who landed near Waterford, and were assaulted by a strong body from that city, though without success.

A. D. 1170. In August earl Strongbow landed near Waterford, at the head of fifteen or sixteen hundred men, and attempted the city (then governed by two Danish magistrates, Reginald and Smorth) which he took by assault on the twenty-third of that month with great slaughter. Dermot, and the first adventurers joining Strongbow at Waterford, the marriage between him and king Dermot's daughter was solemnized, and the reversion of the kingdom of Leinster assured to him, after the king's death.

Animated with these successes, Dermot persuaded his new allies to turn their arms against Dublin; alledging, that the reducing that important place would lay the foundation for the conquest of the whole kingdom. While preparations were making for this enterprize, Roderick, king of Ireland, had raised an army of thirty thousand horse and foot, resolving to impede the march of the confederates against Dublin. He encamped with the main body of his forces at Clondalkin, four miles from Dublin, and guarded all the passes through the mountains with strong detachments. King Dermot laid the difficulties of the attempt before his confederates; but they were of opinion, that to draw back would give such a reputation to the arms of Roderick, as would be little short of a foil, and therefore resolved to proceed. Miles de Kogan, an officer of great valour, marched in the van, supported by Donald Kavenagh, natural son to king Dermot, and a strong body of Irish; Reymond de Gros led the battle with a regiment of eight hundred English, sustained by king Dermot and one thousand Irish; and the rear was brought up by three thousand English headed by the earl of Strongbow, and supported by a strong regiment of Irish. Their orderly march so appalled the enemy, that they gave way without making any opposition, and the king of Ireland dissolved his army, and returned home.

Dublin was summoned, and thirty hostages demanded for the better assurance of kind Dermot. Mack-Turkill, petty king thereof, fearing the issue of the siege, was ready to submit to the terms; but the citizens disagreeing in the choice
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of the hostages, the time allotted for the treaty expired; of which Miles de Cogan took advantage, and without command from Dermot or the earl, made himself master of the city with great slaughter, and the soldiers got rich pillage; but Mack-Turkill, and many of the Ostmen citizens, escaped by means of their shipping in the harbour. The same day, being the twenty-first of September, 1170, king Dermot and the earl made their entry into Dublin, wherein they found great abundance of provisions. Dermot returned to Ferns; and the earl, about Michaelmas, marched to Waterford with a party of his forces, leaving Dublin under the command of Miles de Cogan, who may be truly called the first English governor of it.

A. D. 1171. King Dermot died at Fernes in May, and most of the Irish nobility forsook the earl, except Donald Kavenagh, and two or three others. In the mean time the news of these successes had reached the ears of king Henry, who was jealous of Strongbow, and thought himself robbed of the glory of so great a conquest. He therefore not only confiscated all the earl's estate, though he had acted in this matter by his verbal licence, but by proclamation prohibited all his subjects from importing provisions or stores into Ireland, and commanded such of them as were already in that kingdom to return home by a certain day. This step, and the news that king Roderick had levied an army with an intent to besiege Dublin, brought the earl back to defend the town, and to consult means to appease the king's anger. Roderick invested the city with an army of sixty thousand men, which was but weakly provided with men or victuals, the stores taken within the city being much consumed. However, they bore the siege for two months; but then, all necessaries failing, without hopes of relief from abroad, Strongbow advised in council to treat with Roderick, and that he should offer to submit himself unto him, to become his man, and to hold Leinster of him as a feudatory prince. But Roderick knowing the difficulties the garrison laboured under, insisted upon much more exorbitant terms, and therefore willed the ambassador to acquaint the earl, that unless he surrendered into his hands, not only Dublin, but Waterford and Wexford, with all his castles, and returned home with his English forces, that he would without delay give the assault, and make no doubt of carrying the city by storm.

These high demands were of too hard digestion for soldiers accustomed to conquest; and, by the advice of Miles de Cogan, they resolved upon a sudden sally; which they made

with six hundred men. The enemy were so surpris'd, that they fled before them; fifteen hundred fell in the onset, many prisoners were made, and the city was reliev'd in its greatest extremity; such great stores of corn, meal and pork, being found in the enemy's camp, as were sufficient to victual the garrison for a year. The earl sail'd to England to appease the king, to whom he offer'd all the acquisitions he had made either by the sword or marriage; and it was agreed, that he should recognize the king as his sovereign lord; should surrender to him the city of Dublin, with the adjacent cantreds, the maritime towns of Leinster, the city of Waterford, and all castles; and should acknowledge to hold the remainder of the king and his heirs.

Mack-Turkill took the advantage of the earl's absence, and arriv'd in the harbour of Dublin with a fleet of sixty sail, and ten thousand soldiers levied in the isle of man, the Orcades and Norway, full of hopes to recover his former grandeur. He hop'd to surprize the city, and carry it by a sudden assault. But his life paid for this rash attempt, and most of his party were either slaughter'd or dispers'd into the country; where, being odious to the natives for their former cruelties, they were slain in great numbers. Thus ended the power of the Ostmen in Dublin, who never after made any effort to recover their former possessions. Many of them had before incorporated with the Irish, and now, upon this great revolution, such as remained in the city or neighbourhood, became quiet subjects to the English, and, by degrees, grew one people with them.

A. D. 1172. While these things were doing, king Henry was preparing for a voyage into Ireland; where he arriv'd, near Waterford, with a fleet of two hundred and forty ships, on the eighteenth of October, attended by earl Strongbow, William Fitz-Adelm, Humphry de Bohun, Hugh de Lacy, Robert Fitz-Bernard, and many other grandees; besides four hundred knights, or men at arms, and four thousand soldiers well appointed. The first action he did upon his landing was to receive the investiture of the city of Waterford, and the homage of earl Strongbow for the kingdom of Leinster, the inheritance of which was granted to him by the king, who plac'd Robert Fitz-Bernard in the government of Waterford, and from thence march'd to Dublin, which Strongbow deliver'd up to him, and the king committed the government thereof to Hugh de Lacy.

From Dublin his majesty march'd into Munster, and in his journey receiv'd the submissions and homage of Dermod Mac-Carthy,

Mac-Carthy, king of Corke; Donald O-Brien, king of Limerick; Donald Mac-Gilla-Phadraig, king of Ossory; O-Phelan, prince of Desies; and of a great many other petty princes. At Lismore he held a synod of the clergy, probably to take the submissions of that body, and gave directions for building a castle there; which done he returned to Dublin; where, on the eleventh of November, many petty princes made their submissions, and swore allegiance to him in person; as, Gillamoholmóck; O-Chadefie; O-Carrol, king of Uriel; O-Melaghlin, king of Meath; O-Roirk, king of Brefsny; and many others. But Roderick, monarch of all Ireland, came no nearer to Dublin than the river Shannon; where he made his submission to the commissioners sent thither by king Henry, to whom he became tributary, swore allegiance, and gave hostages for his fidelity. Thus all Ireland made voluntary submissions to the king of England, except the prince of Ulster; and they also virtually did so in the submission of the supreme monarch Roderick.

At this time the king granted the laws of England to the people of Ireland; established courts and officers of justice; and held a parliament, or something like a parliament, at Dublin, where he kept the festival of Christmas in as great state as the place would allow; for there was no house there capable of receiving his retinue; and therefore he was under the necessity of hastily erecting a long pavilion, composed of smooth wattles, after the fashion of the country; which being well furnished with plate, household-stuff, and good cheer, made a better appearance than ever had been before seen in Ireland. Many of the Irish princes flocked thither to pay their duty to the king, not without admiring and applauding his magnificence. The greatest part of his charge was expended in royal entertainments to captivate the Irish; and his time, in the five months he staid there, was taken up in endeavours so to settle matters, as wholly, for the time to come, to frustrate his enemies of the usual aids afforded by the Irish against him, when attacked by the arms of France. He had experienced the benefit the crown received without charge by private adventurers, and was resolved by like methods to make the part he had gained bear the charge of subduing the whole. To this end he distributed large scopes of land to the grandees who attended him; as, to earl Strongbow (which indeed was his right by marriage) all Leinster, the city of Dublin, and the adjoining cantreds, with a few maritime towns and castles excepted; to Hugh de Lacy, the kingdom of Meath; to John de Courcy, all

Ulster, if he could conquer it; and to Robert Fitz-Stephen and Miles Cogan, the kingdom of Corke (which formerly comprehended Desmond) and to Philip de Braos, the kingdom of Limerick. But these two latter grants were made after the king's return to England.

A. D. 1173. The rebellion of his son, the danger of a revolt in Normandy, and a plague and scarcity in Ireland, laid the king under the necessity of hastening his return; though he was at first determined to stay the summer following in Ireland, to fortify it with strong-holds and castles, and to settle it in a state of security. He therefore having provided for the government, and settled a civil administration in Dublin by a colony from Bristol, marched from Dublin to Wexford, where he embarked on Easter-Monday 1173. Thus was brought about this great revolution with little bloodshed, rather by the opinion of king Henry's power, and the terror of his arms, than by any real force.

A. D. 1314. The weak reign of Edward II. his unsuccessful wars with the Scots; feuds and contentions amongst the English of Ireland, and the perpetual rebellions of the Irish, were the cause of a very extraordinary revolution, though of a short continuance. The king of Scotland, for a diversion to the English arms, this year sent his brother Edward Bruce with a small force to invade Ireland; who landed in the north, and was joined by great numbers of the Irish. He marched then to Dundalk, which he took and burned down in the year 1315, and drove most of the English out of Ulster. The earl of Ulster fought with the enemy near Coleraine, and was routed; which was followed by the siege of Carrickfergus; and Roger Mortimer was the same year defeated in Meath. From thence Bruce ravaged the whole kingdom from sea to sea, and defeated Sir Edmund Butler, lord-justice, on the twenty-sixth of January; which caused all the Irish in Munster and Leinster to rise in rebellion. But for want of provisions the Scots were obliged to march back to Ulster, where Bruce sat down in his quarters to that degree of quietness, that he kept court, and held pleas, as in times of profound peace. Bruce passed into Scotland in 1316 for fresh supplies, and upon his return was crowned king of Ireland at Dundalk. From thence he marched with an intention of besieging Dublin, took Castle-Knock, and Sir Hugh Tyrrel in it. The citizens burned down the suburbs to secure the town, and erected an outward fortification close to the river along Merchant-Key, with the stones

stones of the Dominican Abbey, which they demolished for that purpose. Bruce finding the resolution of the citizens, decamped from Castle-Knock, and marched westward as far as Limerick, ravaging the whole country through which he passed. Roger Mortimer, appointed lord-justice in 1317, arrived at Waterford with thirty-eight men at arms only, and would not suffer the English to fight Bruce till he joined them. But Bruce, upon his arrival, marched back to Ulster, and the lord-justice was recalled to England. Archbishop Bicknor, being made lord-justice in 1318, appointed the lord John Birmingham general against Bruce; who in a sharp encounter slew Bruce at Dundalk, with two thousand of his men. John Maupas, a valiant officer in Birmingham's troops, rushed into the battle with a resolution to destroy the usurping prince, and was found dead after the conflict, stretched on the body of Bruce. Thus an end was put to this revolution, and the Scotch government in Ireland. Buchanan reports, that Robert, king of Scotland, came over to Ireland in aid of his brother, and was within a day's march of him when the battle was fought; but that Bruce precipitated the fight, because his brother should have no share in the glory.

The Irish who had submitted to king Henry, all along bore with impatience the restraint of the English government, and in every reign there was a perpetual bordering war maintained between some of them and the English; which occasioned king Richard the Second to make two royal voyages to Ireland in person, resolving to make an intire conquest of that island. In the first voyage made in 1394, he was attended by a royal army consisting of four thousand men at arms, and thirty thousand archers. Terrified with these forces, the Irish had recourse to a policy they had more than once practised with success, to dissolve the English army, which they were not able to resist; namely, by light submissions, and feigned acknowledgments of their past errors. As soon therefore as the king had landed, all the powerful heads of the Irish made humble offers of submission. Whereupon the lord Mowbray, earl-marshal of England, was authorised by special commission to receive the homages and oaths of fidelity of all the Irish of Leinster; namely, of Mac-Murrough, O-Byrne, O-More, O-Nolan, and the chief of the Kinshelaghs; who, falling down at his feet upon their knees, performed their homages, and made their oaths of fidelity; which done, the earl admitted each of them to the kiss of peace. The king himself having received humble
letters

letters from O'Neill, (wherein he stiled himself prince of the Irish of Ulster, and yet acknowledged the king to be his sovereign, and the perpetual lord of Ireland) removed to Drogheda, and received the like submissions from the Irish of Ulster; namely, from O'Neill, O-Hanlon, O-Donnell, Mac-Mahon, and others. They were bound also in great penalties to the apostolical chamber, not only to continue loyal subjects, but that they and their sword-men should, on a certain day, surrender to the king and his successors all their lands and possessions, and should serve him in his wars against his other rebels; in consideration whereof they were to receive pay and pensions from the king, and have the inheritance of such land as they should recover from the rebels. Thus they avoided the present storm, and dissolved that army, which was prepared to break them. As the pope was interested in these submissions, it might be thought they would have had some effect; but the king was no sooner returned to England, but these Irish lords laid aside their masks of humility, and infested the English borders a-new; in defence whereof the lord Roger Mortimer, then lord-lieutenant and heir-apparent to the crown, was slain. Moved with a just indignation, the king passed over again into Ireland in 1399, with as powerful an army as he had before, proposing to make a full conquest of it; but in his passage through the vast countries of the Murroughs, Kinshelaghs, Kavanaghs, Byrnes and Tools, his great army was much distressed for want of provisions and carriages; and he did nothing memorable, unless cutting down and clearing the passages in the Cavenagh's country may be termed an action of service. But all these preparations and resolutions came to nought by the arrival of the duke of Lancaster in England against the king, who was obliged thereby to leave Ireland; and he soon after lost his crown and life.

From the time of the first reduction of Ireland there were commotions and rebellions in every reign, but none more formidable than in the reign of queen Elizabeth, when the Irish were supported by forces from Spain, who possessed themselves of Kinsale, to whose assistance the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel marched from the north, at the head of a great army; but they being engaged and routed by the lord-deputy Montjoy before Kinsale, the Spaniards submitted upon the terms of leaving the kingdom. The earl of Tyrone soon after submitted to the lord-deputy upon his knees, and was received to mercy.

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The power of the North was much broken by this battle; but Tyrone and others being received to mercy, and king James issuing a commission of grace in 1606, for confirming the possessions of the Irish against all claims of the crown, it might have been expected that a perfect settlement of the kingdom would have ensued: but at this very time the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, Maguir, O-Cahan, and almost all the Irish of Ulster, entered into a conspiracy to surprize the castle of Dublin, murder the lord-deputy and council, and set on foot a new rebellion; and for this end had solicited foreign aids. As soon as they had notice that their plot was discovered, Tyrone, Tyrconnel, and Maguir fled beyond the seas, where they made loud clamours, that they withdrew themselves for matter of religion and injustice as to their rights and claims; both which points the king cleared by a public declaration spread through Europe, which may be seen in the sixth volume of Rymer's Collection, p. 664. Upon the flight of these conspirators, indictments were found against them, upon which all that fled were outlawed.

A. D. 1608. Sir Cahir O-Dogharty, proprietor of the barony of Inifowen in the county of Donnegal, urged by the intrigues of the fugitive earls, and by assurance of speedy aids from Spain, broke out into rebellion, which he maintained for five months with various success; whereunto an accidental shot put an end to his life, and some of his adherents were taken and executed. Besides inquisitions and outlawries found and had against the actors in these two rebellions, and that of the last of queen Elizabeth, they were all attainted by the statute of the eleventh of king James, and their lands vested in the crown, amounting to 511465 acres in the several counties of Donnegal, Tyrone, Colerain, Fermanagh, Cavan and Armagh, and enabled the king to make that protestant plantation in Ulster, which now, from the most rebellious province of the kingdom, is the most quiet and reformed.

The rebellion and massacres of 1641, exceed all the cruelties that ever were perpetrated in the world, unless those of the Spaniards upon the conquest of Mexico and Peru may be excepted. The restoration of the popish religion to its ancient splendor, and the hopes of repossessing the Irish in the six escheated counties before-mentioned, were made the pretences to this infamous action, which was maintained for twelve years with an obstinancy not to be matched. But at length the Irish rebels were totally subdued by Oliver Cromwell,

Cromwell, and an end put to the war by the confiscation of numbers of their estates in 1653.

The favours of king James II. to those of his own religion in Ireland once more exalted the papists of that kingdom, and put them upon the foot of domineering over their protestant neighbours. All the estates, forfeited by former rebellions, were restored by the repeal of the Act of Settlement, and many other laws made to the destruction of the established religion there. But the kingdom was again reduced by the arms of the glorious king William, in two successful battles, and the estates of great numbers of the Irish nobility and gentry were adjudged to be forfeited: and to perpetuate the benefits arising from this revolution, that great king took care, as his last legacy, to settle the crown in the illustrious house that now wears it; in which that it may for ever remain, are the prayers of all good subjects.

G U E R N S E Y and J E R S E Y

ARE the only remainders of our rights in Normandy; unto which dukedom they did once belong, and near to which they lie. Anno 1108, when Henry I. of England had taken prisoner his brother Robert, these islands, as part of Normandy, were annexed unto the English crown; and ever since, with great faith and loyalty, continued in that subjection. These islands lie in the chief trade of all shipping from the Eastern parts unto the West, in the middle way between St. Maloes and the river Seine, the only traffic of the Normans and Parisians.

Of five islands lying near each other, four only are inhabited, and those reduced only unto two governments; Jersey an entire province as it were within itself; but that of Guernsey having the two of Alderney and Sarke dependant on it. Hence it is, that in our histories, and in our acts of parliament, we have mention only of Jersey and Guernsey, this last comprehending under it the two other. The people of them all live, as it were, in a kind of free subjection; not any way acquainted with taxes, or with any levies either of men or money; insomuch that, when the parliaments of England contribute towards the occasions of their princes, there is always a proviso in the act, "That this grant of subsidies, or any thing therein contained, extend not to charge the inhabitants of Guernsey and Jersey, or any of them, of,
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for, or concerning any manors, lands, and tenements, or other possessions, goods, chattels, or other moveable substance, which they the said inhabitants, or any other to their uses, have within Jersey and Guernsey, or in any of them, &c. These privileges and immunities (together with divers others) seconded with the more powerful band of religion, have been a principal occasion of that constancy, wherewith they have persisted faithfully in their allegiance, and disclaimed even the very name and thought of France. For howsoever the language which they speak is French, and that in their original they either were of Normandy or Britagne, yet can they with no patience endure to be accounted French, but call themselves by the name of English-Normans. So much doth liberty, or at the worst a gentle yoke, prevail upon the mind of the people.

To proceed to particulars, we will take them as they lie in order, beginning first with that of Alderney, an island called by Antonine, Arica; but by the French, and in our old-records, known by the name of Aurigny and Aurney. It is situate in the forty-ninth degree between forty-eight and fifty-two minutes of that degree, just over against the cape or promontory of the Lexobii, called at this time by the mariners the Hague; distant from this cape or promontory three leagues only, but thirty at the least from the nearest part of England. The air is healthy, though sometimes thickened with the vapours arising from the sea. The soil is indifferently rich both for husbandry and grasing. A town it hath of near an hundred families; and not far off, an haven made in the manner of a cemicircle, which they call Crabbie. The principal strength of it, are the high rocks, with which it is on every side environed, but especially upon the South; and on the east-side an old block-house, which time hath made almost unserviceable. The chief house herein belongeth unto the chamberlains, as also the dominion or fee-farm of all the island, it being granted by queen Elizabeth unto George the son of Sir Leonard Chamberlain, then governor of Guernsey, by whose valour it was recovered from the French, who in queen Mary's days had seized upon it. Near unto the fort or block-house aforementioned, a great quantity of this little island is overlaid with sand, driven thither by the fury of the northwest-wind. If we believe their legends, it proceeded from the just judgment of God upon the owner of those grounds, who once (but when I know not) had made booty and put to the sword some certain Spaniards, there shipwrecked.

Four leagues from hence, and to the south-west and by west, lies another of the smaller islands, called Sarke; six miles in circuit at the least, which yet is two miles less in the whole compass than that of Alderney. An isle not known by any name amongst the antients; for till the fifth of queen Elizabeth, or thereabouts, it was not peopled; but then, it pleased her majesty to grant it for ever in fee-farm to Helier Carteret, vulgarly called Seigneur de St. Oen; a principal gentleman of the isle of Jersey. By him it was divided into several estates, and leased out unto divers tenants, collected from the neighbour islands; so that at this day it may contain some forty households; whereas before it contained only a poor hermitage, together with a little chapel appertaining to it; the rest of the ground serving as a common unto those of Guernsey for breeding of their cattle. For strength it is beholding most to nature, which hath walled it, in a manner, round with mighty rocks; there being but one way or ascent unto it, and that with small forces easy to be defended against the strongest power in christendom. A passage was lately fortified by the farmers here with a new platform on the top of it, and thereupon four pieces of ordinance continually mounted. In this island, as also in the other, there is a bailiff and a minister, but both of them subordinate in matter of appeal unto the courts and colloquies of Guernsey.

During the reign of queen Mary, who, for her husband Philip's sake, had engaged herself in a war against the French, this island, then not peopled, was suddenly surpris'd by those of that nation; but by a gentleman of the Netherlands, a subject of king Philip, thus regained, as the story is related by Sir Walter Raleigh. The Flemish gentleman with a small bark came to anchor in the road, and pretending the death of his merchant, besought the French that they might bury him in the chapel of that island, offering a present to them of such commodities as they had aboard. To this request the French were easily intreated, but yet upon condition that they should not come on shore with any weapon, no, not so much as with a knife. This leave obtained, the Fleming rowed unto the shore with a coffin in their skiff, for that use purposely provided, with swords and arcubushes. Upon their landing, and a search, they were permitted to draw their coffin up the rocks, some of the French rowing back unto the ship to fetch the presents, where they were soon laid in hold. The Flemings, in the mean time, who were on land, had carried their coffin into
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the chapel; and having taken thence their weapons, gave an alarm; the French taken thus upon the sudden, and seeing no hopes of succour, yielded themselves, and abandoned the possession of the place.

Two leagues from Sarke, directly westward, lies the chief island of this government, by Antonine called Sarnia; by us and the French known by the name of Garnzey, or Guernsey, situate in the forty-ninth degree of latitude, eight leagues, or thereabouts, from the coast of Normandy, and at an equal distance from Alderney and Jersey. The form of it is much after the fashion of the isle of Sicily, every side of the triangle being about nine miles in length, and twenty-eight in whole compass. In this circuit are comprehended ten parishes, whereof the principal is that of St Peter's on the sea, as having a fair and safe pier adjoining to it for the benefit of their merchants, and being honoured also with a market, and the court of justice. The number of the inhabitants is reckoned near about twenty thousand, out of which there may be raised two thousand able men; although their trained-band consists only of twelve hundred, and those but poorly armed. The air hereof is very healthful, as may be seen by the long lives both of men and women; and the earth said to be of the same nature with Crete and Ireland, not apt to foster any venomous creature in it. The ground itself, in opinion of the natives, is more rich than that of Jersey; yet not so fruitful in the harvest, because the people addict themselves to merchandize especially, leaving the care of husbandry to their hinds. Yet bread they have sufficient for their use; enough of cattle both for themselves and exportation; plenty of fish continually brought in from the neighbouring sea, and a lake on the north-west part of it, near unto the sea, of about a mile or more in compass, exceeding well stored with excellent carp.

Some other isles there are pertaining unto this government of Guernsey, but not many nor much famous. Two of them lie along betwixt it and Sarke; viz. Arvie, and Jet-how, whereof this last serveth only as a park unto the governor, and hath in it a few fallow deer, and good plenty of rabbits. The other of them is near three miles in circuit, a solitary dwelling once of canons regular, and afterwards of some friars of the order of St. Francis, but now only uninhabited. The least of them, but yet of most note, is the little islet called Lehu, situated on the north side of the eastern corner, and near unto those scattered rocks, which are called Les Hanwaux, appertaining once unto the dean, but now
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unto the governor. It is famous for a little oratory or chantry there once erected and dedicated to the honour of the Virgin Mary, who, by the people in those times, was much sued to by the name of Our Lady of Lehu. A place long since demolished.

But, the principal ornament of Guernsey, is the large capacioufness of the harbour, and the flourishing beauty of the castle; I say the castle, as it may be so called by way of eminency; that in the vale, and those poorer trifies all along the coasts, not any way deserving to be spoken of. It is situated upon a little islet just opposite unto Pierport or the town of St Peter, on the sea; and takes up the whole circuit of that islet whereupon it standeth. At the first it was built upon the higher part of the ground only, broad at the one end, and at the other, and bending in the fashion of an horn, whence it had the name of Cornet. By Sir Leonard Chamberlain, governor here in the time of queen Mary, and by Sir Thomas Leighton his successor, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, it was improved to that majesty and beauty which it now it hath; was fortified according to the modern art of war, and furnished with almost an hundred pieces of ordnance, whereof about sixty are of brass. Add to this, that it is continually environed with the sea, unless sometimes at low water, whereby there is little possibility of making any approaches to it. And certainly it is more than necessary that this place should be thus fortified, if not for the safety of the island, yet at the least for the assurance of the harbour. An harbour able to contain the greatest navy that ever sailed upon the ocean; fenced from the fury of the winds by the isles of Guernsey, Jet-how, Sarke, and Arvie, by which it is almost encompassed; and of so sure an anchorage, that though our ships lay there in the blustering end of March, yet it was noted that never any of them slipped an anchor. They have other havens about the island: viz. Bazon, L'Aucresse, Fermines, and others; but these are rather landing places to let in the enemy, then any way advantageous to the trade and riches of the people.

Upon the advantages of this harbour, and the conveniency of the pier so near it, it is no wonder if the people betake themselves so much to commerce. Nor do they traffic only in small boats between St. Maloes and the islands, as those of Jersey; but are masters of good stout barks, and venture unto all these nearer ports of christendom. The principal commodity which they use to send abroad, are the works and labours of the poorer sort; as waistcoats, stockings, and other

manufactures made of wool; wherein they are exceeding skilful; of which wool to be transported to their island in a certain proportion, they have obtained a licence. But there accrue a further benefit unto this people, from their harbour than their own traffic, which is the continual concourse and resort of merchants thither, especially upon a war. For by an antient privilege of the kings of England, there is with them in a manner a continual truce; and it is lawful both for Frenchmen and others, how hot soever the war be followed in other parts, to repair hither without any danger, and here to trade in the utmost security. A privilege founded upon a bull of pope Sixtus IV. in the tenth year, of his popedom; Edward IV. then reigning in England, and Lewis XI. over the French: by virtue of which bull, all those stand ipso facto excommunicate, who any way molest the inhabitants of this isle of Guernsey, or any which resort unto their island, either by piracy or any other violence whatsoever. A bull first published in the city of Constance, unto the diocese of which these islands once belonged, afterwards verified by the parliament of Paris, and confirmed by our kings of England till this day. The copy of this bull may be still seen, and somewhat also in the practice of it on record; by which it appears that a man of war of France having taken an English ship, and therein some passengers and goods of Guernsey; made prize and prisoners of the English, but restored these of Guernsey to their liberty.

The isle of Jersey, known in the former ages, and to Antonine the emperor, by the name of Cesarea, is situate in the forty-ninth degree of latitude, between eighteen and twenty-four minutes of that degree; distant five leagues only from the coast of Normandy, forty or thereabouts from the nearest parts of England, and six or seven to the south-east from that of Guernsey. The figure of it is an oblong square, the length of it from west to east eleven miles, the breadth six and upwards, the whole circuit about thirty-three. The air very healthy and little disposed unto diseases, unless it be unto a kind of ague in the end of harvest, which they call Les Settembers. The soil sufficiently fertile in itself, but most curiously manured, and of a plentiful increase unto the barn; not only yielding corn enough for the people of the island, but sometimes also an ample surplussage. The country generally swelling up in pretty hillocks, under which lie pleasant valleys, and those plentifully watered; in this it hath the precedency of Guernsey.

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Both

Both islands consist very much of small inclosures; every man in each of them, having somewhat to live on of his own. Only the difference is, that here the mounds are made with ditches and banks of earth cast up, well fenced and planted with several sorts of apples, out of which they make a pleasing kind of cyder, which is their ordinary drink; whereas in Guernsey they are for the most part made of stones, about the height and fashion of a parapet.

For other strengths this island is in part beholding to nature, and somewhat also to art. To nature which hath guarded it with rocks, and shelves, and other shallow places very dangerous; but neither these, nor those of art, are so serviceable and full of safety, as they be in Guernsey. Besides, the landing-places here are more numerous, and more accessible; namely, the bay of St. Owen, and the havens of St. Burlade, Boule, St. Catherine's, with many others. There is, indeed, one of them, and that the principal, sufficiently assured; on the one side by a little blockhouse, which they call Mount St. Aubin; and on the other by a fair castle, called the Fort Elizabeth. The harbour itself is of a good capacity, in figure like a semicircle or a crescent; and, by reason of the town adjoining, known by the name of the haven of St. Hilaries. On that side of it next the town, is situate the castle, environed with the sea at high-water, but at ebb easily accessible by land; but yet so naturally defended with sharp rocks, and craggy cliffs, that though the access to it may be easy, yet the surprize would be difficult.

This island, comprehends in it twelve parishes, whereof the principal is that of St. Hilaries—A town so called from an ancient father of that name, and bishop of Poitiers in France, whose body they suppose to be interred in a little chapel near Fort Elizabeth, and consecrated to his memory. The chief advantage this town now has, is the conveniency of the haven, the market there every Saturday, and its being honoured with the Cohu or Sessions-house for the whole island. The other villages lie scattered up and down, like those of Guernsey, and give habitation to a people very painful and laborious; but by reason of their continual toil and labour, not a little affected with a kind of melancholy surliness incident to plough-men; but those of Guernsey on the other side, by continual converse with strangers in their own haven, and by travelling abroad, are much more sociable and generous. Add to this, that the people here are more poor, and therefore more destitute of humanity; the children

children here continually craving alms of every stranger; whereas in all Guernsey is not to be seen one beggar.

A principal reason of this poverty, may be imputed to their exceeding populousness, there being reckoned in so small a quantity of ground, near thirty thousand souls.

Another may be the little liking they have to traffick; whereby as they might have advantage to improve themselves, and employ their poor, so also might that service casually diminish their huge multitudes, by the loss of some men, and diverting others from the thoughts of marriage.

But the chief cause, is the tenure of their lands, which are equally to be divided amongst all the sons of every father, and those parcels also to be subdivided even ad infinitum. Hence is it, that in all the countries you shall hardly find a field of corn of larger compass than an ordinary garden; every one now having a little to himself, and that little made less to his posterity. This tenure our lawyers call by the name of Gavel-kind; that is, as some of them expound it, Give-all-kind, because it is amongst them all to be divided.

The chief magistrates in both these isles, are the governors; whose office is not much unlike that of the lord lieutenants of our shires in England, according as it was established by king Alfred, revived by Henry III. and so continueth at this day. These governors are appointed by the king; and by him, in times of war, rewarded with an annual pension payable out of the Exchequer; but since the encrease of the domain, by the ruin of religious houses, that charge hath been deducted; the whole revenues being allotted to them in both islands for the support of their estate. In civil matters they are directed by the bailiff and the jurates; the bailiffs, and other the king's officers in Guernsey, being appointed by the governor; those of Jersey holding their places by patent from the king.

By those men, accompanied with the justices or jurates, is his majesty served, and his islands governed; the places in each island being of the same nature, though somewhat different in name. Of these, in matters merely civil, and appertaining unto public justice, the bailiff is the principal; as being the chief judge in all actions both criminal and real. In matters of life and death, if they proceed to sentence of condemnation, there is required a concurrence of seven jurates together with the bailiff; under which number so concurring the offender is acquitted. Nor can the country find one guilty, not taken, as we call it, in the matter; except that eighteen voices of twenty-four (for of that number is their

grand inquest) agree together in the verdict. Personal actions, such as are debt and trespasses, may be determined by the bailiff, and two only are sufficient; but if a trial comes in right of land and of inheritance, there must be three at least, and they decide it. For the dispatch of these businesses, they have their terms, about the same time as we in London; their writs of arrest, appearance and the like, directed to the viscount or provost; and for the trial of their several causes, three several courts or jurisdictions: viz. the Court Criminal, the Court of Chattel, and the Court of Heritage. If any find himself agrieved with their proceedings, his way is to appeal unto the Council-Table. Much like this form of government, but of later stamp, are those courts in France, which they call Les Seiges Presideaux (instituted for the ease of the people by the former kings, in divers cities of the realm, and since confirmed, anno 1551, or thereabouts) wherein there is a bailiff; attended by twelve assistants (for the most part) two lieutenants, the one criminal, and the other civil, and other officers; the office of the bailiff being to preserve the people from wrong, to take notice of treasons, robberies, murders, unlawful assemblies, and the like.

In this order, and by these men, are all such affairs transacted which concern only private and particular persons; but if a business arise which toucheth the public, there is summoned by the governor a parliament, or convention of the three estates. Of the governor as chief, the bailiff and jurates representing the nobility, the ministers for the church, and the several constables of each parish for the commons. In this assembly general, as also in all private meetings, the governor takes precedence of the bailiff; but in the civil courts and pleas of law, the bailiff hath it of the governor.

M I N O R C A

THE island of Minorca lies in the Mediteranean sea, about sixty leagues to the southward of the coast of Catalonia in Spain. In its neighbourhood are Majorca, Yvica, and Formentera, which, together with this constituted the antient kingdom of Majorca. The latitude of Port-Mahon is 39° 40' north.

It is scarcely possible to consider the map of this island, without observing how far the weather has by degrees influenced

the figure of its out-line. As the northerly winds are the most frequent and the most violent of this country, those parts of the coast that are the most exposed to their rage, are cut and indented into a prodigious variety of creeks and inlets; while those of a southerly aspect are infinitely more even and regular, and every where shew gentle effects of a more temperate exposure.

Minorca is upwards of thirty-three miles long, and varies in breadth from eight to twelve miles or more; so that it is nearly of the same bigness as the Isle of Wight, and contains two hundred and thirty-six square miles, and 151,040 square acres. It is sixty-two miles in compass, and is divided into four terminos or provinces; the termino of Mahon, the termino of Alaior, the united terminos of Mercadal and Fererias, and the termino of Ciudadella.

The termino of Mahon is bounded on three sides by the sea, has the termino of Alaior to the north-westward, and joins that of Mercadal a little more to the northward. Its greatest length is fourteen miles, and it is above eight miles over, where at the broadest. This termino contains about thirteen thousand inhabitants, and its chief town is Mahon.

The termino of Alaior is washed by the sea to the south-westward, and borders on the termino of Mahon to the eastward; to the northward is that of Mercadal, and the termino of Fererias lies to the north-westward. Its greatest length is upwards of eight miles, and it is about seven broad. It contains about five thousand souls; its chief town Alaior.

The termino of Mercadal is above twelve miles long, and more than ten broad. It has the sea on the north side, and the termino of Mahon to the south east; that of Alaior joins it to the south westward, and the termino of Fererias (to which it is united) lies to the westward. Its chief town is Mercadal, and the most noted places within its district are Mount-Toro, Fornelles, and Sancta Agatha. It may contain about one thousand seven hundred inhabitants.

The termino of Fererias (to which that of Mercadal is united) is a long narrow stripe, extending from sea to sea quite a-cross the island, which is here but little more than ten miles over. It is scarcely any where more than four miles broad. It is bounded to the eastward by the termino of Mercadal, and that of Alaior, and the termino of Ciudadella joins it to the westward. Its chief town is Fererias; and its number of inhabitants does not exceed one thousand one hundred and twenty-six.

The termino of Ciudadella takes up the west end of the island. Its greatest length is the same as that of the termino of Fererias, which joins it to the eastward; and its breadth, which in some places is less than five miles, enlarges itself in others to upwards of eight. The sea washes it on the north, the west, and the south sides. It contains about seven thousand inhabitants, and has Ciudadella for its capital.

Mahon is the capital of the termino of the same name, and of the whole island, since it has been in the possession of the English, who removed the courts of justice hither from Ciudadella, making it the seat of government. To this they were induced by its situation near the principal harbour, as well as its neighbourhood to St. Philip's castle, the only fortress of any consideration in the country.

Mahon is built on an elevated situation; and the ascent from the harbour, over which it seems to hang, is steep and difficult: hence the prospect is extended, and the air rendered more pure and wholesome; neither are the flies (and especially that very troublesome kind the musquita or gnat) such a pest here all the hot weather as in the other towns of the island.

The buildings are universally of freestone, and either covered with tiles, or flat-roofed and terraced; which terrace is the matter of which their floors are likewise made, resembling those so well known of late years in London by the name of Venetian-floors: but the masons here are so expert at their business, and the materials that enter into the composition of the terrace so reasonable, and labour itself so cheap, that they are executed with greater firmness and expedition than our workmen can perform them, and for one tenth part of the expence.

St. Philip's castle is situate at the entrance of Mahon-harbour, to which it is the key, and the principal fortification on the island. It is seated on a neck of land between Mahon harbour and St. Stephen's cove, and its numerous out-works extend themselves to the shore on both sides. The body of the place consists of four bastions and as many curtains, surrounded with a deep ditch hewn out of the solid rock which furnished freestone for the walls. The area is bounded on every side with buildings, consisting of the governor's house, a chapel, guard-room, barracks, &c. In the center of the square is a pump to supply the troops with rain-water from a large cistern, and the whole square is well paved and kept very clean.

Over the flat roofs of the arched buildings is a spacious rampart, affording an extensive prospect to the eye, and the bastions

tions have guns mounted on them. The communication from the lower area to the top of the rampart is by a pair of stairs: the steps are about ten feet long, three feet broad, and rise one foot. The lower edge of the step is of freestone, and there the rise is only three inches, the rest slopes gently upwards, and is of common pavement. I have been the more particular in describing these stairs, as they are not only of easy ascent for men, but also for mules and asses carrying their burthens on their backs. Up these the artillery people likewise draw their guns when there is occasion; and if they did not take up so much room, they would be well worth our imitation.

The whole body of the place is undermined, and very serviceable subterraneous works are contrived in the rock, and communicate with one another wherever it is necessary. In one of these are repositied the remains of captain Philip Stanhope, commander of the Milford ship of war, who acting on shore as a volunteer under his brother general Stanhope at the siege of this castle, was on the twenty-eighth day of September, 1708, unfortunately killed, after he had given signal proofs of an undaunted courage.

The chapel, which is reserved for the church of England, is the least adorned of any in the whole island; for as the Spanish governors constantly resided at Ciudadella at a remote distance, it received but little improvement in their time; and our governors living altogether at Mahon, it has been equally neglected by us.

Before the entrance of the castle is a hornwork with other outworks to this and the rest of the fronts: but it is not my purpose to enter into a minute detail of all the works that constitute the strength of this fortress: it would possibly be invidious, and certainly be tedious, since the bare sight of a plan will give you a better notion of them than the best description I am able to frame, tho' I were to spend a week in so unprofitable an attempt.

There is a great number of large guns mounted towards the entrance of the harbour, besides those that point to the land which would require the service of a vast many artillery-people on occasion, as indeed the various works demand a very considerable garrison to dispute them with an enemy.

Of the utmost advantage to this place are certainly the capacious galleries that are cut out of the rock, and extend themselves under the Covert-way throughout all the works, as I think. This was an undertaking equally necessary and expensive; for otherwise the people must have been torn to

pieces by the splinters of stone in time of action, as well those off duty, who had no cover to secure them, as those who were obliged to expose themselves. But these subterraneans afford quarters and shelter to the garrison, impenetrable to shot or shells, and not to be come at but by cutting a way to them through the living rock, against which too they are provided with a number of counter-mines, at proper distances, and in such places as by their situation are most exposed.

In the main-ditch is a small powder magazine; another much larger is under the covertway of the place, and there are store-houses sufficient for every occasion, with an hospital near St. Stephen's Cove: and as a cistern is obnoxious to accidents from the bombs of an enemy, there are several wells within the works, and a quantity of every species of provisions is constantly kept up to support the whole soldiery of the island in case of a siege.

On the point of land to the eastward of the castle is Charles-Fort, built by the Spaniards, and of little consequence, as it now stands. The grand battery lies down at the water's edge, and has a high stone wall for the protection of the gunners, who ply their ordnance through a long range of embrasures. This is the common burying-place of the garrison. The Queen's Redoubt is the most advanced of all the works towards the country on the side where it stands: between it and the harbour are two other works, one of them lately finished. On the other side of St. Stephen's Cove is the Marlborough, a very chargeable work, which took its name from the great man who was master-general of the ordnance not long before it was built. It is almost unnecessary to observe that, with all this strength, the French took it from us in the last war and kept it till given back by the late treaty of Paris.

The constitution by which the island of Majorca is governed, was copied by king James the First from that of his kingdom of Arragon, and introduced there soon after the Conquest; as that of Minorca was established here by king Alphonso, on his reducing this island to his obedience. Both have undergone some alterations (tho' in the main they are agreeable enough to the first institution) and they differ little from each other, except that all the magistrates of this island are subordinate to those of Majorca. These islands have lost the privilege they once enjoyed, of being represented by their deputies in the cortes of Arragon, Catalonia, &c. for having sometimes forborne to send them, when they were unable to bear the expence.

The court of royal-government is the principal tribunal of the island, in all causes wherein the crown is concerned (except such as regard the royal-patrimony) in all matters relating to the jurats of the several universities, or terminos, and in all criminal cases; hither appeals are made from the inferior courts.

The governor presides at this court, and all the proceedings are in his name. He is obliged to attend in person at the trial of criminals; but in civil cases of little moment, his presence is dispensed with:

He is assisted by two officers of the court, an assessor and fiscal: the first is his counsellor, to manage the trials; the other is advocate for the crown. These sign the sentence with the governor.

When the governor absents himself from the trial of civil causes of small importance, the assessor is the chief judge, and signs the decree alone, in the governor's name; for the fiscal is not properly a judge in civil affairs.

In causes where the assessor is known to be concerned in interest, or where he is liable to be biased by enmity, friendship, or kindred, the governor may appoint another lawyer (against whom these objections do not lie) to officiate in his room.

There is a procurador-real to attend the court, and inform them of such matters as are to be brought before them, and to push on the trial. Other inferior officers there likewise are; an escrivan, or secretary; an alguazil, or bailiff; a macero, or mace-bearer; and a carcelero, or gaoler. This court of royal-government was subordinate to the court of royal-audience in Majorca.

The royal-patrimony, or crown-revenue, is regulated by a council, consisting of the procurador-real (who is the president) the assessor, and the fiscal. They hold inquiries into the concealed branches of the revenue, see that the decimos (or dues of the crown that are paid in kind) are sold to the best advantage, and settle all new cencoes (which are a sort of crown-rent, or yearly acknowledgement) fixing their rate.

The procurador-real is receiver and pay-master of the royal-patrimony, and holds a court, in which the fiscal and assessor are the judges; he himself having no vote there.

The fiscal of the royal-government acts in this court as judge in ordinary, and counsellor to the procurador-real.

The assessor of the royal-government is likewise a judge in this court, and the sentence principally depends upon his opinion; for though the fiscal should differ from him, yet he

is obliged to sign the sentence. Whenever it happens that they are of different opinions, the decree is thus worded. "By the advice of the assessor, and the intervention of the "fiscal;" and the secretary is to make an entry of the proceedings in his books, and attest it.

There is besides a deputy-receiver, who has his under receivers, or collectors, in the several terminos.

The escriván, or secretary, keeps the records; the alguazil acts as a catch-pole, to arrest delinquents; and the sach is the porter and cryer.

The principal magistrates that are set over the several terminos, are the jurats: those of Ciudadella are jurats-general of the whole island. All jurats, whether collectively or separate, are honoured with the style of Senor Magnifico. Their office is to lay before the governor occasionally all the grievances and hardships of the people, to the end that they may be redressed; and to see that the markets are duly supplied with the necessaries of life.

Though the jurats have no executive power of their own, they may impose taxes on their termino, with the consent of their ordinary council, to whom they are accountable for the money so raised.

They had formerly the privilege of engrossing the corn, and of settling the asoracion, or rate at which it was to be sold to the people; but this has been long discontinued.

The jurat-major is to be always chosen out of the body of the cavaliers (who are all donzels, or gentlemen, with the title of don) another out of the ciudadans, or citizens; another is a mercader, or merchant; and a fourth a menestral, or artisan. To these we may add the jurat pejez, who is a peasant. And thus all the orders of men, of which the inhabitants of every termino are composed, have their proper representatives among the magistrates by whom they are governed.

When the jurats have served out their year, their successors are elected, and take the necessary oaths to qualify them to enter on the administration of their office. None on whom the election falls can decline the public service, and no one jurat can be chosen two years successively. The new jurats immediately appoint their counsellors to assist them.

The termino of Ciudadella has a jurat-clavario, which none of the others have. This officer is the public-treasurer, and the second jurat in rank. By him all matters are proposed at the meetings of the jurats; and when the governor comes into the termino, he is the first that is to address him: but
when

when the magistrates attend the governor at any place that is without the termino, this honour belongs to the jurat-major.

With the clavario all the public money is lodged, and his disbursements are regulated by the orders of the jurats, with the approbation of the council. At the close of the year his accounts are audited, and the ballance is paid into the hands of the new clavario.

When the jurats think it necessary to call a general-council, they apply to the governor for his summons; on the receipt whereof the deputies of all the terminos assemble at Ciudadella at the appointed time. This council is composed of twenty-four members, besides the jurats-general, which last have no voice, unless a syndico is to be sent out of the island, and then they are at liberty to vote in the choice of the person.

The business that usually employs a general-council, is to impose new taxes; to enquire whether any termino has paid more than it's just proportion to a former tax; to provide for any extraordinary expence that is about to be incurred by the island in general; and to take into consideration the state of affairs, and represent all hardships and oppressions to the governor, or even to lay them before the king, for redress; if they are driven so far, by having their former remonstrances slighted by the governor.

The governor, or commander in chief, cannot assemble a general-council on his own authority; it can only be convened at the request of the jurats, who are under no necessity of acquainting him with the business that is to be the subject of their deliberations, even though their intention should be to send a syndico to the king: but it is customary, when their own affairs are once dispatched, to desire to know if he has any thing to offer for the service of the crown. After they are broke up, indeed, the fiscal of the royal-government may demand of the jurats-general the resolutions of the general-council, which he is then at liberty to lay before the governor: but this seems to be an incroachment of the prerogative, as it in a great measure defeats the above privilege, and renders it of little value.

Any one termino may, at it's own expence, dispatch a syndico to the king, without applying to the others for their consent.

There is a bayle in every termino, who carries his rod of justice every where within his own termino, but not out of it.

it. He holds a court, from whence an appeal lies to the court of royal-government.

The bayle of Ciudadella has the appellation of bayle-general, and to him the bayles of the other terminos are in some degree subordinate: he carries his rod all over the island.

Heretofore, when a governor died, the command of the island devolved on this officer, and he enjoyed half the salary until a new governor arrived: He holds a court, wherein he is assisted by his assessor; and here all causes (except some few of a particular nature) are tried, with an appeal to the court of royal-government.

The bayle-general is judge in ordinary of the whole island, and to him all proclamations are directed. The orders of march for the troops, and the business of quartering them, fall to his province.

All the bayles have their lieutenants. The lieutenant of the bayle-general never carries a rod in his presence, tho' the other lieutenant-bayles have this privilege in the presence of their respective principals.

The bayle-general's assessor is his counsellor and assistant in all matters that are brought to a tryal in his court.

The bayle-consul tries all causes for five livrés, and under, in a summary way, which keeps a multitude of trifling business out of the superior courts. All maritime affairs are brought before him as consul, and an appeal from his decisions lies to the governor only.

All the magistrates enter upon their office annually on Whit-Sunday, and take an oath of allegiance.

The almutazen, or mustastaf, as he is corruptly called, is clerk of the markets; whose principal charge is to look to the weights and measures, of which he is the judge, as his title imports, in the Arabick tongue. With the assistance of two promens, this officer keeps a court, from whence appeals are made to the governor. In lieu of a salary, he is allowed one third of all the fines and penalties laid in his court, a motive to vigilance that has its proper weight in his breast. The almutazen is likewise to see that the streets are kept clean, and free from obstructions of every kind.

Coroner's inquests are held by the officers of the court of royal-government, by whom a great many ridiculous fooleries are practised; such as whispering the deceased, to know who killed him, and the like.

The spiritual court is at present held by the vicar-general at Ciudadella, and his person possesses the highest dignity in the

the church of Minorca. He has an assessor to assist him. Heretofore tortures were in use here, and there was a court of inquisition. Appeals lay to the court of royal audience in Majorca, and finally to the council of Arragon.

This island once had a bishop of its own, but pope Boniface the Eighth subjected it in spirituals to Majorca, by his bull, dated the eighteenth of July, 1295; and so it continued until Minorca came into the hands of the English. The bishop of Majorca drew considerable revenues out of this island, which now go to the government.

The governor is now the general patron, and presents to all the vacant benefices. The rectors of the five parishes that are in the island, receive their decimos, and the inferior clergy are supported by their masses, collections, holidays, &c. &c. from whence a comfortable maintenance arises, and they leave no project unattempted that can contribute to continue and improve it.

The monks have their governor abroad, on whom they are dependant, and are here under the direction of guardians. The Austin fryars of Mount Toro have lands to the amount of two hundred and sixteen pounds sterling * a year in money, and two hundred and sixty-five quarteras of corn. Every nun that professes brings two hundred livres into the convent, about thirty pounds sterling.

In 1713, there were in Minorca eighty-five nuns, one hundred and forty fryars, and seventy-five of the secular clergy, in all three hundred persons; and if we take the number of the inhabitants at twenty-seven thousand souls, as I think they are, this poor island supports in idleness one out of every ninety of its whole people; whereas England has not one clergyman of the established church to three hundred of the laity: and as these in Minorca profess celibacy, and are strict patterns of continence, their number readily accounts for the depopulation and poverty of the country.

The royal-patrimony, or crown-revenue, arises from several taxes and impositions whereof the church has a part.

All goods that are either exported or imported as merchandize, pay a certain duty on their being weighed or measured. All the salt that is made in the island pays one eleventh of the full value. One eleventh part is likewise paid for all greens, including barley for forage, and tobacco: only the green barley that is raised by the farmer for the foraging of his own beasts is exempted from duty.

* 1444 livres of Minorca currency.

Hemp pays one thirteenth part, and flax one fifteenth. All cattle pay one fifteenth of their yearly increase, and grapes one eleventh.

Corn, whether barley or wheat, pays one eighth. This, it is probable, was the rate that was at first settled; but now it actually pays twelve out of the hundred, which is one eighth and an half.

The inhabitants of this island, who were so justly famous in antiquity, for their dexterity at the sling, and their bravery in war, are now sunk into a shameful degeneracy and indolence. Their antient freedom has been long lost, the very spirit of liberty seems at present to have no existence among them, and their courage is vanished with it; as if an enslaved people were of opinion, they had nothing left that was worth fighting for.

There is nothing more certain than that the Minorquins were a brave people while they were engaged in continual war with the Moors; and what Tacitus says of the antient Gauls, * “Gallos in bellis floruisse, accepinus, mox segnities cum otio intravit, amissa virtute, pariter ac libertate,” may with equal justice be applied to them: for as a long war trains an unwarlike nation to military exploits, so a profound peace, with a total disuse of arms, in process of time naturally dejects the spirits of a people, and renders them supine and dastardly.

They have lived long under a hard government, and have spirits broke to servitude, and bodies inured to labour. They are effectually subdued to a blind obedience to those that are set over them, and seem chearful and contented under poverty and oppression; but their mean natures are apt to be too much exalted by prosperity and power, which give them a glimpse of greater happiness than they are able to compass, and then they grow factious and male content.

They are naturally contentious, and carry small quarrels to a great height, entailing bitter enmities on their posterity; and as these often proceed from slight provocations, it sometimes happens, that these animosities subsist between families, long after the differences which occasioned them are forgot.

They are so suspicious of one another, that they think no man can be in the possession of power, without using it to the prejudice of his neighbour; and therefore it is, that, tho' they pay a world of respect to persons in office, they ever attend upon their behaviour with a watchful and a jealous eye.

* In Vit. Agricol.

These people make but few improvements, adhering with great strictness to the customs of their forefathers, from which they seldom deviate in any thing.

They pay their taxes chearfully ; are extremely temperate in their diet, eating but little flesh, with great quantities of vegetables and spices, and a great deal of bread.

Garlick and onions are seldom omitted in their cookery, which is very offensive and sordid on our first acquaintance with it.

Their ordinary drink is water ; and a dram of aguardiente, to crown the whole, turns their meal into a feast.

A little foul wine they drink at the vintage, and such as turns sour upon their hands ; the rest goes to the English. Sic vos non vobis mellificatis apes !

Notwithstanding the purity of their air, and the lightness of their diet, they want much of the briskness and vivacity of the French ; nor does their wine exalt them much above the usual level : and indeed it cannot be said to exhilarate the spirits, like that of the countries all about them, especially France ; so that if they were to drink French wine, and the Frenchmen theirs, the company would both be better by the exchange.

Though there are schools in the convents for the instruction of youth, yet the little they get there is soon lost again : and it may be truly said, that the learning of these seminaries consists in little more than the acquisition of the Latin tongue by rote, without any initiation into the rudiments of the sciences, which are unknown here, few having attained even a slight smattering of the mathematicks, or being well acquainted with the common rules of arithmetick.

The very clergy, among whom learning usually makes some stand, before it utterly forsakes a country, are pitifully ignorant and stupid, and have nothing to preserve them from contempt, but the excessive bigotry of the people.

There is scarce a woman in the country that writes or reads ; which does not proceed from their want of capacity, but is the consequence of the jealous nature of the men, who are not willing to furnish them with the means of intriguing, to which the heat of the climate does not a little incline them, but in which however they are extremely cautious and secret.

Their lovers are very assiduous to gain their affections, exposing themselves whole nights under a window ; and, as Shakespear expresses it, “ cooling the air with sighs ;” and he is like to be most favoured, who gets a swingeing cold, or breaks a limb in these nocturnal adventures : for the ladies

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are well apprized, that the more rigour they treat their lover withal, the better is their usage likely to be after marriage.

But this obsequiousness in the lover is generally of short duration; and the marriage ceremony is scarcely over, when the husband throws off the mask, and early exerts the tyrant; whilst the poor spouse insensibly sinks into a contemptible household drudge for life.

The housewifery of these females lies in small compass: they spin their wool and flax, of which their ordinary dress principally consists; make and mend the linnen of the family; and some of them weave a little lace, for their own wear, on extraordinary occasions.

I did not intend the cavaliers, when I mentioned the poor fare of these islanders: they live well in their way, but are naturally abstemious and sober; some of them never drinking any wine, though they all have it in their houses.

They seldom make entertainments, and are no great visitors, preferring a life of domestic quiet and retirement; and as this privacy is suitable to the œconomy they are under a necessity of observing, it is likewise more agreeable to their disposition, as it favours their natural taciturnity, and enables them to keep their wives under a more constant observation.

The priests live well, and drink wine freely, taking care to be well provided with the best of the growth of the island. They make no scruple to indulge themselves in the conversation of the other sex, and have every opportunity they can wish for, in an unsuspected access to the houses of all their neighbours. And yet they are much more upon their guard to avoid scandal, and preserve their character, than the monks are; whose lives are such as, our history informs us, first opened the eyes of our countrymen, and made way for the reformation.

There is no degree of superstition into which these people have not been led. They pay very large contributions towards praying the souls out of purgatory; and many times a devout person gives a hog, a sheep, and even a fowl, to be sold by auction, and the money applied to this pious use.

The priests and fryars entertain them on holy-days with spectacles, and sometimes with comedies; making all the public diversions subservient to their interests.

During the carnival, the ladies amuse themselves in throwing oranges at their lovers; and he who has received one of these on his eye, or has a tooth beat out by it, is convinced, from that moment, that he is a high favourite with the fair-one, who has done him so much honour. Sometimes a good handful of flour is thrown full in one's eyes, which gives the
utmost

utmost satisfaction, and is a favour that is quickly followed by others of a less trifling nature.

The carnival is a season of outrageous mirth and jollity; both men and women allowing themselves a full swing of freedom, intermixed, however, with the superstitions and ceremonies of their religion. And we well know, that the holidays of the antient Romans were, like these carnivals, a mixture of devotion and debauchery.

All day, masses, feasting, and processions; all night hurrying from one church to another; balls, maskings, and intrigues.

This time of festivity is sacred to pleasure, and it is sinful to exercise their calling, until Lent arrives, with the two curses of these people, abstinence and labour, in its train.

Their races are of several kinds; asses contend with asses, men with men; and it is not unusual for a considerable number of Spaniards, of every degree, to mount their horses, mules and asses, at the end of a street (and these are generally narrow enough) some with bridles, saddles, and furniture, others bare-backed; and starting all together, whip, spur, kick, drive, and shout, to the other end; where you may observe as much earnestness and anxiety in the countenances of the riders, and as much apparent delight and satisfaction in those of the spectators, as ever you saw at the finest match at Newmarket.

Running at the ring is now much difused here, and even a bull-baiting is a rarity. I saw one; but the bull wanted spirit, though the dogs were very contemptible assailants; so that I was very little pleased until it was over.

During the carnival, and all winter long, they dance in their houses; in summer this diversion is taken in the street by torch-light. Their musick is the guitar, on which most of the men and women play.

They dance in couples, the man exerting his whole strength and activity, while the woman moves slow, and looks all the time on the ground. And though the performance be never so wretched, the spectators never fail to cry out, "long live the dancers!" which they return with, "long live the lookers-on!" Sometimes the man is desired to say something to his partner, on which the compliment is always this question, "What would you have me say to her, but that she has the face of a rose?"

They have but few tunes, and these are dull too; though not altogether unsuitable to the measure of the lady, whose looks are not in the least affected by the diversion; and I have often thought their countenances had more of solemnity and

mortification on these occasions, that in the most serious exercises of their religion, that we hereticks are allowed to be witnesses to.

It is observable, that they seldom practise those diversions and exercises in which the more warlike people of Europe delight. Their sling is at present in little use, except among the shepherds, who are dexterous enough, in hitting a refractory sheep, or goat, at a great distance.

Their hunting of rabbits, with their dogs, in the woods, or taking them by means of ferrets, when they have refuged themselves in the crannies of the rock, cannot so properly be called a diversion, since the motive is the gain they make of their flesh.

The few that shoot, follow it as a trade, for which they are very well paid, and they certainly deserve to be well paid, for there are few better marksmen in the world, as they rarely miss above once in fifteen or sixteen times; if it happens any oftner, they cry they are bewitched, *jo sum bruxat*.

The governor and the commanding-officers of the regiments, have each one of these fellows, under the title of cassador. He has no fixed salary, but is paid for his game, as he brings it in, at a regulated price.

The officers and the Spanish cavaliers are under no restraint, but may shoot partridges from the middle of August, when the young ones are able to fly, to the middle of February, when they begin to pair, and lay their eggs.

As for birds of passage, they are lawful prey at all times, and few countries have them in greater abundance.

The meaner sort are disarmed all over the island, which was done on very good grounds many years ago; and this has been attended with one incidental advantage, that it has prevented the destruction of the game. The gentlemen are permitted to wear swords, and use fire-arms, as well for the security of their houses, as for the diversion in the field.

The pointers of this island have long been famous. They have good noses, and are extremely staunch: the latter quality may be owing in a great measure to the rigorous discipline of the cassador that teaches them, which is savagely cruel and brutal.

But these dogs are observed to want speed, when they are sent into England, and therefore the strain is usually crossed with our spaniels; and this mixture produces a race of as good pointers as any in Europe.

These islanders are of a swarthy complexion, more particularly the labouring men, who are much exposed to the sun: but

but many of the women and children are fair, having for the most part regular features, black eyes and hair, and very good teeth.

When a child happens to have grey eyes, and fair, or red hair, which sometimes is the case, the husband thrugs up his shoulders, and suspects his spouse of infidelity; and it is certain the women have a world of vivacity, and love money, which are powerful incentives to an illicit correspondence with the officers of the troops.

The dress of the lower rank of the men consists of a loose short coat, or jacket, a waistcoat, with a red worsted girdle, going many times round the belly, or a broad leather belt; a coarse shirt, a coloured handkerchief about their necks, a red worsted cap, a pair of breeches, reaching down almost to the ankles, coarse stockings, broad flat shoes, with little or no heel, made of white leather, a flapped hat and a cloak.

The better sort wear wigs, cocked hats, and swords, and have their cloaths cut in our fashion but generally black. When they are in mourning they draw a case or sheath of black cloth over the scabbard of their sword, and this they think a sufficient distinction.

The women's common dress is a close waistcoat of black stuff, opening wide at the neck, and close buttoned at the wrist, where the end of the shift-sleeve is commonly turned up. A petticoat of coloured stuff, or printed linnen, comes over this, and is tied at the waist.

The petticoat is full-gathered, to make them seem large about the hips, which they think becoming, and is made so short, as seldom to reach below the middle of the leg.

Their stockings are of worsted, red, blue, or green, with clocks of other colours; and their white shoes have heels moderately high, with red tops, and are broad at the toes, where they are pinked full of small holes, which make them easy and cool, and are besides in their opinion ornamental.

About the head they wear a robazilla, of white or printed linnen, or of silk, which is pinned close under the chin, and falls about the shoulders; and when it is blown open by the wind, it shows the neck, which has no other covering, to great advantage.

In putting on the robazilla, they are ever careful to draw it close under the chin; by which contrivance their cheeks are puffed out, which these meagreladies are very vain of; plumpness being valued by them, as most things are apt to be, because it is so rarely seen among them.

They are ever perfectly straight and well shaped, for they wear no stays; those cursed machines, which are such a confinement to the body, under the notion of directing it in its growth, serving only to warp and deform it.

The dress of state is the black veil, which turns over the head from the waist, but never wholly hides the face.

Their hair is gathered behind, and sometimes plaited, but more generally bound about with a coloured ribband, and reaching down almost to the heels among the women of condition, but much shorter among the others; they generally end in a small curl. In their high dress they seldom go without a fan in one hand, and a rosario in the other.

The opportunities these females have of appearing in their gaiety, are but few, and their time is employed in domestic affairs; so that, as the fashion never varies, their best cloaths descend to the third or fourth generation; and we often see a bride dressed out in the wedding garments of her great grandmother.

They marry at thirteen or fourteen years of age, and sometimes earlier, and begin to break by the time they are four or five and twenty.

When a woman is saluted, she never curtesies, but gently bows the head. It is the highest affront to offer to kiss them, or even to touch their hand, before witnesses; and their usual saying on such occasion is, *Mira y no tocas*; Look at me, but touch me not.

The very poorest of these people eat good brown bread, made of wheat, which is their principal nourishment; and lie in tolerable beds, the sheets of which they frequently shift; so that we are not shocked here with that squalid poverty and wretchedness, which display themselves in the houses of the poor in other countries, and even in England, remote from the capital.

They take a pride in keeping their house and utensils clean; though we are apt to tax them with filthiness, on account of the noisome smells that strike the sense, when we enter their dwellings, which really are not to be imputed to a want of cleanliness in the women, but to the nasty oil they burn in their lamps, and the garlick they use in their cookery.

The furniture of the kitchen is mostly of earthen ware, few having a copper-kettle or pewter-dish in their possession. The ollas, or pots in which they stew their victuals, though they are very light and thin, yet bear the fire well.

They have no jacks, and bake their meat oftner than they roast it. They generally put almonds into the bellies of their
pigs,

pigs, geese, and turkeys; but such dishes rarely make their appearance, except at christenings or weddings.

A mess of oil, water, and bread, with pepper and garlick stewed together, often dines the whole family; and their favourite dish is an olla, which is at present well known in the most elegant of the London taverns.

These people rise early, breakfast on a piece of bread, and a bunch of grapes, or raisins, according to the season, take a draught of water, and so to work.

They dine at noon, sup betimes, sit some hours at the door in summer, or by the fire in winter, smook a good many pipes, and so to bed.

They are indeed great smoakers universally, and not very nice, either in their tobacco, or their pipes; the latter serving as long as they can be kept from accidents.

These pipes consist of a bowl (which they import) made of clay, into which they fix a reed, and have a mouth-piece of horn, and sometimes of silver, at the other end.

Their fuel is altogether wood, either the trunks and branches of trees, or their roots; of which the olive is by much the most chearful and durable. It is delivered in to the buyer at three-pence and four-pence the quintal.

This island was much more populous than it is at present, vast numbers of its inhabitants having been killed, or carried away into captivity by the Moors.

Some share they also had in planting the American colonies; and then if we compute the numbers that are put into convents, and lead a life of celibacy; the ravage made by the small-pox every now and then, and the practice of the women in suckling their children for two years together, that they may not be starved by a numerous progeny: I say, if we revolve these circumstances, and add, that Minorca is a barren country, and receives no reinforcement of people from abroad, we are not to wonder, if, in its present condition, the number of its inhabitants is vastly diminished from what it has been.

And this may serve to account for the resistance which king Alphonso met with from the Moors, when he atchieved the conquest of the island.

The Moors indeed, besides the numbers of their countrymen that resorted to these islands from various motives, had another advantage over the Christians that, beyond all others, tended most to the peopling of the countries they possessed; I

mean a plurality of wives, which will ever keep them up a numerous race of men.

In their religious ceremonies, the Minorquins differ little from the French and Spaniards; only as they are secluded, by their situation, from the rest of the world, their notions are contracted, and their minds more subject to be wrought upon and moulded by the priests; by whom they are absolutely governed, and who may be truly said to be their temporal, as well as their spiritual guides.

There is one thing remarkable in their funerals, which I cannot pass by, without mentioning.

The Minorquins have so great a reverence for the Fryar's-habit, that it is very common for them to be carried in that disguise to the grave.

I have seen an old woman placed on a bier, dressed like a Franciscan Monk, and so conducted by the good brothers of that order, with singing, and the tinkling of the hand-bell, to their church.

This superstition was observed by Milton, in his travels through the Roman-catholic countries; for when he is describing the Paradise of Fools, he does not forget to mention those,

——— *Who to be sure of paradise,
Dying, put on the weeds of Dominick,
Or in Franciscan think to pass disguis'd.*

Paradise Lost, l. 3.

The funeral procession ends at the church, and there the body is set down before the high altar, and the company is dismissed.

At night it is thrown into the vault, with some lime; and as these temporary repositories come by degrees to be filled, the bones are occasionally taken out, and interred in places set apart in every town for that purpose.

Justice, however, obliges me to say, that, though there are many nations in Europe, whose character is more interesting, whose affairs are more important, and whose virtues are more conspicuous; I am far from regretting the time I have spent, in withdrawing the veil, that has so long hid these islanders from the observation of their neighbours, and continued them, though they make a part of our British dominions, as utter strangers to the good people of England, as the hunters of Æthiopia, or the artificers of Japan.

We

We reckon the Minorquins to be fifteen thousand males (whereof, at least, one fifth, or three thousand, are of a proper age for fighting men) and twelve thousand females; in all twenty seven thousand souls.

With regard to the trade of the Minorquins, they make a sort of cheese, little liked by the English, which sells in Italy at a very great price; this perhaps to the amount of eight hundred pounds per annum. The wool they send abroad may produce nine hundred pounds more. Some wine is exported, and if we add to its value that of the home consumption, which has every merit of an export, being for the most part taken off by the troops for ready money, it may well be estimated at sixteen thousand pounds a year. In honey, wax, and salt, their yearly exports may be about four hundred pounds, and this comes pretty near the sum of their exports, which I estimate together at eighteen thousand one hundred pounds sterling per annum.

A vast ballance lies against them, if we consider the variety and importance of the articles they fetch from other countries, for which they must pay ready cash. Here it may be necessary to withdraw some things from the heap, such as their cattle, sheep, and sometimes fowls, on which they get a profit; for the country does not produce them in sufficient abundance to supply us, especially when we have a fleet of men of war stationed there.

What remains they purchase from abroad, and I assure you I do not jest when I tell you I believe I have omitted at least as many particulars as I have been able to recollect on the occasion.

Their imports then are, corn; cattle, sheep, fowls, tobacco, aguardiente, oil, rice, sugar, spices, hard-ware, and tools of all kinds; gold and silver lace, chocolate, or cacao to make it, tobacco, timber plank, boards, mill-stones, tobacco-pipes, playing-cards, turnery-ware, seeds, soap, saddles, all manner of cabinet-makers work, iron, iron-spikes, nails, fine earthen-ware, glass, lamps, brassery, paper, and other stationary wares, copperas, galls, dye-stuffs, painters brushes and colours, musical instruments, music and strings, watches, wine, fruit, all manner of fine and printed linnens, muslins, cambricks, and laces; bottles, corks, starch, indigo, fans, trinkets, toys, ribbands, tape, needles, pins, silk, mohair, lanthorns, cordage, tar, pitch, rosin, drugs, gloves, fire-arms, gun-powder, shot and lead, hats, caps, velvet, cotton, stuffs, woollen-cloths, stockings, copes, medals, vestments,

vestments, lustres, pictures, images, Agnus Dei's, books, pardons, bulls, relicks, and indulgences.

It must be confessed, that if the English have brought money into the country, they have for the time much infected the inhabitants, by setting them an example of spending it.

Many of them have learned to multiply their wants, and fall by degrees into a way of luxury and extravagance, perfectly new to them.

The dons are above trade, and the rest of the natives are unable to exercise it to any purpose. Yet if this infatuated people would set themselves seriously to make the most of their native produce, a few years industry would enable them to traffic with their neighbours to advantage, and even to provide exports of considerable value for an English market. To instance in a few,

The cotton-shrub has been tried here, and succeeds to admiration: they have spart growing in many places, in sufficient plenty to make all their own cordage, and to spare. The tunny-fish abounds on their coast, and they might easily fall into the method of curing it: by this the French of Languedoc and Provence, their neighbours, make a vast advantage.

They have abundance of olive-trees, yet they make no oil of the fruit, and are utterly ignorant of the right method of pickling it.

Some capers they pickle, and might, from the frequency of the plant, improve this into a valuable export.

Hemp and flax do extremely well, and might be increased and manufactured for exportation. Their canes or reeds are of use in the clothiers trade, but they export none; and they have great plenty of excellent slate, but do not work it.

It might possibly answer to send their cantoon-stone to England as ballast; but certainly their marble would be a valuable commodity with us, of which no country can boast a greater quantity in proportion, nor of greater beauty or variety, than this poor island.

Squills they have in abundance, mastick, alces, and some other drugs, which they neglect.

Their bees thrive well, and should be carefully managed, and increased as much as possible; their wax is inferior to none, and their honey cannot fail of being extremely delicate and fine in a country abounding with such a variety of aromattick plants, and is therefore in high esteem every where.

They

They raise a little tobacco, but seldom half the quantity they consume; and they make a kind of snuff in small quantities, which is in no respect inferior to that of Lisbon.

Their neighbours of Majorca make good advantage of their plantations of saffron, which these people use in their cookery, and yet will not take pains to raise it.

Their palm-trees, for want of a proper cultivation, produce no dates, and they send none of their fruit abroad, though they have it in their power to supply us with as good figs, prunes, almonds, raisins, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, and several other kinds, as any country in Europe.

But I will close these hints of what an industrious people might do to enrich themselves, and this indolent generation of men carelessly overlook, with the mention of salt, a ready-money commodity every where, and of which they might easily make a thousand times the quantity they now do. Their method requires so little trouble, that I will lay it before you.

There are a great many places on the coast of the island, where the rock is but little higher than the surface of the sea, and is flat for a great way together. In gales of wind the sea is beat all over these levels, and the salts have by degrees corroded the softer parts of the stone, and reduced its face to an infinite number of small cavities, divided from each other by the more solid veins, which have resisted their impression.

These cavities they fill with water from the sea, by means of scoops, and one day's sun suffices to evaporate the water, and leaves the concreted salt dry in the cells. The women and children gather it in the evening, and carry it home, and the cells in the rock are filled as before.

Having thus instanced some of the natural produce of this island, slighted by the inhabitants, which yet are capable of being improved into very valuable articles of commerce; I will attempt an estimate of the charge they are at in their importations.

I have in my possession an authentick paper, which contains an exact account of their harvest for thirty-seven years. By this it appears, that there are annually raised here fifty-three thousand five hundred and one quarteras of wheat, and twenty-two thousand six hundred eighty-three of barley, one year with another.

Wheat is their only bread-corn, all their barley being given to their beasts. Of the last they seldom import any great quantity; but they have occasion for thirty-five thousand quarteras

quarteras of wheat every year ; which, at nine shillings each, amount to fifteen thousand seven hundred and fifty pounds.

They import oil yearly to the value of ten thousand pounds.

I have by me an exact account of the stanc of arguardiente for fourteen years, and find they import annually of this spirit a quantity that costs them nine thousand two hundred and fifty pounds, allowing only ten per cent. for the profit of the farmers ; and this, at six-pence a quart, makes their yearly consumption of this spirit to be upwards of one thousand five hundred and forty hogsheds.

They import tobacco to the amount of one thousand two hundred pounds a year.

We may compute that their imports in linen and woollen goods of all kinds do not come to less than fifteen thousand pounds. It is not possible to make a nice calculation of the value of all the residue of their imports, so I shall set them at a round sum, which I dare say they do not fall short of, twenty thousand pounds.

So that here we have an annual expence of seventy-one thousand two hundred pounds, from which if we deduct eighteen thousand one hundred pounds, the amount of their exports, the remainder fifty-three thousand one hundred pounds sterling is a clear ballance of trade against them.

To enable these people, in some measure, to support the charge of this enormous ballance, we are to reckon the large sum of money yearly brought into the island, and spent among them by the troops ; a sum, as I have computed it, that falls but little short of their whole ballance, the greatest part of which goes to market for the common necessaries of life.

Every vintage produces thirteen thousand hogsheds of wine ; and if we allow for the clergy two thousand hogsheds, and for all the rest of the natives one thousand, the remaining ten thousand hogsheds are sold to the English for seventeen thousand five hundred pounds in ready money, the price of a hogshed taken at a medium at thirty five shillings.

This is a very considerable article in their favour, and they are so sensible of the advantage they draw from their vineyards, that they are continually enlarging them and increasing their number, notwithstanding they are very highly taxed.

They are indeed tied down to a set price for their red wine, and the asoracion or rate, is settled the beginning of the year ; but for their white wine (which is not included

in the above computation, being no great quantity) they are at liberty to drive their bargain as advantageously as they can.

It is certain this people can never be rich, unless they become industrious; the sea is open to them as well to their neighbours on every side, who thrive by a foreign commerce, and yet not one of them can victual or navigate their vessels near so cheap as these slothful Minorquins, who lie in the centre of so many trading ports, that it is amazing how they can have so long overlooked their true interest, and suffered themselves to be supplied with so many of the necessaries of life in foreign bottoms.

The Minorquins are naturally listless, and if they can contrive the means to keep their families from the sharp gripe of poverty, they are but little solicitous to enquire into the arts and manufactures by which sudden fortunes are acquired on every side of them. Tell them the Maltese are enriched by the quantities of cummin and anise-seed they export; remind them that the plant which produces the canary seed grows spontaneously all over the island, or that a gum is produced from the mastick-tree, of very great value abroad (and though the tree is an incumbrance which they eagerly root out of their grounds) they treat you as a visionary, and with a shrug of contempt seem to thank Heaven that they have no turn to whims and projects, but are contented to jog on in the plain track which their fathers trod before them.

Upon the reduction of Sardinia, and the return of the fleet to the coast of Catalonia, major-general Stanhope projected an expedition for the conquest of the island of Minorca, then garrisoned by the French and Spaniards for king Philip.

He accordingly procured the necessary orders for embarking a body of troops amounting to two thousand six hundred men (for so it was given out, though in reality they were not more than two thousand) twelve hundred of whom were British, including the marines, six hundred Portuguese, and the rest Spanish; these were put under his command, and arrived at the island on the fourteenth of September 1708, N. S.

They met with a great deal of difficulty in landing and transporting the heavy artillery in so rugged a country, where there were but few beasts of burthen that they could come at; yet with continual labour they brought their whole train (consisting of forty-two guns and fifteen mortars) in twelve days time, to the ground, where they intended to employ them.

In the mean while, Fornelles castle was briskly attacked by captain Butler in the Dunkirk, who got into the harbour two hours before the Centurion, captain Fairborn, (which was dispatched with him from the fleet) and fired thirty-six barrels of powder against the castle, which made a gallant defence. But the garrison, finding the Centurion was able to get in, and had begun a warm fire on them, thought proper to surrender themselves prisoners of war, having had but one man killed and four wounded, whereas the ships had eleven killed and about sixty wounded. The garrison consisted of about fifty men, and had twelve guns mounted for its defence.

This success intimidated the garrison of St. Philip's castle, and contributed a good deal to hasten its surrender to the confederates.

On the twenty-eighth, at break of day, the general opened a battery of nine guns against the two middlemost towers that defended a line the enemy had lately made, and beat them down, making some breaches in the line-wall itself (which was no difficult task, as it was hastily run up with loose stones, without mortar) which the general resolved to have attacked the next day, if he had not been prevented by what happened.

For brigadier Wade, being posted at some distance on the right, with two battalions, some of his grenadiers entered the line without orders, which the brigadier no sooner perceived, than he advanced with all the men he could suddenly get together to sustain them.

When the general heard their fire, he marched the ordinary guard of the battery up to that part of the line that was nearest; which put the enemy into so great a consternation, that they immediately abandoned the two other towers (which could not have been taken without cannon) and retired precipitately within the works of the castle.

The allies lodged themselves the same evening at the foot of the glacis of St. Philip's castle, and traced out their main battery; but the next morning the enemy beat a parley, and a treaty ensued, that ended in a capitulation, which was signed at five of the clock that afternoon; in consequence of which, the general took possession of the place on the thirtieth, and found the garrison to consist of one thousand men under arms, part of whom were to be transported into France, and the rest of them to Spain.

The loss of the confederates was inconsiderable, and did not exceed forty men, killed and wounded; among the former was the brave captain Stanhope of the Milford.

We are told this castle was built by Charles the Fifth, repaired and beautified by Philip the Second, and enlarged by Philip the Fourth.

A detachment of foot was sent to Ciudadella, which immediately surrendered; and here a garrison of one hundred men were made prisoners of war.

Thus the whole island was happily reduced under the obedience of king Charles.

G I B R A L T A R,

IN Andalusia, in Spain, is situated on the Streigh between that Ocean and the Mediterranean, thence called The Streight of Gibraltar (which is twenty-four miles long and fifteen broad) directly opposite to Ceuta in Afric; fifty-eight miles south-east from Cadiz, about eighty south from Seville, more than two hundred and sixty south-west from Madrid, and about sixteen north from Ceuta, just mentioned; W. long. $4^{\circ} 50'$; lat. $36^{\circ} 15'$. It is, without doubt, the Calpe of the antients; and the name of Gibraltar is supposed to be a corruption of Gebal-Tarif, or the mount of Tarif, or Tarifa, who was a famed Moorish general that crossed hither from Afric to conquer Spain. It is built on a rock, in a peninsula, and can only be approached, on the land side, by a very narrow passage between the mountain and the sea, cross which the Spaniards have drawn a line, and fortified it, to prevent the garrison having any communication with the country. The city, &c. is so well walled, and fortified both by art and nature, being on the land side inclosed by high hills, that it is almost inaccessible that way. It hath but two gates on that side, and two to the sea, and was inhabited by twelve thousand families in one parish, with three monasteries, one nunnery, and two hospitals. It was taken by the English under the conduct of the brave admiral Sir George Rook, commander of the confederate fleet, July the twenty-fourth, 1704; at which time almost all the inhabitants quitted it; so that it hath had but few people since, except the garrison, and those that depend upon it. Yet it has been made a free port, and merchants have been invited to settle there. It is also, if I am rightly informed, made a town corporate, and the civil power at length put into the hands of the magistrates. But there were sad complaints of oppression under a military government.

The

The garrison has no very large limits, and the little ground yields very little sustenance of itself. However it can't be starved, nor at all want often, as long as we have a fleet to supply it from England as well as Africa. The additional works that have been made to it from time to time have rendered it impregnable by any other way but treachery or surprize. And it is hoped that perfidy will be still so much abhorred by every Englishman, that it will never so be lost. The French and Spaniards attempted to retake it the same year abovesaid, 1704; and four or five hundred of them (then) crept up the rock which covers the town; but were drove down headlong the next morning. The Spaniards besieged it again in 1727, but were forced to raise the siege, after lying before it many months, and having had thousands of men destroyed.

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BRITISH EMPIRE.

A M E R I C A.

AMERICA extends from the north pole to the fifty-seventh degree of south latitude; it is upwards of eight thousand miles in length; it sees both hemispheres; it has two summers and a double winter; it enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords; and is washed by the two great oceans. To the eastward it has the Atlantic ocean, which divides it from Europe and Africa. To the west it has another ocean, the great south sea, by which it is disjoined from Asia. By these seas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is composed of two vast continents, one on the north, the other upon the south, which are joined by the great 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. In the great gulph, which is formed between the isthmus and the northern and southern continents, lie an infinite multitude of islands, many of them large, most of them fertile, and capable of being cultivated to very great advantage.

America in general is not a mountainous country, yet it has the greatest mountains in the world. The Andes, or Cordilleras, run from north to south along the coast of the Pacific ocean. Though for the most part within the torrid

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zone, they are perpetually covered with snow, and in their bowels contain inexhaustible treasures. In the province of St. Martha in South America are likewise very great mountains, which communicate with the former. In North America we know of none considerable, but that long ridge which we call the Apalachian, or Alegeney, mountain; if that may be at all considered as a mountain, which upon one side indeed has a very great declivity, but upon the other is nearly on a level with the rest of the country.

Without comparison, America is that part of the world which is the best watered; and that not only for the support of life, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourse of each part with the others. In North America the great river Mississipi, rising from unknown sources, runs an immense course from north to south, and receives the vast tribute of the Ohio, the Oubache, and other immense rivers, scarcely to be postponed to the Rhine or Danube, navigable almost to their very sources, and laying open the inmost recesses of this continent. Near the heads of these are five great lakes, or rather seas of fresh water, communicating with each other, and all with the main ocean, by the river St. Laurence, which passes through them. These afford such an inlet for commerce as must produce the greatest advantages, whenever the country adjacent shall come to be fully inhabited by an industrious and civilized people. The eastern side of North America, besides the noble rivers Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, Patowmack, supplies several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation. Many parts of our settlements are so intersected with navigable rivers and creeks, that the planters may be said, without exaggeration, to have each a harbour at his own door.

South America is, if possible, in this respect, even more fortunate. It supplies much the two largest rivers in the world, the river of Amazons, and the Rio de la Plata. The first, rising in Peru, not far from the south sea, passes from west to east, almost quite through the continent of South America, navigable for some sort or other of vessels all the way, and receiving into its bosom a prodigious number of rivers, all navigable in the same manner, so that monsieur Condamine found it often almost impossible to determine which was the main channel. The Rio de la Plata, rising in the heart of the country, shapes its course to the south-east, and pours such an immense flood into the sea, that it makes it taste fresh a great many leagues from the shore; to say nothing
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of the Oronoquo; which might rank the foremost amongst any but the American rivers. The soil and products, in such a variety of climates, cannot satisfactorily be treated of in a general description; we shall, in their places, consider them particularly.

All America is in the hands of four nations. The Spaniards, who, as they first discovered it, have the largest and richest share: viz. all that part of North America, which composes the isthmus of Mexico, and what lies beyond that towards the river Mississippi on the east, the Pacific ocean to the west and north-west; and they possess all South America, excepting Brasil, which lies between the mouth of the river of Amazons and that of Plata along the Atlantic ocean; this belongs to Portugal. That part of North America which the Spaniards have not, is divided between the English and French. The English have all the countries which incircle Hudson's Bay, and thence in a line all along the eastern shore to the thirtieth degree of north latitude and westward to the Pacific Ocean. France claims the country which lies between the Spanish settlements to the west, and secures an intercourse with them by the mouths of the Mississippi. The multitude of islands, which lie between the two continents, are divided amongst the Spaniards, French, and English. The Dutch possess three or four small islands, which, in any other hands, would be of no consequence. The Danes have one or two; but they hardly deserve to be named amongst the proprietors of America.

The Aborigines of America, throughout the whole extent of the two vast continents which they inhabit, and amongst the infinite number of nations and tribes into which they are divided; differ very little from each other in their manners and customs; and they all form a very striking picture of the most distant antiquity. Whoever considers the Americans of this day, not only studies the manners of a remote present nation, but he studies, in some measure, the antiquities of all nations: from this study lights may be thrown upon many parts of the ancient authors, both sacred and profane. The learned Lafitau has laboured this point with great success, in a work which deserves to be read amongst us much more than I find it is.

The people of America are tall, and strait in their limbs beyond the proportion of most nations: their bodies are strong; but of a species of strength rather fitted to endure much hardship, than to continue long at any servile work, by which they are quickly consumed; it is the strength of a beast.

of prey, rather than that of a beast of burthen. Their bodies and heads are flattish, the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse. No beards; the colour of their skin a reddish brown, admired amongst them, and improved by the constant use of bear's fat and paint.

When the Europeans first came into America, they found the people quite naked, except those parts, which it is common for the most uncultivated people to conceal. Since that time they have generally a coarse blanket to cover them, which they buy from us. The whole fashion of their lives is of a piece; hardy, poor and squalid; and their education from their infancy is solely directed to fit their bodies for this mode of life, and to form their minds to inflict and to endure the greatest evils. Their only occupations are hunting and war. Agriculture is left to the women. Merchandize they contemn. When their hunting season is past, which they go through with much patience, and in which they exert great ingenuity, they pass the rest of their time in an entire indolence. They sleep half the day in their huts, they loiter and jest among their friends, and they observe no bounds or decency in their eating and drinking. Before we discovered them, they had no spiritous liquors; but now, the acquirement of these is what gives a spur to their industry, and enjoyment to their repose. This is the principal end they pursue in their treaties with us; and from this they suffer inexpressible calamities; for having once begun to drink, they can preserve no measures, but continue a succession of drunkenness as long as their means of procuring liquor lasts. In this condition they lie exposed on the earth to all the inclemency of the seasons, which wastes them by a train of the most fatal disorders; they perish in rivers and marshes; they tumble into the fire; they quarrel, and very frequently murder each other; and, in short, excess in drinking, which with us is rather immoral than destructive, amongst this uncivilized people, who have not art enough to guard against the consequence of their vices, is a public calamity. The few amongst them, who live free from this evil, enjoy the reward of their temperance in a robust and healthy old age. The disorders which a complicated luxury has introduced, and supports in Europe, are strangers here.

The character of the Indians is striking. They are grave even to sadness in their deportment upon any serious occasion; observant of those in company; respectful to the old; of a temper cool and deliberate; by which they are never in haste

to speak before they have thought well upon the matter, and are sure the person who spoke before them has finished all he had to say. They have therefore the greatest contempt for the vivacity of the Europeans, who interrupt each other, and frequently speak all together. Nothing is more edifying than their behaviour in their public councils and assemblies. Every man there is heard in his turn, according as his years, his wisdom, or his services to his country, have ranked him. Not a word, not a whisper, not a murmur, is heard from the rest while he speaks. No indecent condemnation, no ill-timed applause. The younger sort attend for their instruction. Here they learn the history of their nation; here they are inflamed with the songs of those who celebrate the warlike actions of their ancestors; and here they are taught what are the interests of their country, and how to pursue them.

There is no people amongst whom the laws of hospitality are more sacred, or executed with more generosity and goodwill. Their houses, their provision, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a guest. To those of their own nation they are likewise very humane and beneficent. Has any one of them succeeded ill in his hunting? Has his harvest failed? Or, is his house burned? He feels no other effect of his misfortune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow-citizens, who for that purpose have all things almost in common. But to the enemies of his country; or to those who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, until by some treachery or surprize 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 several 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 surprizing his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities, even to the eating of his flesh. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity; and such indeed in general is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

Notwithstanding this ferocity, no people have their anger, or at least shew of their anger, more under their command. From their infancy they are formed with care to endure scoffs, taunts, blows, and every sort of insult patiently, or at least

with a composed countenance. This is one of the principal objects of their education. They esteem nothing so unworthy a man of sense and constancy, as a peevish temper, and a proneness to sudden and rash anger. And this so far has an effect, that quarrels happen as rarely amongst them when they are not intoxicated with liquor, as does the chief cause of all quarrels, hot, and abusive language. But human nature is such, that, as virtues may with proper management be engrafted upon almost all sorts of vicious passions, so vices naturally grow out of the best dispositions, and are the consequence of those regulations that produce and strengthen them. This is the reason that, when the passions of the Americans are roused, being shut up, as it were, and converging into a narrow point, they become more furious; they are dark, sullen, treacherous and unappeasable.

A people who live by hunting, who inhabit mean cottages, and are given to change the place of their habitation, are seldom very religious. The Americans have scarce any temples. We hear indeed of some, and those extremely magnificent, amongst the ancient Mexicans and Peruvians; but the Mexicans and Peruvians were comparatively civilized nations. Those we know at present in any part of America are no way comparable to them. Some appear to have very little idea of God. Others entertain better notions; they hold the existence of the Supreme Being, eternal and incorruptible, who has power over all. Satisfied with owning this, which is traditional amongst them, they give him no sort of worship. There are indeed nations in America, who seem to pay some religious homage to the sun and moon; and, as most of them have a notion of some invisible beings, who continually intermeddle in these affairs, they discourse much of demons, nymphs, fairies, or beings equivalent. They have ceremonies too, that seem to shew they had once a more regular form of religious worship; for they make a sort of oblation of their first fruits; observe certain ceremonies at the full moon, and have in their festivals many things that very probably came from a religious origin, though they perform them as things handed down to them from their ancestors, without knowing or enquiring about the reason. Though without religion, they abound in superstitions; as it is common for those to do, whose subsistence depends, like theirs, upon fortune. Great observers of omens and dreams, and pry into futurity with great eagerness, they abound in diviners, augurs, and magicians, whom they rely much upon in all affairs that concern them, whether

of health, war, or hunting. Their physic, which may rather be called magic, is entirely in the hands of the priests. The sick are naturally prone to superstition, and human help in such cases is generally found so weak, that it is no wonder that, in all countries and ages, people have amused themselves in that dismal circumstance of human nature, with the hope of supernatural assistance.

Their physicians generally treat them, in whatever disorder, in the same way. That is, they first enclose them in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red hot; on this they throw water, until the patient 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 is repeated as often as they judge necessary; and by this method extraordinary cures are sometimes performed. But it frequently happens too, that this rude method kills the patient in the very operation, especially in the new disorders brought to them from Europe; and it is partly owing to this manner of proceeding, that the small-pox has proved so much more fatal to them than to us. It must not be denied that they have the use of some specifics of wonderful efficacy; the power of which they however attribute to the magical ceremonies with which they are constantly administered. And it is remarkable, that, purely by an application of herbs, they frequently cure wounds, which with us refuse to yield to the most judicious methods.

Liberty, in its fullest extent, is the darling passion of the Americans. To this they sacrifice every thing. This is what makes a life of uncertainty and want supportable to them; and their education is directed in such a manner as to cherish this disposition to the utmost. They are indulged in all manner of liberty; they are never upon any account chastised with blows; they are rarely even chidden. Reason, they say, will guide their children when they come to the use of it; and before that time their faults cannot be very great: but blows might abate the free and martial spirit which makes the glory of their people, and might render the sense of honour duller, by the habit of a slavish motives to action. When they are grown up, they experience nothing like command, dependence, or subordination; even strong persuasion is industriously forborne by those who have influence amongst them, as what may look too like command, and appear a sort of violence offered to their will.

On the same principle, they know no punishment but death. They lay no fines, because they have no way of ex-

acting them from free men; and the death, which they sometimes inflict, is rather a consequence of a sort of war declared against a public enemy, than an act of judicial power executed on a citizen or subject. This free disposition is general; and, though some tribes are found in America with an head whom we call a king, his power is rather persuasive than coercive; and he is revered as a father, more than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice. The other forms, which may be considered as a sort of aristocracy, have no more power. This latter is the more common in North America. In some tribes there are a kind of nobility, who, when they come to years of discretion, are entitled to a place and vote in the councils of their nation: the rest are excluded. But amongst the five nations, or Iroquois, the most celebrated commonwealth of North-America, and in some other nations, there is no other qualification absolutely necessary for their head men, but age, with experience and ability in their affairs. However, there is generally in every tribe some particular stocks which they respect, and who are considered in some sort as their chiefs, unless they shew themselves unworthy of that rank; as among the tribes themselves there are some, who, on account of their number or bravery, have pre-eminence over the rest; which, as it is not exacted with pride and insolence, nor maintained by tyranny on one hand, so it is never disputed on the other when it is due.

Their great council is composed of these heads of tribes and families, with such whose capacity has elevated them to the same degree of consideration. They meet in a house, which they have in each of their towns for the purpose, upon every solemn occasion, to receive ambassadors, to deliver them an answer, to sing their traditionary war songs, or to commemorate their dead. These councils are public. Here they propose all such matters concerning the state, as have already been digested in the secret councils, at which none but the head men assist. Here it is that their orators are employed, and display those talents which distinguish them for eloquence and knowledge of public business; in both of which some of them are admirable. None else speak in their public councils; these are their ambassadors, and these are the commissioners who are appointed to treat of peace or alliance with other nations.

The chief skill of these orators consists in giving an artful turn to affairs, and in expressing their thoughts in a bold
figurative

figurative manner, much stronger than we could bear in this part of the world, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive.

When any business of consequence is transacted, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. There are lesser feasts upon matters of less general concern, to which none are invited but they who are engaged in that particular business. At these feasts it is against all rule to leave any thing: so that if they cannot consume all, what remains is thrown into the fire; for they look upon the fire as a thing sacred, and in all probability these feasts were anciently sacrifices. Before the entertainment is ready, the principal person begins a song, the subject of which is the fabulous or real history of their nation, the remarkable events which have happened, and whatever matters may make for their honour or instruction. The others sing in their turn. They have dances too, with which they accompany their songs, chiefly of a martial kind; and no solemnity or public business is carried on without such songs and dances. Every thing is transacted amongst them with much ceremony; which in a barbarous people is necessary; for nothing else could hinder all their affairs from going to confusion; besides that, the ceremonies contribute to fix all transactions the better in their memory.

To help their memory, they have bits of small shells or beads of different colours, which have all a different meaning, according to their colour or arrangement. At the end of every matter they discourse upon, when they treat with a foreign state, they deliver one of these belts. If they should omit this ceremony, what they say passes for nothing. These belts are carefully treasured up in each town, and they serve for the public records of the nation; and to these they occasionally have recourse, when any contests happen between them and their neighbours. Of late, as the matter of which these belts is made is grown scarce, they often give some skin in the place of the wampum, for so they call these beads in their language, and receive in return presents of a more valuable nature; for neither will they consider what our commissioners say to be of any weight, unless some present accompanies each proposal.

The same council of their elders which regulates whatever regards the external policy of the state, has the charge likewise of its internal peace and order. Their suits are few and quickly decided, having neither property nor art enough to render them perplexed or tedious. Criminal matters come before the same jurisdiction, when they are so flagrant as to become

become a national concern. In ordinary cases, the crime is either revenged or compromised by the parties concerned. If a murder is committed, the family which has lost a relation prepares to retaliate on that of the offender. They often kill the murderer; and when this happens, the kindred of the last person slain look upon themselves to be as much injured, and think themselves as much justified in taking vengeance, as if the violence had not begun amongst themselves. But, in general, things are determined in a more amicable manner. The offender absents himself; the friends send a compliment of condolance to those of the party murdered; presents are offered, which are rarely refused; the head of the family appears, who in a formal speech delivers the presents, which consist often of above sixty articles, every one of which is given to cancel some part of the offence and to assuage the grief of the suffering party. With the first he says, "By this I remove the hatchet from the wound, and make it fall out of the hands of him that is prepared to revenge the injury:" with the second, "I dry up the blood of that wound;" and so on, in apt figures, taking away one by one all the ill consequences of the murder. As usual, the whole ends in mutual feasting, songs, and dances. If the murder is committed by one of the same family, or cabin, that cabin has the full right of judgment, without appeal, within itself, either to punish the guilty with death, or pardon him, or to force him to give some recompence to the wife or children of the slain. All this while the supreme authority of the nation looks on unconcerned, and never rouses its strength, nor exerts the fullness of a power more revered than felt, but upon some signal occasion. Then the power seems equal to the occasion. Every one hastens to execute the orders of their senate; nor was ever any instance of rebellion known among this people. Governed as they are by manners, not by laws; example, education, and the constant practice of their ceremonies, give them the most tender affection for their country, and inspire them with a most religious regard for their constitution, and the customs of their ancestors. The want of laws, and of an universal strong coercive power, is not perceived in a narrow society, where every man has his eye upon his neighbour, and where the whole bent of every thing they do is to strengthen those natural ties by which society is principally cemented. Family love, rare amongst us, is a national virtue amongst them, of which all partake. Friendships there are amongst them, fit to vie with those of fabulous antiquity; and where such friendships are seen to grow, the families concerned congratulate

gratulate themselves upon an acquisition, that promises to them a mutual strength, and to their nation the greatest honour and advantage.

The loss of any one of their people, whether by a natural death, or by war, is lamented by the whole town he belongs to*. In such circumstances no business is taken in hand, however important, nor any rejoicing permitted, however interesting the occasion, until all the pious ceremonies due to the dead are performed. These are always discharged with the greatest solemnity. The dead body is washed, anointed, and painted, so as in some measure to abate the horrors of death. Then the women lament the loss with the most bitter cries, and the most hideous howlings, intermixed with songs, which celebrate the great actions of the deceased, and those of his ancestors. The men mourn in a less extravagant manner. The whole village attends the body to the grave, which is interred, habited in their most sumptuous ornaments. With the body of the deceased are placed his bows and arrows, with what he valued most in his life, and provisions for the long journey he is to take: for they hold the immortality of the soul universally, but their idea is gross. Feasting attends this, as it does every solemnity. After the funeral, they who are nearly allied to the deceased conceal themselves in their huts for a considerable time to indulge their grief. The compliments of condolance are never omitted, nor are presents wanting upon this occasion. After some time they revisit the grave; they renew their sorrow; they new cloath the remains of the body, and act over again the solemnities of the first funeral.

Of all their instances of regard to their deceased friends, none is so striking as what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day of ceremony is appointed in the council of their chiefs, who give orders for every thing which may enable them to celebrate it with pomp and magnificence. The riches of the nation are exhausted on this occasion, and all their ingenuity displayed. The neighbouring people are invited to partake of the feast, and to be witnesses of the solemnity. At this time all who have died since the last solemn feast of that kind 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 difficult to conceive the horror of this ge-

* The towns are small, and, except the affairs of war or state, they have no business to employ them, for the greatest part of the year after the hunting season is over.

neral dis-interment. I cannot paint it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau.

“Without question,” says he, “the opening of the tombs displays one of the most striking scenes that can be conceived; this humbling pourtrait of human misery, is so many images of death, wherein she seems to take a pleasure to paint herself in a thousand various shapes of horror, in the several carcasses, 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 smoaked, without any appearance of rottenness; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction; whilst others are all swarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to strike us most, the horror of so shocking a sight, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deserves our admiration more, than that eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderness; gathering up carefully even the smallest bones; handling the carcasses, disgusting as they are, with every thing loathsome; cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders through tiresome journeys of several days, without being discouraged by their insupportable stench, 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.”

This strange festival is the most magnificent and solemn which they have: not only on account of the great concourse of natives and strangers, and of the pompous re-interment they give to their dead, whom they dress in the finest skins they can get, after having exposed them for some time in this pomp; but for the games of all kinds which they celebrate upon the occasion, in the spirit of those which the ancient Greeks and Romans celebrated upon similar occasions.

In this manner do they endeavour to sooth the calamities of life, by the honours they pay their dead; honours, which are the more cheerfully bestowed, because in his turn each man expects to receive them himself. Though amongst these savage nations this custom is impressed with strong marks of the ferocity of their nature; an honour for the dead, a tender feeling of their absence, and a revival of their memory, are some of the most excellent instruments for smoothing our rugged nature into humanity. In civilized nations ceremonies are less practised, because other instruments for the same purposes

poses are less wanted ; but it is certain a regard for the dead is ancient and universal.

Though the women in America have generally the laborious part of the œconomy upon themselves, yet they are far from being the slaves they appear, and are not at all subject to the great subordination in which they are placed in countries where they seem to be more respected. On the contrary, all the honours of the nation are on the side of the woman. They even hold their councils, and have their share in all deliberations which concern the state ; nor are they found inferior to the part they act. Polygamy is practised by some nations, but it is not general. In most they content themselves with one wife ; but a divorce is admitted, and for the same causes that it was allowed amongst the Jews, Greeks, and Romans. No nation of the Americans is without a regular marriage, in which there are many ceremonies ; the principal of which is, the bride's presenting the bridegroom with a plate of their corn.

Incontinent before wedlock, after marriage the chastity of their women is remarkable. The punishment of the adulterers, as well as that of the adulterer, is in the hands of the husband himself ; and it is often severe, as inflicted by one who is at once the party and the judge. Their marriages are not fruitful, seldom producing above two or three children ; but they are brought forth with less pain than our women suffer upon such occasions, and with little consequent weakness. Probably, that severe life, which both sexes lead, is not favourable to procreation. And the habit unmarried women have of procuring abortions, in which they rarely fail, makes them more unfit for bearing children afterwards. This is one of the reasons of the depopulation of America ; for whatever losses they suffer, either by epidemical diseases or by war, are repaired slowly.

Almost the sole occupation of the American is war, or such an exercise as qualifies him for it. His whole glory consists in this ; and no man is at all considered until he has increased the strength of his country with a captive, or adorned his house with a scalp of one of its enemies. When the ancients resolve upon war, they do not declare what nation it is they are determined to attack ; that the enemy, upon whom they really intend to fall may be off his guard. Nay, they even sometimes let years pass over without committing any act of hostility, that the vigilance of all may be unbent by the long continuance of the watch, and the uncertainty of the danger. In the mean time they are not idle at home. The principal

captain summons the youth of the town to which he belongs ; the war kettle is set on the fire ; the war songs and dances commence ; the hatchet is sent to all the villages of the same nation, and to all its allies ; the fire catches ; the war songs are heard in all parts ; and the most hideous howlings continue without intermission day and night over that whole tract of country. The women add their cries to those of the men lamenting those whom they have either lost in war or by a natural death, and demanding their places to be supplied from their enemies ; stimulating the young men by a sense of shame, which women know how to excite in the strongest manner, and can take the best advantage of when excited.

When by these, and every other means, the fury of the nation is raised to the greatest height, and all long to embrew their hands in blood, the war captain prepares the feast, which consists of dogs flesh. All that partake of this feast receive little billets, which are so many engagements which they take to be faithful to each other, and obedient to their commander. None are forced to the war ; but when they have accepted this billet, they are looked upon as listed, and it is then death to recede. All the warriors in this assembly have their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with dashes and streaks of vermilion, which give them a most horrid appearance. Their hair is dressed up in an odd manner, with feathers of various kinds. In this assembly, which is preparatory to their military expedition, the chief begins the war song ; which having continued for some time, he raises his voice to the highest pitch, and, turning off suddenly to a sort of prayer, addresses himself to the god of war, whom they call Areskoni : “ I invoke thee,” says he, “ to be favourable to my enterprize ! I invoke thy care upon me and my family ! I invoke ye likewise, all ye spirits and demons good and evil, all ye that are in the skies, or on the earth, or under the earth, to pour destruction upon our enemies, and to return me and my companions safely to our country ” All the warriors join him in his prayer with shouts and acclamations. The captain renews his song, strikes his club against the stakes of his cottage, and begins the war dance, accompanied with the shouts of all his companions, which continue as long as he dances.

The day appointed for their departure being arrived, they take leave of their friends ; they change their cloaths, or whatever moveables they have, in token of mutual friendship ; their wives and female relations go out before them, and attend at some distance from the town. The warriors march

out all drest in their finest apparel and most showy ornaments, regularly one after another, for they never march in rank. The chief walks slowly before them, singing the death song, whilst the rest observe the most profound silence. When they come up to their women, they deliver up to them all their finery, put on their worst cloaths, and then proceed as their commander thinks fit.

Their motives for engaging in a war are rarely those views which excite us to it. They have no other end but the glory of the victory, or the benefit of the slaves which it enables them to add to their nation, or sacrifice to their brutal fury; and it is rare that they take any pains to give their wars even a colour of justice. It is no way uncommon among them for the young men to make feasts of dogs flesh, and dances, in small parties, in the midst of the most profound peace. They fall sometimes on one nation, and sometimes on another, and surprize some of their hunters, whom they scalp and bring home as prisoners. Their senators wink at this, or rather encourage it, as it tends to keep up the martial spirit of their people, inures them to watchfulness and hardship, and gives them an early taste for blood.

The qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention to give and to avoid a surprize; and patience and strength, to endure the intolerable fatigues and hardships which always attend it. The nations of America are at an immense distance from each other, with a vast desert frontier, and hid in the bosom of hideous and almost boundless forests. These must be traversed before they meet an enemy, who is often at such a distance as might be supposed to prevent either quarrel or danger. But, notwithstanding the secrecy of the destination of the party that first moves, the enemy has frequent notice of it, and is prepared for the attack, and ready to take advantage in the same manner of the least want of vigilance in the aggressors. Their whole art of war consists in this: they never fight in the open field, but upon some very extraordinary occasions; not from cowardice, for they are brave; but they despise this method as unworthy an able warrior, and as an affair which fortune governs more than prudence. The principal things which help them to find out their enemies, are the smoak of their fires, which they smell at a distance almost incredible; and their tracks; in the discovery and distinguishing of which, they are possessed of a sagacity equally astonishing; for they will tell, in the footsteps, which to us would seem most confused, the number of men that have passed, and the length of time since they have passed; they even go so far

as to distinguish the several nations by the different marks of their feet, and to perceive footsteps, where we could distinguish nothing. A mind diligently intent upon one thing, and exercised by long experience, will go lengths at first view scarcely credible.

But as they who are attacked have the same knowledge, and know how to draw the same advantages from it, their great address is to baffle each other in these points. On their expeditions they light no fire to warm themselves, or prepare their victual, but subsist merely on the miserable pittance of some of their meal mixed with water; they lie close to the ground all day, and march only in night. As they march in their usual order in files, he that closes the rear, diligently covers his own tracks, and those of all who preceded him, with leaves. If any stream occurs in their route, they march into it for a considerable way to foil their pursuers. When they halt to rest and refresh themselves, scouts are sent out on every side to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they suspect an enemy may lie perdué. In this manner they often enter a village, whilst the strength of the nation is employed in hunting, and massacre all the helpless old men, women and children, or make as many prisoners as they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation.

They often cut off small parties of men in their huntings; but when they discover an army of their enemies, their way is to throw themselves flat on their faces amongst the withered leaves, the colour of which their bodies are painted to resemble exactly. They generally let a part pass unmolested; and then, rising a little, they take aim, for they are excellent marksmen; and setting up a most tremendous shout, which they call the war-cry, they pour a storm of musquet-bullets upon the enemy; for they have long since laid aside the use of arrows: the party attacked returns the same cry. Every man in haste covers himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground to give the second fire.

After fighting some time in this manner, the party which thinks it has the advantage rushes out of its cover, with small axes in their hands, which they dart with great address and dexterity; they redouble their cries, intimidating their enemies with menaces, and encouraging each other with a boastful display of their own brave actions. Thus being come hand to hand, the contest is soon decided; and the conquerors satiate their savage fury with the most shocking insults and
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barbarities to the dead, biting their flesh, tearing the scalp from their heads, and wallowing in their blood like wild beasts.

The fate of their prisoners is the most severe of all. During the greatest part of their journey homewards they suffer no injury. But when they arrive at the territories of the conquering state, or at those of their allies, the people from every village meet them, and think they shew their attachment to their friends by the barbarous treatment of the unhappy prisoners; so that, when they come to their station, they are wounded and bruised in a terrible manner. The conquerors enter the town in triumph. The war captain waits upon the head men, and in a low voice gives them an account of every particular of the expedition, of the damage the enemy has suffered, and his own losses in it. This done, the public orator relates the whole to the people. Before they yield to the joy which the victory occasions, they lament the friends which they have lost in the pursuit of it. The parties most nearly concerned are afflicted apparently with a deep and real sorrow. But, by one of those strange turns of the human mind, fashioned to any thing by custom, as if they were disciplined in their grief, upon the signal for rejoicing, in a moment all tears are wiped from their eyes, and they rush into an extravagance and phrenzy of joy for their victory.

In the mean time the fate of the prisoners remains undecided, until the old men meet, and determine concerning the distribution. It is usual to offer a slave to each house that has lost a friend; giving the preference according to the greatness of the loss. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the door of the cottage to which he is delivered, and with him gives a belt of walpum, to shew that he has fulfilled the purpose of the expedition, in supplying the loss of a citizen. They view the present which is made them for some time; and, according as they think him or her, or as they take a capricious liking or displeasure to the countenance of the victim, or in proportion to their natural barbarity or their resentment for their losses, they destine concerning him, to receive him into the family, or sentence him to death. If the latter, they throw away the belt with indignation. Then it is no longer in the power of any one to save him. The nation is assembled as upon some great solemnity. A scaffold is raised, and the prisoner tied to the stake. Instantly he opens his death song, and prepares for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. On the other side, they prepare to put it to the utmost proof, with every torment which the

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mind of man ingenious in mischief can invent. They begin at the extremities of his body, and gradually approach the trunk. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger in his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the hole of a pipe made red hot, which he smoaks like tobacco. Then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy part of his limbs, which they sear immediately with red-hot irons, cutting and searing alternately; they pull off this flesh thus mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood, in an enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them; while others are employed in pulling and extending the limbs themselves, in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of inhuman torments, often falls immediately into so profound a sleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awaken him, and renew his sufferings.

He is again fastened to the stake, and again they renew their cruelty; they stick him all over with small matches of wood that easily takes fire, but burns slowly; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, after having burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires; after having so mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red-hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull; they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is succeeded by a feast as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than furies,

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act their parts, and even outdo the men, in this scene of horror. 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 between him and them which shall exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmness and constancy almost above human. Not a groan; not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance; escapes him; he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; he recounts his own exploits, he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, tho' his reproaches exasperate them to a perfect madness of rage and fury, he continues his reproaches even of their ignorance in the art of tormenting; pointing out himself the more exquisite methods; and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted.

The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwise, as it would be for an European to suffer as an Indian.

I do not dwell upon these circumstances of cruelty, which brutalizes human nature, out of choice; but, as all who mention the customs of this people have insisted upon their behaviour in this respect very particularly, and as it seems necessary to give a true idea of their character, I did not chuse to omit it. It serves to shew too, in the strongest light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity the passions of men let loose will carry them. It will point out to us the advantages of religion that teaches a compassion to our enemies, which is neither known nor practised in other religions; and it will make us more sensible; than some appear to be, of the value of commerce, the art of a civilized life, and the lights 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 ferocity of the human race without enervating their courage.

On the other hand, the constancy of the sufferers in this terrible scene shews the wonderful power of an early institution, and a ferocious thirst of glory, which makes men imitate and exceed what philosophy, or even religion, can effect.

The prisoners who have the happiness to please those to whom they are offered have a fortune altogether opposite to that of those who are condemned. They are adopted into the family, they are accepted in the place of the father, son, or husband, that is last; and they have no other mark of their captivity, but that they are not suffered to return to their own nation. To attempt this would be certain death. The principal purpose of the war is to recruit in this manner; for which reason a general who loses many of his men, though he should conquer, is little better than disgraced at home; because the end of the war was not answered. They are therefore extremely careful of their men, and never chuse to attack but with a very undoubted superiority, either in number or situation.

The scalps which they value so much are the trophies of their bravery; with these they adorn their houses, which are esteemed in proportion as this sort of spoils is more numerous. They have solemn days appointed, upon which the young men gain a new name or title of honour from their head men; and these titles are given according to the qualities of the person, and his performances; of which these scalps are the evidence. This is all the reward they receive for the dangers of the war, and the fatigues of many campaigns, severe almost beyond credit. They think it abundantly sufficient to have a name given by their governors; men of merit themselves, and judges of it; a name respected by their countrymen, and terrible to their enemies.

I intend to consider the English colonies under two principal divisions; the first I allot to those islands which lie under the torrid zone between the tropic of Cancer and the Equinoctial line, in that part generally called the West-Indies. The second is to comprehend our possessions in the temperate zone on the continent of North America. The West-India islands shall be considered, as they are amongst the Greater Antilles; the windward; or the Leeward islands.

As all these islands lie between the tropics, whatever is to be said of the air, winds, meteors, and natural produce, shall fall under one head, as they are the same or nearly the same in all of them; their produce for the market is nearly the same too; and therefore whatever is to be said of the manufacturing of those, shall come together, after we have given a concise description of the state of each island separately.

Jamaica lies between the seventy-fifth and seventy-ninth degrees of west-longitude from London, and is between

seventeen and nineteen degrees distant from the Equinoctial. It is in length, from east to west, one hundred and forty English miles; in breadth about sixty; and of an oval form. This country is in a manner intersected with a ridge of lofty mountains, rugged and rocky, that are called the blue mountains. On each side of the blue mountains are chains of lesser mountains gradually lower. The greater mountains are little better than so many rocks; where there is any earth, it is only a stubborn clay fit for no sort of husbandry. The mountains are very steep, and the rocks tumbled upon one another in a manner altogether stupendous, the effect of the frequent earthquakes which have shaken this island in all times. Yet, barren as these mountains are, they are all covered to the very top with a great variety of beautiful trees, flourishing in a perpetual spring; their roots penetrates the crannies of the rocks, and search out the moisture which is lodged there by the rains that fall so frequently on these mountains, and the mists that almost perpetually brood upon them. These rocks too are the parents of a vast number of fine rivulets, which tumble down their sides in cataracts, that form, amongst the rudeness of the rocks and precipices and the shining verdure of the trees, the most wildly-pleasing imagery imaginable. The face of this country is a good deal different from what is generally observed in other places. For as on one hand the mountains are very steep; so the plains between them are perfectly smooth and level. In these plains, the soil, augmented by the wash of the mountains for so many ages, is prodigiously fertile. None of our islands produce so fine sugars. They formerly had here cacao in great perfection, which delights in a rich ground. Their pastures after the rains are of a most beautiful verdure, and extraordinary fatness. They are called Savannas. On the whole, if this island were not troubled with great thunders and lightnings, hurricanes and earthquakes; and, if the air was not at once violently hot, damp, and extremely unwholesome in most parts, the fertility and beauty of this country would make it as desirable a situation for pleasure, as it is for the profits, which, in spite of these disadvantages, draw hither such a number of people.

The river waters are many of them unwholesome and taste of copper; but some springs there are of a better kind. In the plains are found several salt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spanish-Town, is a hot bath, of extraordinary medicinal virtues. It relieves in the dry belly-ach,

one of the most terrible endemial distempers of Jamaica, and in various other complaints.

This island came into our possession during the usurpation of Cromwell, and by means of an armament which had another destination. Cromwell, notwithstanding the great abilities which enabled him to overturn the constitution and to trample upon the liberties of his country, was not sufficiently acquainted with foreign politics. This ignorance made him connect himself closely with France, then rising into a dangerous grandeur, and to fight with great animosity the shadow which remained of the Spanish power. On such ideas he fitted out a formidable fleet, with a view to reduce the island of Hispaniola; and, though he failed in this design, Jamaica made amends not only for this failure, but almost for the ill policy which first drew him into hostilities with the Spaniards; by which, however, he added this excellent country to the British dominions.

There was nothing of the genius of Cromwell to be seen in the planning of this expedition. From the first to the last, all was a chain of little interested mismanagement, and had no air of the result of absolute power lodged in great hands. The fleet was ill victualled; the troops ill provided with necessaries to support and encourage men badly chosen and worse armed. They embarked in great discontent. The generals were but little better satisfied, and had little more hopes, than the soldiers. But the generals (for there were two in the command, Penn and Venables, one for the marine, and the other for the land service) were men of no extraordinary talents. And, if they had been men of the best capacity, little was to be expected from two commanders not subordinate, and so differing in their ideas, and so envious of each other as land and sea-officers generally are. But, to make this arrangement perfect in all respects, and to prove the advantages arising from a divided command, they added a number of commissioners as a check upon both. This tripartite generalship, in the truest Dutch taste, produced the effects that might be expected from it. The soldiers differed with the generals, the generals disagreed with one another, and all quarrelled with the commissioners. The place of their landing in Hispaniola was ill chosen, and the manner of it wretchedly contrived. The army had near forty miles to march before it could act; and the soldiers, without order, without heart, fainting and dying by the excessive heat of the climate, and the want of necessary provisions, and dishearten-

ed yet more by the cowardice and discontent of their officers, yielded an easy victory to an handful of Spaniards. They retired ignominiously and with great loss.

But the principal commanders, a little reconciled by their misfortunes, and fearing to return to England without effect, very wisely turned their thoughts another way. They resolved to attempt Jamaica, before the inhabitants of that island could receive encouragement by the news of their defeat in Hispaniola. They knew that this island was in no good posture of defence; and they set themselves vigorously to avoid the mistakes, which proved so fatal in the former expedition. They severely punished the officers who had shewn an ill example by their cowardice; and they ordered, with respect to the soldiers, that, if any attempted to run away, the man nearest to him should shoot him.

Fortified with these regulations, they landed in Jamaica, and laid siege to St. Jago de la Vega, now called Spanish-town, the capital of the island. The people who were in no condition to oppose an army of ten thousand men and a strong naval force, would have surrendered immediately, if they had not been encouraged by the strange delays of our generals and their commissioners. However, at last, the town with the whole island surrendered, but not until the inhabitants had secreted their most valuable effects in the mountains.

After the Restoration, the Spaniards ceded the island to our court. Cromwell had settled there some of the troops employed in its reduction; some royalists, uneasy at home, sought an asylum in this island; not a few planters from Barbadoes were invited to Jamaica by the extraordinary fertility of the soil, and the other advantages which it offered. These latter taught the former settlers the manner of raising the sugar cane, and making sugar; for at first they had wholly applied themselves to the raising of cacao, as the Spaniards had done before them. It was happy for them that they fell into this new practice; for the cacao-groves planted by the Spaniards began to fail, and the new plantations did not answer, as the negroes foretold they would not, because of the want of certain religious ceremonies always used by the Spaniards in planting them, at which none of the slaves were suffered to be present, and to the use of which they attributed the prosperity of these plantations. Probably there were methods taken at that time, that were covered by the veil of these religious ceremonies, which are necessary to the well-being of that plant. However that be, the cacao has never since equalled the reputation of the

Spanish, but gave way to the more profitable cultivation of indigo and sugar.

But what gave the greatest life to this new settlement, and raised it at once to a surprizing pitch of opulence, which it hardly equals even in our days, was the resort thither of those pirates called the buccaneers. These men, who fought with the most desperate bravery, and spent their plunder with the most stupid extravagance, were very welcome guests in Jamaica. They often brought two, three, and four hundred thousand pieces of eight at a time, which were immediately squandered in all the ways of excessive gaming, wine and women. Vast fortunes were made, and the returns of treasure to England were prodigiously great. In the island they had by this means raised such funds, that, when the source of this wealth was stopped up by the suppression of the pirates, they were enabled to turn their industry into better channels. They increased so fast, that it was computed that, in the beginning of this century, they had sixty thousand whites, and a hundred and twenty thousand negroes in this island. This calculation is certainly too large. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous until reduced by earthquakes, (one of which entirely ruined Port-Royal, and killed a vast number of persons in all parts of the country) and by terrible epidemical diseases, which, treading on the heels of the former calamities, swept away vast multitudes: losses which have not been since sufficiently repaired. At present the white inhabitants scarcely exceed twenty-five thousand souls; the blacks are about ninety thousand; both much less numerous than formerly, and with a disproportion much greater on the side of the whites.

It appears at present, that Jamaica is rather upon the decline; a point this that deserves the most attentive consideration. A country which contains at least four millions of acres, has a fertile soil, an extensive sea-coast, and many very fine harbours; for an island so circumstanced, and at a time when the value of all its products at market is considerably risen; for such a country to fall short of its former numbers, and not to have above three or four hundred thousand acres employed in any sort of culture, shews clearly that something must be very wrong in the management of its affairs; and, what shews it even yet more clearly, land is so extravagantly dear in many of the other islands, as to sell sometimes for one hundred pounds an acre and upwards; a price that undoubtedly never would be paid, if convenient land was to be had, and proper encourage-

encouragement given, in Jamaica. Whether this be owing to public or private faults, I know not; but certain it is, that, wherever they are, they deserve a speedy and effectual remedy from those, in whose power it is to apply it.

The natural products of Jamaica, besides sugar, cacao, and ginger, are principally piemento, or, as it is called, allspice, or Jamaica pepper. The tree which bears the piemento rises to the height of above thirty feet. It is straight, of a moderate thickness, and covered with a grey bark extremely smooth and shining. It shoots out a vast number of branches upon all sides, that bear a plentiful foliage of very large and beautiful leaves of a shining green, in all things resembling the leaf of the bay tree. At the very ends of the twigs are formed bunches of flowers; each stalk bearing a flower which bends back, and within which bend are to be discerned some stamina of a pale green colour; to these succeeds a bunch of small crowned berries, larger when ripe than juniper berries; at that season they change from their former green, and become black, smooth and shining; they are taken unripe from the tree, and dried in the sun; in this case they assume a brown colour, and have a mixed flavour of many kinds of spice, whence it is called allspice. But it is milder than the other spices, and is judged to be inferior to none of them for the service which it does to cold, watery, and languid stomachs. The tree grows mostly upon the mountains.

Besides this, they have the wild cinnamon tree, whose bark is so serviceable in medicine; the machineel, a most beautiful tree to the eye, with the fairest apple in the world, and when cut down affording a very fine ornamental wood for the joiners; but the apple, and the juice in every part of the tree, contain one of the worst poisons in nature. Here is the mahogany, in such general use with our cabinet makers; the cabbage tree, a tall plant, famous for a substance, looking and tasting like cabbage, growing on the very top, and no less remarkable for the extreme hardness of its wood, which, when dry, is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any tool; the palma, from which is drawn a great deal of oil, much esteemed by the negroes both in food and medicine; the white wood, which never breeds the worm in ships; the soap tree, whose berries answer all purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive bark useful to tanners; the fustic and redwood to the dyers, and lately the logwood; and their forests supply the apothecary with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds; they have aloes too; and do not want the cochineal plant, though they know nothing of the art of managing it; nor per-
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haps is the climate suitable. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; the cotton tree is still so, and they send home more of its wool than all the rest of our islands together.

The whole product therefore of the island may be reduced to these heads. First, sugars, of which they imported in 1753 twenty thousand three hundred and fifteen hogheads, some vastly great, even to a tun weight, which cannot be worth less in England than 424,725 pounds sterling. Most of this goes to London and Bristol, and some part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheese, corn, pease, slaves, plank, pitch, and tar, which they have from thence. 2. 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 England. 3. Molasses, in which they make a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vast distilleries. All these are the produce of their grand staple the sugar cane. 4. Cotton, of which they send out two thousand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconsiderable; but some cacao and coffee are exported, which latter is in no great esteem; though it is said to be little inferior to that of Mocha, provided it be kept for two or three years. With these they send home a considerable quantity of piemento, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, sweet-meats, and mahogany and machineel plank. 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 drive a vast and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of the same European goods, which are carried thither from Old Spain by the flota.

Both the logwood trade and this contraband have been the subjects of much contention, and the cause of a war between ours and the Spanish nation. The former we avow, and we claim it as our right: the latter we permit; because we think, and very justly, that if the Spaniards find themselves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lies upon them, and not upon us, to put a stop to it.

Formerly we cut logwood in the bay of Campeachy, on the northern side of the peninsula of Jucatan. But the Spaniards have driven our people entirely from thence, and built forts and made settlements to prevent them from returning. Expelled from thence, the logwood cutters settled upon the gulph of Honduras, on the southern side of the same peninsula, where they are in some sort established, and have a fort to protect them.

them. They are an odd kind of people, composed mostly of vagabonds and fugitives from all parts of North America, and their way of life is suitable. They live pretty much in a lawless manner, though they elect one amongst them whom they call their king; and to him they pay as much obedience as they think fit. The country they are in is low, and extremely marshy; the air is prodigiously molested with muskettoes; and the water dangerous with alligators; yet a life of licentiousness, a plenty of brandy, large gains, and a want of thought, have perfectly reconciled them to the hardships of their employment and the unwholsomeness of the climate. They go always well armed, and are about one thousand five hundred men.

In the dry season, when they cut the logwood, they advance a considerable way into the country, following the logwood, which runs amongst the other trees of the forest, like the vein of a mineral in the earth. When the rains have overflowed the whole country, they have marks by which they know where the logwood is deposited. This is an heavy wood, and sinks in the water. However, it is easily buoyed up, and one diver can lift very large beams. These they carry by the favour of the land-floods into the river, to a place which is called the Barcaderas or Port, where they meet the ships that come upon this trade.

In the year 1716, when the debate concerning this matter was revived, the lords of trade reported, that before the year 1676 we had a number of people settled and carrying on this trade on the peninsula of Jucatan; that we always considered this as our right, and were supported in it by our kings; and that this right was confirmed, if it had wanted any confirmation, by a clause of *uti possidetis* in the treaty of peace which was concluded with Spain and the court of London in 1676; and that we certainly were in full possession of those settlements and that trade, long before the time of that treaty; and further, that the Spaniards themselves have incidentally drawn a great advantage from it, since the pirates, who were formerly the most resolved and effectual enemies they ever had, were the more easily restrained from their enterprizes, by having their minds diverted to this employment. Upon the whole, they concluded it an affair very well worth the attention of the government, as in some years it engaged near six thousand tun of shipping; found employment for a number of seamen proportionable; consumed a good deal of our manufactures; and was of considerable use in fabricating many others; and that the whole value of the returns were not less than

than sixty thousand pounds sterling a year. Notwithstanding this, our claim seems dropped, nor is it very clear how far it can be maintained, to carry on a trade by violence in a country, in which we can hardly claim, according to the common ideas of right in America, any property. However this may be, the trade, though with many difficulties and discouragements, still continues and will probably continue whilst the Spaniards are so weak upon that side of Mexico, and while the coast continues so disagreeable, that none but desperate persons will venture to reside there. The logwood trade is generally carried on by vessels from New England, New York, and Pennsylvania, who take up the goods they want in Jamaica.

But there is a trade yet more profitable carried on between this island and the Spanish continent, especially in the time of war. This too has been the cause of much bickering between us and the court of Spain, and it will yet be more difficult for them to put a stop to this trade than to the former, whilst the Spaniards are so eager for it, whilst it is so profitable to the British merchant, and whilst the Spanish officers from the highest to the lowest shew'd great a respect to presents properly made. The trade is carried on in this manner. The ship from Jamaica, having taken in negroes and a proper sortment of goods there, proceeds in time of peace to a harbour called the Grout within Monkey-key, about four miles from Porto-bello. A person, who understands Spanish, is directly sent ashore to give the merchants of the town notice of the arrival of the vessel; the same news is carried likewise with great speed to Panama; from whence the merchants set out disguised like peasants with their silver in jars covered with meal, to deceive the officers of the revenue. Here the ship remains trading frequently for five or six weeks together. The Spaniards usually come on board, leave their money, and take their negroes, and their goods packed up in parcels fit for one man to carry, after having been handsomely entertained on board, and receiving provisions sufficient for their journey homeward. If the whole cargo is not disposed of here, they bear off eastward to the Brew, a harbour about five miles distant from Cartagena, where they soon find a vent for the rest. There is no trade more profitable than this; for your payments are made in ready money, and the goods sell higher than they would at any other market. It is not on this coast only, but every where upon the Spanish main, that this trade is carried on; nor is it by the English only, but the French from Hispaniola, the Dutch from Curassou, and even the Danes have some share in it. When the Spanish guarda costas seize upon one of these vessels,

vessels, they make no scruple of confiscating the cargo, and of treating the crew in a manner little better than pirates.

This commerce in time of peace, and this with the prizes that are made in time of war, pour into Jamaica an astonishing quantity of treasure; great fortunes are made in a manner instantly, whilst the people appear to live in such a state of luxury as in all other places leads to beggary. Their equipages, their cloaths, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greatest wealth and profusion imaginable; this obliges all the treasure they receive to make but a very short stay, as all this treasure added to all the products of the island itself, is hardly more than sufficient to answer the calls of their necessity and luxury on Europe and North America, and their demand for slaves, of which this island is under the necessity of an annual recruit for its own use and that of the Spanish trade, of upwards of six thousand head, and which stand them one with another in thirty pounds apiece, and often more.

The whole island is divided into nineteen districts or parishes, which send each of them two members to the assembly, and allow a competent maintenance to a minister. Port-Royal was anciently the capital of the island; it stood upon the very point of a long narrow neck of land, which, towards the sea, formed part of the border of a very noble harbour of its own name. In this harbour above a thousand sail of the largest ships could anchor with the greatest convenience and safety; and the water was so deep at the key of Port-Royal, that vessels of the greatest burden could lay their broadsides to the wharfs, and load and unload at little expence or trouble. This conveniency weighed so much with the inhabitants, that they chose in this spot to build their capital, though the place was an hot dry sand, which produced not one of the necessaries of life, no not even fresh water. However, this advantageous situation and the resort of the pirates soon made it a very considerable place. It contained two thousand houses very handsomely built, and which rented as high as those in London. It had a resort like a constant fair, by the great concourse of people of business, and grew to all this in about thirty years time; for before that there was scarcely an house upon the place. In short, there were very few places in the world, which for the size could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners.

It continued thus until the ninth of June 1692, when an earthquake, which shook the whole island to its foundations, overwhelmed this city, and buried nine tenths of it eight fathoms under water. This earthquake not only demolished this

this city, but made a terrible devastation all over the island; and was followed by a contagious distemper, which was near giving the last hand to its ruin. Ever since it is remarked, that the air is far more unwholsome than formerly. This earthquake, one of the most dreadful that I think ever was known; is described in such lively colours in the Philosophical Transactions, and by persons who saw and had a large part in the terrors and losses of this calamity; that I shall say nothing of it; but refer thither; as I am certain no man, from his fancy; could assemble a greater number of images of horror, than the nature of things taught the persons who saw them, to bring together, and which are there related very naturally and pathetically.

They rebuilt this city after the earthquake, but it was again destroyed. A terrible fire laid it in ashes about ten years after. Notwithstanding this, the extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to rebuild it once more. But in the year 1722, a hurricane, one of the most terrible on record, reduced it a third time to a heap of rubbish. Warned by these extraordinary calamities, that seemed to mark out this place as a devoted spot, by an act of assembly they removed the custom-house and public offices from thence; and forbid that any market should be held there for the future. The principal inhabitants came to reside at the opposite side of the bay, at a place which is called Kingston. The town is advantageously situated for fresh water, and all manner of accommodations. The streets are of a commodious wideness, regularly drawn, and cutting each other at equal distances and right angles. It consists of upwards of one thousand houses, many of them handsomely built, though low, with porticoes, and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that climate. The harbour was formerly in no good posture of defence; but by the care of the late governor Mr. Knowles, it is now strongly fortified.

The river Cobre, a considerable, but not navigable stream, falls into the sea not far from Kingston. Upon the banks of this river stands St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish-town; the seat of government, and the place where the courts of justice are held, and consequently the capital of Jamaica, though inferior in size and resort to Kingston. However, this, though a town of less business, has more gaiety. Here reside many persons of large fortunes, and who make a figure proportionable; the number of coaches kept here is very great; here is a regular assembly; and the residence of the governor and the principal officers of the government, who have all very profitable

fitable places, conspire with the genius of the inhabitants, ostentatious and expensive, to make it a very splendid and agreeable place. Mr. Knowles, a late governor, made an attempt to remove the seat of government from hence to Kingston, for reasons which, it must be owned, have a very plausible appearance; for it would certainly facilitate the carrying on of business, to have the courts of justice and the seat of government as near as possible to the center of commercial affairs. But whether the consideration of a more healthful situation; the division of the advantages of great towns, with the several parts of the country, and the mischief that might arise from shaking the settled order of things, and prejudicing the profit of a great many private people, can weigh against the advantages proposed by this removal, I will not undertake to determine. One thing appears, I think, very plainly in the contest which this regulation produced; that the opposition was, at least, as much to the governor as to the measure; and that great natural warmth of temper upon all sides, enflamed and envenomed by a spirit of party which reigns in all our plantations, kindled a flame about this, which, if it had not happened, must have risen to the same height upon some other occasion, since there was a plenty of combustible materials ready upon all sides.

The government of this island is, next to that of Ireland, the best in the king's gift. The standing salary is two thousand five hundred pounds a year. The assembly vote the governor as much more; and this, with the other great profits of this office, make it in the whole little inferior to ten thousand pounds a year. But of the government I shall say little, until I speak of the government of the rest of the plantations, to which this is in all respects alike.

The commodities which the country yields are principally masts, and yards, for which they contract largely with the royal navy; pitch, tar, and turpentine; staves, lumber, boards; all sorts of provisions, beef, pork, butter, and cheese, in large quantities; horses and live cattle; Indian corn and pease; cyder, apples, hemp, and flax. Their peltry trade is not very considerable. They have a very noble cod fishery upon their coast, which employs a vast number of their people; they are enabled by this to export annually above thirty-two thousand quintals of choice cod fish, to Spain, Italy, and the Mediterranean, and about nineteen thousand quintals of the refuse sort to the West-Indies, as food for the negroes. The quantity of spirits, which they distil in Boston from the molasses they bring in from all parts of the West-Indies, is as
surprising

surprising as the cheap rate at which they vend it; which is under two shillings a gallon. With this they supply almost all the consumption of our colonies in North America, the Indian trade there, the vast demands of their own and the Newfoundland fishery, and in a great measure those of the African trade; but they are more famous for the quantity and cheapness, than for the excellency of their rum.

They are almost the only one of our colonies which have much of the woollen and linnen manufactures. Of the former they have nearly as much as suffices for their own cloathing. It is a close and strong, but a coarse stubborn sort of cloth. A number of presbyterians from the North of Ireland, driven thence, as it is said, by the severity of their landlords, from an affinity in religious sentiments chose New England as their place of refuge. Those people carried with them their skill in the linnen manufactures, and meeting with very large encouragement, they exercised it to the great advantage of this colony. At present they make large quantities, and of a very good kind; their principal settlement is in a town, which in compliment to them is called Londonderry. Hats are made in New England, which, in a clandestine way, find a good vent in all the other colonies. The setting up of these manufactures have been in a great measure a matter necessary to them; for as they have not been properly encouraged in some staple commodity, by which they might communicate with their mother country, while they were cut off from all other resources, they must have either abandoned the country, or have found means of employing their own skill and industry to draw out of it the necessaries of life. The same necessity, together with their convenience for building and manning ships, has made them the carriers for the other colonies.

The business of ship building is one of the most considerable which Boston or the other sea-port towns in New England carry on. Ships are sometimes built here upon commission; but frequently, the merchants of New England have them constructed upon their own account; and loading them with the produce of the colony, naval stores, fish, and fish-oil principally, they send them out upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean; where having disposed of their cargo, they make what advantage they can by freight, until such time as they can sell the vessel herself to advantage, which they seldom fail to do in a reasonable time. They receive the value of the vessel as well as of the freight of the goods, which from time to time they carried, and of the cargo with which they sailed originally, in bills of exchange upon

upon London; for as the people of New England have no commodity to return for the value of above a hundred thousand pounds, which they take in various sorts of goods from England, but some naval stores, and those in no great quantities, they are obliged to keep the ballance somewhat even by this circuitous commerce, which, though not carried on with Great Britain nor with British vessels, yet centers in its profits, where all the money which the colonies can make in any manner must center at last.

I know that complaints have been made of this trade, principally because the people of New England, not satisfied with carrying out their own produce, become carriers for the other colonies, particularly for Virginia and Maryland, from whom they take tobacco, which, in contempt of the act of navigation, they carry directly to the foreign market; where, not having the duty and accumulated charges to which the British merchant is liable to pay, they in a manner wholly deprive him of the trade. Again, our sugar colonies complain as loudly, that the vast trade which New England drives in lumber, live stock, and provisions, with the French and Dutch sugar islands, particularly with the former, enables these islands, together with the internal advantages they possess, greatly to undersell the English plantations. That, the returns which the people of New England make from these islands being in sugar, or, the productions of sugar, syrups and molasses, the rum which is thence distilled prevents the sale of our West-India rum. That this trade proves doubly disadvantageous to our sugar islands; first, as it enables the French to sell their sugars cheaper than they could otherwise afford to do; and then as it finds them a market for their molasses, and other refuse of sugars, for which otherwise they could find no market at all; because rum interferes with brandy, a considerable manufacture of Old France.

These considerations were the ground of a complaint made by the islands to the legislature in England some years ago. They desired that the exportation of lumber, &c. to the French colonies, and the importation of sugars and molasses from thence, might be entirely prohibited. This was undoubtedly a very nice point to settle. On one hand, the growth of the French West-Indies was manifest and alarming, and it was not to be thought that the French would ever wink at this trade, if it had not been of the greatest advantage to them. On the other hand, the northern colonies declared, that, if they were deprived of so great a branch of their trade, it must necessitate them to the establishment of manufactures.

For if they were cut off from their foreign trade, they never could purchase in England the many things for the use or the ornament of life, which they have from thence. Besides this, the French, deprived of the provision and lumber of New England, must of necessity take every measure to be supplied from their own colonies, which would answer their purposes better, if they could accomplish it, at the same time that it would deprive the New England people of a large and profitable branch of their trade.

These points, and many more, were fully discussed upon both sides. The legislature took a middle course. They did not entirely prohibit the carrying of lumber to the French islands; but they laid a considerable duty upon whatever rum, sugar or molasses, they should import from thence; to enhance by this means the price of lumber and other necessaries to the French; and, by laying them under difficulties, to set the English sugar plantations, in some measure, upon an equal footing with theirs.

This was undoubtedly, a very prudent regulation. For though it was urged, that the Mississippi navigation was so bad, that there was no prospect that the French could ever be supplied with lumber and provisions from thence; and that there were no snows in Louisiana, the melting of which might facilitate the transportation of lumber into that river, yet it was by no means safe to trust to that, so as utterly to destroy a trade of our own, which employed so much shipping and so many sailors; because we have a thousand instances, wherein the driving people to the last straits, and putting them under the tuition of such a master as absolute necessity, has taught them inventions, and excited them to an industry, which have compassed things as much regretted at last, as they were unforeseen at first.

Though no great snows fall in the southern parts of Louisiana, yet to the northward a great deal falls; and not only the Mississippi, but the number of other great rivers which it receives, overflow annually, and they can be in no want of timber convenient enough to navigation. And though the passage to the French islands be for such a great way to the windward as to bring them these commodities in a more tedious manner, and at a dearer rate, is it not much better that they should have them cheap from us than dear from themselves? Nor perhaps would even this difficulty, which is indeed much less than it is represented, bring down the French to the par of our sugar colonies, loaded as they are with taxes, groaning under the pressure of many grievances, and deformed by an
infinite

infinite multitude of abuses and enormities; nor can they with reason or justice hope for a cure of the evils which they suffer, partly from errors of their own, and partly from mistakes in England, at the expence of the trade of their sister colonies on the continent of America, who are entirely guiltless of their sufferings; nor is it by restraints on the trade of their enemies, but by an effectual and judicious encouragement of their own, that they can hope to remedy these evils, and rival the French establishments.

The French, in permitting us to supply them, it is true, give us a proof that they have advantages from this trade; but this is no proof at all that we derive none from it; for, on that supposition, no trade could be mutually beneficial. Nor is it at all certain, as it has been suggested, that, if we left their refuse of sugars upon their hands, they could turn them to no profit. If the council of commerce could be made to see distinctly that this trade could not prejudice the sale of their brandy, and would only make the trade of rum change hands, as the case probably would be; and if they could shew, as they might, what a loss it might be to them entirely to throw away a considerable part of the produce of their lands, and which was formerly so valuable to them, there is no doubt but the court would give sufficient encouragement to their own plantations to distil rum, and to vend it in such a manner as might the least prejudice the brandies of France; and then, instead of sending us molasses, as they could distil the spirit far cheaper than our islands, they would send us the spirit itself; and we may know by experience, especially in that part of the world, how insufficient all regulations are to prevent a contraband, which would be so gainful to particulars.

After all, are we certain, that the French would trust for the supply of their islands to Louisiana, or to the precarious supplies from Canada? would they not redouble their application, now made necessary, to Cape Breton? What experiments would they not make in Cayenne for the timber trade? They would certainly try every method, and probably would succeed in some of their trials. Restraints upon trade are nice things; and ought to be well considered. Great care ought to be taken in all such how we sacrifice the interests of one part of our territories to those of another; and it would be a mistake of the most fatal consequence, if we came to think that the shipping, seamen, commodities, or wealth, of the British colonies, were not effectually the shipping, seamen, and wealth of Great Britain herself. Sentiments of another kind have frequently done us mischief.

The general plan of our management with regard to the trade of our colonies, methinks, ought to be, to encourage in every one of them some separate and distinct articles, such as, not interfering, might enable them to trade with each other, and all to trade to advantage with their mother country. And then, where we have rivals in any branch of the trade carried on by our colonies, to enable them to send their goods to the foreign market directly; using, at the same time, the wise precaution which the French put in practice, to make the ships so employed take the English ports in their way home; for our great danger is, that they should in that case make their returns in foreign manufactures, against which we cannot guard too carefully. This, and that they should not go largely into manufactures interfering with ours, ought to be the only points at which our restrictions should aim. These purposes ought not to be compassed by absolute prohibitions and penalties, which would be unpolitical and unjust, but by the way of diversion, by encouraging them to fall into such things as find a demand with ourselves at home. By this means Great Britain and all its dependencies will have a common interest, they will mutually play into each other's hands, and the trade, so dispersed, will be of infinitely more advantage to us, than if all its several articles were produced and manufactured within ourselves.

I venture on these hints concerning restraints on trade, because in fact that of New England rather wants to be supported than to be checked by such restraints. Its trade, in many of its branches, is clearly on the decline; and this circumstance ought to interest us deeply; for very valuable is this colony, if it never sent us any thing, nor took any thing from us, as it is the grand barrier of all the rest; and as it is the principal magazine which supplies our West-Indies, from whence we draw such vast advantages. That this valuable colony is far from advancing, will appear clearly from the state of one of the principal branches of its trade, that of ship-building, for four years. In the year 1738, they built at Boston forty-one topsail vessels, burden in all six thousand three hundred and twenty-four tons; in 1743, only thirty; in 46, but twenty; in 49, they were reduced to fifteen, making in the whole but two thousand four hundred and fifty tons of shipping; in such a time an astonishing declension! How it has been since I have not sufficient information; but, allowing that the decline has ceased here, yet this is surely sufficient to set us upon the nicest enquiry into the cause of that decay, and the most effectual measures to retrieve the
affairs

affairs of so valuable a province; particularly if by any ill-judged or ill-intended schemes, or by any misgovernment, this mischief has happened to them.

It is not certainly known at what time the Swedes and Dutch made their first establishment in North America; but it was certainly posterior to our settlement in Virginia, and prior to that of New England. The Swedes, who were no considerable naval power, had hardly fixed the rudiments of a colony there, ere they deserted it. The inhabitants, without protection or assistance, were glad to enter into a coalition with the Dutch, who had settled there upon a better plan, and to submit to the government of the states. The whole tract possessed or claimed by the two nations, whose two colonies were now grown into one, extended from the thirty-eighth to the forty-first degree of latitude, all along the sea coast. They called it Nova Belgia, or New Netherlands. It continued in their hands until the reign of Charles the Second. The Dutch war then breaking out, in the year 1664 Sir Robert Car with three thousand men was sent to reduce it, which he did with so little resistance, as not to gain him any great honour by the conquest. A little after, the Dutch, by way of reprisal, fell upon our colony of Surinam in South America, and conquered it after much the same opposition that we met with in the New Netherlands. By the treaty of peace which was signed at Breda, in 1667, it was agreed that things should remain in the state they were at that time; Surinam to the Dutch, the New Netherlands to the English. At that time, this was looked upon by many as a bad exchange; but it now appears that we have an excellent bargain; for, to say nothing of the great disadvantage of having our colonies, as it were, cut in two by the intervention of a foreign territory, this is now one of the best-peopled and richest parts of our plantations, extremely useful to the others, and making very valuable returns to the mother country; whereas Surinam is comparatively a place of very small consequence, very unhealthy, and by no art to be made otherwise.

The New Netherlands were not long in our possession before they were divided into distinct provinces, and laid aside their former appellation. The north-east part, which joined New England, was called New York, in compliment to the duke of York, who had at first the grant of the whole territory. This province runs up to the northward on both sides of the river Hudson, for about two hundred miles into the country of the Five Nations or Iroquois; but it is not in any part above forty or fifty miles wide. It comprehends within its limits

Long Island, which lies to the south of Connecticut, and is an island inferior to no part of America in excellent ground for the pasturage of horses, oxen and sheep, or the plentiful produce of every sort of grain.

The part of Nova Belgia, which lay along the ocean, between that and the river Delawar, from the southern part of New York quite down to Maryland, was granted to Sir George Carteret and others, and called New Jersey from him, because he had, as the family still has, estates in the island of that name. This province is bounded upon the west by the river Delawar, which divides it from Pennsylvania. It is in length about one hundred and fifty miles, or thereabouts, and fifty in breadth.

Pennsylvania, which lies between New York, New Jersey, and Maryland, and only communicates with the sea by the mouth of the river Delawar, is in length about two hundred and fifty miles, and in breadth two hundred. This territory was granted to the famous Mr. William Penn, the son of Sir William Penn the admiral, in the year 1680.

The climate and soil in the three provinces of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, admit of no very remarkable difference. In all these, and indeed in all our North American colonies, the land near the sea is in general low, flat, and marshy; at a considerable distance from the sea, it swells into little hills, and then into great even ridges of mountains, which hold their course, for the most part, north-east, and south-west. The soil throughout these three provinces is in general extremely fruitful; abounding not only in its native grain the Indian corn, but in all such as have been naturalized there from Europe. Wheat in such abundance, and of so excellent a quality, that few parts of the world, for the tract which is cultivated, exceed it in the one or the other of these particulars; nor in barley, oats, rye, buck-wheat, and every sort of grain which we have here. They have a great number of horned cattle, horses, sheep, and hogs. All our European poultry abound there; game of all kinds is wonderfully plenty; deer of several species; hares of a kind peculiar to America, but inferior in relish to ours; wild turkies, of a vast size and equal goodness; a beautiful species of pheasants, only found in this country. Every species of herbs or roots, which we force in our gardens, grows here with great ease; and every species of fruit; but some, as those of peaches and melons, in far greater perfection.

Their forests abound in excellent timber, the oak, the ash, the beech, the chestnut, the cedar, and walnut, the cypress, the

the hickory, the saffraſas, and the pine. In all parts of our plantations, comprehending New York to the northward, quite to the ſouthern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four ſpecies, all different from thoſe we have in Europe. But, whether from ſome fault in their nature, or in the climate, or in the ſoil where they grow, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deſerves to be mentioned. It may be remarked in general of the timber of theſe provinces, that it is not ſo good for ſhipping as that of New England and Nova Scotia. The further ſouthward you go, the timber becomes leſs compact, and rives eaſily; which property, as it makes it more uſeful for ſtaves, renders it leſs ſerviceable for ſhips.

They raiſe in all theſe provinces, but much the moſt largely in Pennſylvania, great quantities of flax; hemp is a promiſing article. Nor are they deficient in minerals. In New York, a good deal of iron is found. In New Jerſey, a rich copper mine has been opened. There is no manner of doubt, but, in time, when the people come to multiply ſufficiently, and experience and want have made them ingenious in opening reſources for trade, theſe colonies will become as remarkable for uſeful metals as they are now for grain. Theſe three provinces, as are all thoſe we have in North America, are extremely well watered. They have however obſerved in New England, that, as they clear the country, a vaſt number of little brooks are quite loſt, and the mills upon them by this loſs rendered uſeleſs. They even obſerve, that this cutting down of the woods has affected the river Connecticut itſelf, the largeſt in New England, and that it has grown diſtinguiſhably ſhallower. I do not know whether the ſame remark has been made in Pennſylvania and New York. But whatever they have loſt in water, which, where there is ſuch a plenty, is no great loſs, has been amply compensated by the great ſalubrity of the air, which has ariſen from the cultivation of the country. At preſent thoſe I deſcribe are, for the greater part, as healthy as can be wiſhed.

As the climate and ſoil of the provinces of New York, New Jerſey, and Pennſylvania, are, with very little variation, the ſame, ſo there is no difference in the commodities in which they trade; which are wheat, flour, barley, oats, Indian corn, peas, beef, pork, cheeſe, butter, cyder, beer, flax, hemp, and flax ſeed, linſeed oil, fur and dear-ſkins, ſtaves, lumber, and iron. Their markets are the ſame with thoſe which the people of New England uſe; and theſe colonies have a ſhare

in the logwood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spanish and French plantations.

The province of New York has two cities; the first is called by the name of the province itself. It was denominated New Amsterdam when the Dutch possessed it, but it has changed its name along with its masters. This city is most commodiously situated for trade, upon an excellent harbour in an island called Manahatton, about fourteen miles long, though not above one or two broad. This island lies just in the mouth of the river Hudson, which discharges itself here after a long course. This is one of the noblest rivers in America. It is navigable upwards of two hundred miles. The tide flows one hundred and fifty.

The city of New York contains upwards of two thousand houses, and above twelve thousand inhabitants, the descendants of Dutch and English. It is well and commodiously built, extending a mile in length, and about half that in breadth, and has a very good aspect from the sea; but it is by no means properly fortified. The houses are built of brick in the Dutch taste; the streets not regular, but clean and well paved. There is one large church built for the church of England worship; and three others, a Dutch, a French, and a Lutheran. The town has a very flourishing trade, and in which great profits are made. The merchants are wealthy, and the people in general most comfortably provided for, and with a moderate labour. From the year 1749 to 1750, two hundred and thirty-two vessels was entered in this port, and two hundred and eighty-six cleared outwards. In these vessels were shipped six thousand seven hundred and thirty-one tons of provisions, chiefly flour, and a vast quantity of grain; of which I have no particular account. In the year 1755, the export of flax seed to Ireland amounted to 12,528 hog-heads. The inhabitants are between eighty and an hundred thousand; the lower class easy; the better rich, and hospitable; great freedom of society; and the entry to foreigners made easy by a general toleration of all religious persuasions. In a word, this province yields to no part of America in the healthfulness of its air, and the fertility of its soil. It is much superior in the great convenience of water carriage, which speedily and at the slightest expence carries the product of the remotest farms to a certain and profitable market.

Upon the river Hudson, about one hundred and fifty miles from New York, is Albany; a town of not so much note for its number of houses or inhabitants, as for the great trade which is carried on with the Indians, and indeed, by connivance,

ance, with the French for the use of the same people. This trade takes off a great quantity of coarse woollen goods, such as strouds and duffils; and with these, guns, hatchets, knives, hoes, kettles, powder, and shot; besides shirts and cloaths ready made, and several other articles. Here it is that the treaties and other transactions between us and the Iroquois Indians are negotiated.

This nation, or combination of five nations, united by an ancient and inviolable league amongst themselves, were the oldest, the most steady, and most effectual ally we have found amongst the Indians. This people, by their unanimity, firmness, military skill, and policy, have raised themselves to be the greatest and most formidable power in all America; they have reduced a vast number of nations, and brought under their power a territory twice as large as the kingdom of France; but they have not increased their subjects in proportion. As their manner of warring is implacable and barbarous, they reign the lords of a prodigious desert, inhabited only by a few scattered insignificant tribes, whom they have permitted to live out of a contempt of their power, and who are all in the lowest state of subjection. And yet this once mighty and victorious nation, though it has always used the policy of incorporating with itself a great many of the prisoners they make in war, is in a very declining condition. About sixty years ago, it was computed, that they had ten thousand fighting men; at this day they cannot raise upwards of fifteen hundred. So much have wars, epidemical diseases, and the unnatural union of the vices of civilized nations with the manners of savages, reduced this once numerous people. But they are not only much lessened at this day in their numbers, but in their disposition to employ what numbers they have left in our service. Amongst other neglects, which I have no pleasure in mentioning and no hopes of seeing amended, this of inattention, or worse treatment, of the Indians, is one, and a capital one. The Iroquois have lately had three other nations added to their confederacy, so that they ought now to be considered as eight; and the whole confederacy seems much more inclined to the French interest than ours.

New Jersey, by the perpetual disputes which subsisted between the people and the proprietaries, whilst it continued a proprietary government, was kept for a long time in a very feeble state; but, within a few years, it has begun to reap some of the advantages which it might have had earlier from the proper management of so fine a province and so advantageous a situation. They raise very great quantities of grain

at present, and are increased to near sixty thousand souls; but they have yet no town of any consequence. Perth Amboy, which is their capital, has not upwards of two hundred houses; and, though this town has a very fine harbour, capable of receiving and securing ships of great burden, yet, as the people of New Jersey have been used to send their produce to the markets of New York and Philadelphia, to which they are contiguous, they find it hard, as it always is in such cases, to draw the trade out of the old channel; for there the correspondencies are fixed, the method of dealing established, credits given, and a ready market for needy dealers, who in all countries are sufficiently numerous; so that the trade of this town, which is the only town of any trade worth notice in New-Jersey, is still inconsiderable; in the year 1751, only forty-one vessels entered inwards, and only thirty-eight cleared out, in which were exported six thousand four hundred and twenty-four barrels of flour; one hundred and sixty-eight thousand weight of bread; three hundred and fourteen barrels of beef and pork; seventeen thousand nine hundred and forty-one bushels of grain; fourteen thousand weight of hemp; with some butter, hams, beer, flax-seed, bar-iron, and lumber.

I find it of late a notion pretty current, that proprietary governments are a sort of check to the growth of the colonies which they superintend. It is certain, that abuses have been, and still do subsist, in that species of government; and abuses of as bad a kind may, I believe, be found, by persons of no great penetration, in all our governments; but, if there were any truth in this observation, the province of Pennsylvania would prove an illustrious exception to it.

William Penn, in his capacity of a divine and of a moral writer, is certainly not of the first rank; and his works are of no great estimation, except amongst his own people; but, in his capacity of a legislator and the founder of so flourishing a commonwealth, he deserves great honour amongst all mankind; a commonwealth, which, in the space of about seventy years, from a beginning of a few hundreds of refugees and indigent men, has grown to be a numerous and flourishing people; a people, who, from a perfect wilderness, have brought their territory to a state of great cultivation, and filled it with wealthy and populous towns; and who, in the midst of a fierce and lawless race of men, have preserved themselves, with unarmed hands and passive principles, by the rules of moderation and justice, better than any other people has done by policy and arms. For Mr. Penn, when, for his father's services and by his own interest at court, he obtained the inheritance

heritance of this country and its government, saw that he could make the grant of value to him only by rendering the country as agreeable to all people, as ease and good government could make it. To this purpose, he began by purchasing the soil, at a very low rate indeed, from the original possessors, to whom it was of little use. By this cheap act of justice at the beginning, he made all his dealings for the future the more easy, by prepossessing the Indians with a favourable opinion of him and his designs. The other part of this plan, which was, to people the country after he had secured the possession of it, he saw much facilitated by the uneasiness of his brethren the quakers in England, who, refusing to pay tythes and other church dues, suffered a great deal from the spiritual courts. Their high opinion of and regard for the man, who was an honour to their new church, made them the more ready to follow him over the vast ocean into an untried climate and country. Neither was he himself wanting in any thing which could encourage them. For he expended large sums in transporting and finding them in all necessaries; and, not aiming at a sudden profit, he disposed of his land at a very light purchase. But what crowned all was, that noble charter of privileges, by which he had made them as free as any people in the world; and which has since drawn such vast numbers, of so many different persuasions and such various countries, to put themselves under the protection of his laws. He made the most perfect freedom, both religious and civil, the basis of this establishment; and this has done more towards the settling of the province, and towards the settling of it in a strong and permanent manner, than the wisest regulations could have done upon any other plan. All persons who profess to believe one God, are freely tolerated; those who believe in Jesus Christ, of whatever denomination, are not excluded from employments and posts.

This great man lived to see an extensive country called after his own name; he lived to see it peopled by his own wisdom, the people free and flourishing, and the most flourishing people in it of his own persuasion; he lived to lay the foundations of a splendid and wealthy city; he lived to see it promise every thing from the situation which he himself had chosen, and the encouragement which he himself had given it: he lived to see all this; but he died in the Fleet prison.

It is but just, that, in such a subject, we should allot a little room, to do honour to those great men, whose virtue and generosity have contributed to the peopling of the earth, and to the freedom and happiness of mankind; who have preferred the interest of a remote posterity, and times unknown, to their

own fortunes, and to the quiet and security of their own lives. Now, Great Britain, and all America, reap great benefits from his labours and his losses; and his posterity have a vast estate out of the quit-rents of that province, whose establishment was the ruin of their predecessor's moderate fortune.

Pennsylvania is inhabited by upwards of two hundred and fifty thousand people, half of whom are Germans, Swedes, or Dutch. Here you see the Quakers, Churchmen, Calvinists, Lutherans, Catholics, Methodists, Menists, Moravians, Independents, the Anabaptists, and the Dumplers, a sort of German sect, that live in something like a religious society, wear long beards, and a habit resembling that of friars. In short, the diversity of people, religions, nations, and languages here, is prodigious, and the harmony in which they live together no less edifying. For, though every man, who wishes well to religion, is sorry to see the diversity which prevails, and would by all humane and honest methods, endeavour to prevent it; yet, when once the evil has happened, when there is no longer an union of sentiments, it is glorious to preserve at least an union of affections; it is a beautiful prospect, to see men take and give an equal liberty; to see them live, if not as belonging to the same church, yet to the same Christian religion; and, if not to the same religion; yet to the same great fraternity of mankind. I do not observe, that the Quakers, who had, and who still have in a great measure, the power in their hands, have made use of it in any sort to persecute; except in the single case of George Keith, whom they first imprisoned, and then banished out of the province.

This Keith was originally a minister of the church of England, then a Quaker, and afterwards returned to his former ministry. But whilst he remained with the friends, he was a most troublesome and litigious man; was for pushing the particularities of Quakerism to yet more extravagant lengths, and for making new refinements, even where the most enthusiastic thought they had gone far enough; which rash and turbulent conduct raised such a storm, as shook the church, he then adhered to, to the very foundations.

This little sally into intolerance, as it is a single instance, and with great provocation, ought by no means to be imputed to the principles of the Quakers, considering the ample and humane latitude they have allowed in all other respects. It was certainly a very right policy to encourage the importation of foreigners into Pennsylvania, as well as into our other colonies. By this we are great gainers, without any diminution of the inhabitants of Great Britain. But it has been frequently

frequently observed, and, as it should seem, very justly complained of, that they are left still foreigners, and likely to continue so for many generations; as they have schools taught, books printed, and even the common news paper in their own language; by which means, and as they possess large tracts of the country without any intermixture of English, there is no appearance of their blending and becoming one people with us. This certainly is a great irregularity, and the greater, as these foreigners, by their industry, frugality, and a hard way of living, in which they greatly exceed our people, have in a manner thrust them out in several places; so as to threaten the colony with the danger of being wholly foreign in language, manners, and perhaps even inclinations. In the year 1750, were imported into Pennsylvania and its dependencies, four thousand three hundred and seventeen Germans; whereas of British and Irish but one thousand arrived; a considerable number, if it was not so vastly overbalanced by that of the foreigners.

I do by no means think that this sort of transplantations ought to be discouraged; I only observe, along with others, that the manner of their settlement ought to be regulated, and means sought to have them naturalized in reality.

The present troubles have very unhappily reversed the system so long pursued, and with such great success, in this part of the world. The Pennsylvanians have suffered severely by the incursions of the savage Americans as well as their neighbours; but the Quakers could not be prevailed upon, by what did not directly affect those of their own communion (for they were out of the way of mischief in the more settled parts) to relinquish their pacific principles; for which reason, a considerable opposition, in which, however, we must do the Quakers the justice to observe they were not unanimous, was made, both within their assembly as well as without doors, against granting any money to carry on the war; and the same, or a more vigorous opposition, was made against passing a militia bill. A bill of this kind has at length passed, but scarcely such as the circumstances of the country and the exigencies of the times required. It may perhaps appear an error, to have placed so great a part of the government in the hands of men, who hold principles directly opposite to its end and design. As a peaceable, industrious, honest people, the Quakers cannot be too much cherished; but surely they cannot themselves complain, that when, by their opinions, they make themselves sheep, they should not be entrusted with the office, since they have not the nature of dogs,

There are so many good towns in the province of Pennsylvania, even exceeding the capitals of some other provinces, that nothing could excuse our passing them by, had not Philadelphia drawn our attention wholly to itself. This city stands upon a tongue of land, immediately at the confluence of two fine rivers, the Delawar and the Schulkil. It is disposed in the form of an oblong, designed to extend two miles from river to river; but the buildings do not extend above a mile and an half on the west side of Delawar in length, and not more than half a mile where the town is broadest. The longest stretch, when the original plan can be fully executed, is to compose eight parallel streets, all of two miles in length; these are to be intersected by sixteen others, each in length a mile, broad, spacious, and even; with proper spaces left for the public buildings, churches, and market-places. In the center is a square of ten acres, round which most of the public buildings are disposed. The two principal streets of the city are each one hundred feet wide, and most of the houses have a small garden and orchard; from the rivers are cut several canals, equally agreeable and beneficial. The quays are spacious and fine; the principal quay is two hundred feet wide, and to this a vessel of five hundred tons may lay her broadside. The warehouses are large, numerous and commodious; and the docks for ship-building every way well adapted to their purposes. A great number of vessels have been built here; twenty have been upon the stocks at a time. The city contains, exclusive of warehouses and outhouses, about two thousand houses; most of them of brick, and well built; it is said, there are several of them worth four or five thousand pounds. The inhabitants are now about thirteen thousand.

There are in this city a great number of very wealthy merchants; which is no way surprising, when one considers the great trade which it carries on with the English, French, Spanish, and Dutch, colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira islands; with Great Britain and Ireland; with Spain, Portugal, and Holland, and the great profits which are made in many branches of this commerce. Besides the quantity of all kinds of the produce of this province which is brought down the rivers Delawar and Schulkil (the former of which is navigable, for vessels of one sort or other, more than two hundred miles above Philadelphia) the Dutch employ between eight and nine thousand waggons, drawn each by four horses, in bringing, the product of their farms to this market. In the year 1749, three hundred and three vessels entered inwards at this port, and two hundred

and ninety-one cleared outwards. There are, at the other ports of this province, custom-house officers; but the foreign trade in these places is not worth notice.

The city of Philadelphia, though, as it may be judged, far from completing the original plan, yet, so far as it is built, is carried on conformable to it, and increases in the number and beauty of its buildings every day. And as for the province, of which this city is the capital, there is no part of British America in a more growing condition. In some years, more people have transported themselves into Pennsylvania, than into all the other settlements together. In 1729, six thousand two hundred and eight persons came to settle here as passengers or servants, four fifths of whom at least were from Ireland. In short, this province has increased so greatly from the time of its first establishment, that, whereas lands were given by Mr. Penn the founder of the colony at the rate of twenty pounds for a thousand acres, reserving only a shilling every hundred acres for quit-rent; and this in some of the best situated parts of the province: yet now, at a great distance from navigation, land is granted at twelve pounds the hundred acres, and a quit-rent of four shillings reserved; and the land which is near Philadelphia rents for twenty shillings the acre.

In many places, and at the distance of several miles from that city, land sells for twenty years purchase.

The Pennsylvanians are an industrious and hardy people; they are most of them substantial, though but a few of the landed people can be considered as rich; but they are all well lodged, well fed, and, for their condition, well clad too; and this at the more easy rate, as the inferior people manufacture most of their own wear, both linnens and woollens. There are but few Blacks, not in all the fortieth part of the people of the province.

The whole country which the English now possess in North America, was at first called Virginia; but by the parcelling of several portions of it into distinct grants and governments, the country which still bears the name is now reduced to that tract which has the river Potowmack upon the north; the bay of Chesapeak upon the East; and Carolina upon the south. To the Westward, the grants extend it to the South-Sea; but their planting goes no further than the great Allegany mountains, which boundaries leave this province in length two hundred and forty miles, and in breadth about two hundred, lying between the fifty-fifth and fortieth degrees of north latitude.

The whole face of this country is so extremely low towards the sea, that, when you are come even within fifteen fathom foundings, you can hardly distinguish land from the mast head. However, all this coast of America has one useful particularity, that you know your distance exactly by the soundings, which uniformly and gradually diminish as you approach the land. The trees appear as if they rose out of the water, and afford the stranger a very uncommon, and not a disagreeable view. In sailing to Virginia or Maryland, you pass a streight, between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a passage into the bay of Chesapeak, one of the largest and safest bays perhaps in the world; for it enters the country near three hundred miles from the south to the north, having the eastern side of Maryland, and a small portion of Virginia on the same peninsula, to cover it from the Atlantic Ocean. This bay is about eighteen miles broad for a considerable way, and seven where it is narrowest, the waters in most places being nine fathom deep. Through its whole extent, it receives, both on the eastern and western side, a vast number of fine navigable rivers. Not to mention those of Maryland; from the side of Virginia, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannock, and the Potowmack.

All these great rivers, in the order they are here set down from south to north, discharge themselves, with several smaller ones, into the bay of Chesapeak; and they are all not only navigable themselves for very large vessels a prodigious way into the country, but have so many creeks, and receive such a number of smaller navigable rivers, as renders the communication of all parts of this country infinitely more easy than that of any country, without exception, in the world. The Potowmack is navigable for near two hundred miles, being nine miles broad at its mouth, and for a vast way not less than seven. The other three are navigable upwards of eighty, and in the windings of their several courses approach one another so nearly, that the distance between one and the other is in some parts not more than ten, sometimes not above five miles; whereas in others there is fifty miles space between each of these rivers. The planters load and unload vessels of great burden each at his own door; which, as their commodities are bulky, and of small value in proportion to their bulk, is a very fortunate circumstance, else they could never afford to send their tobacco to market so low as they sell it, and charged as it is in England, with a duty of six times its original value.

The

The climate and soil of Virginia was undoubtedly much heightened in the first descriptions, for political reasons; but, after making all the necessary abatements which experience since taught us, we still find it a most excellent country. The heats in summer are excessively great, but not without the allay of refreshing sea breezes. The weather is changeable, and the changes sudden and violent. Their winter frosts come on without the least warning. After a warm day, towards the setting in of winter, so intense a cold often succeeds, as to freeze over the broadest and deepest of their great rivers in one night; but these frosts, as well as their rains, are rather violent than of long continuance. They have frequent and terrible thunder and lightning, but it does rarely any mischief. In general, the sky is clear, and the air thin, pure, and penetrating.

The soil in the low grounds of Virginia is a dark fat mould, which, for many years, without any manure, yields plentifully whatever is committed to it. The soil, as you leave the rivers, becomes light and sandy, is sooner exhausted than the low country, but is yet of a warm and generous nature, which, helped by a kindly sun, yields tobacco and corn extremely well. There is no better wheat than what is produced in this province and Maryland; but the culture of tobacco employs all their attention, and almost all their hands; so that they scarcely cultivate wheat enough for their own use.

It may be judged, from the climate and soil I have described, in what excellence and plenty every sort of fruit is found in Virginia. Their forests are full of timber trees of all kinds; and their plains are covered for almost the whole year with a prodigious number of flowers, and flowering shrubs, of colours so rich, and of a scent so fragrant, that they occasioned the name of Florida to be originally given to this country. This country produces several medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the snake root; and of late the celebrated ginseng of the Chinese has been discovered there.

Horned cattle and hogs have multiplied almost beyond belief; though at the first settlement the country was utterly destitute of these animals. The meat of the former is as much below the flesh of our oxen, as that of the latter exceeds that of our hogs. The animals natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers; a sort of panther or tiger; bears, wolves, foxes, racoons, squirrels, wild cats, and one very uncommon animal called the opossum. This creature is about the size of a cat, and, besides the belly which it has in common with all others, has a false one beneath it, with a pretty

large aperture at the end towards the hinder legs. Within this bag or belly, on the usual parts of the common belly, are a number of teats; upon these, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang, like fruit upon the stalk; until they grow in bulk and weight to their appointed size; then they drop off, and are received in the false belly, from which they go out at pleasure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them.

They have all our sorts of tame and wild fowl in equal perfection, and some which we have not; and a vast number of birds of various kinds, valuable for their beauty or their note. The white owl of Virginia is far larger than the species which we have, and is all over of a bright silver-coloured plumage, except one black spot upon his breast; they have the nightingale called from the country, a most beautiful one, whose feathers are crimson and blue; the mocking bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and imitating the notes of every one; the rock bird, very sociable, and his society very agreeable by the sweetness of his music; the humming bird, the smallest of all the winged creation, and the most beautiful, all arrayed in scarlet, green, and gold. This bird is said to live by licking off the dew that adheres to the flowers; he is too delicate to be brought alive into England. The sea-coasts and rivers of Virginia abound not only in several of the species of fish known in Europe, but in most of those kinds which are peculiar to America. The reptiles are many; it were tedious to enumerate all the kinds of serpents bred here; the rattle snake is the principal, and too well known in general to need any description.

The great commodiousness of navigation, and the scarcity of handicraftsmen, have rendered all the attempts of the government to establish towns in Virginia ineffectual. James's town, which was anciently the capital, is dwindled into an insignificant village; and Williamsburg, though the capital at present, the seat of the governor, the place of holding the assembly and courts of justice, and a college for the study of arts and sciences, is yet but a small town. However, in this town are the best public buildings in British America. The college, one hundred and thirty-five feet long in front, resembling Chelsea hospital; the capitol directly facing it, at the other end of the design of a noble street, not unlike the college in the fashion and the size of the building, where the assembly and courts of justice are held, and the public offices kept; and the church in the form of a cross, large and well-ornamented.

The great staple commodity of this country, as well as Maryland, is tobacco. This plant is aboriginal in America, and of very ancient use, though neither so generally cultivated nor so well-manufactured as it has been since the coming of the Europeans. When at its just height, it is as tall as an ordinary-sized man; the stalk is straight, hairy, and clammy; the leaves alternate, of a faded yellowish green, and towards the lower part of the plant of a great size. The seeds of tobacco are first sown in beds, from whence they are transplanted, the first rainy weather, into a ground disposed into little hillocks like an hop garden. In a month's time from their transplantation they become a foot high; they then top them, and prune off the lower leaves, and with great attention clean them from weeds and worms twice a week; in about six weeks after, they attain to their full growth, and they begin then to turn brownish. By these marks they judge the tobacco to be ripe. They cut down the plants as fast as they ripen, heap them up and let them lie a night to sweat; the next day they carry them to the tobacco house, which is built to admit as much air as is consistent with keeping out rain, where they are hung separately to dry, for four or five weeks; then they take them down in moist weather, for else they will crumble to dust. After this they are laid upon sticks, and covered up close to sweat for a week or two longer; the servants strip and sort them, the top being the best, the bottom the worst tobacco; then they make them up in hogheads, or form them into rolls. Wet seasons must be carefully laid hold on for all this work, else the tobacco will not be sufficiently pliable.

In trade they distinguish two sorts of tobacco: the first is called Aranokoe, from Maryland and the northern parts of Virginia; this is strong and hot in the mouth, but it sells very well in the markets of Holland, Germany, and the north. The other sort is called sweet-scented, the best of which is from James's and York rivers in the southern parts of Virginia. There is no commodity to which the revenue is so much obliged as to this. It produces a vast sum, and yet appears to lay but a very inconsiderable burden upon the people in England; all the weight in reality falls upon the planter, who is kept down by the lowness of the original price; and as we have two provinces which deal in the same commodity, if the people of Virginia were to take measures to straiten the market and raise the price, those of Maryland would certainly take the advantage of it; the people of Virginia would take the same advantage of those of Maryland in a like case. They have no prospect of ever bettering their condition; and they

are the less able to endure it as they live in general luxuriously, and to the full extent of their fortunes. Therefore any failure in the sale of their goods brings them heavily in debt to the merchants in London, who get mortgages on their estates, which are consumed to the bone, with the canker of an eight per cent usury. But, however the planters may complain of the tobacco trade, the revenue flourishes by it, for it draws near three hundred thousand a year from this one article only; and the exported tobacco, the far greater part of the profits of which come to the English merchant, brings almost as great a sum annually into the kingdom; to say nothing of the great advantage we derive from being supplied from our own colonies with that for which the rest of Europe pays ready money, besides the employment of two hundred large vessels, and a proportionable number of seamen, which are occupied in this trade. From us the Virginians take every article for convenience or ornament which they use; their own manufacture does not deserve to be mentioned. The two colonies export about eighty thousand hogheads of tobacco of eight hundred weight. They likewise trade largely with the West-Indies in lumber, pitch, tar, corn, and provisions. They send home flax, hemp, iron, slaves, and walnut and cedar plank.

The number of white people in Virginia, is between sixty and seventy thousand; and they are growing every day more numerous, by the migration of the Irish, who, not succeeding so well in Pennsylvania as the more frugal and industrious Germans, sell their lands in that province to the latter, and take up new ground in the remote countries in Virginia, Maryland, and North Carolina. These are chiefly Presbyterians from the northern part of Ireland, who in America are generally called Scotch Irish. In Virginia there are likewise settled a considerable number of French refugees; but much the larger part of the inhabitants are the Negroe slaves, who cannot be much fewer than a hundred thousand souls; they annually import into the two tobacco colonies between three and four thousand of these slaves. The Negroes here do not stand in need of such vast recruits as the West-India stock; they rather increase than diminish; a blessing derived from a more moderate labour, better food, and a more healthy climate. The inhabitants of Virginia are a chearful, hospitable, and many of them a genteel, though something vain and ostentatious, people; they are for the greater part of the established church of England; nor until lately did they tolerate
any

any other. Now they have some few meeting-houses of Presbyterians and Quakers.

This of Virginia is the most ancient of our colonies: though, strictly speaking, the first attempts to settle a colony were not made in Virginia, but in that part of North Carolina which immediately borders upon it. Sir Walter Raleigh, the most extraordinary genius of his own or perhaps any other time, a penetrating statesman, an accomplished courtier, a deep scholar, a fine writer, a great soldier, and one of the ablest seamen in the world; this vast genius, that pierced so far and ran through so many things, was of a fiery excentric kind, which led him into daring expeditions and uncommon projects, which, not being understood by a timid prince, and envied and hated by the rivals he had in so many ways of life, ruined him at last. In person, he ran infinite risks in Guiana in search of gold mines: and when this country was first discovered, he looked through the work of an age at one glance, and saw how advantageous it might be made to the trade of England. He was the first man in England who had a right conception of the advantages of settlements abroad; he was then the only person who had a thorough insight into trade, and who saw clearly the proper methods of promoting it. He applied to court, and got together a company, which was composed of several persons of distinction and several eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade and settle a colony in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia.

Raleigh had too much business upon his hands at court, and found too few to second him in his designs, to enable him to support the establishment with the spirit in which he began it. If ever any design had an ominous beginning, and seemed to forbid any attempts for carrying it on, it was that of the first settlement of Virginia. Near half of the first colony was destroyed by the savages; and the rest, consumed and worn down by fatigue and famine, deserted the country, and returned home in despair. The second colony was cut off, to a man, in a manner unknown; but they were supposed to be destroyed by the Indians. The third had the same dismal fate; and the fourth, quarelling amongst themselves, neglecting their agriculture to hunt for gold, and provoking the Indians by their insolent and unguarded behaviour, lost several of their people, and were returning, the poor remains of them, in a famishing and desperate condition, to England, when just in the mouth of Chesapeak bay they met the lord Delawar,

with a Squadron loaded with provision, and every thing for their relief and defence, who persuaded them to return.

This nobleman travelled with as much zeal and assiduity to cherish and support the froward infancy of this unpromising colony, as some have used in its better times for purposes of another kind. Regardless of his life, and inattentive to his fortune, he entered upon this long and dangerous voyage, and accepted this barren province, which had nothing of a government but its anxieties and its cares, merely for the service of his country; and he had no other reward than that retired and inward satisfaction, which a good mind feels in indulging its own propensity to virtue, and the prospect of those just honours which the latest posterity will take a pleasure in bestowing upon those, who prefer the interest of posterity to their own. After he had prevailed upon the people to return, he comforted them under their misfortunes, he pointed out their causes, and uniting the tenderness of a father with the steady severity of a magistrate, he healed their divisions, and reconciled them to authority and government, by making them feel by his conduct what a blessing it could be made.

When he had settled the colony within itself, his next care was to put them upon a proper footing with regard to the Indians, whom he found very haughty and assuming on account of the late miserable state of the English; but, by some well-timed and vigorous steps, he humbled them, shewed he had power to chastise them, and courage to exert that power; and, after having awed them into very peaceable dispositions and settled his colony in a very growing condition, he retired home for the benefit of his health, which, by his constant attention to business and the air of an uncultivated country, had been impaired; but he left his son, with the spirit of his father, his deputy; and Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, the honourable George Piercy, Sir Ferdinand Wenman, and Mr. Newport, for his council. These, with other persons of rank and fortune, attended him on this expedition, which gave a credit to the colony. Though there are in England many young gentlemen of fortunes disproportioned to their rank, I fear we should not see the names of so many of them engaged in an expedition, which had no better appearance than this had at that time.

Lord Delawar did not forget the colony on his return to England; but, considering himself as nearer the fountain head, thought it his duty to turn the spring of the royal favour more copiously upon the province which he superintended. For eight years together he was indefatigable in doing every thing

thing that could tend to the peopling, the support and the good government of this settlement; and he died in the pursuit of the same object in his voyage to Virginia, with a large supply of people, cloathing and goods.

It is one of the most necessary, and I am sure it is one of the most pleasing, parts of this design to do justice to the names of those men, who, by their greatness of mind, their wisdom and their goodness, have brought into the pale of civility and religion these rude and uncultivated parts of the globe; who could discern the rudiments of a future people, wanting only time to be unfolded in the seed; who could perceive, amidst the losses and disappointments and expences of a beginning colony, the great advantages to be derived to their country from such undertakings; and who could pursue them in spite of the malignity and narrow wisdom of the world. The ancient world had its Osiris and Erichthonius, who taught them the use of grain; their Bacchus, who instructed them in the culture of the vine; and their Orpheus and Linus, who first built towns and formed civil societies. The people of America will not fail, when time has made things venerable, and when an intermixture of fable has moulded useful truths into popular opinions, to mention with equal gratitude, and perhaps familiar heightening circumstances, her Columbus, her Castro, her Gasca, her de Poincy, her Delawar, her Baltimore, and her Penn.

The colony of Virginia was so fast rooted by the care of lord Delawar, that it was enabled to stand two terrible storms; two massacres made by the Indians, in which the whole colony was nearly cut off; and to subdue that people, so as to put it utterly out of their power for many years past to give them any material disturbance.

In the fatal troubles which brought Charles the First to the block, and overturned the constitution of England, many of the cavaliers fled for refuge to this colony; which by the general disposition of the inhabitants and the virtue of Sir William Berkley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by stratagem than force, reduced them. And what is remarkable, if it may be depended upon with any certainty, they deposed Cromwell's governor, set up Sir William Berkley again, and declared for king Charles the Second, a good while even before the news of Oliver's death could arrive in America.

After the Restoration, there is nothing very interesting in their history; except that soon after, a sort of rebellion arose in the province, from mismanagements in the government,

from the decay of their trade, and from exorbitant grants inconsiderately made, which included the settled property of many people; these grievances raised a general discontent amongst the planters, which was fomented and brought to blaze out into an actual war, by a young gentleman whose name was Bacon. He was an agreeable man, of a graceful presence and winning carriage. He had been bred to the law, had a lively and fluent expression, fit to set off a popular cause and to influence men who were ready to hear whatever could be said to colour in a proper manner what was already strongly drawn by their own feelings. This man, by a specious, or perhaps a real, though ill-judged, regard for the public good, finding the governor slow in his preparations against the Indians, who were at that time ravaging the frontiers of the province, took up arms, without any commission, to act against the enemy. When he had sufficient force for this purpose, he found himself in a condition not only to act against the enemy, but to give law to the governor, and to force him to give a sanction by his authority to those proceedings which were meant to destroy it.

Bacon, armed with the commission of a general and followed by the whole force of the colony, prepared to march against the Indians; when Sir William Berkley, the governor, freed from the immediate terror of his forces, recalled him, proclaimed him a traitor and issued a reward for apprehending him as such. This brought matters to extremities; the people were universally inflamed; Bacon adhered to what he had done, the people adhered to Bacon; and the governor, who seemed no ways inclined to temporize or yield to the storm, fled over the river Potowmack, and proclaimed all Bacon's adherents traitors. He put himself at the head of a small body of troops which he had raised in Maryland, and of such of the Virginians as were faithful to him, and wrote to England for supplies. On the other hand, Bacon marched to the capital, called an assembly, and for six months together disposed all things according to his own pleasure. Every thing was now hastening to a civil war, when all was quieted, in as sudden a manner as it had begun, by the natural death of Bacon, in the very height of the confusion. The people, unable to act without a head, proposed terms of accommodation; the terms were listened to, and peace was restored and kept without any disturbance, not so much by the removal of the grievances complained of, as by the arrival of a regiment from England, which remained a long time in the country. It must be remarked, in honour of the moderation of the government,

ment, that no person suffered, in his life or his estate, for this rebellion; which was the more extraordinary, as many people, as that time, were very earnest in soliciting grants of land in Virginia.

The events in all countries which are not the residence of the supreme power, and have no concern in the great business of transacting war and peace, have generally but little to engage the attention of the reader. I have therefore intirely omitted the tedious detail of the governors and their several transactions, with which my materials so plentifully supply me; and, for the same reason, I shall be very concise in my account of Maryland, which agreeing altogether with Virginia in its climate, soil, products, trade, and genius of the inhabitants, and having few or no remarkable events to recommend it, will save much trouble in that article.

M A R Y L A N D.

IT was in the reign of Charles the First, that the lord Baltimore applied for a patent for a part of Virginia, and obtained, in 1632, a grant of a tract of land upon Chesapeak bay, of about an hundred and forty miles long, and an hundred and thirty broad; having Pennsylvania, then in the hands of the Dutch, upon the north; the Atlantic ocean upon the east; and the river Potowmack upon the south: in honour of the queen, he called this province Maryland.

Lord Baltimore was a Roman catholic, and was induced to attempt this settlement in America, in hopes of enjoying liberty of conscience for himself, and for such of his friends to whom the severity of the laws might loosen their ties to their country and make them prefer an easy banishment with freedom, to the conveniencies of 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 certainly very little inclined to treat the Roman catholics in a harsh manner, neither had they in reality the least appearance of reason to do so; but the laws themselves were of a rigorous constitution; and, however the court might be inclined to relax them, they could not in policy do it, but with great reserve. The Puritan party perpetually accused the court, and indeed the episcopal church, of a desire of returning to popery; and this accusation was so popular, that it was not in the power of the court

to shew the Papists that indulgence which they desired. The laws were still executed with very little mitigation; and they were in themselves of a much keener temper, than those which had driven the Puritans about the same time to seek a refuge in the same part of the world. These reasons made lord Baltimore desirous to have, and the court willing to give him, a place of retreat in America.

The settlement of the colony cost the lord Baltimore a large sum. It was made, under his auspices, by his brother, and about two hundred persons, Roman catholics, and most of them of good families. This settlement, at the beginning, did not meet with the same difficulties, which embarrassed and retarded most of the others we had made. The people were generally of the better sort; a proper subordination was observed amongst them; and the Indians gave and took so little offence, that they ceded one half of their principal town, and some time after the whole of it, to these strangers. The Indian women taught ours 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 themselves for a trifling consideration; so that the new settlers had a sort of town ready built, ground ready cleared for their subsistence, and no enemy to harass them.

They lived thus, without much trouble or fear, until some ill-disposed persons in Virginia insinuated to the Indians, that the Baltimore colony had designs upon them; that they were Spaniards and not Englishmen; and such other stories as they judged proper to sow the seeds of suspicion and enmity in the minds of these people. Upon the first appearance, that the malice of the Virginians had taken effect, the new planters were not wanting to themselves. They built a good fort with all expedition, and took every other necessary measure for their defence; but they continued still to treat the Indians, with so much kindness, that, partly by that, and partly by the awe of their arms, the ill designs of their enemies were defeated.

As the colony met with so few obstructions, and as the Roman catholics in England were yet more severely treated in proportion as the court party declined, numbers constantly arrived to replenish the settlement; which the lord proprietor omitted no care, and withheld no expence, to support and encourage; until the Usurpation overturned the government at home, and deprived him of his rights abroad. Maryland remained under the governors appointed by the parliament and by Cromwell until the Restoration, when lord Baltimore was re-instated in his former possessions, which he cultivated with his

his former wisdom, care, and moderation. No people could live in greater ease and security; and his lordship, willing that as many as possible should enjoy the benefits of his mild and equitable administration, gave his consent to an act of assembly, which he had before promoted in his province, for allowing a free and unlimited toleration for all who professed the Christian religion, of whatever denomination. This liberty, which was never in the least instance violated, encouraged a great number, not only of the church of England, but of Presbyterians, Quakers, and all kinds of dissenters, to settle in Maryland, which before that was almost wholly in the hands of Roman catholics.

This lord, though guilty of no mal-administration in his government, though a zealous Roman catholic, and firmly attached to the cause of king James the Second, could not prevent his charter from being questioned in that arbitrary reign, and a suit from being commenced, to deprive him of the property and jurisdiction of a province granted by the royal favour, and peopled at such a vast expence of his own. But it was the error of that weak and unfortunate reign, neither to know its friends, not its enemies; but, by a blind precipitate conduct, to hurry on every thing of whatever consequence with almost equal heat, and to imagine that the sound of the royal authority was sufficient to justify every sort of conduct to every sort of people. But these injuries could not shake the honour and constancy of lord Baltimore, nor tempt him to desert the cause of his master. Upon the Revolution, he had no reason to expect any favour; yet he met with more than king James had intended him; he was deprived indeed of all his jurisdiction, but he was left the profits of his province, which were by no means inconsiderable; and when his descendants had conformed to the church of England, they were restored to all their rights as fully as the legislature had thought fit that any proprietor should enjoy them.

When, upon the Revolution, power changed hands in that province, the new men made but an indifferent requital for the liberties and indulgences they had enjoyed under the old administration. They not only deprived the Roman catholics of all share in the government, but of all the rights of freemen; they have even adopted the whole body of the penal laws of England against them; they are at this day meditating new laws in the same spirit, and they would undoubtedly go to the greatest lengths in this respect, if the moderation and good sense of the government in England did not set some bounds to their bigotry; thinking very prudently that it were highly

highly unjust and equally impolitic, to allow an asylum abroad to any religious persuasions which they judged it improper to tolerate at home, and then to deprive them of its protection; recollecting at the same time, in the various changes which our religion and government have undergone, which have in their turns rendered every sort of party and religion obnoxious to the reigning powers, that this American asylum, which has been admitted in the hottest times of persecution at home, has proved of infinite service, not only to the present peace of England, but to the prosperity of its commerce and the establishment of its power. There are a sort of men, who will not see so plain a truth; and they are the persons who would appear to contend most warmly for liberty; but it is only a party liberty for which they contend; a liberty, which they would stretch out one way, only to narrow it in another; they are not ashamed of using the very same pretences for persecuting others, that their enemies use for persecuting them.

This colony, as for a long time it had with Pennsylvania the honour of being unstained with any religious persecution, so neither they nor the Pennsylvanians have ever until very lately been harrassed by the calamity of any war, offensive or defensive, with their Indian neighbours, with whom they always lived in the most exemplary harmony. Indeed, in a war which the Indians made upon the colony of Virginia, by mistake they made an incursion into the bounds of Maryland; but they were soon sensible of their mistake, and attoned for it. The late war indeed has changed every thing, and the Indians have been taught to laugh at all their ancient alliances.

Maryland, like Virginia, has no considerable town, and for the same reason; the number of navigable creeks and rivers. Annapolis is the seat of government. It is a small, but beautifully situated town, upon the river Severn.

Here is the seat of the governor, and the principal custom house collection. The people of Maryland have the same established religion with those of Virginia, that of the church of England; but here the clergy are provided for in a much more liberal manner, and they are the most decent, and the best of the clergy in north America. They export from Maryland the same things in all respects that they do from Virginia. Their tobacco is about forty thousand hogshheads. The White inhabitants are about forty thousand; the Negroes upwards of sixty thousand.

It must not be forgot, that we formerly called all the coast of North America by the name of Virginia. The province properly so called, with Maryland and the Carolinas, was
known

known by the name of South Virginia. By the Spaniards it was considered as part of Florida, which country they made to extend from New Mexico to the Atlantic ocean. By them it was first discovered; but they treated the natives with an inhumanity, which filled them with so violent an hatred to the Spanish name, as rendered their settlement there very difficult; nor did they push it vigorously, as the country shewed no marks of producing gold or silver, the only things for which the Spaniards then valued any country. Florida therefore remained under an entire neglect in Europe, until the reign of Charles the Ninth, king of France.

The celebrated leader of the Protestants in that kingdom, the admiral Chastillon, who was not only a great commander, but an able statesman, was a man of too comprehensive views not to see the advantages of a settlement in America; he procured two vessels to be fitted out for discoveries upon that coast. He had it probably in his thoughts to retire thither with those of his persuasion, if the success, which hitherto suited so ill with his great courage and conduct, should at last entirely destroy his cause in France. These ships in two months arrived upon the coast of America; near the river now called Albemarle, in the province of North Carolina. The French gave the Indians to understand, in the best manner they were able, that they were enemies to the Spaniards, which secured them a friendly reception and the good offices of the inhabitants. They were, however, in no condition to make any settlement.

On their return to France, the admiral, at this time, by the abominable policy of the court, apparently in great favour, was so well satisfied with the account they had given of the country, that, in 1564, he fitted out five or six ships, with as many hundred men aboard, to begin a colony there. This was accordingly done at the place of their landing in the first expedition. They built a fort here, which they called Fort Charles, as they called the whole country Carolina, in honour of their king then reigning. The Spaniards, who had intelligence of their proceedings, dispatched a considerable force to attack this colony, who, not satisfied with reducing it, put all the people to the sword, after quarter given; and, committing great outrages upon the natives, they paved the way for the vengeance which soon after fell upon them for such an unnecessary and unprovoked act of cruelty. For, though the admiral and his party were by this time destroyed in the infamous massacre of St. Bartholomew, and though the design of a colony died with him, one M. de Gorgues, a
private

private gentleman, fitted out some ships, which sailed to that coast purely to revenge the murder of his countrymen and his friends. The Indians greedily embraced the opportunity of becoming associates in the punishment of the common enemy. They joined in the siege of two or three forts the Spaniards had built there; they took them, and, in all of them, put the garrison to the sword without mercy.

Satisfied with this action, the adventurers returned, and, happily for us, the French court did not understand, blinded as they were by their bigotry, the advantages which might have been derived from giving America to the Protestants, as we afterwards did to the dissenters, as a place of refuge; if they had taken this step, most certainly we should have either had no settlements in America at all, or they must have been small in extent, and precarious in their tenure, to what they are at this day.

C A R O L I N A.

AFTER the French expedition, the country of Carolina remained without any attention from Spaniards, French, or English, until, as we observed in the article of Virginia, Sir Walter Raleigh projected an establishment there. It was not in the part now called Virginia, but in North Carolina, that our first unhappy settlements were made and destroyed. Afterwards, the adventurers entered the bay of Chesapeak, and fixed a permanent colony to the northward; so that, although Carolina was the first part of the Atlantic coast of America, which had an European colony, yet, by an odd caprice, it was for a long time deserted by both England and France, who settled with infinitely more difficulty in climates much less advantageous or agreeable.

It was not until the year 1663, in the reign of Charles the Second, that we had any notion of formally settling that country. In that year, the earl of Clarendon, lord chancellor, the duke of Albemarle, the lord Craven, lord Berkley, lord Ashley, afterwards earl of Shaftesbury, Sir George Carteret, Sir William Berkley, and Sir George Colleton, obtained a charter for the property and jurisdiction of that country, from the 31st degree of north latitude to the 36th; and being invested with full power to settle and govern the country, they had

had the model of a constitution framed, and a body of fundamental laws compiled, by the famous philosopher Mr. Locke. On this plan, the lords proprietors themselves stood in the place of the king; gave their assent or dissent, as they thought proper, to all laws; appointed all officers, and bestowed all titles of dignity. In his turn, one of these lords acted for the rest. In the province they appointed two other branches, in a good measure analogous to the legislature in England. They make three ranks, or rather classes of nobility. The lowest was composed of those to whom they had made grants of twelve thousand acres of land, whom they called barons; the next order had twenty-four thousand acres, or two baronies, with the title of cassiques; these were to answer our earls; the third had two cassique-ships, or forty-eight thousand acres, and were called landgraves, a title in that province analogous to duke. This body formed the upper house; their lands were not alienable by parcels. The lower house was formed, as it is in the other colonies, of representatives from the several towns or counties. But the whole was not called, as in the rest of the plantations, an assembly, but a parliament.

They began their first settlement at a point of land towards the southward of their district, between two navigable rivers, though of no long course, called Ashley or Cowper rivers; and there laid the foundation of a city, called Charles-town, which was designed to be, what it now is, the capital of the province. They expended about twelve thousand pounds in the first settlement. But it was not chiefly to the funds of the lords proprietors, that this province owed its establishment. They observed what advantages the other colonies derived from opening an harbour for refugees; and not only from this consideration, but from the humane disposition of that excellent man who formed the model of their government, they gave an unlimited toleration to people of all religious persuasions. This induced a great number of dissenters, over whom the then government held a more severe hand than was consistent with justice or policy, to transport themselves with their fortunes and families into Carolina. They became soon at least as numerous as the churchmen; and, though they displayed none of that frantic bigotry which disgraced the New England refugees, they could not preserve themselves from the jealousy and hatred of those of the church of England, who, having a majority in one of the assemblies, attempted to exclude all dissenters from a right of sitting there. This produced dissensions, tumults, and riots

every day, which tore the colony to pieces, and hindered it for many years from making that progress which might be expected from its great natural advantages. The people fell into disputes of no less violent a nature with the lords proprietors; and, provoking the Indians by a series of unjust and violent actions, they gave occasion to two wars, in which however they were victorious, and subdued almost all the Indian nations within their own bounds on this side of the Apalachian mountains.

Their intestine distractions and their foreign wars kept the colony so low, that an act of parliament, if possible to prevent the last ruinous consequences of these divisions, put the province under the immediate care and inspection of the crown. The lords proprietors, making a virtue of necessity, accepted a recompence of about twenty-four thousand pounds, both for the property and jurisdiction; except the earl Granville, who kept his eighth part of the property, which comprehends very near half of North Carolina, on that part which immediately borders upon the province of Virginia. Their constitution, in those points wherein it differed from that of other colonies, was altered; and the country, for the more commodious administration of affairs, was divided into two distinct independent governments, called North Carolina, and South Carolina. This was in the year 1728. In a little time, a firm peace was established with all the neighbouring Indian nations, the Cherokees, the Creeks, and the Cataubas; the province began to breathe from its internal quarrels, and its trade has advanced every year since that time with an astonishing rapidity.

These two provinces, lying between the thirty-first and thirty-sixth degrees of latitude, are upwards of four hundred miles in length, and in breadth to the Indian nations near three hundred. The climate and soil in these countries do not considerably differ from those of Virginia; but where they differ, it is much to the advantage of Carolina, which, on the whole, may be considered as one of the finest climates in the world. The heat in summer is very little greater than in Virginia; but the winters are milder and shorter, and the year, in all respects, does not come to the same violent extremities. However, the weather, though in general serene as the air is healthy, yet, like all American weather, makes such quick changes, and those so sharp, as to oblige the inhabitants to use rather more caution in their dress and diet, than we are obliged to use in Europe. Thunder and lightning is frequent; and it is the
only

only one of our colonies upon the continent which is subject to hurricanes; but they are very rare, and not near so violent as those of the West-Indies. Part of the month of March, and all April, May, and the greatest part of June, are here inexpressibly temperate and agreeable; but in July, August, and for almost the whole of September, the heat is very intense; and though the winters are sharp, especially when the north-west wind prevails, yet they are seldom severe enough to freeze any considerable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the frosts have never sufficient strength to resist the noon-day sun, so that many tender plants, which do not stand the winter of Virginia, flourish in Carolina; for they have oranges in great plenty near Charlestown, and excellent in their kinds, both sweet and sour. Olives are rather neglected by the planter, than denied by the climate. The vegetation of every kind of plant is here almost incredibly quick; for there is something so kindly in the air and soil, that, where the latter has the most barren and unpromising appearance, if neglected for a while, of itself it shoots out an immense quantity of those various plants and beautiful flowering shrubs and flowers, for which this country is so famous, and of which Mr. Catesby, in his Natural History of Carolina, has made such fine drawings.

The whole country is in a manner one forest, where our planters have not cleared it. The trees are almost the same in every respect with those produced in Virginia; and, by the different species of these, the quality of the soil is easily known; for those grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile; they are of a dark sand, intermixed with loam, and, as all their land abounds with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhausted; for here they never use any manure. The pine barren is the worst of all; this is an almost perfectly white sand, yet it bears the pine tree and some other useful plants naturally, yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this species of land is cleared, for two or three years together it produces very tolerable crops of Indian corn and pease; and when it lies low and is flooded, it even answers well for rice. But, what is the best of all for this province, this worst species of its land is favourable to a species of the most valuable of all its products, to one of the kinds of indigo. There is another sort of ground, which lies low and wet upon the banks of some of their rivers; this is called swamp, which in some places is in a manner useless, in others it is far the richest of all their grounds; it is a black fat earth, and bears their great staple

rice, which must have in general a rich moist soil, in the greatest plenty and perfection. The country near the sea and at the mouths of the navigable rivers is much the worst; for the most of the land there is of the species of the pale, light, sandy-coloured ground; and what is otherwise in those parts is little better than an unhealthy and unprofitable salt marsh; but the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at an hundred miles distance from Charlestown, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpose of human life. The air is pure and wholesome, and the summer heats much more temperate than in the flat country; for Carolina is all an even plain for eighty miles from the sea; no hill, no rock, scarce even a pebble to be met with: so that the best part of the maritime country, from this sameness, must want something of the fine effect which its beautiful products would have by a more variegated and advantageous disposition; but nothing can be imagined more pleasant to the eye than the back country, and its fruitfulness is almost incredible. Wheat grows extremely well there, and yields a prodigious increase. In the other parts of Carolina they raise but little, where it is apt to mildew and spend itself in straw; and these evils the planters take very little care to redress, as they turn their whole attention to the culture of rice, which is more profitable, and in which they are unrivalled; being supplied with what wheat they want in exchange for this grain from New York and Pennsylvania.

The land in Carolina is very easily cleared every where, as there is little or no underwood. Their forests consist mostly of great trees at a considerable distance asunder; so that they can clear in Carolina more land in a week, than in the forests of Europe they can do in a month. Their method is to cut them at about a foot from the ground, and then saw the trees into boards, or convert them into staves, heading, or other species of lumber, according to the nature of the wood or the demands at the market. If they are too far from navigation, they heap them together, and leave them to rot. The roots soon decay; and, before that, they find no inconvenience from them, where land is so plenty.

The aboriginal animals of this country are in general the same with those of Virginia, but there is yet a greater number and variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiously. About fifty years ago, it was a thing extraordinary to have above three or four cows, now some have a thousand; some

in North Carolina a great many more; but to have two or three hundred is very common. These ramble all day at pleasure in the forests; but, their calves being separated and kept in fenced pastures, the cows return every evening to them; they are then milked, detained all night, milked in the morning, and then let loose again. The hogs range in the same manner, and return like the cows, by having shelter and some victuals provided for them at the plantation; these are vastly numerous, and many quite wild; many horned cattle and horses too run wild in their woods; though at their first settlement there was not one of these animals in the country. They drive a great many cattle from North Carolina every year into Virginia, to be slaughtered there; and they kill and salt some beef, and a good deal of pork, for the West-Indies, within themselves; but the beef is neither so good, nor does it keep near so long, as what is sent to the same market from Ireland. They export a considerable number of live cattle to Pennsylvania and the West-Indies. Sheep are not so plenty as the black cattle or hogs, neither is their flesh so good; their wool is very ordinary.

The trade of Carolina, besides the lumber, provision, and the like, which it yields in common with the rest of America, has three great staple commodities, indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine, turpentine, tar, and pitch. The two former commodities South Carolina has intirely to itself; and, taking in North Carolina, this part of America yields more pitch and tar than all the rest of our colonies.

Rice anciently formed by itself the staple of this province; this wholesome grain makes a great part of the food of all ranks of people in the southern parts of the world; in the northern, it is not so much in request. Whilst the rigor of the Act of Navigation obliged them to send all their rice directly to England, to be re-shipped for the markets of Spain and Portugal, the charges incident to this regulation lay so heavy upon the trade, that the cultivation of rice, especially in the time of war, when these charges were greatly aggravated by the rise of the freight and insurance, hardly answered the charges of the planter; but now the legislature has relaxed the law in this respect, and permits the Carolinians to send their rice directly to any place to the southward of Cape Finisterre. This prudent indulgence has again revived the rice trade; and, though they have gone largely, and with great spirit, into the profitable article of indigo, it has not diverted their attention from the cultivation of rice; they raise now above double the quantity of what they raised some years ago;

and this branch alone of their commerce is, at the lowest estimation, worth one hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling annually.

Indigo is a dye made from a plant of the same name, which probably was so called from India, where it was first cultivated, and from whence we had, for a considerable time, the whole of what we consumed in Europe. This plant is very like the fern when grown, and, when young, hardly distinguishable from lucern-grass; its leaves in general are pennated and terminated by a single lobe; the flowers consist of five leaves, and are of the papilionaceous kind; the uppermost petal being larger and rounder than the rest, and lightly furrowed on the side; the lower ones are short, and end in a point; in the middle of the flower is situated the stile, which afterwards becomes a pod, containing the seeds.

They cultivate three sorts of indigo in Carolina, which demand the same variety of soils. First, the French or Hispaniola indigo, which striking a long tap-root, will only flourish in a deep rich soil; and therefore, though an excellent sort, is not so much cultivated in the maritime parts of Carolina, which are generally sandy; but no part of the world is more fit to produce it in perfection than the same country, an hundred miles backwards; it is neglected too on another account, for it hardly bears a winter so sharp as that of Carolina.

The second sort, which is the false guatemala or true bahama, bears the winter better, is a more tall and vigorous plant, is raised in greater quantities from the same compass of ground, is content with the worst soils in the country, and is therefore more cultivated than the first sort, though inferior in the quality of its dye.

The third sort is the wild indigo, which is indigenou here; this, as it is a native of the country, answers the purposes of the planter the best of all, with regard to the hardiness of the plant, the easiness of the culture, and the quantity of the produce; of the quality there is some dispute, not yet settled amongst the planters themselves; nor can they as yet distinctly tell whether they are to attribute the faults of their indigo to the nature of the plant, to the seasons, which have much influence upon it, or to some defect in the manufacture.

The time of planting the indigo is generally after the first rains succeeding the vernal equinox; the seed is sown in small straight trenches, about eighteen or twenty inches asunder; when it is at its height, it is generally eighteen inches tall.

It

It is fit for cutting, if all things answers well, in the beginning of July. Towards the end of August, a second cutting is obtained; and, if they have a mild autumn, there is a third cutting at Michaelmas; the indigo land must be weeded every day, and the plants cleansed from worms, and the plantation attended with the greatest care and diligence; about twenty-five negroes may manage a plantation of fifty acres, and compleat the manufacture of the drug, besides providing their own necessary subsistence, and that of the planter's family. Each acre yields, if the land be very good, sixty or seventy pounds weight of indigo; at a medium the produce is fifty pounds. When the plant is beginning to blossom it is fit for cutting; and, when cut, great care ought to be taken to bring it to the steeper, without pressing or shaking it, as a great part of the beauty of the indigo depends upon the fine farina which adheres to the leaves of this plant.

The apparatus for making indigo is pretty considerable; though not very expensive; for, besides a pump, the whole consists only of vats and tubs of cypress wood, common and cheap in this country. The indigo, when cut, is first laid in a vat about twelve or fourteen feet long, and four deep, to the height of about fourteen inches, to macerate and digest. Then this vessel, which is called the steeper, is filled with water; the whole having laid from about twelve or sixteen hours, according to the weather, begins to ferment, swell, rise, and grow sensibly warm; at this time spars of wood are run across to prevent its raising too much, and a pin is then set to mark the highest point of its ascent; when it falls below this mark, they judge that the fermentation has attained its due pitch, and begins to abate; this directs the manager to open a cock, and let off the water into another vat, which is called the beater; the gross matter that remains in the first vat is carried off to manure the ground, for which purpose it is excellent, and new cuttings are put in as long as the harvest of this weed continues.

When the water, strongly impregnated with the particles of the indigo, has run into the second vat or beater, they attend with a sort of bottomless buckets, with long handles, to work and agitate it; which they do incessantly until it heats, froths, ferments, and rises above the rim of the vessel which contains it; to allay this violent fermentation, oil is thrown in as the froth rises, which instantly sinks it. When this beating has continued for twenty, thirty, or thirty-five minutes, according to the state of the weather (for in cool weather it requires the longest continued beating) a small
muddy

muddy grain begins to be formed, the salts and other particles of the plant united and dissolved before with the water, are now re-united, and begin to granulate.

To discover these particles the better, and to find when the liquor is sufficiently beaten, they take up some of it from time to time on a plate or in a glass; when it appears in an hopeful condition, they let loose some lime water from an adjacent vessel, gently stirring the whole, which wonderfully facilitates the operation; the indigo granulates more fully, the liquor assumes a purplish colour, and the whole is troubled and muddy; it is now suffered to settle; then the clearer part is left to run off into another succession of vessels, from whence the water is conveyed away as fast as it clears at the top, until nothing remains but a thick mud, which is put into bags of coarse linnen. These are hung up and left for some time, until the moisture is entirely drained off. To finish the drying, this mud is turned out of the bags, and worked upon boards of some porous timber with a wooden spatula; it is frequently exposed to the morning and evening sun, but for a short time only; and then it is put into boxes or frames, which is called the curing, exposed again to the sun in the same cautious manner, until with great labour and attention the operation is finished, and that valuable drug, called indigo, fitted for the market. The greatest skill and care is required in every part of the process, or there may be great danger of ruining the whole; the water must not be suffered to remain too short or too long a time, either in the steeper or beater; the beating itself must be nicely managed so as not to exceed or fall short; and in the curing, the exact medium between too much or too little drying is not easily attained. Nothing but experience can make the overseer skilful in these matters.

There are two methods of trying the goodness of indigo; by fire and by water; if it swims it is good, if it sinks it is naught, the heavier the worse; so if it wholly dissolves in water it is good. Another way of proving it is, by the fire or deal; if it entirely burns away, it is good; the adulterations remain untouched,

There is perhaps no branch of manufacture, in which so large profit may be made upon so moderate a fund, as that of indigo; and there is no country in which this manufacture can be carried on to such advantage as in Carolina, where the climate is healthy, provision plentiful and cheap, and every thing necessary for that business had with the greatest ease. To do justice to the Carolinians, they have not neglected these

these advantages; and, if they continue to improve them with the same spirit in which they have begun, and attend diligently to the quality of their goods, they must naturally and necessarily come to supply the whole consumption of the world with this commodity; and consequently make their country the richest, as it is the pleafantest and most fertile, part of the British dominions.

In all parts of Carolina, but especially in North Carolina, they make great quantities of turpentine, tar and pitch. They are all the produce of the pine. The turpentine is drawn simply from incisions made in the tree; they are made from as great an height as a man can reach with an hatchet; these incisions meet at the bottom of the tree in a point, where they pour their contents into a vessel placed to receive them. There is nothing further in this process. But tar requires a more considerable apparatus and great trouble. They prepare a circular floor of clay, declining a little towards the center; from this is laid a pipe of wood, the upper part of which is even with the floor, and reaches ten feet without the circumference; under the end the earth is dug away, and barrels placed to receive the tar as it runs. Upon the floor is built up a large pile of pine wood split in pieces, and surrounded with a wall of earth, leaving only a small aperture at the top where the fire is first kindled. When the fire begins to burn, they cover this opening likewise to confine the fire from flaming out, and to leave only sufficient heat to force the tar downwards to the floor. They temper the heat as they please, by running a stick into the wall of clay, and giving it air. Pitch is made by boiling tar in large iron kettles set in furnaces, or burning it in round clay holes made in the earth. The greatest quantity of pitch and tar is made in North Carolina.

There are, in the two provinces which compose Carolina, ten navigable rivers of a very long course, and innumerable smaller ones, which fall into them, all abounding in fish. About fifty or sixty miles from the sea, there are falls in most of the great rivers, which, as you approach their sources, become more frequent. This is the case of almost all the American rivers; at these falls, those who navigate these rivers, land their goods, carry them beyond the cataract on horses, or waggons, and then re-ship them below or above it.

The mouths of the rivers in North Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, vessels of above seventy or eighty tons; so that larger ships are

obliged to lie off in a sound called Ocacock, which is formed between some islands and the continent. This lays a weight upon their trade by the expence of lighterage. North Carolina, partly upon that occasion, but principally that the first settlements were made as near as possible to the capital, which lies considerably to the southward, was greatly neglected. For a long time it was but ill inhabited, and by an indigent and disorderly people, who had little property, and hardly any law or government to protect them in what they had. As commodious land grew scarce in the other colonies, people in low circumstances, observing that a great deal of excellent and convenient land was yet to be patented in North Carolina, were induced by that circumstance to plant themselves there. Others, who saw how they prospered, followed their example. The government became more attentive to the place as it became more valuable; and, by degrees, something of a better order was introduced. The effect of which is, that, though by no means as wealthy as South Carolina, North Carolina has many more white people; things begin to wear a face of settlement; and the difficulties they have lain under are not so many, nor so great, as to make us neglect all future efforts, or hinder us from forming very reasonable expectations of seeing the trade of this country, with proper management, become a flourishing and fruitful branch of the British American commerce. That even now it is far from contemptible, may appear by a list of their exported commodities, which I shall subjoin.

Edenton was formerly the capital of North Carolina, if a trifling village can deserve that denomination; but governor Dobbs projected one further south upon the river Neus; which, though it undoubtedly has the advantage of being something more central, is by no means equally well situated for trade, which ought always to be of the first consideration in whatever regards any of the colonies. However, none of their towns are worth mentioning; the conveniency of inland navigation in all our southern colonies, and the want of handicraftsmen, is a great and almost insuperable obstacle to their ever having any considerable.

The only town in either of the Carolinas which can draw our attention is Charles-town; and this is one of the first in North America for size, beauty, and traffic. Its situation I have already mentioned, so admirably chosen at the confluence of two navigable rivers. Its harbour is good in every respect, but that of a bar, which hinders vessels of more than two hundred tons burden from entering. The town is regularly

ly and pretty strongly fortified both by nature and art; the streets are well cut; the houses are large and well built, and rent extremely high. The church is spacious, and executed in a very handsome taste, exceeding every thing of that kind which we have in America. Here besides, the several denominations of dissenters have their meeting houses. It contains about eight hundred houses, and is the seat of the governor and the place of meeting of the assembly. Several handsome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred; the people are shewy and expensive in their dress and way of living; so that every thing conspires to make this by much the liveliest and politest place, as it is one of the richest too, in all America.

The best harbour in this province is far to the southward, on the borders of Georgia, called Port-Royal. This might give a capacious and safe reception to the largest fleets of the greatest bulk and burden; yet the town which is called Beaufort, built upon an island of the same name with the harbour, is not as yet considerable, but it bids fair in time for becoming the first trading town in this part of North America.

The import trade of South Carolina from Great Britain and the West-Indies is the same in all respects with that of the rest of the colonies, and is very large. Their trade with the Indians is likewise in a very flourishing condition. As for its export, both the nature of that and its prodigious increase may be discerned from the following comparative tables, which enables us to see how much this colony has advanced in a few years; as an attentive consideration of its natural advantages must shew us how much it must advance, if properly managed, as there is scarce any improvement of which this excellent country is not capable.

Exported from Charles-town.

In the year 1731.		In the year 1754.	
Rice	41,957 barrels	Rice,	104,682 barrels
Indigo,	00,000 pounds	Indigo,	216,924 pds.
Deerskins,	300 hhds.	Deerskins,	460 hhds.
Pitch,	10,750 barrels		114 bund.
Tar,	2,063 ditto		508 loose
Turpentine	759 ditto	Pitch,	5,869 barrels
Beef, pork, &c. not particularized.		Tar,	2,945 ditto
		Turpentine,	759 ditto
		Beef,	416 ditto
		Pork,	1,560 ditto
		India corn,	16,428 bush.
			Peas

Peas,	9, 162 ditto
Tanned leather,	4, 196 barrels
Hides in the hair	1, 200
Shingles,	1, 114, 000
Staves,	206, 000
Lumber,	395, 000 feet.

Besides a great deal of live cattle, horses, cedar, cypress, and walnut plank; bees-wax, myrtle, and some raw silk and cotton.

North Carolina, which is reputed one of the least flourishing of our settlements, and which certainly lay under great difficulties, hath, within a few years, greatly improved. The consequence of this inferior province may appear by the following view of its trade, which I can take upon me to say is not very far from being exact; it is at least sufficiently so to enable us to form a proper idea of this province and its commerce.

Exported from all ports the of North Carolina in 1753.

Tar,	61, 528 barrels.
Pitch,	12, 055 ditto.
Turpentine,	10, 429 ditto.
Staves,	762, 330 no.
Shingles,	2, 500, 000 no.
Lumber,	2, 000, 647 feet.
Corn,	61, 580 bushels.
Peas, about	10, 000 ditto.
Pork and beef,	3, 300 barrels.
Tobacco, about	100 hogheads.
Tanned leather, about	1000 hundred weight.
Deer skins, in all ways,	about 30, 000.

Besides a very considerable quantity of wheat, rice, bread, potatoes, bees-wax, tallow, candles, bacon, hog's lard, some cotton, and a vast deal of squared timber of walnut and cedar, and hoops and headings of all sorts. Of late they raise indigo, but in what quantity I cannot determine, for it is all exported from South Carolina. They raise likewise much more tobacco than I have mentioned, but this, as it is produced on the frontiers of Virginia, so it is exported from thence. They export too no inconsiderable quantity of beaver, racoon, otter, fox, minx, and wild cats, and in every ship a good deal of live cattle, besides what they vend in Virginia. Both in North and South Carolina they have made frequent, but I think not vigorous

vigorous nor sufficiently continued, efforts in the cultivation of cotton and silk. What they have sent home of these commodities is of so excellent a kind, as to give us great encouragement to proceed in a business which we have not taken to heart with all that warmth which its importance in trade and the fitness of the climate for these most valuable articles certainly deserve. It was a long time before this province went into the profitable trade of indigo, notwithstanding a premium subsisted a good many years for all that should be raised in our plantations; the thing was at first despaired of, and it was never judged that Carolina could produce this drug; but no sooner had a few shewn a spirited and successful example, than all went into it so heartily, that though it is but about six years since they began, I am informed that five hundred thousand weight was made last year; and, as they go on, in a very little time they will supply the market with a commodity, which before we purchased every ounce from the French and Spaniards. Silk requires still more trouble, and a closer attention; as yet it proceeds with languor, nor will a premium alone ever suffice to set on foot in a vigorous manner a manufacture which will find great difficulties in any country, which does not abound in hands that can work for very trifling wages. The want of this advantage in Carolina, though no part of the world is fitter for this business and no business could be so advantageous to England, will, for a very long time, be an impediment to the manufacture of raw silk, unless some proper, well-studied, and vigorously-executed scheme be set on foot for that purpose; and surely it is a matter worthy of a very serious consideration. America is our great resource; this will remain to us when other branches of our trade are decayed, or exist no more; and therefore we ought to grudge no expence that may enable them to answer this end so effectually, as one day to supply the many losses we have already had, and the many more we have but too much reason to apprehend, in our commerce. These expences are not like the expences of war, heavy in their nature and precarious in their effects; but when judiciously ordered, the certain and infallible means of rich and successive harvests of gain to the latest posterity, at the momentary charge of a comparatively small quantity of seed, and of a moderate husbandry to the present generation.

In the year 1732, the government, observing that a great tract of land in Carolina upon the borders of the Spanish Florida, laid waste and unsettled, resolved to erect it into a separate province, and to send a colony thither. This they were
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the rather induced to do, because it lay on the frontier of all our provinces, naked and defenceless; whereas, if it could be properly settled, it would be a strong barrier to them upon that side, or at least would be sufficient to protect Carolina from the incursions which the Indians, instigated by the French or Spaniards, might make upon that province. They had it likewise in their view to raise wine, oil, and silk, and to turn the industry of this new people from the timber and provision trade, which the other colonies had gone into too largely, into channels more advantageous to the public. Laudable designs in every respect; though perhaps the means which were taken to put them in execution were not altogether answerable.

That whole country which lies between the rivers Savannah and Alatomaha north and south, and from the Atlantic ocean on the east to the great South-Sea upon the west, was vested in trustees; at the end of that period, the property in chief was to revert to the crown. This country extends about sixty miles from north and south near the sea, but widens in the more remote parts to above one hundred and fifty. From the sea to the Apalachian mountains, it is not much short of three hundred.

In pursuance of the original design, trustees resolved to encourage poor people to settle in the province, which had been committed to their care; and to this purpose found them in necessaries to transport them into a country, of which they had previously published a most exaggerated and flattering description. In reality, the country differs little from South Carolina, but that the summers are yet hotter, and the soil in general of a poorer kind. The colony was sent over under the care of Mr. Oglethorpe, who very generously bestowed his own time and pains, without any reward, for the advancement of the settlement.

The trustees had very well observed, that many of our colonies, especially that of South Carolina, had been very much endangered, both internally and externally, by suffering the Negroes to grow so much more numerous than the Whites. An error of this kind, they judged, in a colony which was not only to defend itself but to be in some sort a protection to the others, would have been inexcusable; they, for that reason, forbid the importation of Negroes into Georgia. In the next place, they observed that great mischiefs happened in the other settlements from making vast grants of land, which the grantees jobbed out again to the discouragement of the settlers; or, what was worse, suffered to lie idle
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and uncultivated. To avoid this mischief, and to prevent the people from becoming wealthy and luxurious, which they thought inconsistent with the military plan upon which this colony was founded, they allowed in the common course of each family but twenty five acres; and none could, according to the original scheme, by any means come to possess more than five hundred. Neither did they give an inheritance in fee simple, or to the heirs general of the settlers, but granted them their lands inheritable only by their male issue. They likewise forbid the importation of rum into the province, to prevent the great disorders which they observed to arise in the other parts of North America from the abuse of spirituous liquors.

These regulations, though well intended and meant to bring about very excellent purposes, yet it might at first, as it did afterwards, appear, that they were made without sufficiently consulting the nature of the country or the disposition of the people which they regarded. For, in the first place, as the climate is excessively hot, and field work very laborious in a new colony, as the ground must be cleared, tilled, and sowed, all with great and incessant toil, for their bare subsistence, the load was too heavy for the White men, especially men who had not been seasoned to the country. The consequence of which was, that the greatest part of their time, all the heat of the day, was spent in idleness, which brought certain want along with it. It is true, that all our colonies on the continent, even Virginia and Carolina, were originally settled without the help of Negroes. The White men were obliged to the labour, and they underwent it, because they then saw no other way; but it is the nature of man not to submit to extraordinary hardships in one spot, when they see their neighbours on another, without any difference in the circumstances of things, in a much more easy condition. Besides, there were no methods taken to animate them under the hardships they endured. All things contributed to dispirit them.

A levelling scheme in a new colony is a thing extremely unadvisable. Men are seldom induced to leave their country, but upon some extraordinary prospects; there ought always to be something of a vastness in the view that is presented to them, to strike powerfully upon their imagination; and this will operate, because men will never reason well enough to see, that the majority of mankind are not endued with dispositions proper to make a fortune any where, let the proposed advantages be what they will. The majority of mankind must always be indigent; but in a new settlement they must be all so, unless some persons there are on such a comfortable and substantial footing

footing as to give direction and vigour to the industry of the rest; for, in every well contrived building, there must be strong beams and joists, as well as smaller bricks, tiles, and laths. Persons of substance found themselves discouraged from attempting a settlement, by the narrow bounds which no industry could enable them to pass; and the design of confirming the inheritance to the male line was an additional discouragement. The settlers found themselves not upon a par with the other colonies. There was an obvious inconvenience in leaving no provision at all for females, as in a new colony the land must be, for some time at least, the only wealth of the family. The quantity of twenty-five acres was undoubtedly too small a portion, as it was given without any consideration of the quality of the land, and was therefore in many places of very little value. Add to this, that it was clogged, after a short free tenure, with a much greater quit-rent than is paid in our best and longest settled colonies. Indeed, through the whole manner of granting land, there appeared, I know not what low attention to the trifling profits that might be derived to the trustees or the crown by rents and escheats, which clogged the liberal scheme that was first laid down, and was in itself extremely injudicious. When you have a flourishing colony, with extensive settlements, from the smallest quit-rents the crown receives a large revenue; but, in an ill-settled province, the greatest rents make but a poor return, and yet are sufficient to burden and impoverish the people.

The tail-male grants were so grievous, that the trustees themselves corrected that error in a short time. The prohibition of rum, though specious in appearance, had a very bad effect. The waters in this unsettled country, running through such an extent of forest, were not wholesome drinking, and wanted the corrective of a little spirit, as the settlers themselves wanted something to support their strength in the extraordinary and unusual heat of the climate, and the dampness of it in several places disposing them to agues and fevers. But, what was worse, this prohibition in a manner deprived them of the only vent they had for the only commodities they could send to market, lumber and corn, which could sell no where but in the sugar islands, and, with this restriction of Negroes and rum, they could take very little from them in return.

All these and several other inconveniences, in the plan of the settlement, raised a general discontent in the inhabitants; they quarrelled with one another and with their magistrates; they complained; they remonstrated; and, finding no satisfaction, many of them fled out of Georgia, and dispersed themselves

themselves where they deemed the encouragement better, to all the other colonies. So that of above two thousand people, who had transported themselves from Europe, in a little time not about six or seven hundred were to be found in Georgia; so far were they from increasing. The mischief grew worse and worse every day, until the government revoked the grant to the trustees, took the province into their own hands, and annulled all the particular regulations that were made. It was then left exactly on the same footing with Carolina.

Though this step had probably saved the colony from intire ruin, yet it was not perhaps so well done to neglect entirely the first views upon which it was settled. These were undoubtedly judicious; and, if the methods taken to compass them were not so well directed, it was no argument against the designs themselves, but a reason for some change in the instruments designed to put them in execution. Certainly nothing wants a regulation more, than the dangerous inequality in the number of Negroes and Whites, in such of our provinces where the former are used. South Carolina, in spite of its great wealth, is really in a more defenceless condition, than a knot of poor townships, on the frontiers of New England. In Georgia, the first error of absolutely prohibiting the use of Negroes, might be turned to very good account; for they would have received the permission to employ them under what qualifications soever, not as a restriction, but as a favour and indulgence; and by executing whatever regulations we should make in this point with strictness, by degrees we might see a province fit to answer all the ends of defence and traffic too; whereas we have let them use such a latitude in that affair, which we were so earnest to prevent, that Georgia, instead of being any defence to Carolina, does actually stand in need of a considerable force to defend itself.

As for the scheme of vines and silk, we were extremely eager in this respect in the beginning; and very supine ever since. At that time such a design was clearly impracticable; because a few people seated in a wild country must first provide every thing for the support of life, by raising corn and breeding cattle, before they can think of manufactures of any kind; and they must grow numerous enough to spare a number of hands from that most necessary employment, before they can send such things in any degree of cheapness or plenty to a good market. But now there is little said of either of these articles, though the province is longer settled and grown more populous. But the misfortune is, that, though no people upon earth

earth originally conceive things better than the English do, they want the unremitting perseverance which is necessary to bring designs of consequence to perfection. We are apt suddenly to change our measures upon any failure; without sufficiently considering whether the failure has been owing to a fault in the scheme itself; this does not arise from any defect peculiar to our people, for it is the fault of mankind in general, if left to themselves. What is done by us is generally done by the spirit of the people; as far as that can go we advance, but no further. We want political regulations, and a steady plan in government, to remedy the defects that must be in all things, which depend merely on the character and disposition of the people.

At present, Georgia is beginning to emerge, though slowly, out of the difficulties that attended its first establishment. It is still but indifferently peopled, though it is now near thirty years since its first settlement. Not one of our colonies was of so slow a growth, though none had so much of the attention of the government or of the people in general, or raised so great expectations in the beginning. They export some corn and lumber to the West-Indies; they raise some rice, and of late are going with success into indigo. It is not to be doubted but in time, when their internal divisions are a little better composed, the remaining errors in the government corrected, and the people begin to multiply, they will become a useful province.

Georgia has two towns already known in trade; Savanna the capital, which stands very well for business about ten miles from the sea, upon a noble river of the same name, which is navigable two hundred miles further for large boats, to the second town, called Augusta; this stands upon a spot of ground of the greatest fertility, and is so commodiously situated for the Indian trade, that, from the first establishment of the colony, it has been in a very flourishing condition, and maintained very early six hundred Whites in that trade alone. The Indian nations on their borders are the upper and lower Creeks, the Chickesaws, and the Cherokees; who are some of the most numerous and powerful tribes in America. The trade of skins with this people is the largest we have; it takes in that of Georgia, the two Carolinas and Virginia. We deal with them somewhat in furs likewise, but they are of an inferior sort. All species of animals, that bear the fur, by a wise Providence, have it morethick, and of a softer and finer kind, as you go to the northward; the greater the cold, the better they are clad.

N O V A S C O T I A.

THE last province we have settled, as colonists, not as conquerors, upon the continent of North America, is Nova Scotia. This vast province, called by the French Acadie, has New England and the Atlantic ocean to the south and south-west, and the river and gulph of St. Laurence to the north and north-east. It lies between the 44th and 50th degrees of north latitude, and, though in a very favourable part of the temperate zone, has a winter of an almost insupportable length and coldness, continuing at least seven months in the year; to this immediately succeeds, without the intervention of any thing that may be called spring, a summer of an heat as violent as the cold, though of no long continuance; and they are wrapt in the gloom of a perpetual fog, even long after the summer season has commenced. 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 Nova Scotia, which do not yield to the best land in New England.

Unpromising as this country is, yet, neglecting all those delightful tracts to the southward, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made. The French seated themselves here before they made any establishment in Canada; but whatever unaccountable ignorance influenced their choice, the industry and vigour of that time deserve our applause; for, though they had infinitely more difficulties to struggle with than we have at this day, and not the hundredth part of the succours from Europe, yet they subsisted in a tolerable manner, and encreased largely; when the colony which in our days we have fixed there, if the support of the royal hand was withdrawn but for a moment, after all the immense sums which have been expended in its establishment, would undoubtedly sink into nothing. It is with difficulty it subsists, even encouraged and supported as it is. Yet the design of establishing a colony here, with whatever difficulties it might have been attended, was a very prudent measure; for the French would undoubtedly have profited of our neglects, and have by some means got this country into their hands, to the great annoyance of all our colonies, and to the great benefit both of their fishery and their sugar islands.

This country has frequently changed hands from one private proprietor to the other, and from the French to the English nation, backward and forward; until the treaty of Utrecht established our right in it finally; as the treaty of Aix-

la-Chapelle confirmed it. But both were deficient in not ascertaining distinctly what bounds this province ought to have but that has been effectually done by the last treaty of peace, which has confined the whole country in dispute to the English.

The chief town we had formerly in this province, was called Annapolis Royal; but, though the capital, it was a small place, wretchedly fortified, and yet worse built and inhabited. Here were stationed the remains of a regiment, which continued there, very little recruited, since the reign of queen Anne; but though this place never flourished; it stood upon the very best harbour, as it is said, in North America; but it was not here, but on the south-east side of the peninsula, that the settlement, resolved and executed with so much spirit at the end of the last war, was established. This too stands upon a fine harbour, very commodiously situated, and rather better than Annapolis for the fishery. The town is called Halifax from the present earl, to whose wisdom and care we owe this settlement. In 1743, three thousand families, at an immense charge to the government, were transported into this country at once, and (i think) three regiments stationed there to protect them from the Indians, who have always shewed themselves our most implacable enemies. The town is large, and, for so new a settlement, well built. It has a good intrenchment of timber, so strengthened with forts of the same materials, as to be in little danger from an Indian enemy.

Though this town of Halifax has, all things considered, a tolerable appearance, the adjacent country is not improved in proportion; the ground is very hard to be cleared; when cleared does not produce a great deal, and labour is extravagantly dear. But this colony has suffered more from the incursions of the Indians than from any thing else. Their incursions have been so frequent, and attended with such cruelties, that the people can hardly extend themselves beyond the cannon of the fort, nor attend their works of agriculture even there without the greatest danger. The consequence of this is, that they do not raise the fifth part of what is sufficient to maintain them. Most of their provision of every sort comes from New England, and they must have starved if it were not for the fishery, which it must be owned is not contemptible, and for some little naval stores, and the pay of the garrison, the spending of which here is the principal use of the troops; against the Indian enemy they are of very little effect; though there are three regiments, and all the fighting men the Indians can raise in that province are not five hundred. The soldiers, inactive by their confinement in their barracks, diseased for
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the most part with the scurvy, and debilitated by the use of spirituous liquors, are quite an undermatch for the activity, vigilance, patience, and address of the American. A company of wood rangers kept constantly to scour the country near our settlements, and a small body of Indians who might be brought at an easy rate from the friendly tribes who inhabit our other settlements, and encouraged by a reward for what scalps they should bring home, sent to infect the enemy amongst their own habitations, would have protected our colony, and long ago exterminated the Indians, or reduced them to an useful subjection, since unfortunately we have not the secret of gaining their affections. The easy plan I have mentioned would not have had half the expence attending it, that the maintenance of a numerous and almost useles garrison has had. A little experience will shew to the most ordinary understandings, what hardly any sagacity could have without it unveiled to the most penetrating statesman. It was a want of this experience that caused another mistake of almost as bad a nature. Until the beginning of this war, a number of the ancient French colony, some say ten or twelve thousand souls; remained in the country, and were called and treated in a manner as a neutral people, though they ought to have been the king's subjects; but they yielded very little obedience to the crown of England, as in truth they had from us very little protection; and they were even accused of encouraging the Indian incursions, and supplying them with arms and ammunition to annoy our people. Had we erected in their country a little fort, and in it kept a small garrison, to be maintained by that people themselves, appointed magistrates, and made them know the benefit and excellency of the British laws, and, at the same time, impressed them with a dread of the British power, we might have saved many useful people to this colony, and prevented the necessity (if it was a necessity) of using such measures as an humane and generous mind is never constrained to but with regret.

Besides Annapolis and Halifax, we have another settlement a little to the south-west of the latter, called Lunenburg. This is a branch of Germans from Halifax, who, being discontented at the infertility of the soil there, desired to go where there was better land to be had, undertaking their own defence; accordingly they settled where they desired, to the number of seven or eight hundred, and succeed tolerably well. Upon a tumult which arose amongst them, the governor sent a party of soldiers to protect them from their own discords, and from the enemy. This province is yet but in its beginning; and

therefore, except in prospect, can afford us no great subject matter of speculation.

To the east of this province lies the great isle of Newfoundland, above three hundred miles long, and two hundred broad, extending quite up to New Britain, and forming the eastern boundary of the gulph of St. Laurence. This island, after various disputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht. From the soil of this island we are far from reaping any sudden or great advantage; for the cold is long continued and intense; and the summer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the soil, at least in those parts of the island with which we are acquainted (for we are far from knowing the whole,) is rocky and barren. However, it hath many large and safe harbours; and several good rivers water it. This island, whenever the continent shall come to fail of timber convenient to navigation (which perhaps is no very remote prospect) will afford a copious 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, which is carried on upon those shoals which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. In that the French and Spaniards, especially the former, have a large share. Our share of this fishery is computed to increase the national stock by three hundred thousand a year, in gold and silver remitted us for the cod we sell 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 there in abundance; all these species are nearly in an equal plenty all along the shores of New England, Nova Scotia, and the isle of Cape Breton; and consequently excellent fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts. Where our American colonies are so ill peopled or so barren as not to produce any thing from their soil, their coasts make us ample amends; and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, and no way inferior to the former, from their fisheries.

We have in North America, besides this, two clusters of islands; the Bermudas or Summer islands, at a vast distance from the continent in lat. 31, and the Bahama islands. The former were very early settled, and were much celebrated in the time of the civil wars; when, several of the cavalier party being obliged to retire into America, some of them, in particular Mr. Waller, the poet, spent some time in this island. Waller was extremely enamoured with the serenity of the air
and

and the beauty and richness of the vegetable productions of these islands; he celebrated them in a poem, which is fine but unequal, written by him upon this subject.

The Bermudas are but small; not containing in all upwards of twenty thousand acres. They are very difficult of access, being, as Waller expresses it, walled with rocks. What has been said of the clearness and serenity of the air, and of the healthiness of the climate, was not exaggerated; but the soil could never boast of an extraordinary fertility. Their best production was cedar, which was superior to any thing of the kind in America. It is still so, though diminished considerably in quantity, which has, as it is imagined, changed the air much for the worse; for now it is much more inconstant than formerly; and several tender vegetables, which flourished here at the first settlement, being deprived of their shelter and exposed to the bleak northerly winds, are seen no more.

The chief, and indeed the only business of these islanders is the building and navigating of light sloops and brigantines, built with their cedar, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the West Indies. These vessels are as remarkable for their swiftness, as the wood of which they are built is for its hard and durable quality. They export nothing from themselves but some white stone to the West-Indies, and some of their garden productions. To England they send nothing. Formerly they made a good deal of money of a sort of hats for women's wear of the leaves of their palmetto's, which, whilst the fashion lasted, were elegant; but the trade and the fashion are gone together.

Their whites are computed to be about five thousand; the blacks which they breed are the best in America, and as useful as the whites in their navigation. The people of the Bermudas are poor but healthy, contented and remarkably chearful. It is extremely surprising that they do not set themselves heartily to the cultivation of vines in this island, to which their rocky soil seems admirably adapted; and their situation and manner of trade they are already engaged in, would facilitate the distribution of their wine to every part of North America and the West Indies.

The Bahamas are situated to the south of Carolina, from lat. 22 to 27, and they extend along the coast of Florida quite down to the isle of Cuba; and are said to be five hundred in number; some of them only mere rocks; but a great many others large, fertile, and in nothing differing from the soil of

Carolina. All are however absolutely uninhabited, except Providence, which is neither the largest nor the most fertile.

This island was formerly a receptacle for the pirates, who, for a long time, infested the American navigation. This obliged the government to erect a fort there, to station an independent company in the island, and to send thither a governor. This island has at present not much trade, some oranges it sends to North America excepted. However, in time of war, it makes considerably by the prizes condemned here; and, in time of peace, by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of innumerable rocks and shelves.

This is all the benefit we derive from so many large and fertile islands, situated in such a climate as will produce any thing, and which, as it is never reached by any frosts, would yield in all probability even sugars of as good a sort, and in as great abundance, as any islands in the West-Indies. Nothing more fully shews the present want of that spirit of adventure and enterprize, which was so common in the two last centuries, and which is of such infinite honour and advantage to any time or nation, than that these islands so situated can lie unoccupied, whilst we complain of the want of land proper for sugar, and whilst an hundred pounds an acre is sometimes paid for such in the Caribbees. This point, to any who will be at the pains of studying the situation of these islands, and the consequences which may result from the improvement or neglect of them, will appear of no small importance: and perhaps an enquiry into the causes of the strange degree of backwardness in which they are at present, may be a very prudent and perhaps a necessary measure.

H U D S O N's B A Y.

THE countries about Hudson's and Baffin's Bay make the last object of our speculation in America. The knowledge of these seas was owing to a project for the discovery of a north-west passage to China. So early as the year 1576, this noble design was conceived; since then, it has been frequently dropped; it has often been revived; it is not yet completed; but was never despaired of by those whose knowledge and spirit make them competent judges and lovers of such undertakings. Frobisher only discovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to
which

which he has given his name. In 1585, John David failed from Dartmouth, 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, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees twenty-three minutes into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardor for the discovery not being abated by the difficulties he struggled with in this empire of winter and world of frost and snow, he staid here until the ensuing spring, and prepared in the beginning of 1611 to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized upon him and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the seas in an open boat. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhospitable coast which they water, were destroyed by the savages; but his fate so calamitous cannot so much discourage a generous mind from such undertakings, as the immortality of his name, which he has secured by having given it to so great a sea, will be a spur to others to expect an equal honour, and perhaps with better success.

From the first voyage of Frobisher, an hundred and ten years ago, to that of captain Ellis, notwithstanding so many disappointments, the rational hopes of this grand discovery have grown greater by every attempt, and seem to spring even out of our very failures. The greater swell of the tides in the inner part of the bay than near the straits, an appearance so unknown in any other inland seas, and the increase of this swell with westerly winds, seem, without any other arguments, to evince the certain existence of such a passage as we have so long sought without success.

But though we have hitherto failed in the original purpose for which we navigated this bay, yet such great designs, even in their failures, bestow a sufficient reward for whatever has been expended upon them. In 1670, the charter was granted to a company for the exclusive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever since with great benefit to the private men who compose the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. It is true, that their trade in beavers and other species of furs is not inconsiderable, and it is a trade in itself of the best kind; its object enters largely into our manufactures, and carries nothing but our manufac-

tures from us to procure it; and thus it has the qualities of the most advantageous kinds of traffic. The company has besides pretty large returns in beaver and deer skins. It is said that the dividends of this company are prodigiously far exceeding what is gained in any of the other great trading bodies; yet their capital is small, they seem little inclined to enlarge their bottom, and appear strongly possessed with that jealousy that prevails in some degree in all knots and societies of men endued with peculiar privileges. The officers of the company have behaved to those who wintered within their jurisdiction in search of the north-west passage (one of the purposes for which the company itself was originally instituted) in such a manner as to give us the truest idea of this spirit. If I had been singular in this opinion, I should have expressed my sentiments with much greater diffidence; but this abuse has been often and loudly complained of. It would appear astonishing that this trade has not hitherto been laid open, if, in the perplexing multiplicity of affairs that engages our ministry, something must not necessarily pass unredressed.

The vast countries which surround this Bay all abound with animals, whose fur is excellent, and some of kinds which are not yet brought into commerce; and the company is very far from any attempt to stretch this trade to its full extent. If the trade were laid open, it seems of necessity that three capital advantages would ensue: first, that the trade going into a number of rival hands, with a more moderate profit to individuals, would consume a much greater quantity of our manufactures, employ more of our shipping and seamen, and of course bring home more furs; and, by lowering the price of that commodity at home, increase the demand of those manufactures into which they enter at the foreign markets: it might bring home other species of furs than those we deal in at present, and thus open new channels of trade, which in commerce is a matter of great consideration. Secondly, this more general intercourse would make the country better known; it would habituate great numbers of our people to it; it would discover the most tolerable parts for a settlement; and thus, instead of a miserable fort or two, time might shew an English colony at Hudson's Bay, which would open the fur trade yet more fully, and increase the vent of our manufactures yet further. Thirdly, this more general trade on the Bay would naturally, without any new expence or trouble whatsoever, in a very short space of time, discover to us the so much desired north-west passage, or shew us clearly and definitely that we ought to expect no such thing.

thing. These advantages, and even yet more considerable ones, would be derived from laying open this trade, under such proper regulations as the nature of the object would point out of itself.

No colony has been hitherto attempted at Hudson's Bay. And till of late the whole fur trade of North America was in a great measure carried on from thence; but since Canada has been ceded to the English, and that we have communication to the interior parts of that extensive country by the river St. Laurence, a large trade is now driven from thence. However still the company has two inconsiderable forts there. The country is every where barren; to the northward of the bay even the hardy pine tree is seen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth is incapable of any better production than some miserable shrubs. The winter reigns with an inconceivable rigour for near nine months of the year; the other three are violently hot, except when the north-west wind renews the memory of the winter. Every kind of European seed, which we have committed to the earth in this inhospitable climate, has hitherto perished; but, in all probability, we have not tried the seed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway; in such cases, the place from whence the seed comes is of great moment. All this severity and long continuance of winter, and the barrenness of the earth which arises from thence, is experienced, in the latitude of 51; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge. However, it is far from increasing uniformly as you go northwards. Captain James wintered in Charlton island, in latitude 51; he judged that the climate here was to be deemed utterly uninhabitable on account of the surprising hardships which he suffered; yet the company has a fort several degrees more to the northward, where their servants make a shift to subsist tolerably. It is called Fort Nelson, and is in the latitude 54.

All the animals of these countries are cloathed 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 is over, they all assume the livery of winter, and every sort of beasts, and most of their fowls, are of the colour of the snow; every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a surprising phœnomenon. But what is yet more surprising, and what is indeed one of those 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, that have been carried into Hudson's Bay, on the approach of winter have entirely changed their appearance, and acquir

a much longer, softer, and thicker coat of hair than they had originally. As for the men of the country, Providence there, as every where else, has given them no provision but their own art and ingenuity; and they shew a great deal in their manner of kindling a fire, in cloathing 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 savage. In their shapes and faces, they do not resemble the Americans who live to the southward; they are much more like the Laplanders and Samocids of Europe, from whom they are probably descended. The other Americans seem to be of a Tartar original.

Thus much we have had to say concerning these possessions, which have been ours for a long time; but the last treaty of peace, concluded in 1763, hath added still more extensive territories to our dominions than those which we were before in possession of. The French and the Spaniards have in this respect made us considerable cessions. We shall begin with a description of those which till of late belonged to the French, and the extensive province of Canada first demands our notice.

C A N A D A.

THE French possessions in North America originally consisted of an immense inland country, communicating with the sea by the mouths of two great rivers; namely, the Mississippi and the river St. Laurence; both of difficult and dangerous navigation at the entrance; and the latter is quite frozen for almost half the year, and covered with thick exhalations and fogs for the greater part of the rest. These rivers divide this vast country, which had our colonies on the east and north-east, the Spanish on the south-west and south-east, and to the westward that unknown tract of land which stretches to the South-sea, into two great provinces; the northern of which, now subject unto us, is called Canada; and the southern, still in possession of the French, they call Louifiana.

Canada, which borders upon Nova Scotia, New-England, and New York, is of a climate not altogether different from theirs; but as it is much further from the sea, and more northerly than a great part of those provinces, it has a much severer winter; though the air is generally clear. The soil is various; mostly barren; but the French have settlements where the land is equal in goodness to that in any of our colonies, and wants nothing but a better convenience of market

to make it equally advantageous to the proprietors. It yields Indian corn very well in most parts, and very fine wheat in some. All sorts of garden stuff which grows in Europe flourishes here. But they have hitherto raised no staple commodity to answer any great demands. Their trade with the Indians produces all their returns for that market. They are the furs of the beaver principally, and those of foxes and racoons, with deer-skins, and all the branches of the peltry. These, with what corn and lumber they send to the West-Indies, to a people not very luxurious nor extremely numerous, as the American inhabitants are, furnish, though very little money, yet wherewithall, in a plentiful country, to render life easy and agreeable.

The nature of the climate is severely cold for the most part, and the people manufacturing nothing, shews what the country wants from Europe; wine, brandy, cloths, chiefly coarse linnen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires brandy, tobacco, a sort of duffil blankets, guns, powder and ball, kettles, hatchets, and tomahawks, with several toys and trinkets. The Indians supply the peltry, and the French have had traders, whom they called *coureurs de bois*, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traversing the vast lakes and rivers that divide this country, in canoes of bark, with incredible industry and patience, carry their goods into the remotest parts of America, and amongst nations entirely unknown to us. This again brings the market home to them, as the Indians are hereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpose, people from all parts, even from the distance of a thousand miles, come to the French fair of Mont-Real, which is held in June. On this occasion many solemnities are observed; guards are placed, and the governor assists, to preserve order in such a concourse of so great a variety of savage nations.

Having mentioned Mont-Real, I have only to observe, that this town is situated in an island in the river St. Laurence. This island lies in a very favourable climate, and is well inhabited and well planted. The city, which is sometimes called Mont-Real, sometimes *Ville Marie*, is agreeably situated on a branch of the river St. Laurence; it forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well-cut streets; it contains three convents, with handsome churches, and an hospital for the sick. The fortifications are pretty good. The inhabitants are said to be about five thousand. The river is only navigable hither by canoes, or small craft, having several falls between this town and Quebec. Yet the Indian fair,

and the trade of the same kind which they drive more or less for the whole year, make it no inconsiderable place.

Quebec, the capital, lies much nearer to the sea; from which, however, it is one hundred and fifty leagues distant. The river, which from the sea hither is ten or twelve miles broad, narrows all of a sudden to about a mile wide. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houses in both are of stone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are strong, though not regular; but its situation on a rock, washed by the river St. Laurence, is its chief defence, and renders it almost impregnable if well defended. The city is a bishopric; and the English still allow of a popish bishop, for the benefit of the French inhabitants of the country; but the cathedral is mean, and unworthy the capital of New-France. The episcopal palace is however a building of a good appearance. Here is likewise a college of Jesuits, not inelegant; two convents and two hospitals. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor resides. The city, though the capital of Canada, is however not very large. It contains about seven or eight thousand inhabitants at the utmost. Ships of the greatest burthen load and unload here, and a good many are built.

From Quebec to Mont-Real, which is about one hundred and fifty miles distance, the country on both sides the river is very well settled, and has an agreeable effect upon the eye. The farms lie pretty close all the way; several gentlemen's houses, neatly built, shew themselves at intervals; and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are no towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well-settled parts of our colonies of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themselves.

With all the attention of the court of France, to the trade and peopling of this colony, they were not able thoroughly to overcome the consequences of those difficulties which the climate, whilst the place was unsettled, threw in their way; their losses in the wars with that brave and fierce nation the Iroquois, who more than once reduced their colony to the last extremity, and the bad navigation of the river St. Laurence, which is an evil incurable, have kept back the colony. Therefore, though it is the oldest of all the French establishments, and prior to our settlement of New-England, the inhabitants are not above one hundred thousand souls.

The great river St. Laurence is that only upon which there are settlements of any note; but if we look forward into futurity, it is nothing improbable that this vast country, who-
ever

ever then shall be the possessors of it, will be enabled of itself to carry on a vast trade upon these great seas of fresh water which it environs. Here are five lakes, the smallest of which is a piece of sweet water greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not less than two hundred leagues in circumference; Erie, longer but not so broad, is about the same extent. That of the Hurons spreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not less than three hundred; as is that of Michigan, though, like lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains several large islands, is five hundred leagues in the circuit. All of these are navigable by any vessels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by the stupendous cataract of Niagara, where the water tumbles down a precipice of twenty-six fathom high, and makes in this fall a thundering noise, which is heard all round the country at the distance of several miles. The river St. Laurence is the outlet of these lakes; by this they discharge themselves into the ocean. The French have 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 St. Laurence. By these they expected effectually to secure to themselves the trade of the lakes, and an influence upon all the nations of Americans which confine upon them.

They also had one settlement more in the northern part of their territories in America which has fallen into our power, and which deserves consideration. That settlement, though but a small one, was perhaps of more consequence than all the rest. Namely, the island of Cape Breton. This island properly belongs to the division of Acadia or Nova Scotia, and is about one hundred and forty miles in length, full of mountains and lakes, and intersected by a vast number of creeks and bays, almost meeting each other on every side; which seems in general, both for the coast and inland, very much to resemble the coast and inland parts of most northern countries. Scotland is so; so is Ireland; and Denmark and Sweden have such shores, such mountains, and such lakes. However, the soil is in many places sufficiently fruitful; and in every part abounds with timber fit for all uses. In the earth are coal-pits; and on the shores one of the most valuable fisheries in the world. The only town in this island was Louisbourg now an heap of ruins. It stood upon one of the finest harbours in all America. This harbour is four leagues in circumference, landlocked every way but at the mouth,
which

which is narrow; and within there is fine anchorage every where in seven fathom water. The town itself was of a tolerable size, and well built and fortified. The harbour is open the whole year. The French ships that carried goods to Quebec very seldom got their full loading there; therefore on their return they put into Louisbourg, and there took in a quantity of fish, coal, and some lumber, and then sailed away to the French islands in the West-Indies, where they vended these, and soon compleated their cargo with sugars. It is needless to observe that this island was taken by us in the late war, and finally ceded to us by the last treaty of peace.

F L O R I D A.

LEAVING the northern acquisitions which we have lately gained in America, and proceeding to the south the extensive country of Florida comes next in view. It is usually divided into East and West Florida, from the different aspects of the coasts which are the ports chiefly inhabited by Europeans.

East-Florida, the most southern colony upon the continent of British America, lies between the twenty-fifth and thirty-first degree of north latitude.

By the king's proclamation, dated the seventh of October, 1763, its boundaries were fixed on the north by the river St. Mary's, on the east by the Atlantic ocean and the gulph of Florida, and on the west by the river Apalachicola and the gulph of Mexico.

Its length from north to south is three hundred and fifty miles. Its breadth from the mouth of St. Mary's river, its northern limits, to the river Apalachicola is about two hundred and forty.

At the mouth of St. Juan's river, forty miles south of St. Mary's, where the peninsula begins, it is one hundred and eighty miles broad; and grows narrower from thence to the capes of Florida, where its breadth may be between thirty and forty miles. It contains, upon the nearest calculation, about twelve millions of acres, which is nearly as much as Ireland.

The sea coast of East-Florida is a low flat country, intersected by a great number of rivers, very like Holland, or Surinam in America. It continues flat for about forty miles from the coast, and then grows a little hilly, and in some parts rocky.

Florida

Florida differs materially from the rest of America in this, that almost all the continent besides is covered with a thick forest; whereas the trees in Florida are at a distance from one another, and being clear of under-wood, this country has more the appearance of an open grove than a forest.

The rains and the heavy dews, which are more frequent here than to the northward, create such a luxuriant vegetation, that the surface of the earth, notwithstanding the heat of the sun, is never without a good verdure.

A country so extensive as this cannot but have a variety of soil: the sandy is the most prevalent, especially towards the sea.

There are generally four strata or beds of earth found in East-Florida: the uppermost is a mould of earth, a few inches thick; beneath is a sand half a yard in depth; below that a strong white clay, resembling the marle in England, and may be used as manure to the sandy land; this stratum is commonly four feet thick: the fourth layer is a rock composed of petrified sea shells. The fertility of Florida is much ascribed to these two strata of clay and rock, which contribute to keep the sand moist, and prevent the rains from sinking away from the roots of the plants and trees.

In the interior parts the trees are larger, the grass higher and the cattle bigger, than toward the sea, especially in that part of the peninsula which lies betwixt the river St. Juan's, and the fort of St. Mark d'Apalachie, which is about one hundred and fifty miles to the north-west of this river.

To take a view of the eastern shore of Florida, beginning from the north, we meet the river St. Mary's, lying in the thirtieth degree forty-seven latitude: it is a mile broad at its mouth, where Amelia island is situated; it has five fathom water upon the bar at low water, is navigable above sixty miles, where it has three fathom water. It is the best harbour from the capes of Virginia to those of Florida; it takes its rise out of the great swamp*, called by the Indians Owaqua-phè no-gaw. The lands upon the banks of this river are the richest in the northern parts of the province; the abundance of cane-swamps sufficiently shews the fertility thereof. The best trees, that grow in the swamps on this river, are the live oak and cedar, very useful for ship-build-

* The word swamp is peculiar to America; it there signifies a tract of land that is sound and good, but by lying low is covered with water. All the forest trees (pines excepted) thrive best in the swamps, where the soil is always rich; and when cleared and drained is proper for the growth of rice, hemp, and indigo.

ing; their extraordinary size is a strong mark of the goodness of the soil. A colony of Bermudians is soon expected to settle upon this river, and the Amelia island.

St. Juan's, now called St. John's river, lies forty miles southward of St. Mary's; the tract of land between them consists of plains covered with pines; these plains are called in America, pine-barrens, or highlands, in contradistinction to the swamps and lowlands.

We find a striking difference betwixt the pine-barrens of Florida, and those to the northward; the pine-barrens to the northward, from the poverty of the soil, do not answer the necessary expence of clearing. The closeness of the trees hinders the grass from growing under them, so that large tracts of land are no further useful than to make pitch and tar: whereas in Florida, as the trees stand at a greater distance, and both the rains and dews are more frequent than to the northward, the pine-barrens are covered with good grass of a perpetual verdure.

In passing through this part of Florida, we find those plains frequently divided by the swamps above-mentioned; which being full of forest-trees diversify the aspect of the country, as they form so many thick woods.

The swamps are from half a mile to a mile broad, and from two to five miles long; the depth of the water is various, but is such that in travelling they are usually rode through without much difficulty.

From St. John's river southwards to St. Augustine is forty-five miles; the country is much the same as has been just described, but not quite so good, the swamps being neither so frequent nor so large.

Before we speak of St. Augustine, it will be proper to take some notice of the river St. John's, the principal river of this province in point of utility and beauty, and not inferior to any in America. The source of this river, which is not exactly ascertained, is in all probability near the capes of Florida; it passes through five lakes, the lowest of them is called by the Indians the great lake; it is twenty miles long and fifteen broad, and has eight feet water; there are several islands in it, and it is now called lake George; it is one hundred and seventy miles from the mouth of the river. In going down from hence, the first European habitation is Mr. Spalding's, an Indian trader's store-house: fifteen miles lower is Mr. Rolle's settlement; the whole distance from the lake to Mr. Rolle's is forty-five miles, and the country between the best discovered yet upon the river. The tropical fruits and plants

are

are found in great abundance, and afford the strongest evidence that both the soil and climate are fit for sugar, cotton, indigo, and other West-India productions. Mr. Rolle's plantation is well situated on the eastern banks, and is the most considerable upon this river, which is here very narrow; twenty-five miles from Mr. Rolle's, downward, is Piccolata, a small fort with a garrison. The river is here three miles broad.

The bar at low water is nine feet deep, its channel up to lake George is much deeper; the breadth is very unequal, from a quarter of a mile to three miles. The tide rises at the bar from five to eight feet, and two feet at Mr. Rolle's, though one hundred and twenty-five miles from the sea. There are neither shallows nor any rapidity in the river; the current, owing to the flatness of the country, is very gentle, and vessels may go up the river almost as easy as down, for two hundred miles; there is perhaps no river in the world more commodious for navigation.

St. Mark's river takes its rise near the mouth of St. John's river, runs from north to south parallel with the sea, till it empties itself into the harbour of St. Augustine: from the flatness of the country, there are many salt marshes on both sides of the river, almost up to its source; these marshes may be easily defended from the tides, and will make very rich lands, either for rice, indigo, or hemp.

We come now to the harbour of St. Augustine, which would be one of the best in America, were it not for its bar, which will not admit vessels of great burden, as it has but eight feet water*. The bar is surrounded by breakers, that have a formidable appearance when you enter it; but is not so dangerous as it appears, on account of the bar being very short: since the government has appointed a good pilot, no vessels have been lost upon it. There is a road on the north side of the bar, with good anchorage, for such ships as draw too much water to go into the harbour.

A neck of the main land to the north, and a point of Anastasia island to the south, form the entrance of the port. Opposite to the entrance lies Port St. Mark's, so called from the river it lies upon. This fort is a regular quadrangle, with four bastions, a ditch fifty feet wide, with a covert-way, places of arms, and a glacis: the entrance of the gate is defended by a

* It is necessary to observe, that the depth of the bars of the harbours on the eastern shore of East-Florida, cannot be exactly ascertained, as the tides there are chiefly regulated by the winds; a strong westerly wind will make but six feet, and an easterly wind twelve feet water upon the bar of St. Augustine, at low water.

raveline; it is a case-mated all round, and bomb-proof: the works are entirely of hewn stone, and being finished according to the modern taste of military architecture, it makes a very handsome appearance, and may be justly deemed the prettiest fort in the king's dominions.

The town of St. Augustine is situated near the glacis of the fort, on the west side of the harbour; it is an oblong square; the streets are regularly laid out, and intersect each other at right angles; they are built narrow on purpose to afford shade. The town is above half a mile in length, regularly fortified with bastions, half-bastions, and a ditch; besides these works it has another sort of fortification, very singular, but well adapted against the enemy the Spaniards had most to fear: it consists of several rows of palmetto trees, planted very close along the ditch, up to the parapet; their pointed leaves are so many chevaux de frize, that make it entirely impenetrable; the two southern bastions are built of stone. In the middle of the town is a spacious square called The Parade, open towards the harbour: at the bottom of this square is the governor's house, the apartments of which are spacious and suited to the climate, with high windows, a balcony in front, and galleries on both sides; to the back part of the house is joined a tower, called in America A Look-Out, from which there is an extensive prospect towards the sea, as well as inland. There are two churches within the walls of the town, the parish church a plain building, and another belonging to the convent of Franciscan friars, which is converted into barracks for the garrison. The houses are built of free-stone, commonly two stories high, two rooms upon a floor, with large windows and balconies: before the entry of most of the houses runs a portico of stone arches; the roofs are commonly flat. The Spaniards consulted conveniency more than taste in their buildings; the number of houses in the Spaniards time, in the town, and within the lines, was above nine hundred. Many of them, especially in the suburbs, being built of wood or palmetto leaves, are now gone to decay. The inhabitants of all colours, white, negroes, mulattos, Indians, &c. at the vacuation of St. Augustine, amounted to five thousand seven hundred, the garrison included, consisting of two thousand five hundred men. Half a mile from the town, to the west, is a line with a broad ditch and bastions, running from St. Sebastian's creek to St. Mark's river: a mile further is another fortified line, with some redoubts, forming a second communication between a stoccata fort upon St. Sebastians river, and fort Mosa upon the river St. Mark's,

Within

Within the first line, near the town, was a small settlement of Germans, who had a church of their own. Upon St. Mark's river, within the same line, was also an Indian town, with a church built of freestone. The steeple is of good workmanship and taste, though built by the Indians: the lands belonging to this township, the governor has given as glebe-land to the parish church.

The land about Augustine, in all appearance the worst in the province, is yet 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.

Opposite to the town of St. Augustine, lies the island of Anastasia. This island is about twenty-five miles in length, and divided from the main land by a narrow channel, called Matanza river, though, in reality, an arm of the sea: the soil is but indifferent; at present it is used for pasturage; but having some creeks and swamps in several parts, may in time be cultivated to advantage.

At the north end of this island is a watch-tower, or look-out, built of white stone, which serves also as a land-mark for vessels at sea. At the approach of any vessels, signals are made from this tower to the fort; a few soldiers do duty there on that account. A quarry of whitish stone is opposite to Augustine, of which the fort and houses are built: stone quarries are very rare in the southern parts of America, which makes this of Anastasia the more valuable; the stone is manifestly a concretion of small shells petrified; it is soft under ground, but becomes very hard and durable by being exposed to the air,

Going southwards from Augustine, at the distance of a mile and a half, we come to St. Sebastian's creek. This stream takes its rise five miles north of Augustine, and after making a sweep to the west, empties itself into the sea at this place: near the mouths of this creek are extensive salt-water marshes, overflowed at high tides, which may be easily taken in; higher inland are fine swamps.

We come next to Wood-cutters creek, which rises fifteen miles north of Augustine, and, after describing a semicircle to the west, much like Sebastian's creek, but with a larger sweep, empties itself into the sea, six miles below Augustine; the lands upon this creek consist of very good swamps and highlands.

At the Matanzas, fifteen miles south of Wood-cutters creek, is a small fort and harbour, fit for coasting vessels. The harbour is opposite the south point of Anastasia island, where there is a second watch-tower. The soil between Wood-cutters creek and the Matanzas is tolerably good, on account of several creeks and swamps.

From the Matanzas we come to Hallifax river, which, like St. Marks above-mentioned, runs parallel to the sea, and is separated from it only by a sandy beach, in some parts a mile, in others two miles broad. This beach or bank seems to be formed by the sands; which, either by hurricanes, or in a course of ages, have been washed up by the sea. The source of this river, though certainly not very far from St. John's river, is not as yet well ascertained: before it reaches Musquitto inlet, Tomoko river falls into it. This river runs from west to east; and from it to St. John's is only four miles land-carriage.

From the Matanzas to Musquitto inlet is forty miles: at this place, Hillsborough river, coming from the south, and Hallifax river from the north, meet, and are both discharged here into the sea: the bar of this harbour has eight feet at low water.

I do not know any country besides East-Florida, where rivers have been observed to run parallel to the sea, where two streams, as those last mentioned, meet each other from direct opposite quarters; and what is still more remarkable, where two rivers, as the Hallifax, and St. John's, at so small a distance, flow different ways, the streams of which run parallel to each other, one to the south, the other to the north.

About Musquitto inlet the country is low, and chiefly salt-marsh; what highland there is, is covered with cabbage-trees, papaw-tree, and other tropic plants, which shews that West-India commodities may be raised here. The western banks of Hallifax and Hillsborough rivers contain a great deal of excellent land; the many orange groves, (which denote former Spanish settlements) and the frequent remains of Indian towns, shews that they have been once well inhabited. We are as yet unacquainted with the sources of most of the rivers in East-Florida, and particularly that of Hillsborough river; it is generally believed to have a communication with an Indian inlet, called by the Spaniards Rio Days, sixty miles to the south, where there is such another harbour as Musquitto, with eight feet water; it is said to communicate with St. John's river.

Between

Between Indian river, and the capes of Florida, are several rivers and harbours; but as they are not as yet actually surveyed, it would be presumption in me, to impose the reports of the Indians upon the public as certain truth. We may consider the southern parts of the peninsula, and the western coast (the bay of Tampa excepted) as terra incognita, till the surveyor-general of the southern district of America, has completed the actual survey of the coast and rivers.

The climate of East-Florida is an exceeding agreeable medium betwixt the scorching heat of the tropics, and the pinching cold of the northern latitudes. All America, to the north of the river Potomak, is greatly incommoded by the severities of the weather for two or three months in the winter: in East-Florida there is indeed a change of the seasons, but it is a moderate one; in November and December many trees lose their leaves, vegetation goes on slowly, and the winter is perceived. In the northern parts of the province a slight frost happened last year, the first known there in the memory of man: I do not find upon enquiry, that snow has ever been seen there; the winters are so mild, that the Spaniards at Augustine had neither chimneys in their houses, nor glass windows. The tenderest plants of the West-Indies, such as the plantain, the allegator pear-tree, the banana, the pine-apple or ananas, the sugar-cane, &c. remain unhurt during the winter, in the gardens of St. Augustine.

The fogs and dark gloomy weather, so common in England, are unknown in this country. At the equinoxes, especially the autumnal, the rains fall very heavy every day, betwixt eleven o'clock in the morning, and four in the afternoon, for some weeks together; when a shower is over, the sky does not continue cloudy, but always clears up, and the sun appears again: the mildness of the seasons, and purity of the air, are probably the cause of the healthiness of this country.

By the best accounts of the first discovery of East-Florida, it appears to have been nearly as full of inhabitants as Peru and Mexico; and these accounts are, in some measure, verified, by the frequent remains we find of Indian towns throughout the peninsula. The natives are described to have been larger, and of a stronger make than the Mexico Indians.

When the Spaniards quitted Augustine, many of them were of a great age, some above ninety: the Spanish women were observed to be more prolific here than in Old Spain, where they are generally accounted but indifferent breeders.

The inhabitants of the Spanish settlements in America consider East-Florida, with respect to its healthiness, in the

same light that we do the south of France; and they looked upon Augustine as the Montpellier of America: the Spaniards, from the Havannah and elsewhere, have frequently resorted thither for the benefit of their health.

Since it came into the hands of Great-Britain, many gentlemen have experienced the happy effects of its climate: Mr. Dunnet, the secretary of the province, and Mr. Wilson, a merchant there, both in a deep consumption, and gentlemen of acknowledged judgment and probity, have ascribed the recovery of their health to the climate.

It is an indisputable fact, which can be proved by the monthly returns of the ninth regiment, in garrison in East-Florida, that it did not lose one single man by natural death in the space of twenty months; and as this regiment does duty in the several forts, at different distances from Augustine, St. Mark's d'Apalachie at two hundred miles, Piccolata thirty, Matanzas twenty, it proves, in the most satisfactory manner, that the climate is healthy in the different parts of the province.

The peninsula of Florida is not broad, and as it lies betwixt two seas, the air is cooler, and oftener refreshed with rains, than on the continent: the entire absence of the sun for eleven hours makes the dews heavy, and gives the earth time to cool; so that the nights in summer are less sultry here than in the north latitude, where the sun shines upon the earth for seventeen or eighteen hours out of the twenty-four. The heat, which in South-Carolina, and in the southern part of Europe, is sometimes intolerable for want of wind, is here mitigated by a never-failing sea-breeze in the day-time, and a land-wind at night.

It is only in and near the tropicks that the sea and land-breezes are at all uniform or to be depended upon.

The white people work in the fields in the heat of the day without prejudice to their health; gentlemen frequently ride out for pleasure in the middle of the day; and governor Grant is regularly on horse-back every day from eleven to three o'clock in the afternoon.

Having already taken notice of the soil and climate, upon which all vegetation depends, I shall now proceed to the vegetable productions of East-Florida.

In no one part of the British dominions is there found so great a variety of trees, plants and shrubs, as in East-Florida; which, I suppose, is intirely owing to the temperature of the climate, in which the productions of the northern and southern latitudes seem to flourish together. Without attempting to
 enumerate

enumerate all the forest-trees, I shall only take notice of such as are most useful.

The white pine grows to a considerable size, and is fit for masts, planks, and other timber for house-building.

The red pine is a heavy wood, full of resin, and most fit for pitch and tar; its bark is of great use for tanning.

The spruce fir here is quite a different tree from that to the northward, but answers the same end for making the spruce beer.

These different sorts of fir demand a sandy soil, that has a clay, or other strong earth beneath it.

The white cedar: of this tree are made boards, shingles, clapboards, and staves for dry casks.

The red cedar is used for posts and boards, the trunk is seldom above fourteen feet high, and the limbs are usually crooked, and very proper for ship-building.

The cypress tree grows to a greater size here than to the northward; and being larger than any other tree, is used for making canoes.

The live oak (so called from being an ever-green) is tougher, and of a better grain than the English oak, and is highly esteemed for ship-building.

The chestnut oak, very little known in other parts of America, is very common in Florida. Its leaf is like that of a horse-chestnut; the acorn it bears is two inches long, and in taste like a chestnut: it affords excellent mast for hogs, and is an exceeding good timber.

Mahogany grows only in the southern and interior parts of the peninsula; it is in size and quality inferior to the Jamaica, but good enough to become an article of trade: the wood-cutters from Providence, one of the Bahama islands, come to East-Florida to cut mahogany, and carry it off clandestinely.

Red bays: this tree seems a bastard mahogany, and is not yet known in Europe; it may come into repute in time, when the best of mahogany is become still more scarce.

The walnut, and hiccory (which is a species of walnut) are so common, that they, with the chestnut tree, though beautiful woods, are ordinarily used for fire-wood: they afford good mast for hogs.

Black cherry-tree, is a beautiful wood; the tree is bigger than in Europe, the fruit small and of little use.

Maple: its wood is of a fine variegated grain, fit for cabinet-work. In the spring they tap it, in order to make sugar of its juice.

The ash, locust, and dog-wood-trees are here in abundance, and fit for the mill, or wheel-wrights work, and other ordinary purposes.

The mulberry-tree, both the red and white, are natives of the country; the forests are full of them, and they grow here to a larger size than in any other country.

The leaf of this tree being the food of the silk-worm, and the climate perfectly adapted to that tender insect, I shall, in a proper place, make some observations upon the cultivation of silk.

The fustic and brailetto, useful as dying woods, are likewise found in East-Florida.

Sassafras of Florida was always reckoned the best in America.

Balsam-tree, of the size and with leaves like the sycamore tree in England, yields the true balsam of Tolu.

The magnolia, tulip-laurel, and tupelow-tree, are all beautiful and very ornamental in gardens and pleasure-grounds.

It is observable in America, that though no country has a greater variety of valuable forest-trees, yet there are but very few fruit-trees, natives of the continent, worth mentioning.

All the fruit-trees (an indifferent sort of plumb, and a small black cherry excepted) have been imported from Europe, and thrive exceeding well. In Florida, a stranger cannot help being struck with the luxuriancy of the orange-tree; it is larger in size, and produces greater abundance and better flavoured fruit than in Spain or Portugal: this tree is so well adapted to the climate, that it has spread itself every where, and is so far from a rarity, that the inhabitants, not apprehensive of scarcity, frequently cut down the tree in order to gather the fruit.

The lemons, limes, citrons, pomegranates, figs, apricots, peach, &c. grow here in high perfection.

The myrtle-wax shrub is, without doubt, the most useful and beneficial of the spontaneous growth of America; it is found in all sorts of soil, and in such plenty in East-Florida, that, were there hands enough to gather the berries, they could supply all England with wax: the process of making it is very simple; they bruise the berries, boil them in water, and skim the wax off, which is naturally of a bright green colour, but may be bleached like bees-wax, and, on account of its hardness, is well adapted for candles in hot countries.

Of the opuntia, or prickly pear, are different species in East-Florida; on one sort with a smooth leaf, is the cochineal insect,

insect, found in incredible plenty: of the fruit of the other species, is made a vegetable cochineal, which may be used in ordinary purposes instead of the true cochineal.

The vines, the fenna shrub, sarsaparilla, China-root, wild indigo, water and musk-melons, are indigenous plants of East-Florida.

I cannot omit mentioning a herb of the growth of East-Florida, of which, as yet, very little notice has been taken, notwithstanding the great advantage that may be derived from it: this herb resembles entirely our samphire in England, and is called barilla or kaly; it is the same of which in Spain the pearl-ashes are made, in the manner as the kelp in Scotland; the sea-coast, marshes, and low-lands, overflowed at high tides, are covered with it here in Florida.

There is no animal in this country better worth mentioning than the deer, which is found here in the greatest plenty; the deer-skins are, at present, the only article of exportation of East-Florida.

The buffalo is found in the savannahs, or natural meadows, in the interior parts of East-Florida: the peculiarity of the American buffalo is, that, instead of hair, it is covered with a fine frizzled wool.

The bear in America is considered not as a fierce, carnivorous, but as an useful animal; it feeds in Florida upon grapes, chefnuts, acorns, &c. It is reckoned very good food, especially the bear hams, &c.

The racoon is a species of the bear, but smaller; he is of the size and colour of a badger, and is esteemed very delicate eating.

Hares are very plenty, but not bigger than an English rabbit.

I have mentioned but a few of the most useful of wild animals: if we except the moose-deer and beaver, East-Florida has all the wild animals common to America; though I must acknowledge, that the skins of those of the fur kind are of little value, the climate being too hot for them.

As to the domestic animals, they are, in general, the same that we have in Europe; the horned cattle as big as in England, especially in the inland parts.

The horses are of the Spanish breed, of great spirit, but little strength; they are seldom above fourteen hands high: the Indians here, by mixing the Spanish breed with the Carolina, have excellent horses, both for service and beauty.

From the great plenty of fine mast, the hogs grow here to an uncommon size: and their flesh is fatter and better than in any other country.

Sheep,

Sheep, goats, and capruttos, thrive here very well, but must be secured at night against the wolves and foxes, till the country is better settled.

Florida, on account of its climate, has a great variety of birds; immense numbers migrate thither in winter, to avoid the cold of the northern latitudes. In the woods are plenty of wild turkeys, which are better tasted, as well as larger, than our tame ones in England.

The pheasant is in size like the European, its plumage like that of our partridge. The American partridge is not much bigger than a quail, and seems to be of that species.

The wild pigeons, for three months in the year, are in such plenty here, that an account of them would seem incredible.

All the different sorts of water-fowls belonging to America, (the swan excepted) are found here in the greatest abundance.

The rivers of the southern provinces of North-America abound greatly with fish, but Florida rather more than any other: those mostly made use of, are the bass, mullet, different sorts of rays, and flat-fish, cat-fish, sea-trout, and black-fish.

Of shell-fish, here are several sorts of crabs, prawns, and shrimps, of an extraordinary size.

The oysters are so plentiful here, that nothing is more common than, at low water, to see whole rocks of them.

There are three sorts of sea-turtle common in East-Florida; the logger-head, hawk's-bill, and green-turtle. There are likewise two sorts of land turtle: one of them is amphibious; and the other, not so, is called a terrapin.

If one considers the extent of East-Florida, and the small number of inhabitants it has had these sixty years, since the native Indians were exterminated by the Creeks, one would be apt to think it must of course be over-run with venomous insects and reptiles: several writers who mention Florida, have taken it for granted to be so; amongst others, the gentleman who lately wrote Major Roger's History of North-America, tells us, East-Florida would be a fine country, were it not for the innumerable venomous insects with which it is infested: the fact is quite otherwise; if we except the alligator, East-Florida has fewer insects than any other province in America: during my stay there, I saw but two black snakes; Mr. Rolle, who for eighteen months lived constantly in the woods, has seen but one rattle-snake. If East-Florida is so happy as to have so few venomous creatures, it is not owing to a supernatural or miraculous cause, like the blessings of St.

Patrick upon Ireland, but to a very plain and natural one; which is, that the hunting-parties of the Creek-Indians, who are dispersed through the whole province, continually set the grass on fire, for the conveniency of hunting; by which means, not only the insects but their eggs also are destroyed.

Allegators are here in great number: they never attack men either in the water or upon land; all the mischief they do, is carrying off young pigs from the plantations near the rivers.

There is an insect in East-Florida, not known in other parts of America, which is a large yellow spider; the hind part of his body is bigger than a pigeon's egg, and the rest in proportion; its web is a true yellow silk, so strong as to catch small birds, upon which it feeds: the bite of this spider is attended with a swelling of the part, and great pain, but no danger of life.

A great variety of lizards are found here, some of them very beautiful, changing their colour like the camelion; they are quite a harmless insect.

From the climate of Florida, and the great variety of tropical, as well as northern productions, that are natives of this country, there is reason to expect, that cotton, rice, and indigo, not to mention sugar, will grow here as well as in any part of the globe. The planters from Carolina, that have visited Florida, since it came into our possession, are of opinion, that it is much fitter for the production of rice, even than South-Carolina.

The great peculiarity, and indeed the principal difficulty attending the cultivation of rice, in a proper climate, arises from the necessity of laying the ground where it is sown under water at two stated periods. It is manifest, that not many situations can have this command of water; but from the number of rivers in Florida, and the nature of the country, which approaches to a level without being so, it is easy to discern, that the streams of water can be guided more at pleasure, than if the inequalities of the surface were greater.

Florida is in the same latitude with Bengal and China; where rice grows in greater plenty than any where else in the world; and when the variety of swamps, rivulets, and water-side lands are considered, we may give credit to what a very knowing and eminent planter of Carolina says, who has been up the river St. John's as high as lake George, That the country from that lake to Mr. Rolle's, forty-five miles in length, will, in his opinion, yield as much rice as is produced in all South-Carolina.

Where

Where the soil and climate is proper for rice, there is no grain in the world yields so much profit to a planter.

Since every colony in America seems to have, as it were, a staple commodity peculiar to itself, as, Canada, the fur; Massachusetts-bay, fish; Connecticut, lumber; New-York and Pennsylvania, wheat; Virginia and Maryland, tobacco; North-Carolina, pitch and tar; South-Carolina, rice and indigo; Georgia, rice and silk; I am much disposed to prognosticate, that cotton will, in time, be a staple commodity in Florida.

The cotton shrub is known to thrive best in a light sandy soil, and in a climate that has frequent rains: the pine-barrens, and worst parts of Florida, as well as its climate, are therefore fit for this shrub.

It is needless to say any thing of the utility and importance of cotton as an article of trade; Bengal, and the Coromandel coast, in a great measure, owe their riches to it; the calicoes, chints, muslins, &c. &c. annually imported by the East-India company, and sold at such immense profit, are all made of cotton.

The quantity imported from the West-Indies, notwithstanding the great increase lately made in the produce of it at Tortola, one of the Virgin-islands belonging to Great-Britain, bears but a small proportion to the whole consumption. A great demand has raised the price of the Turkey cotton from five-pence to ten-pence a pound; of the West-India, from nine-pence to two shillings.

The Manchester manufactures are greatly cramped by the scarcity of this commodity, and would be considerably extended should cotton become plentiful in England.

A small bounty upon the growth of it in Florida, might be attended with good effect, and be a wise encouragement of an infant colony.

Mr. Rolle has planted the cotton-tree in Florida, where he has found it thrive so well, as plainly proves the soil and climate is adapted to it.

With respect to the cultivation of silk in Florida, there is not the least doubt of the climate being better adapted to the silk-worm than any country in Europe, or probably in America: silk abounds much more in India, Persia, and China, which are in the latitude of Florida, than in Italy.

A considerable increase has of late been made in the growth of silk in Carolina and Georgia; at Purisburgh, silk is become the staple commodity of the place: this town was settled

about forty years ago, by some natives of Switzerland; it lies thirty miles east of Savannah.

In Carolina and Georgia the worms are often injured by accidental frosts, and cold mornings, in the spring, especially if it is a late one; they are sometimes actually destroyed, and at other times are benumbed and made sickly for want of warmth; this inconvenience is also frequently experienced in Italy: it is almost unnecessary to remark, that the southern situation of Florida has placed it out of the reach of this disaster.

In Georgia there is often a great deal of thunder and lightning in the spring-season, which is apt to affect and injure the silk-worm; whereas, in Florida, where frequent showers refresh the air, and the sea-breezes keep it in constant agitation, the thunder is neither so common or so violent: experience will probably shew, that this country is as much adapted to the silk-worm as to the mulberry-tree, on which it feeds. It has been before observed, that this tree grows in its utmost luxuriance in all parts of Florida.

As no production of the West-Indies affords a planter so much profit as sugar, there is no doubt but sugar will soon be planted in Florida. The sugar-cane grew at Augustine, and in the trustees garden in Savannah in Georgia, in as great perfection as in the West-Indies. We are not however yet, for want of experiments, perfectly informed with what degree of success sugar can be raised in Florida. It is certain the sugar-cane is a tender plant, that requires both a good and a moist soil, as well as a hot climate to bring it to perfection.

The sugar cane is not a native of the West-Indies, as is commonly taken for granted; nor will it grow there without art and cultivation.

The common use of sugar in Europe was introduced by the Portuguese, who transplanted it from the East-Indies into the Madeira islands; the sugar-cane flourished there, and in the Canaries, which are in the latitude of Florida, so well, that all Europe was supplied from thence with sugar.

The loaf-sugar at this day, in Germany, is called Canary-sugar. Sugar is plentiful and common in Egypt, in parts further from the tropic than Florida. Pliny, the elder, makes it the produce of Arabia and India.

In the neighbourhood of Malaga, sugar used to be raised in great abundance, and it is grown in some parts of Spain at this day. The south of Spain is ten degrees north of the capes of Florida. The plantane-tree and allegator pear, the tenderest of the tropical plants, are in full perfection at Augustine.

As both the soil and climate of East-Florida seem fit for sugar, one cannot reasonably doubt, but the cultivation of it will be attended with success; and if in some respects Florida be found inferior to the West-Indies, which I do not expect, it has in other respects the advantage of them.

The stock of a sugar planter is not only procured, but supported at a vast expence; the excessive price of labour in the West-Indies, arising from the unhealthiness of the climate, and the dearness of the necessaries of life, virtually amounts to a tax upon the sugar planter; for not only all kind of cloathing, but provisions too, must be imported from Europe, and the northern plantations.

The materials for building, all the lumber required to erect and repair the sugar works, must be fetched from the continent: in Florida they are found upon the spot. In the islands, the wages of a carpenter, mason, &c. run up as high as ten shillings a day; the natural plenty in Florida will make labour there comparatively cheap.

The overseer, and other white servants, will, beyond all question, be hired much cheaper in a plentiful and good climate, than in a scarce and sickly one.

Not only overseers and servants will be had at a reasonable price, but horses, cows, and oxen, may be purchased at less than one sixth of the price they bear in the West-Indies. Mules and horses are there sold from twenty to thirty pound a-piece: a serviceable horse in Florida may be had for four pound. The price of an ox is no more than three pound in Florida. It is not only the prime cost of the stock that differs so much in the two countries, but the expence of maintaining it bears the same comparative difference; grass and fodder for the cattle, and corn and flesh-meat for the servants, are very scarce in the islands, and very plentiful in Florida.

When the sugar is made, it is often necessary, in the West-Indies, to carry it at a great expence by land, a considerable distance to the shipping-places: this expence will be saved in Florida, where a planter will be sure to make his plantation on the side of a navigable river.

In Florida the lands are not sold, as in the ceded islands, but given upon conditions, which interest leads the grantee to perform; and the reservation made to the crown is only a halfpenny an acre, after the end of three, five, or ten years, which is regulated by the extent of the grants.

It often happens in the West-Indies, as it did last year, that when the ground is prepared, and the cane planted, the rains or seasons as they are called, fail; as often as this is the case,

case, the crop is ruined by drought—a misfortune which is not to be apprehended in Florida.

Both the soil and climate of East-Florida seem to suit this plant; the Spaniards planted some of the guatemala indigo in their gardens at Augustine, where I have seen, in a poor, sandy soil, indigo plants of a larger size, and in a more luxuriant state, than ever I saw in South-Carolina in the richest and best cultivated lands: I was informed the Spaniards cut it four times a year.

This grain is the common food in America; the Spaniards being confined within the lines of Augustine, used to raise two crops a year upon the same ground; which I mention rather as a mark of the fertility of the soil, than of the good husbandry of the Spaniards: it grows here in almost every soil.

The large bounties granted by parliament, and the considerable premiums by the society of arts and sciences, will induce some of the new settlers to cultivate hemp; it requires a fresh, strong, moist soil: the swamps, after being cleared and drained for rice, are fittest to be sown with hemp for the first and second year.

It is not at all doubtful whether the vine will flourish in Florida, because it grows there, and in almost all parts of America, south of Delaware, in great plenty. The wild grapes of America are of little worth, they usually run up the trees of the forests, where they are too much shaded, and for want of cultivation, of no value.

The dearness of labour, and the cheapness of foreign wines in America, have both contributed to prevent the planting of vineyards more frequently. The French refugees planted some in South-Carolina, and I have drank a red wine of the growth of that province little inferior to burgundy.

When it is observed that the richest wines are produced in the islands of Madeira and the Canaries, in the island of Cyprus, and in other parts of the Levant, lying nearly in the latitude of East-Florida; it will, probably, not be owing to any defect either in soil or climate, but to the dearness of labour, or negligence of the inhabitants, if wine is not produced hereafter in some plenty upon this continent.

Currants, raisins, figs, and olives, will most probably thrive here whenever they are planted.

Having finished what I had to say of the country of East-Florida, I must, before I conclude, add one word more upon the subject of procuring inhabitants for it.

The government has acted agreeably to the wise and masculine spirit of its policy, in laying the new foundation of
 • several

several extensive colonies. Civil as well as military establishments have been provided these three years for the two Florida's, at an expence of near 100,000*l.* a year; but still the inhabitants of both of them put together, (soldiers and savages excepted) would make but a thin congregation in a small parish-church.

If the government resolves not to stir one step further, it has gone already a great deal too far; Florida, without inhabitants, is so much worse than nothing, that Great-Britain loses near 100,000*l.* a year by it.

Governments, garrisons, establishments civil and military, without inhabitants, or any measures taken to procure them, seems something strange. It is very unusual to take all the measures requisite to a particular end but one, and to neglect a single one, which being omitted, renders all the rest abortive.

If a farmer should purchase an estate, hire servants, prepare the ground for sowing, have the seed-corn ready, and still save the expence of putting it in the ground, his neighbours would laugh heartily at him. Rice, cotton, and indigo, will grow in East-Florida, whenever they are put in the ground, but they will not grow without. We must not expect, because a country is a good one, that it therefore will work miracles, and without so much as sowing the teeth of Cadmus's serpent * of itself produce the human species.

If East-Florida settles itself, which it is left to do, it will be the first colony on the continent that ever did so: the fact, as far as experience goes, overturns the theory.

Notwithstanding every wise and generous measure is taken by governor Grant for the good of East-Florida, yet his proclamation to invite new settlers, dated the first of October, 1764, has not been hitherto attended with any visible effect. When we consider the amount of the present establishments for that country, it seems to be bad œconomy to stay for years, in order to see whether Florida will settle itself or not. None of the American provinces are so well peopled, as to spare inhabitants; and were any of the inhabitants to the northward disposed to go to Florida, it is, with respect to the migration of families, quite inaccessible by land, for want of roads, and ferrys to pass the several large rivers; and such inhabitants as may be willing to seek a new habitation, cannot afford the expence of conveying themselves and families by sea.

Neither is Florida likely to be settled by inhabitants from Europe, unless the government will defray the expences, and

* Ovid. iv. *Metam.*

pay the passage, for men who have neither money nor credit, to convey themselves thither. Will any many man go from Europe to Florida at his own expence; when he can go to South-Carolina passage free, and have lands given him when he gets there, without any expence; and besides this, be supplied with necessaries and provision for a twelvemonth? South-Carolina, though settled above a century, is still at an expence of 4000l. a year, as a bounty given upon the importation of foreign protestants*: we ought to follow their example and not content ourselves with the name only of governments and colonies.

Should the parliament of Great-Britain give only the same bounty that Carolina gives, East-Florida would stand a chance at least, of becoming inhabited; the healthiness and fertility of this country will be known by degrees; and I do not doubt, but foreigners may be induced to go thither upon the same terms they are tempted to go to other colonies. I believe several persons of note intend to apply for grants of land in East-Florida, with a view of raising sugar, or other articles there, by the help of negroes; and it is also true, that the condition of each grant, requires the having one white

* By foreign settlers is to be understood, 1. Germans from the Rhine, Moselle, and other parts, where they cultivate vineyards. 2. Protestants from the southern provinces of France, used to the culture of silk, olives, vines, &c. 3. Inhabitants of the islands of Greece, and the Archipelago; they are a very sober, industrious people, well skilled in the cultivation of cotton, vines, raisins, currants, olives, almonds, and silk worms: the soil and climate of East-Florida is adapted to every one of these articles.

Without doubt, many of my readers, especially those unacquainted with America, will be apt to ask, why should we make choice of foreigners, and not of our own subjects? To which I would answer, "that these foreigners, when settled in an English colony, are no longer foreigners, but subjects to Great-Britain." It would be very impolitic to encourage, or so much as to countenance the emigration of industrious husbandmen, and useful manufacturers; and those which are either chargeable, or useless to the public here in England, will be much more so in a new colony; besides, experience convinces us, that foreigners are the fittest people to settle America. The provinces of Pennsylvania, New-York, and New-Jersey, chiefly inhabited by Germans, and Dutch, are the best peopled, and the most wealthy upon the continent, notwithstanding the little value their produce is of, in comparison to the southern colonies: and it is undoubtedly true, that the flourishing state America is in, is chiefly owing to the continual importation of foreign settlers.

inhabitant to one hundred acres of land; but it is surely impolitic, to make the actual settling of new colonies depend upon a slight and precarious foundation, without assisting the laudable designs of those who apply for grants, and seconding their views, by promoting the importation of foreign protestants, to supply them with cheap servants, and useful labourers.

At a time when public oeconomy is absolutely necessary, I do not wish to see such sums expended to settle Florida, as has been done with respect to Nova Scotia; but since a method of encouraging foreigners to settle in America has been sometimes practised, and experience has shewn it to be both frugal and efficacious, I flatter myself the administration will adopt the system of Carolina, or some other equally good expedient.

The amount of the civil establishment in East-Florida, is five thousand seven hundred pounds a year, granted by parliament: if Great Britain should dispose of an equal sum, to encourage the settling of the colony, and allow only two thousand five hundred pounds to be paid as a bounty of four pound per head to the master of the ship, for every foreign protestant imported to settle in East-Florida; to allow two thousand five hundred pounds more, to supply the new settlers with provision for nine months, and the remaining seven hundred pounds to be distributed at the discretion of the governor, in provincial premiums, upon the growth of cotton, hemp, silk, and vines; should this, I say, be done, his majesty's governors may have the pleasure of distributing justice, and his generals affording safety to the king's subjects, that may hereafter be found in that colony.

W E S T F L O R I D A .

WE come now to that part of the country which borders on the gulf of Mexico and which is called West Florida. And it appears, by a memorial presented to king William III, that England has had an undoubted title to it ever since the reign of Henry VII. by whose commission Sebastian Cabot discovered all this coast fronting the Atlantic Ocean, from north latitude twenty-eight to fifty, twenty years before it had been visited by any other Europeans. Then indeed the south part of this continent towards the Gulph or Straits of Bahama was visited by the Spaniards under Juan Ponce

Ponce de Leon, as it was ten years afterwards by Vasquez Aiillon; in 1527 by Pamphilo Navarez, and in 1534 by Ferdinando Soto; but their cruelties so enraged the natives, that they expelled them all one after another. The last expedition of the Spaniards hither was in 1558, by order of Valesco, then viceroy of Mexico; but falling into feuds almost as soon as they came, they returned without making any settlement: nor have they ever since made any on this part of the continent, except at St. Augustine and St. Mattheo. This province, called by the Spaniards Florida, and by the French Louisiana, was named,

Carolana by king Charles I. in a grant which he made of it on the thirtieth of October, in the fifth year of his reign, to Sir Robert Heath, knt. his attorney general. The extent of this grant set out in the charter was, all the continent on the west of Carolina, from the river St. Mattheo, lying according to the patent in thirty-one degrees of north latitude (though by later and more accurate observation, it is found to lie exactly in lat. 30. 10.) to the river Passo Magno, in north lat. 36. extending in longitude from the Atlantic to the Pacific Sea, a tract which was not then possessed by any Christian power, together with all the islands of Veanis and Bahama, and several adjacent islands lying south from the continent within the said degrees of latitude, to be all called by the name of the Carolana Islands. Sir Robert Heath conveyed Carolana to the earl of Arundel, who was at the expence of planting several parts of the countrv, and had effected much more had he not been prevented by the war with Scotland; in which he was general for king Charles, and afterwards by the civil wars in England, and the lunacy of his eldest son. In the beginning of Cromwell's protectorate, captain Watts (whom king Charles II. knighted and made governor of St. Christopher's) being upon this coast, and meeting with one Leet, an Englishman, who was in great favour with the paraousti, or petty king, of the country, by his influence the English were allowed to trade, and incited to settle here. Not long after, this paraousti also sent an ambassador to England, and the English had divers tracts of land given them by the Indians, and surveyed the continent (of which there is a map still extant) for above two hundred miles square.

It appears farther from this memorial, that the Five Nations in the territory of New York, whom the French commonly call Iroquois, who have for almost eighty years voluntarily subjected themselves to the crown of England, and who had

conquered all the country from their own habitations to the Mississippi river, and even beyond it, made a sale and surrender of all those their conquests, and acquisitions, in the reign of king James II. to the government of New-York; which is another proof of their being the property of the English.

The memorial here mentioned was presented to king William, as aforesaid, by the late Dr. Coxe, who, by conveyances from one to another, after the death of the earl of Arundel became proprietor of Carolana; and who sets forth in the said memorial, that, at the expence of several thousand pounds, he discovered divers of its parts; first from Carolina, afterwards from Pennsylvania, by the Susquehanah river; and that then he made a discovery more to the south by the great river Ochequion. Here it is fit to observe, that in September 1712, the late French king granted letters patent to M. Crozat, his secretary, for the sole trade to this country, by the name of Louisiana, extending about one thousand miles along the coast of the gulph of New Mexico, and almost as much from the said gulph to Canada; and it appears by the patent, that the French altered the names of the rivers, harbours, &c. as well as of the country itself, which had been usually called Spanish Florida; and that under pretence of a new discovery of it, they declared themselves possessors of this vast tract, which had been discovered and possessed for two hundred years partly by the Spaniards, and partly by the English; for by comparing the patent with the maps, it is evident that it inclosed and encompassed all the English colonies of Carolina, Maryland, Pennsylvania, New-England, &c.

The son of the above memorialist (Daniel Coxe, esq.) who was himself fourteen years a resident on the continent of America, has published a particular description of this province of Carolana; wherein he has given a succinct detail of some of its most useful animals, vegetables, metals, minerals, precious stones, &c. And, as he says his account is composed chiefly from memoirs drawn by his father, from several journals and itineraries of the English, whom he sent to discover it, and partly from the relations of other travellers and Indian traders of good understanding and probity, who had passed through the heart of the country, we think we may venture to give our readers an abstract of it, as the most satisfactory view of this country that has yet been presented of it.

There are almost every where two, and in some parts of the country, three crops of Indian corn in a year; and it is said, that when the new comes in they cast away a great part of the old for want of room in their little granaries. All along
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the coast, and two or three hundred miles up the country from the sea, they have the root mandihoca, of which the cassavi flower and bread is made in the greatest part of America, between the two tropicks, which is reckoned as good as our manchet, and six times cheaper. Here is another sort of grain like our oats, and when rightly prepared exceeds our best oatmeal. It grows spontaneously in marshy places, and by the sides of rivers, like rushes. The Indians, when it is ripe, take handfuls, and shake them into their canoes; and what escapes them falling into the water, without any farther trouble, produces the next year's crop. Besides other European fruits, they have excellent limes and prunes growing wild, which they eat plentifully immediately from the trees, and keep some dry for winter provision. Here is also the tunas, a most delicious food, especially in hot weather, and so wholesome, that when it is ripe our Europeans call it their cordial julep. Vines of different sorts grow also naturally in this country; and the soil is admirably adapted, for producing as good grapes as most countries of Europe.

Here is good beef, veal, and mutton, and plenty of hogs, especially on the sea-coast; acorns, chesnuts, and other mast's abounding in this country. Here are not only cattle for draught of the Tartarian breed, but horses for the saddle; the latter so cheap, that they may be bought for five shillings worth of European commodities at prime cost; and our author was assured by traders, that they had been offered a good one for an ordinary hatchet. Their cattle have a long black sort of hair, or rather wool, so fine, that it is thought that with some small addition or mixture, it would be preferable to common wool for hats, cloathing, and other necessaries.

The wild animals of this country, besides those above-mentioned, are the elk or buffalo, panthers, bears, wild cats, beaver, otter, fox, racoons, squirrels, martens, and a rat which has a bag under his throat, wherein it conveys its young, when it is forced to fly. Though cotton grows wild here in great plenty, yet it is not manufactured; and some of the most civilized nations in this country, especially of the better sort, are cloathed with a substance like good, coarse, serviceable linnen, very white, which is made of the inward bark of trees that abound here, is as becoming as most of the ordinary linnen of Europe, and is said also to be as durable: of the same, and other barks, they make thread, cords and ropes.

Pearls are to be found here in great abundance, but the Indians value our beads more. On the whole coast of this

province, for two hundred leagues, there are many vast beds of oysters that breed them; and, what is very remarkable, in fresh water rivers and lakes, there is a sort of shell-fish between a muscle and a pearl oyster, wherein are found abundance of pearls, and many larger than common. Here are two sorts of cochineal: one that grows wild, which is far inferior to what is cultivated in the gardens and fields; and the plant of which indigo is made is very common in most of the south parts of this province. Ambergrease is often found upon the coast from cape Florida to Mexico, of which the best is worth its weight in gold; and on the same coast, both to the east and west of the Mississippi, is to be found also, especially after high south winds, a sort of stone pitch, which the Spaniards, who call it copea, moisten with grease, and use it for their vessels in the nature of pitch; than which, they say it is much better in hot countries, it not being apt to melt with the heat of the sun. On both sides the Mississippi river there are many springs and lakes producing excellent salt. The plants which produce hemp and flax are very common in this country; and that sort of silk grass, of which are made those pretty stuffs, such as come from the East-Indies, called herba stuffs. Here are amethysts, turquoises, and the lapis lazuli. Salt-petre may probably be produced here in great plenty, from the dung of vast flights of pigeons coming hither, at certain seasons of the year, for above a league in length, and half as broad, which roost on the trees in such numbers, that they often break the boughs. Here is copper in abundance, and so fine, that it is affirmed some of the ore yields above forty per cent. and here is lead, whose ore yields sixty per cent. In many places too there are mines of pit-coal, and iron-ore is often found near the surface of the earth, from which a metal is extracted, little inferior to steel. Here are also some mines of quick-silver, or rather of the mineral from whence it is extracted, of which the natives make no other use than to paint their faces and bodies with it, in a time of war, or in high festivals. In divers parts of this province there are also great quantities of orpiment and sandaracha.

As to the face of the country, it is rather level; and yet, if we may believe the account of Mr. Coxe, extremely well watered. About twelve miles above the mouth of the river Mississippi, a branch of it runs on the east side, which, after a course of one hundred and sixty miles, falls into the N. E. end of the great bay of Spirito Santo. At first it is very narrow and shallow, but by the accession of several rivers and rivulets becomes a most lovely river, is navigable by the greatest boats.

boats and sloops, and forms pleasant lakes, particularly Pontchartrain.

About sixty leagues higher up on the east-side is the river of Yasoua, which comes into the Mississippi, two or three hundred miles out of the country, and is inhabited by the nations of the Yasoues, Tounicas, Kowrouas, &c. Sixty leagues higher is the river and nation of Chongue, with some others to the east of them. Thirty leagues higher the Mississippi receives a river, that proceeds from a lake about ten miles off, which is twenty miles long, and receives four large rivers: 1. The Casqui or Cufates, the most southern of them, being the river of the Cherokees, a mighty nation, among whom it has its chief fountains. It comes from the south-east, and its heads are among the mountains which separate this country from Carolina, and is the great road of the traders from thence to the Mississippi, and the intermediate places. Forty leagues above the Chicazas, this river forms four delicate islands, which have each a nation inhabiting them. 2. The river Ouespere, at which, about thirty leagues to the north-east of the lake, divides into two branches, whereof the most southern is called the Black River; but there are very few inhabitants upon either, they having been destroyed or driven away by the Iroquois. The heads of the river are in that vast ridge of mountains that run on the back of Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland, thro' which mountains there is a short passage to the sources of the great river Potomack, on the east side of them, by which the Indians, who are well acquainted with them, may possibly, one time or other, in conjunction with the French of Mississippi, insult and harass our colonies just now mentioned. 3. The river Oyo or Hohio, more to the north, is a vast river, which comes from the back of New York, Maryland, and Virginia: in the Indian language it signifies a fair river, and is navigable six hundred miles. It runs through the most beautiful and fruitful countries in the world, and receives ten or twelve rivers, besides innumerable rivulets. Several nations formerly dwelt on this river, as the Chawanoes or Chouanons, a great people, who, with many other nations, were totally extirpated by the Iroquois, who made this river their usual road, when they entered into a war with the nations either to the south or west. 4. The most northerly river that runs into the said lake, and which comes like the rest from the north-east, is the Ouabacha, or St. Geremy's river, as our maps call it. Twenty-five leagues above the Hohio is the great island of the Tamaroas, with a nation over-against it, that goes by its name; and

another by that of Cahokia, who dwell on the banks of the Chepuffo. Thirty leagues higher is the river Checagou, or the river of the Illinouecks, corruptly called by the French the river of the Illinois; which nation lived upon and about this river, in about sixty towns, and consisted of twenty thousand fighting men, before they were destroyed by the Iroquois, and driven to the west of Mississipi. This is a large pleasant river, and about two hundred and fifty miles above its entrance into the Mississipi, is divided into two branches: the lesser comes from north and by east, and its head is within four or five miles of the west side of the great lake of the Illinouecks or Michigan, as it is called in our map: the biggest comes directly from the east, and proceeds from a morass within two miles of the river Miamiha, which runs into the same lake. On the south-east side there is a communication between these two rivers, by a land carriage of two leagues, about fifty miles to the south-east of the lake. The course of this river of Checagou is above four hundred miles, navigable above half way by ships, and most of the rest by sloops and barges. It receives many small rivers, and forms two or three lakes; one especially, called Pimeteovi, twenty miles long and three broad, which affords great quantities of good fish, as the adjacent country does game both of fowls and beasts. Besides the Illinouecks, are the nations Prouaria, Cascasquia, and Caracontanon; and on the north branch inhabit part of the nation of the Mascoutans. On the south-east bank of the river Checagou, M. de Sale, in 1680, erected a fort, which he named Crevecœur, or Heart-breaker, on account of the troubles he met with here. This fort stands about half way betwixt the gulph of Mexico and Canada, and was formerly the usual road of the French to and from both, till they discovered a shorter and easier passage by the rivers Ouabacke and Hohio, which rise at a small distance from the lake Erie, or some rivers which enter it. Eighty leagues higher, the river Mississipi, receives the Misconging, a river resembling that of the Illinouecks in breadth, depth, and course; and the country adjacent to its branches is alike pleasant and fruitful. Sixty miles before it falls into the Mississipi, it is joined by the river Kikapouz, which is also navigable, and comes a great way from the north-east. Eighty miles farther, almost directly east, there is a communication by a land-carriage of two leagues with the river Misconqui, which runs to the north-east, and after a passage of one hundred and fifty miles from the land-carriage, falls into the great bay of Poukeoutamis or the Puans, which joins on the north-

north-west side to the great lake of the Illinouecks. Higher up the Mississipi is the river Chabadeba; above which the Mississipi makes a fine lake twenty miles long, and eight or ten broad. Ten miles above that lake is the river of Tortoises, a large fair river, which runs into the country a good way to the north-east, and is navigable forty miles by the greatest boats.

As for the rivers which do not communicate with the Mississipi, there are only two large ones betwixt it and the peninsula of Florida: viz. the Coza and the Palache.

1. The Coza river, which the French call Mobile, is bigger except Mississipi and Olico, than any in this or the neighbouring provinces. It rises from the Apalachean mountains, with several heads, of which the most northern is at the town and province of Guaxala, at the foot of the said mountains; many rivulets uniting after a course of eighty miles, from a river bigger than the Thames at Kingston, with several delightful isles, some three or four miles long, and half a mile broad, in a country wonderful pleasant and fruitful. The first considerable town or province is Chiaha, with a river of its own name (which helps to enlarge Coza) which is famous for its pearl-fishing; there being in the river and little lakes that are formed by it, a sort of shell-fish which the ancients named Pinna, betwixt a muscle and an oyster. From thence the river grows larger and deeper, being reinforced by others from the mountains and the valleys, till it enters the province of Coza or Coussa, which is reckoned one of the most fruitful and pleasant parts of the country, and very populous. It consists of hills and valleys, rivulets, arable land, and lovely meadows. Prunes grow naturally in the fields better than can be produced in Spain by culture; and though there are some vines that creep upon the ground, there are others which mount in almost all the places near the rivers, to the tops of the trees. The Coza river enters the gulph of Mexico one hundred miles south of Manhela or Mobile, as the French call it; a city yet in being, though far short of its former grandeur. One of the rivers that enters the Coza is the Chattas, which a collection of several other little streams renders a fine river. About the middle of it lies the mighty nation of the Chattas, consisting of near three thousand men, who speak the same language as their neighbours the Chicazas just now mentioned, to whom they were lately, if they are not still, mortal enemies, and friends to the French. To the east of the Cozas are the Becues or Abecaes, who have thir-

teen towns, and dwell on divers small rivers, which run into the Coza. It is a very pleasant country, consisting of hills and valleys, and its soil is generally more marly or fatter than that of many other provinces, which are mostly of a lighter mould. A little more to the south-west, between the Abecaes or Chattas, the Ewemalas, who are about five hundred fighting men, dwell on a fair river of the same name, which coming from the north-east mixes with the Coza. Mr. Coxe, whose description of this country is still our guide, says this mighty river Coza falls into the gulph of Mexico, fifteen leagues east of the great bay of Nassau or Spirito Santo, or from the north-east cape of Myrtle Isle. Near the mouth of this river the French have erected a settlement called fort Louis, (twenty leagues north-east of the nearest mouth of Mississippi) which is the usual residence of the chief governor of Louisiana, who was nevertheless subordinate to him of Canada. From this garrison the French send detachments to secure their several stations among the Indians in the inland parts. The Ullibayls or Allibamous, Chicazas, and Chattas, who are the most considerable nations upon and between the river Coza and the Mississippi, kindly entertained the English who resided among them several years, and carried on a safe and peaceable trade with them, till about the year 1715, when by the intrigues of the French they were either murdered, or obliged to make room for these new invaders, who have since unjustly possessed and fortified the same stations, in order to curb the natives, and to cut off their communication with the English traders; whereby they have ingrossed a profitable trade for above five hundred miles; of which the British subjects were a few years ago the sole masters; and have by the late peace become masters of a part of the same.

The French have another small town and fort in the isle Dauphine, formerly called Slaughter Island, from the number of men's bones found there on its first discovery, the remains, as it is said, of a bloody battle fought between two nations of Indians. It lies about nine leagues south of fort Louis, and ten leagues west of Pensacola, and is inhabited and fortified only on account of its harbour, it being the first place the French generally touch at on their arrival upon this coast. The distance between the river Coza and that of Palache or Spirito Santo, to the east is about one hundred and ninety miles, and the coast between them is very deep and bold.

The chief harbour betwixt these two rivers, and indeed the best upon all this coast of the gulph of Mexico, is Pensacola; it being a large port, safe from all winds, which

four fathom at the entrance, and deepens gradually to seven or eight. It lies eleven leagues east of port Louis and Mobile, ninety west from the upper port of the peninsula of Florida, and one hundred and fifty-eight leagues from the Tortugas islands.

On the west side of the harbour stood a poor town, of about forty palmetto houses, with a small stockaded fort of twelve or fourteen guns, called St. Mary de Galve, because it was built in the time of count de Galve; but of little moment, because all their soldiers and the majority of the inhabitants were malefactors, transported hither from Mexico. A fine river enters the bay of Mexico on the east side of this harbour, which comes about one hundred miles out of the country, after being formed by the junction of two other rivers. The land here produces many pine-trees, fit for ship masts, of which many are cut down, and carried to Vera Cruz. There is a communication from hence by land with Apalachy, which is also inhabited by Spaniards.

Apalachy Cola is a good harbour, thirty leagues east of the former, and as much west from what the Spaniards call the river Spirito Santo. The Indians name it Palache or Apalache, by adding an A, after the Arabian manner, from which a great part of their language is derived. This river enters the gulph of Mexico about one hundred miles from the cod of the bay of Palache, at the north-west end of the peninsula of Florida, in about N. lat. 30. Here was a fort called St. Mary d'Apalache, which the Alibanus destroyed in 1705. It is not easy to find this place, by reason of the isles and lakes before and about it; and though a stately river, whose mouth makes a large harbour, from whence a trade is carried on to Havannah by small vessels, yet it has not above two fathoms and a half, or three fathoms water at most on the bar; but when that is passed, it is very deep and large, and the tide flows higher into it than into any other river upon all the coast, some say no less than fifty miles. But this is not strange, the country being a perfect level, and the river having a double current, one from the west, and the other from the south, all along the peninsula, from twenty-five to thirty degrees of latitude. On both sides of it towards the sea-coast live several nations, called by the name of the Apalache Indians; and about the middle of it live the great nations of the Cussetaes, Talliboufies, and Adgebaches. This river proceeds chiefly from others, which have their origin on the south or south-west side of the great ridge of hills that divides this country from
Carolina

Carolina, and is supposed to have a course of about four hundred miles. All the channel from hence to the Tortugas islands, is called the bay of Carlos. Here is a communication from hence by land with St. Augustin.

In the bay of Nassau, or Spirito Santo, which is about a degree in length from north to south, there are four islands, which lie all together in a line from south-west to north-east for fifty miles, with openings between them, a mile or two over. The most northerly is that betwixt which and the continent is the entrance of the bay. It is called Myrtle island from the great quantity of myrtle which grows in it, and has plentiful springs of excellent water.

It is about twenty-four miles in length, but in some places very narrow. Some think it is the same that the French call *L'Isle des Vaisseaux*, or the Ships island; which, considering its distance from Dauphiny island, and the convenient shelter it affords ships from the wind, is not very improbable. The bay is fifteen miles broad from Myrtle island to a row of islands which run parallel with the main and another bay between them, and stretch fifty or sixty miles to the south, as far as one of the smaller mouths of the Mississippi.

As to the religion of the few natives of this country, they have scarce any, unless a few of the most unaccountable superstitions may have that name. They are afraid of evil spirits without any notion of a good one. They will cheat you if they can; and, when they were unable to pay their debts, they used to knock their creditors on the head. Both sexes are excessive lovers of drinking, allow of polygamy, and are so charitable to strangers that they'll spare them their daughters, or any body but their wives. Yet they punish adultery by setting a mark of infamy on the women and putting them away. Some of the English gentlemen who have been caught offending in this article have paid dear for their freedom, by having their ears cut off, or by being dispatched by a knife or a gun. They have chief commanders, who are sometimes honoured with the title of kings, and appointed by the governors of Carolina, &c. according to a writing sealed with the great seal of the province, of which seal they are very chary, but know not a word of the writing. Very few of their kings have much power, for their conjurors or war-captains are always the greater men. They pretend to hereditary succession, and recommend the next in blood of the male line to the governor. They have a sort of council of twelve or fourteen members, whom they call beloved; and these are such as have distinguished

distinguished themselves in war, or have great relations, and consequently some influence and weight in their respective clans.

THE NEWLY CEDED ISLANDS.

HAVING given as large a description as the nature of our plan would permit, of the continental possessions, and conquests belonging to Great Britain in America; we now come to those islands of which she hath lately been put into possession by the ninth article in the last treaty of peace; where it is specified that the most Christian king cedes and guaranties to his Britannick majesty, in full right, the islands of Grenada, and of the Grenadines, with the same stipulations in favour of the inhabitants of this colony, inserted in the fourth article for those of Canada: and the partition of the islands, called neutral, is agreed and fixed, so that those of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, shall remain, in full right, to Great Britain; and that of St. Lucia shall be delivered to France, to enjoy the same likewise in full right; and the high contracting parties guaranty the partition so stipulated.

G R E N A D A

WITH regard to the island of Grenada, it lies in W. 61. 40. and N. lat. 12. 00. 20. leagues N. W. from Trinidad about sixty-five miles N. W. from Tobago, and thirty leagues N. of New-Andalusia on the continent, to which this is the nearest of all the French islands in the Antilles. Labat makes it forty-five leagues S. W. of Barbados (others but thirty) and seventy from Martinico. It extends from N. to S. in form of a crescent, being nine or ten leagues in length; and five, where broadest. Father Tertre judges it to be as big again as St. Christopher's, and about twenty-four leagues in compass. Labat says, they who have travelled round it make the circumference, at most, but twenty-two.

Its original inhabitants were the Caribbeans, of whom greater numbers were tempted to settle here than in other islands, because of its fertility, its wild game, and fishery.

M. de Poincy attempted to settle here in 1638, and so did several others after him; but they miscarried, by reason the Caribbeans were too many for them to cope with, and St. Christopher's too far off to give them assistance. The honour of an establishment here for the French, says Labat, was reserved for M. Paraquet, proprietor and governor of Martinico, who undertook it at his own expence. The first colony he brought hither was two hundred of the fittest men that he could find in that island, furnished with presents to sooth the savages, and arms to subdue them, in case of opposition. He arrived here, after four days sail from Martinico, in June 1650; was received with great joy, by the captain of the savages; raised a pretty strong fort in less than a week's time; and, having given the captain some linen-cloth, looking-glasses, hatchets, bills, knives, and other things which the Caribbeans wanted, besides two quarts of brandy, he yielded him the proprietary of the whole island, in the name of all the other Caribbeans, with a reservation only of their habitations. The French had just got in one crop of tobacco here, so good, that one pound of it was worth three of what grew in the other islands, when the Caribbeans began to repent their bargain. Without any declaration of war, they began with waylaying and assassinating the French stragglers, of whom several had been knocked on the head in the woods, as they were hunting; or in the bays, as they were turning tortoise: whereupon the French that landed, being reinforced, from Martinico, by three hundred men more, attacked the savages; who defended themselves with showers of arrows, but were forced to retire to a mountain, from whence they rolled down trunks of trees upon the French; and, being joined, soon after, by other savages from Dominica and St. Vincent, fell upon the French; but were defeated, many of them put to the sword, and forty, who escaped, ran to a precipice, and cast themselves into the sea; for which reason, it was afterwards called the Mountain of Leapers. The French burnt their cottages, destroyed their gardens, plucked up the mandioca-roots, and carried off all they found. Yet the savages rallied, soon after, in separate bodies, and killed all the French whom they found abroad in the woods, &c. Upon which, the French commander sent out one hundred and fifty men, who surprized them at day-break, and put all the men, women, and children, whom they found, to the sword; burnt their mansions, destroyed all their provisions, seized all their boats, and thereby disabled them from fetching any more succours from the neighbouring isles. Notwithstanding this, they

they rebelled frequently; and some of the French planters having also mutinied against the proprietor, M. Paraquet, when he had well-nigh exhausted his estate by it, he sold it to the count de Cerillac at Paris in 1657, with all the vessels, arms, slaves, &c. for ninety thousand livres, or thirty thousand crowns. The count sent such a tyrannical brute to govern it, that the better sort abandoned it; and the rest, who stayed behind, seized him and shot him to death. Nevertheless, in 1664, the count sold this island to the French West-India company for one hundred thousand livres, though there were but one hundred and fifty planters left out of five hundred that were upon the island when he took possession of it: and in 1674, the company was obliged to give it up to the king. Such a frequent change of masters only gave trouble and disturbance to the colony; so that it is but very lately that it began to thrive.

The missionaries Tertre and Labat give the following account of its natural history: this island enjoys a good air, and a soil so fruitful, that all the trees which cover it, both for fruit and timber, are better, straighter, higher, and bigger, than in the neighbouring islands, except the cocoa-tree, which does not grow so high here as in the other islands. Its most remarkable tree is the latin-tree, which has a tall body, and, instead of boughs, bears leaves like fans, in long stalks, which, being tyed together, serve for roofs of houses. It has salt-pits, and abundance of armadillos, whose flesh is as good as mutton, and the chief food of the inhabitants; besides tortoises and lamantins. The coast is full of fine vales, watered with good rivers, most of which run from a lake at the top of a high mountain in the middle of the island; and one of them, in particular, runs into the sea on the S. W. where is a low shore, with good anchorage, at twelve leagues distance, but an exceeding strong current, which both ebbs and flows in a few hours. There are several little bays and harbours round the island, which serve for mooring of ships, and the landing of goods; and some of the harbours are fortified. All the east coast is very safe, close by the shore, and the island is not subject to hurricanes. In short, it is capable of producing all the commodities of the climate. Its particular articles, besides cattle and wild fowl, are, sugar, ginger, indico, and tobacco, millet, and pease. There are mountains along the shore, and about the harbour where the habitations are; but all the rest is a very fine country; and here is good travelling, either for horse or carriages.

Its chief fort, called Lewis, stands in the middle of a large bay on the west side of the island, which has a sandy bottom, where one thousand barks, from three hundred to four hundred tons, may ride safe from storms; and the harbour will hold one hundred ships, of one thousand tons, moor'd. There is a great round basin near the harbour, parted from it by a bank of sand, which, if cut, would be capable of holding a very great number of vessels; but, by reason of this sand-bank, great ships are obliged to pass within eighty paces of one of the two little mountains which are at the mouth of the harbour, and about half a mile asunder. On one of these a French engineer erected a fort, with a half-moon in front, and other regular works, all of good stone. The fort between the harbour and the basin is of wood, twenty-five feet square, and encompass'd with a strong palisado of intire trees. At the two corners of it, towards the sea, are two little wooden pavilions, in one of which lives the commander. M. Paraquet, its first proprietor, lived in a great wilderness which encompasses the mountain that lies near the harbour, at the foot of which are magazines, of bricks and timber. The church, which is not far from this fort, is built of canes laid upon forks; and the inside is as mean. In Paraquet's time, at every sixth cottage there was a little centry-box erected, two stories high, to which the inhabitants of every six habitations retired in the night, to prevent their being surpris'd by the savages.

The Dominicans have a settlement four leagues north of the fort, which is above a mile in breadth. A large river runs through the middle of it, abounding with eels, mullets, and cray-fish; as the adjacent country does with partridges, wood-pigeons, ortolans, trushes, parrots, &c. Labat adds, that the people here are subject to obstinate fevers, which turn sometimes into a dropsy.

St. V I N C E N T.

THE island of St. Vincent lies fifty miles N. W. of Barbados, and is said to be of the same form as Ferro, one of the Canary islands. It is about eight leagues in length, six in breadth, and eighteen or twenty in compass. It is computed to be ten leagues S. S. E. from the Reed river in the Basse-Terre of St. Lucia, to the Basse-Terre of this island. There are several mountains on it, with plains at the bottom, which

which, if cultivated, would be very fruitful. The Caribbeans, who are the original inhabitants of it, with a mixture, and almost a majority, of negroes, some of them descended from a ship-load of Africans, that was either drove or run ashore here about seventy years ago, and many fugitives from the island-plantations; particularly Barbados, are a numerous people, and have a great many fair villages, where they live well: and though they are so tenacious of their liberties against foreigners, as well as the Indians, that they are always on their guard against them, when they come upon their coast, they are ready enough to furnish them with cassavi-bread, water, fruits, and other provisions of their produce; in exchange for knives, bills, hatchets, or other tools which they want. M. Rochfort says, that because this is the nearest island of all that the Caribbeans possess this way, to that part of the continent which is inhabited by the Arovages, their irreconcilable enemies; it was therefore the usual place of rendezvous for their troops, when they formed a design to attack them: and that it is from this island that they have made the most notable excursions to the colonies of the English and French, whose nations leave them now undisturbed possession both of this island and Dominica.

Labat says, the Caribbeans of this island have had cause to repent of their folly in admitting the run-away negroes among them from the other islands; because they grew so numerous, at last, that they have been glad to share the island with them, and to yield them the Cabes-Terre; that being the quarter where they knew they should be most secure from any attempts of their owners to apprehend them: and that they have been so ungrateful to their hosts, that they have declared war with them, run away with many of their wives and daughters, and forced the greatest part to go over, for a quiet life, to the Terra-firma. He adds, that the Caribbeans who remain here have often solicited the French and English to deliver them from these cursed guests; and that attempts have been made for that purpose; particularly one in 1719, when five hundred men, fitted out for this purpose, from Martinico, were landed here; but the Caribbeans not rising to favour their descent, according to promise, this, as well as others, miscarried; and the French were forced to return to Martinico, after the loss of a good number of their men, whom the negroes killed, by surprize, in the night; and particularly the major-general of Martinico, one of their two chief commanders. Labat thinks, however, that the French came very well off, upon the whole; because so ill-concerted

an enterprize did not involve them in a war with the negroes, which might have been especially pernicious to the colony of Grenada, and that which they were then replacing at St. Lucia; the original inhabitants, however, are now entirely worn out; and Europeans, with their slaves, are all that occupy the Antilles.

According to the description this author gives of it, it is one of the best of all the Antilles; having a deep, fat, free soil, capable of producing every thing, almost, that can be desired. It has abundance of rivulets and springs of the best water in the world; large strait trees of all the kinds that are produced in America; and tobacco is cultivated here, which is reckoned not inferior to that of Verine, near the Caraccas; together with mandioca, potatoes, ignamas, gourds, the finest large melons, and Turkey wheat. And Labat adds, that if any of the French could but agree with some of the old Caribbeans here for some pieces of ground, and only apply to the breeding of poultry, swine, and cabrittoes, they might soon raise a fortune, without stirring off the island; because the Martinicans would not fail to come in with their vessels, and take them off at their own price, either in money or goods; by which means, says he, a trade might be also opened, to good advantage, with the industrious negroes of the Cabes-Terre; who might be induced, in time, to put themselves under the French king's protection, and even to pay him tribute. Great profit might also be made of the timber on this island, of which there is a vast stock of all kinds; and indico thrives here, to a miracle. Nor does he doubt but the soil would be very proper for the cultivation of cocoa-trees, enough even to furnish the other islands, which now carry their money or goods for it to the Spaniards on the coast of the Caraccas.

Labat says, the late French king sent some missionary friars hither, who were murdered by the savages. Both the Caribbeans and negroes here are, for the most part, painted alike, and wear a clout about their middle; but, notwithstanding this uniformity, the curled woolly pates of the negroes are easily distinguished from the black, long, strait hair of the savages; besides, if their heads were shaved, it would be no difficult matter to know the blacks from the other, by the air of their heads, the colour of their eyes, the shape of their mouths, and their corpulency. The Indians live under chiefs of their own chusing, and the negroes have the same with other principal Indians and negroes, to manage affairs under them. The form of their government is republican. The Indians were computed to be near eight thousand, and the negroes five or six thousand in 1723, when captain Braithwaite, lieutenant-governor, and Mr. Robert Egerton, one

of the members of the council of St. Lucia, were sent hither from Mr. Uring, in the nature of ambassadors, to persuade them to receive the English among them, and to submit themselves and their country to the English proprietor the duke of Montague, who had the grant of this island in the same patent with that of St. Lucia. How they succeeded, will appear from the following account, founded on their memorials delivered to Mr. Uring at their return.

Mr. Egerton being sent first, we shall first take notice of his report. When he arrived on this island, he found that the French from Martinico had been there before him, and prepossess'd the people with a notion, that the English who were settling at St. Lucia, would do the same here; and would either make, or sell them for slaves. Though the Indians and negroes did not, perhaps, give intire credit to their suggestions; and though Mr. Egerton was to promise protection and denization to all who submitted; yet they were by no means disposed to receive the English as their masters or landholders. Perhaps, indeed, not a tenth part of their country was planted; yet they did not imagine they had less property in the uncultivated land, than in the others. If the proprietary of their lands had been purchased, there doubtless had been no difficulty in admitting the purchaser to a possession; but neither the Indians, nor the negroes, could understand how their right could be affected by the grant of a sovereignty to which they did not know or acknowledge themselves to be subject. And Mr. Egerton succeeded accordingly; for they were shy, and averse to any treaty of submission.

Mr. Braithwaite, however, went in the Griffin sloop, with the Winchelsea man of war, to make another trial of their temper, while captain Uring, with the rest of the colony of St. Lucia, waited at Antigua, where the captain received fresh orders from England to retire with the colony of St. Lucia to St. Vincent; but as the state of this island was not then so well known in England as in the Leeward Islands, colonel Hart, general of these islands, and colonel Mathews, governor of Antigua, gave their opinion, and offered to sign it, that captain Uring would do ill in following those orders: so he resolved to wait for the return of Mr. Braithwaite, from whose report of his negociation, made to governor Uring, for the satisfaction of the duke of Montague, as well as himself, we have abstracted the following particulars, in his own words:

“ At the first place we anchored in, a person, whom they called general, came on board, with twenty-two others,

whom I entertained very handsomely, and made the chief some trifling presents; but found him a person of no consequence, and they called him chief, to get some present from me. Being drove off hence for several days, by the currents, we anchored in a spacious bay to the leeward of the island, the only proper place for making a settlement; when, immediately, the shore was covered with Indians, amongst whom was a Frenchman, armed all with cutlasses; and some had, also, musquets, pistols, bows and arrows, &c. who, with very little ceremony, inclosed me, and carried me a mile up the country, to see their general. I found him sitting amidst a guard of about one hundred Indians. Those nearest to his person had musquets, the rest bows and arrows; and all observed a great silence. He ordered me a seat; and a Frenchman standing at his right hand as his interpreter, he asked me my business here, and my country. I told him that I was English, and that I put in here for wood and water; for I did not care to say any thing else before the Frenchman; but I added, that if he would please to come on board our ship, I would leave Englishmen in hostage for those he should be pleased to take along with him: but I could not prevail with him, either to come on board, or suffer me to have wood and water. He said he was informed we were come to force a settlement; and we had no way to remove that jealousy but by getting under sail. As soon as I found what influence the Frenchman's company had upon him, I took my leave, and returned to my boat under a guard. When I came to the shore, I found the guard was increased by a number of negroes, all armed with fuzees. Immediately after I got into my boat, I sent a mate ashore with rum, beef, bread, &c. and some cutlasses; and ordered a Frenchman, who went with the mate, to tell the general, that though he denied me the common good of water, and a little useless wood, I had, nevertheless, sent him such refreshments as our ships afforded. Our people found the Frenchman (who had been his interpreter) gone, and that then the Indian general seemed pleased; and, in return for my present, sent me bows and arrows. Our people had not been long returned, before the general sent a canoe also, with ten chief Indians, who spoke very good French, to thank me for my presents, and to ask pardon for his refusing me wood and water; and assured me, I might have what I pleased: and they had orders to tell me, if I pleased to go ashore again, they were to remain hostages for my civil treatment. I sent them on board the man of war, and, with captain Watson, went ashore. I was well received

ceived and conducted as before: but now I found the brother of the general of the negroes with the Indian general. The negro had with him five hundred blacks, most armed with fuzees: they told my interpreter they were sure we were come to force a settlement, or else they would not have denied me what they had never before denied any English; viz. wood and water; but, if I thought fit, I might take what I pleased under a guard. With some difficulty I prevailed on the Indian and negro generals to go aboard the *Winchelsea*; where, after leaving captain *Watson* as hostage, captain *Orme* entertained them very handsomely, and gave the Indian general a fine fuzil, and to the chief of the negroes something that pleased him as well. The captain also assured them of the friendship of the king of England, &c. The negro chief spoke excellent French, and made answers with all the French compliments. I afterwards carried them on board the duke's sloop, and, having opened their hearts with wine, for they scorned to drink rum, I thought it a good time to tell them my commission. They told me, it was well I had not mentioned it ashore; for their power could not have protected me: that the thing was impossible, that the Dutch had before attempted it, but were glad to retire. They likewise told me, that two French sloops had, the day before we came, been amongst them, and given them arms and ammunition, and assured them of the whole force of *Martinico* for their protection against us. They told them also, they had driven us from *St. Lucia*; and that now we were come to endeavour to force a settlement here; and, notwithstanding all our specious pretences, when we had power, we should enslave them; but they declared they would trust no Europeans; that they owned themselves under the protection of the French, but would as soon oppose their settling amongst them, or any act of force from them, as from us; of which they had lately given an example, by killing several: and they farther told me; it was by very large presents the French ever got in their favour again; but they resolved never to put it in their power, or of any Europeans, to hurt them. This being all I could get from them, I dismissed them, with such presents as his grace ordered for that service, and a discharge of cannon; and received, in return, as regular vollies of small arms as I ever heard."

Thus ended the unsuccessful expedition for possessing and settling the islands of *St. Lucia* and *St. Vincent*, notwithstanding the great and well-contrived preparations and provisions, both here and in England. And it appears to have

been, in all respects, the greatest, and most expensive scheme, that was ever undertaken by a subject of this, or any other crown: for, besides the ships, naval and military stores, cannon, small arms, &c. his grace the duke of Montague maintained four hundred and twenty-five servants for a year and a half, besides eighty-five tradesmen and artificers, who had from twenty-five to thirty pounds a year wages; and upwards of fifty officers, with salaries from fifty to four hundred pounds a year: so that his whole expence was computed to be, at least, forty thousand pounds—a sum that is not to be paralleled to come out of one private purse for a service of such a national importance.

As for what remains to be said of this island, we shall only add the substance of some observations made by Mr. Egerton above-mentioned, who was first sent over to it by captain Uring. The negroes, he says, lived in huts on the N. E. coast of the island. On the E. side of it he found a pleasant prospect, a large quantity of good land, though hilly, a great deal of it planted, and the rest fit to plant, from the S. W. to the N. E. In several places along the shore there seemed to be good landing, with pleasant descents to the water in fine green patches. Much of the upper land, fit for plantations, lay unmanured.

D O M I N I C A.

DOMINICA lies much about half-way betwixt Guardaloupe on the N. W. and Martinico on the S. E. viz. fifteen leagues from each; extends from N. W. to S. E. and is about thirteen leagues in length, and near as much over, where broadest. Labat supposes it to be thirty or thirty-five in compass. It owes its name to its discovery on a Sunday.

It is divided, like Guardaloupe, Martinico, and some of the other Caribbee Islands, into the Cabes-Terre, and Basse-Terre, and the soil much of the same nature; but it is, in general, such high land, that Labat questions whether, in that part called the Cabes-Terre, there are three leagues of flat or level country, put it all together; yet he says, the soil is good, and the slopes of the hills, which bear the finest trees in the world, are proper for the production of our plants; so that some report it to be one of the best of the Caribbees, for its fruitful valleys, large plains, and fine rivulets.

M. Roche.

M. Rochefort says, there are inaccessible rocks here, from the tops of which may be seen serpents of a prodigious bulk and length. The Caves-Terre is watered with a good number of fresh-water rivers, abounding with choice fish. It has a sulphur-mountain, like that at Guardaloupe, but not near so high. There are but two or three places, in that called the Basse-Terre, that are tolerable; the most considerable of which is called the Great Savanna, in the middle of it: i. e. the tract from the point facing Martinico to that which is opposite to the Saints. It produces mandioca, cassava, bananas, and the finest figs, which they suffer to rot on the ground, all but what they eat with their food, when they gather them before they are ripe. They have potatoes and ignamas in abundance, with a great deal of millet and cotton. Here are great numbers of ring-doves, partridges, and ortolans. They breed hogs and poultry, and of the former two sorts of wild ones, descended from such as first came from France and Spain.

T A B A G O.

TABAGO island lies to the north of Trinidad, from which it is parted by a pretty large channel. It was first settled by a company of Hollanders and Zealanders, in the year 1632; but it was often annoyed and ravaged by the Caribbee Indians, who live on the main, near the mouth of the river Oronoko, and was at last destroyed by the French in 1668; but ceded to us by the last article of peace.



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

HAVING finished our description of the British Empire in Europe and America, we come next to our possessions in Africa; but, before we enter upon the continent, we will first give a description of the island of St. Helena, which lies between the two great continents of the new and old world, and which has been for many years in our possession.

St. H E L E N A.

ST. HELENA, or St. Helen's island, is about the fourteenth degree of south latitude, according to some geographers; Verhoeven says in the sixteenth and a quarter, and Dampier in about the sixteenth. Its longitude is 5 deg. 30 min. west from London. It is about eight hundred and forty miles distant from the coast of Benguela to the west, and one thousand and twenty from that of Guinea to the south. It is but small, not above nine or ten leagues in length.

Dampier, who was there in the year 1691, gives us the following account of it. The air is commonly serene and clear, except in the rainy months. Here are moist seasons to plant and sow; and the weather is temperate enough as to heat, though so near the equator, and very healthy. It is bounded against the sea with steep rocks, so that there is no landing but at two or three places. The mountains appear bare, only in some places you may see a few low shrubs, but the valleys afford some trees fit for building.

This

This island is said to have been first discovered and settled by the Portuguese on the festival of the empress Helena, mother of the emperor Constantine; for which reason the Portuguese gave it her name, which it still bears. But it being afterwards deserted by them, it lay waste, till the Dutch, finding it convenient to relieve their East-India ships, settled it again. But they afterwards relinquished it for a more convenient place, which is the Cape of Good Hope. Then the English East-India company settled their servants here, and began to fortify it; but they being yet weak, the Dutch, about the year 1672, came hither, retook it, and kept it in their possession. This news being reported in England, captain Monday was sent to take it again; who, by the advice and conduct of one, that had formerly lived there, landed a party of armed men in the night in a small cove, unknown to the Dutch then in garrison, and climbing the rocks got up into the island; and so came in the morning to the hills hanging over the fort, which stands by the sea in a small valley. From thence firing into the fort they soon made them surrender. This island has continued ever since in the hands of the English East-India company, and has been greatly strengthened both with men and guns; so that at this day it is secure enough from the invasion of any enemy; for the common landing-place is a small bay, like a half-moon, scarce five hundred paces wide between the two points. Close by the sea-side are good guns planted at equal distances, lying along from one end of the bay to the other; besides a small fort a little farther in from the sea, near the midst of the bay: all which makes the bay so strong, that it is impossible to force it. The small cove, where captain Monday landed his men, when he took the island from the Dutch, is scarce fit for a boat to land at, and yet that is now also fortified.

There is a small English town within the great bay, standing in a little valley, between two high steep mountains. There may be about twenty or thirty small houses, whose walls are built with rough stones. The inside furniture is very mean. The governor has a pretty tolerable handsome house, by the fort, where he commonly lives, having a few soldiers to attend him, and to guard the fort. But the houses in the town stand empty, save only when ships arrive: for the owners of those houses have all plantations farther in the island, where they constantly employ themselves: but when ships arrive they all flock to the town, where they live all the time that ships lie here; for then is their fair, or market,

to buy such necessaries as they want, and to sell off the product of their plantations.

Their plantations afford potatoes, yamms, and some plantane and bannas. Their stocks consist chiefly of hogs, bullocks, cocks and hens, ducks, geese, and turkeys, of which they have great plenty, and sell them at a low rate to the sailors; taking in exchange, shirts, drawers, or any light cloaths, pieces of callico, silks, or muslins; arrack, sugar, and lime-juice is also much esteemed and coveted by them. But now they are in hopes to produce wine and brandy in a short time; for they do already begin to plant vines for that end, there being a few French men there, to manage that affair.

Mr. Ovington, who was in this island much about the same time with Dampier, brought over several French refugees with him, who were kindly entertained by the company, and some advanced to considerable posts. He could see this island twenty-five leagues at sea; and tells us, that the serenity and temperateness of the air, gives the islanders as fair and fresh a complexion as those in England have. He observes, that one cause of the poverty of the place is, that they are not permitted to trade so much as with one single ship, and have no cloaths but what are transported from Europe, or come by accident. Nevertheless, the island was very populous at his arrival; and upon his enquiry how so many women came thither, he was told, that they were decoyed hither by a false report spread in England, that all the single men upon the island were either commanders, or lord's sons; whereas they only found them poor honest husbandmen and mechanicks. The soil, says he, is fruitful enough, to bear many hundreds for one grain of Indian corn that is sown in it; but then it requires several inches of ground for its growth; and, before it comes to maturity, most part of it is devoured by the rats and other vermin. Their common pasture, instead of grass, is mint and purslain.

The company's affairs here are managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-house-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the company, besides a public table well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and eminent passengers are welcome. The natives sometimes call the result of their consultations, severe impositions; and, though relief may perhaps be had from the company in England, yet Mr. Ovington observes, that the unavoidable delays in returning a redress at that distance does sometimes put the addressers under a hardship; and thinks, that, were not the
situation

situation of this island very serviceable to our East-India ships homeward bound, the constant trouble and expence would induce the company to abandon the island; for though it is furnished with conveniencies of life, yet it has no commodities of any profit to merchants. The inhabitants here are of loose morals, which Mr. Ovington ascribes to the poverty of the place; though the company allows a minister here one hundred pound a year, besides gratuities from the inhabitants.

Mr. Lockyer, who was here in 1706, makes this island twenty miles in circumference; and observes, that in Chapel-Valley was James fort, of ten small guns, which he was told was demolished afterwards, and a much larger erected in its stead. There was also a platform of twenty-nine guns, and three at the landing-place. Banks's platform had six guns, Rupert's platform seventeen, and in Lemon-Valley, where the Dutch formerly landed, was a platform of six more, all which had received considerable additions since. There is no landing to the windward, and all the creeks and bays are secured as above, besides alarm-guns on the hill. All things are dear to strangers, except choice roots and lemons. They had, in Mr. Lockyer's time, one thousand five hundred head of black cattle, with plenty of hogs, goats, turkeys, and all sorts of poultry. Their chief grain is kidney-beans from eight to twelve shillings a bushel: a small ox is sold for six pounds, and turkeys for a dollar a-piece. The common people subsist chiefly on potatoes, yamms, plantanes, pulse, and fish; and if they can get flesh once a week, they reckon it good living. The company allows the soldiers salt meat, but how often our author does not say. Both they and the mechanicks may earn a great deal of money by their labour. Their common drink is plain water, or Mobby, which is but one remove from it.

The chief town, which is Chapel-Valley, had forty or fifty houses in Mr. Lockyer's time. The masters of the plantations keep a great many blacks, who upon severe treatment hide themselves for a quarter of a year together, keeping among the rocks by day, and roving at night for provisions: but they are generally discovered and taken. The island produces here and there a drug like benzoin, and great plenty of wild tobacco on the hills, which the slaves use to smoke for want of the right sort. The inhabitants are supplied with necessaries twice a month out of the company's store at six months credit. The chief commodities for sale here are, cherry brandy, malt, and cyder, spirits, beer, Madeira

Madeira and Canary wines, and Spanish brandy, which may be taken in at those islands; Battavia arrack, sugar, sugarcandy, tea, fans, chine, lacquered ware, silks, China ribbons, coarse striped ginghams, ordinary muslin, coarse chints, blue and brown long-cloths, salampores, and all sorts of coarse callicoës.

A description of the principal forts and settlements belonging to Great Britain in Africa.

IT must not be expected that we should enumerate every little fort or factory, along this extensive coast belonging to the English, it would be unentertaining and unnecessary, as these are every hour subject to alteration and removal, and in themselves every way too inconsiderable to deserve notice. A few of the principal ones, however, the reader has a right to expect, with some description of the countries where they are established. And first our settlements on the river Gambia present themselves to our notice.

I have observed, in many maps of Africa, that the great river Niger is laid down by the geographers in the same latitude that Gambia lies in. And, unless it went formerly by the name of Niger, I am persuaded there must be a mistake in those maps; for Gambia is by far the largest river in that part of Africa. I have been shewn journals kept on board one of the company's sloops of fifty tons, which sailed more than three hundred leagues, or near a thousand miles up the river Gambia. At which height, I have been assured, it is broad, spacious and navigable; nor is there any doubt, but the rivers of Senegal, Rio Grande, Rio St. Domingo, Burfally, Rio Nunas, Rio Pungo, &c. are all different branches of this great river, which, like the Nilus, at the opposite side of Africa, empties itself into the sea through various channels, which bear as different denominations as those just mentioned; but let that be as it will, I shall not at present contend with our ancient geographers.

This place was first discovered and settled by the Portuguese, whose progeny are still pretty numerous up in the inland country, and drive a very good trade with the English; though, to speak truth, there is but little of the Portuguese to be found in them, beside the language, they being quite degenerated into negroes, and having but very imperfect ideas of

Christianity. They think themselves sufficiently qualified for the title of Boon Christians, if they distinguish themselves from the Pagans, &c. by wearing a little crucifix about their necks.

The Mahometan religion has likewise extended itself hither, as I suppose, from the south parts of Barbary, which is not very far from hence. And, by what I have seen, I think the Mahometans are, in their way, more strict in the external observance of their religious ceremonies, than the Christians; for, like true musselmen, they all are abstemious in public, but in private they will drink any thing they can get, even to excess. Again, with respect to polygamy, they endeavour most religiously to follow the example of Mahomet, in having as many or more wives than they know what to do with.

The last, and indeed the most numerous sect, are the Pagans, who trouble themselves about no religion at all; yet every one of them have some trifle or other, to which they pay a particular respect, or kind of adoration, believing it can defend them from all dangers: some have a lion's tail; some a bird's feather; some a pebble, a bit of rag, a dog's leg; or, in short, any thing they fancy: and this they call their *fittish*; which word not only signifies the thing worshipped, but sometimes a spell, charm, or incantment. To take the *fittish*, is to take an oath; which ceremony is variously performed in several parts of Guinea. In some places, they drink a large draught of water, and wish their *fittish* may kill them, if what they attest be not true: and, generally speaking, a negro's taking the *fittish* in Guinea may as sincerely be relied on as the oath of a Christian in Europe. To make *fittish*, is to perform divine worship; *fittish*-men, are the Pagan priests. In short, they all commonly wear their *fittish* about them, which is so sacred, that they care not to let any body touch it but themselves. The day I dined with the king of Barra, I observed, that his musician, who played on the ballafoe, had fixed to the top of his cap, the tuft or crown of a bird, the largest and finest I ever saw. I went to take off the fellow's cap to look at it, but he, in a surprize, got up and ran away: some of the gentlemen of the castle, who saw the action, smiled, and told me, that was his *fittish*, which ought to be handled by no man but himself. And so much for their religion.

As for the languages of Gambia, they are so many and so different, that the natives, on one side of the river, cannot understand those on the other: which, if rightly considered, is

on small happiness to the Europeans, who go thither to trade for slaves; because the Gambians, who are naturally very idle and lazy, abhor slavery, and will attempt any thing, though ever so desperate, to obtain freedom. I have known some melancholy instances of whole ships crews being surprized, and cut off by them. But the safest way is to trade with the different nations, on either side the river; and having some of every sort on board, there will be no more likelihood of their succeeding in a plot, than of finishing the tower of Babel.

I just now described the Gambians as an indolent sort of people; nor is it much to be wondered at, seeing that nature has afforded them all necessaries proper for the support of life, without any great art or industry of their own; the ground in this part of the earth, seems, in some measure, to be exempt from the general curse. As for cloathing, they want none: the beau and belle, the fop and coquet, the pests of all society, assemblies and conversations, in Christendom, have no being here. As to their houses, or rather huts, they require but very little art in their erection. They do not so much as know the use of household furniture; the slothful bed, the chair, the table, pot, spoon, &c. here are useless; for a few dry sedges, or reeds, serve them for a bed, and the ground is their seat; so that an upholsterer, though never so good a workman, may starve among them. Nor is there any work for the cooper; nevertheless they are abundantly stocked with great choice of extraordinary good vessels which grow wild almost every where: I mean, the gourd, or callabash, whose leaf is like that of a pumpkin, nor is the fruit when green unlike it. Such as grow near the negroes huts generally creep up and cover the whole roof; being of no less use in shading the negroes from the sun, than that of Jonas was to him. When the callabash is ripe, they cut it from the stalk, and set it to dry for three or four days in the sun; which not only hardens the outside, but consumes every thing within, except the seeds, which may easily be shook out. They are shaped like Florence flasks most commonly, but they may be formed to any shape while young. They grow of very different sizes, so as to contain from half a pint to eight or ten gallons. When they are sawed down the middle they make very good platters, bowls, or drinking-cups, according to their size; and those with very long necks make good ladles; and, lastly, when whole they are as good as bottles to keep liquor in. Perhaps, it may be thought, that this last excellence of the callabash is entirely
useless.

useless to the negroes, who are strangers to the art of brewing or pressing the grape, &c. but that is a mistake; for nature likewise affords them two or three sorts of pleasant strong wines, with no other trouble than that of boring a small hole in a palm-tree and hanging a callabash under the droppings of it, which sometimes will fill one of three quarts in a day.

Provisions of all kinds are very plenty, and exceeding cheap here. I have seen a small cow bought for two bars, or two crowns sterling; and a fine fat ox for four bars; a good fowl for three musket-charges of gunpowder, or three farthings sterling: also, hogs, sheep, and goats in proportion. So that if Mynheer Bosman* had ever been in the river Gambia, he would not have said, that the island of Anabona was the true Amalthea, or Cornucopia, so much taken notice of by the ancients; but rather have ascribed that title to Gambia. Besides the above-mentioned cattle, they have also a very pretty breed of small horses; and I have been credibly informed, that the king of Bursally, whose dominions border upon the kingdom of Barra, can, upon any emergency, mount and arm four thousand horse. This country also abounds with various sorts of wild beasts; such as deer of several kinds, elephants, lions, tigers, leopards, panthers; jackalls, and mischievous monkies.

The trade of this place is very beneficial for fine gold, slaves; ivory and wax.

The English have a factory subordinate to Gambia castle, at a place called Joar, about fifty leagues up the river. Also another, about fifty leagues higher, at Cuttajar, and another near the river's mouth, called Portdendelly. They once had a settlement upon Charles island, but having a pallavar† with the natives they watched the opportunity of a midnight low water, and waded over from the main; by which surprize they got possession, and beat the English off of that island, which has been ever since desolate. Nevertheless; they are now very well settled upon James island, where they have a strong regular well-built castle, with thirty-two large pieces of cannon, besides others which are planted near the water-side regarding the north channel. The old fort was unhappily blown up, in 1725, by some unknown accident of fire, undoubtedly lightning, in the magazine, and several

* A Dutch historian who wrote about the year 1696.

† Pallavar, signifies a dispute, also a contest, or a law-suit; sometimes, a long conference is called a pallavar. It is a Portuguese word used every where in Guinea.

people lost their lives, particularly governor Plunket; but it was again expeditiously rebuilt, with many alterations for the better, by Anthony Rogers, esq.

This country is exceeding fertile, abounding with variety of fruits, roots, and fallads. Their chief fruits are, oranges, lemons, limes, guavas, bonanas, plantanes, by some called Indian figs: and there are some reasons to believe these are the sort of figs mentioned in scripture: first, because figs are there described to grow in large clusters as these do, so large that a single cluster is a good weight for a man to lift with one hand: secondly, their leaves are prodigious large and broad, consequently much fitter to make aprons than our fig-leaves. Here are also great store of papaws. Their chief roots are yams and potatoes. Their best fallads are pursley, and cucumbers, which they have all the year round. In short, Gambia is a pleasant fruitful fine country, but very unhealthy.

S I E R R A L E O N E.

SIERRALEONE was discovered by the Portuguese; but, as Mr. Smith, says I cannot be rightly informed at what time the English became masters of it, nor indeed is it very material, since they have had it a number of years in their possession unmolested, till Roberts, the famous pirate, took it in the year 1720, when old Plunket, who was blown up in Gambia castle, was governor; which he effected in the following manner: Roberts having then three good stout ships under his command, put into Sierraleone for fresh water, and finding a trading ship in Frenchman's Bay, he took her from thence and carried her into another bay, with a long narrow entrance near the cape, and where there was a great depth of water. This harbour was therefore called Pirat's-Bay, because, when Roberts had rifled her, he set fire to her: part of her bottom was to be seen at low water when I was there. The next day, he sent up a boat well manned and armed, with his humble service to governor Plunket, desiring to know if he could spare him any gold dust, or powder and ball. Old Plunket returned him word, that he had no gold to spare; but, as for powder and ball, he had some at Mr. Roberts's service, if he would come for it. Roberts, having received this answer, brought up his three ships next flood before Bense Island, and a smart engagement soon fol-

lowed between him and the governor, which lasted several hours, till Plunket had fired away all his shot and iron bars; upon which, he betook himself to his boat, and rowed up the back channel to a small island called Tombo; but they quickly followed, took him, and brought him back again to Benfe, where Roberts was; who, upon the first sight of Plunket, swore at him like any devil, for his Irish impudence in daring to resist him. Old Plunket, finding he had got into bad company, fell a swearing and cursing as fast or faster than Roberts; which made the rest of the pirates laugh heartily, desiring Roberts to sit down and hold his peace, for he had no share in the paller with Plunket at all. So that by meer dint of cursing and damning, old Plunket, as I am told, saved his life.

When they had rifled the warehouses, they went aboard their ships and sailed out of the river the next ebb, leaving old Plunket once more in the quiet possession of his fort, which the pirates had not damaged greatly.

This is a mountainous, barren country, especially towards the cape, where the hills are exceeding high and rocky, but nevertheless they are covered with trees which harbour many wild beasts; such as tigers, leopards, and lions; from whence it was first called by the Portuguese, Sierra de Leone; or, The Mountain of Lions. And the country gives its name to the river, which is very broad at the entrance, being above four leagues from the cape to Leopards island, at the opposite side of the river's mouth. The middle, indeed, is very shallow, being dry at low water in some places, for the depth of the channel lies close in by the cape; and those who sail into Sierraleone, must keep the starboard shore close aboard, sailing always close under the high hills, where they may be sure of regular soundings, and in all the bays extraordinary good anchoring ground; but near the edge of the shoals, the bottom is very uneven and foul ground, as before observed.

In this river, the company have two islands: viz. Tasso, a large flat island, near three leagues in circumference, on which the company's slaves have a good plantation. The rest of the island is covered with wood, among which are silk cotton trees of an unaccountable size; other cotton is also produced here very good, and indico. Their other island is Benfe, on which stands the fort I above mentioned.

This river produces several sorts of fish, most of which are very good in their kind, except the oysters; of which there are vast quantities growing to the branches of trees. I
make

make no doubt, but many will be apt at first to question the truth of this assertion; but the fear of such like objections shall, at no time, hinder my giving a faithful narrative of whatsoever I met with worth notice throughout this whole country. Therefore, I shall acquaint my reader, that the mangrove is a tree which grows in a shallow water. The leaf is exactly like that of an European laurel, and the branches have a naturally tendency downwards to the water. These under water are always stored with such shell-fish as in hot climates grow even to our ship bottoms, the chief of which are oysters. And I have often cut off the branch of a mangrove so full of oysters, barnacles, &c. that I could scarce lift it into the boat.

The next remarkable thing here worth our notice is the crocodile, an amphibious creature, of a dark brown colour, fortified with scales, large enough to make caps, or rather helmets, for the negroes, who frequently wear them, being musket-proof, which shews how vain it is to attack a crocodile with small arms. This river is pestered with them, and they do much damage. They are generally from twenty to thirty feet long, or thereabouts.

Mr. Bosman, in his description of Guinea, tells us*, that the crocodile is a rapacious creature; but in the latter end of the next paragraph he declares, that he never heard of any mischief they had done. As for their crying, in order to catch unwary people as they pass by, I am not of his opinion; however, some allowance must be made for the ancient figurative way of writing, wherein the treachery of the crocodile is described; and though not by tears, yet, I declare, I have been deceived by a crocodile in the following manner: one evening, as I walked round Bense Island, in company with captain Connel, of the Guinea snow, who had a large English bear-garden mastiff that walked a little way before us, there lay a huge crocodile upon the shore, which appeared to us like the trunk of an old tree left there by the tide; but we were quickly undeceived, for when the dog had got close by the head of it, it made a spring at him, and took him; which sudden motion so terrified us, that we took to our heels; and as soon as we were far enough out of his reach, Connell turned about, and whistled for his dog Ball; but had it been his misfortune or mine to walk foremost, we should have met no better fate than poor Ball. Nor was the loss of a dog, the only evil we sustained by those voracious animals; for whenever our hogs or goats happened to feed near the water-side,

* Description of Guinea, p. 325.

they seldom escaped the crocodile, who, as soon as they seize their prey, make to the river with it.

This river also abounds with alligators, which are much of the same nature with crocodiles, and shaped exactly like them, but of a much smaller size, the largest not exceeding eight feet in length, and therefore are not able to do much mischief ashore, and they prey mostly upon fish. During our stay in this river we took two alligators, one of which we gave to the negroes, who highly prize the flesh of this animal as dainty food. The other, which was about five feet long, we fastened under our main-top in order to bring home.

Having thus far described the river, let us look a little to the shore, and here we shall find several sorts of wild beasts, besides those already mentioned; such as elephants, jackalls, mandrills, apes, and deer of several kinds. All which I shall describe in order: and first, I shall begin with the elephant, a very large heavy built creature, being generally from eleven to fourteen feet high. Some authors tell us, they are much larger in India, and wonderfully docible, which is nothing unlikely. It is certain, Africa abounds with them, as may appear by the great number of teeth which are yearly found in those woods, from whence most parts of Europe are supplied with ivory. And as to the shedding of their teeth, at certain times, I must beg leave to give my opinion, as well as Mr. Bosman, who says *, “Nor is it, in the least probable, that a solid body, composed of such hard substance as elephant’s teeth, can in about twenty years time grow from one to a hundred pound weight, &c.” To all which I shall venture to give this answer: that it is very probable an elephant’s tooth may grow to its full size in much less time than twenty years, because the horn of a deer is no less hard, and a body no less solid than the tooth of an elephant; yet every body knows that the head or horns of a buck are but a three months growth from the time they first sprout till they are full grown and burnished: therefore, if so small an animal as a buck can in three months produce so solid a substance, what may we expect from the largest and strongest of beasts? Besides, there are other very persuasive reasons to induce one to believe the certainty of this argument from what I have heard several negroes say who have searched the woods for teeth, that they never found more than one in a place; which plainly shews they have been dropped at different times, in different places—But enough of this. The elephant feeds mostly upon a sort of fruit not unlike a papaw, which grows wild in

* Description of Guinea, p. 234.

several parts of Guinea. There is abundance of it upon Tasso island, which often invites elephants to swim over thither from the main. One of the company's slaves shot an elephant one day upon Tasso; who knowing the fury of that creature when provoked, ran immediately into a thicket for a safe guard. The elephant, at first, attempted to follow him; but whether the pain of his wound, or the closeness of the trees, hindered his pursuit, none can tell; for he quickly gave over the chace, and betook himself to the water, I suppose, to swim over to the main, though he never reached it alive; for he died in the water, and the tide carried him down to Foro Bay, where the negroes quickly knocked out his teeth, and cut up his carcass, for they account it excellent food. An elephant's motion in the water is so very swift that no ten-oared boat can row away from him, and upon land their speed is equal to a hand-gallop.

The next is the jackall, or wild dog, which is about the size of a large mastiff, the limbs much thicker and stronger, the head short, flat and broad between the ears, the nose narrow, and the teeth very long and sharp; several white men in this country, who have seen them and described them to me, mistook them for wolves as fierce as tigers; having, as they owned, never seen a wolf in Europe.

I shall next describe a strange sort of animal, called by the white men in this country, a mandrill; but why it is so called I know not, nor did I ever hear of the name before, neither can those who call them so tell, except it be for their near resemblance of a human creature, though nothing at all like an ape. Their bodies, when full grown, are as big in circumference as a middle-sized man's. Their legs much shorter, and their feet longer, their arms and hands in proportion. The head is monstrously big, and the face broad and flat, without any other hair but the eye-brows, the nose very small, the mouth wide, and the lips thin. The face, which is covered by a white skin, is monstrously ugly, being all over wrinkled as with old age, the teeth broad and very yellow; the hands have no more hair than the face, but the same white skin, though all the rest of the body is covered with long black hair like a bear. They never go upon all four like apes, but cry when vexed or teased, just like children. It is said, that the males often attack and use violence to the black women whenever they meet them alone in the woods: They are generally very snotty-nosed, and take great delight in scraping it down from their noses to their mouths.

C O M M E N D A.

C O M M E N D A is the largest and strongest of any fort belonging to the English on the Gold Coast, except Cape-Coast Castle. There is at present mounted upon it but twenty-one pieces of cannon, though there are port for almost as many more. They may be happy here in the neighbourhood of a good Dutch fort within musket shot of them; however, that happiness has not always subsisted here amongst them, for a late English chief of my acquaintance having had some words of dispute with the Dutch chief, was unhandfomely and unwarily attacked by him under a great tree between the two forts, where he bravely defended his own at the expence of the unhappy Dutchman's life. The landing-place here is pretty tolerable, the gardens very good, and there are large negroe villages belonging to both forts.

C A P E - C O A S T C A S T L E.

C A P E - C O A S T C A S T L E is the next fort that presents itself on this coast. The Portuguese, who were formerly very famous for making discoveries, first settled here, about the year 1610, and founded this castle upon a large rock which butts out into the sea forming a cape, or headland, which they called Cabo Corso. In a few years time they were dispossessed by the Dutch who enlarged and beautified it, and have very much added to its strength and grandeur.

The parade, which is twenty foot perpendicular above the surface of the rock, forms a kind of quadrangle, being open on the east side towards the sea; which renders it very cool, airy and pleasant, affording a delightful prospect of Queen Anne's Point, and the ships in Anamaboe Road, &c. on which is a platform of thirteen pieces of heavy cannon. The other three sides are curiously built up, containing many beautiful spacious neat apartments and offices; particularly, on the south side, a large well built chappel, the back part of which joins to the castle wall, having the great body of the rock called Tabora on the outside of it, which not only serves to break off the violence of the sea, but is allowed also a very good defence from the annoyance of any ship.

The

The Negroe Town of Cape-Coast is very large and populous. The inhabitants, though pagans, are a very civilized sort of people, for which they are beholding to their frequent conversation with the Europeans. They are of a warlike disposition; though, in time of peace, their chief employment is fishing, at which they are very dexterous, especially with a cast-net, wherewith they take all sorts of surface fish, nor are they less acquainted with the hook and line for the ground fish. It is very pleasant to see a fleet, consisting of eighty or a hundred canoes, going out a fishing from Cape-Coast in a morning, and returning in from sea well freighted in the evening, which may be seen every day during the dry seasons, except Tuesday, which is their fittish day, or day of rest. They frequently venture abroad in the rains, though they are sometimes drove in again, at the approach of a tornadoe, before they have been two hours abroad.

The grand caboceroe of this town was (in the time of our author) a Christian, named Thomas Osiat. He was carried when young to Ireland, where his master dying, left him in care with Mrs. Pennington, who kept the Crown or Faulcon tavern near the Change in Corke. She took care of his education, and had him baptized by the reverend Dr. Maul, now lord bishop of Cloyne. After having obtained his freedom, in this manner, he in time returned home to Cape-Coast, where he now lives in very great grandeur, and is of the utmost service to the English, both for the carrying on their trade in the inland country, and preserving peace with all the neighbouring powers, especially the town of Elmina, where stands that great and strong Dutch fort, which is the residence of their general, and is but three leagues distant from Cape-Coast. There has seldom been a good understanding between those two places, either among the white men or the blacks.

A little before I arrived here (continues our author) there happened to be a war between the two towns of Cape-Coast, and St. George's de Elmina, at which time the great Dutch caboceroe, named Abbocon, in a deriding manner sent a cartouch box of ammunition to Tom Osiat; thereby signifying that he believed Tom Osiat wanted a sufficient force of arms to attack him; which however Tom very thankfully received, and desired the messenger to tell Abbocon, that he hoped in a little time he should be able to return him as good a present. The next day they set the battle in array, which happened to be a very bloody one, nobody being able to judge which party had the better of it, for the space of four hours, till at

last the Elminians began to break, and give way to the Cape-Coasters, who soon routed them, and took a great many prisoners, among whom were nine of the petty caboceroes of Elmina, whose heads Tom Ofiat (though a Christian) caused to be cut off, and sent them next day in a bag to Abbocon, assuring him that his powder and ball were very good, as did appear by the execution they had done.

The government of Cape-Coast castle, &c. has at sometimes been invested in one man, whose title is captain-general of all the English settlements on the Gold Coast of Guinea. It has at other times been governed, as it now is, by a triumvirate. As for the council, which ought to be added to both, I look upon it as a cypher, because the chiefs always act as they please, by the seeming consent of a council that dare not oppose them, as being invested with a power by the company, either to depose or depute whom they please to be chiefs of any of the other forts.

The gardens of Cape-Coast are very pleasant and large, being near eight miles in circumference; they are no where circumscribed by any bounds or hedges except on the south side next the town, but all in general is called the Garden as far as any regular walks are planted. They are very fertile, and produce every thing that grows within the Torrid Zone: such as, oranges, lemons, limes, citrons, guavas, papaws, plantanes, bonanas, cocoa-nuts, cinnamon, tamarinds, pine-apples, Indian cabbage; also European, and many sorts of European fallads; such as cucumbers, pumpkins, water-mellons, and purslin. Their best roots are yams and potatoes, and sometimes they can raise turnips out of good English seed. By the side of these gardens, on the top of a steep hill, is a little round tower which mounts seven guns, built by general Phipps, from whom it takes the name of Phipps's Tower; it is exactly three quarters of a mile north-west from Cape-Coast castle. At the same distance, east by north, is another English fort, called Fort Royal, which formerly belonged to the king of Denmark. In the year 1698, the English began to fortify and rebuild this fort; and, had they gone on as they began, it would certainly have been the strongest castle in all Guinea, being every way inaccessible (through the steepness of the hill) but by one narrow path, which a single gun may defend; and, even now, though ruinous, it is capable of levelling Cape-Coast castle to the ground. Here are mounted and dismounted twenty-one pieces of ordnance, wherewith they take up, or answer all the salutes of ships that come into the road; which is very convenient in case of any body's being
sick

reck at Cape-Coast, that they may not be disturbed by the daily firing of guns, seeing that this road is so much frequented by ships, who always salute the fort both at their arrival and departure.

Mr. Bosman, in his description of Cape-Coast, is very concise, though what he says of the place is very true; but (as if he was sorry for speaking well of any thing that belonged to the English) he immediately quits his subject, and falls upon an unedifying description of the infirmities of the English there. He tells us, that the whole garrison looks as if it was famished or haggidden; which he imputes to the debauchery of their drinking an unwholesome mixture of limes, water, brandy and sugar; which, says he, they call punch. Now, indeed, I will say this for the Dutch in Guinea, that they seldom adulterate their rum or brandy with any such unwholesome mixtures, as we call them, but drink it plain to excess; and surely, that cannot be accounted debauchery. But to leave the Dutchmen, as he does the English, to themselves for a-while, and to conclude my history or description of Cape-Coast; the landing place here is so very dangerous that no boat can venture ashore, but must wait for a canoe to come off and fetch either goods or passengers ashore; and even the canoes are often over-set and the gentlemen well washed; nevertheless, when safe ashore, this place is the wholesomest and most comfortable of any in all Guinea.

W H Y D A H.

WHYDAH is of all other places in Guinea the most difficult to land at. The sea breaks and rolls at such a vast distance from the shore, that no European boat can come within two hundred yards of it, but must come to anchor a good way off, and wait for a canoe to come and carry the passengers or goods ashore, which the dextrous canoe-men generally do with safety; however, the contrary too often happens, for the canoes over-set, mens lives are lost, and goods spoiled. Upon notice of our arrival, there were hammocks sent down to the water-side for us, and a large canoe came off to our boat to carry us ashore, which it did without any other damage than a little washing. I was amazed when we came among the breakers, (which to me seemed large enough to founder our ship) to see with what won-

wondrous dexterity they carried us through them, and ran their canoe on the top of one of those rolling waves a good way upon the shore. Which done, they all leaped out, and dragged the canoe up the beach several yards, from the power of the next returning wave. It is barely possible, that a man may, if overfet here, save his life by swimming; but it is not very probable, for there are such numbers of sharks here, that they follow a canoe to the dry land in hopes of prey.

Ships trading here have always tents close by the sea-side by way of warehouses, in which they put their goods. I walked up to one of the French tents, and the mate, who had the charge of the goods there, happening to be a native of Ireland, desired me (in the English language) to accept of a dram, which I the more readily consented to, because I had been a little wetted by coming ashore. There were a great many ankers of brandy piled up in the tent, which seemed wet on the outside. I therefore asked the reason of that. The mate told me, they had been waisted ashore that morning from their long-boat, which then lay off at her moorings; and that one of his men, who helped to rowl them up to the tent, venturing a little too far into the sea, after an anker which was waisted ashore, happened to be seized by a small shark, whom he encountered with his knife, and had fairly disengaged himself; but the return of the next wave, which set the Frenchman afloat, brought in two other sharks that immediately tore the poor man to pieces, and in an instant devoured him before their faces. This ugly story made me a little out of conceit with the place; however, the hammocks being ready to carry us up to the fort, we got in and were carried over three rivers, or rather three different branches of the same river. When we arrived at the other side we chose to walk; the country here being the most pleasant I ever yet beheld. The English and French have forts here within musket shot of each other, being composed of a thick mud-wall with deep moats round them. The English fort, which is very large, has four strong batteries, on which are mounted seventeen pieces of heavy cannon.

All who have ever been here, allow this to be one of the most delightful countries in the world. The great number and variety of tall, beautiful and shady trees, which seem as if planted in fine groves for ornament, being without any underwood, or weeds, as in any other parts of Guinea; also the verdant fields are every-where cultivated, and no otherwise divided, than by those groves, and in some places a small foot-path; together with a great number of pretty little vil-
lages,

ages, encompassed by a low mud-wall, and regularly placed over the face of the whole country. All these contribute to afford the most delightful prospect that imagination can form. There is neither mountain or hillock to hinder one's prospect, the whole country being a fine, easy, and almost imperceptible ascent, for the space of forty or fifty miles from the sea; so that from any part of this kingdom, a body may have a prospect of the ocean; and the farther you go from it, the more beautiful and populous the country; insomuch that by endeavouring to describe it, I have undertaken a task I cannot perform, and shall therefore drop the subject, with this one assurance to my reader, that the imaginary beauty of Elysian fields cannot surpass the real beauty of this country, which, nevertheless, yields no gold; but what they have here is brought from Brasile by the Portuguese, to purchase slaves.

The natives here seem to be the most gentleman-like negroes in Guinea, abounding with good manners and ceremony to each other. The inferior pays the utmost deference and respect to the superior, as do wives to their husbands, and children to their parents. All here are naturally industrious, and find constant employment; the men in agriculture and the women in spinning and weaving cotton, of which they make cloaths. The men, whose chief talent is husbandry, are unacquainted with arms, otherwise (being a numerous people) they could have made a better defence or resistance against the king of Dahomey, who subdued them without much trouble, and has now laid heavy taxes upon them. They are all pagans, and worship three sorts of deities. The first is a large beautiful kind of snake, which is inoffensive in its nature. These are kept in fittish-houses, or churches, built for that purpose in a grove, to whom they sacrifice great store of hogs, sheep, fowls, and goats, &c. and, if not devoured by the snake, are sure to be taken care of by the fittish-men, or pagan priests, who are as great impostors as any belonging to the church of Rome. The laity all go in a large body by night with drums beating, and trumpets of elephants teeth sounding, in order to perform divine worship, and implore either a prosperous journey, fair weather, a good crop, or whatsoever else they want. To obtain which from the snake, they then present their offerings, and afterwards return home. They are all so bigotted to this animal, that if any negroe should touch one of them with a stick, or otherwise hurt it, he would be immediately sentenced to the flames. One day, as I walked abroad with the English governor, I spied one of them lying in the middle
of

of the path before us, which indeed I would have killed had he not prevented me, for he ran and took it up in his arms, telling me, that, it was the kind of snake which was worshipped by the natives; and, that if I had killed it, all the goods in his fort, and our ship, would not be sufficient to ransom my life, the country being so very populous that I could not stir without being seen by some of the natives; of whom there were several looking at us that happened to be upon their march home from their captivity at Adrah. They came and begged their god, which he readily delivered to them, and they as thankfully received, and carried it away to their fittish-house with very great tokens of joy.

Their second rate gods are the tall trees, for which they have a great veneration. And their last god is the sea, which they firmly believe, and not without just cause, is able to do as much for them as the snake or the trees: but, because that no share of the offerings thrown in here, can ever revolve to the priests, they teach the people to pay it a small kind of distant adoration; which, as I before observed, may be seen, and consequently worshipped in that manner, at any part of the kingdom; but all their offerings must be made to the snakes and trees.

The priesthood here is not altogether confined to the male sex, for there are more priestesses than priests; both being held in such veneration that they are liable to no punishment for any capital crime whatsoever. The priestesses are accountable to their husbands for no action either of disobedience or whoredom; on the contrary, they are uncontrollable, and must be served by the husband upon his knee, with the same respect that other women pay their husbands. If the case be bad with those of the Romish church who are priest-ridden; how much worse must it be with those unhappy men who are priestesses-ridden by their own wives! So much for their religion. As for the country in general, though I allow it to be the finest I ever saw, yet I should never like it because it is so very unwholesome; and, by my last accounts from thence, I am informed, it is more so now than when I was there, the country being, through the king of Dahomey's means, left uncultivated, is now overgrown with poisonous stinking weeds. The same accounts inform me, that an accident of fire happened, soon after my departure, to the French fort which burnt all the houses in it, and dismounted the great guns. The king of Dahomey, hearing of this accident, sent a part of his army, who were then encamped at Sabee, down to take the French fort; but the English, seeing them besieged

sieged in so defenceless a heap of confusion, and dreading the evil consequences that might happen, if the Dahomites should once become masters of that fort, without farther hesitation fired upon them, and with the first shot killed the aforesaid wicked general, his son, &c. the second killed two of the petty captains of war and others, and the third likewise did execution: at which they broke up the siege, and ran confusedly away.

Before the king of Dahomey conquered this place, the natives were so industrious that no place which was thought fertile could escape being planted, though even within the hedges that enclose their villages and dwelling places; and they were so very anxious in this particular, that the next day after they had reaped they always sowed again, without allowing the land any time for rest.

Here a man may have from forty to fifty wives, and their captains three or four hundred, some one thousand, and the king four or five thousand; most of whom serve to till the ground for their husbands only, but the most beautiful stay at home, do the work relating to the family, and there wait on them. The rich will not suffer any man to come where there wives are. They are so jealous of them, that, on the slightest suspicion of incontinence, they sell them to the Europeans; and should a person here presume to debauch another man's wife, if the injured person be a rich man, the offender will surely be put to death, and his family made slaves. If any man should, though undesignedly, touch one of the king's wives, he is in danger of losing his head, or he is doomed to perpetual slavery. Upon which account, if any man is obliged to go near the king's palace, notice is given of his coming, that so the women may retire to a remote part out of sight. When the king's wives go into the field to work, as they do daily by droves, they cry out, if they see a man, Stand clear: upon which the man falls flat on the ground till they have passed him.

The king is so absolute, that all the virgins in his dominions are looked on as his property; and his chief captains, to whom the government of his seraglio is entrusted, whenever they hear of or see a beauty, seize her for his use, which no one dare contradict. When a young lady is presented to the king he lies with her twice or thrice, after which she is obliged to live a nun; so that the women are so far from desiring to enjoy this honour, that they prefer death to it; and I have heard that, some years ago, these captains seized a young beautiful maid, who, rather than live a nun's life,

made her escape, and threw herself into a deep well, and there died.

From the multiplicity of wives it is frequent in these parts to see fathers who have two hundred children living at once. It is customary here for a man sometimes in one day to have half a dozen children born to him; for they never cohabit with any of their wives when pregnant or menstruous, which indeed are potent reasons for polygamy. Besides, as the riches of a man is the number of his children, and which he can dispose of at pleasure, except his eldest son, and the males being frequently sold into slavery, and this small spot of ground furnishing one thousand slaves every month for the market, women must be plenty, and each man must have a number. Upon the father's death the eldest son inherits all his goods and cattle, and also his wives, his own mother only excepted. They use circumcision, which many postpone till the child is four, five, and eight years old.

The natives here are cloathed, but that of the women is so very loose, that the wind often discloses their natural beauties: this the men say was a fashion invented here by the women for a certain convenience they found in it. Both men and women go with their heads shorn, and uncovered, though the sun is so scorching hot. They are so fearful of death, that when they are sick they are very diligent in the use of medicines, and no one dares to speak of death in the king's presence, on penalty of undergoing the punishment immediately. They live, as to time by guess, having no festivals, no division of hours, days, weeks, months, or years, save only that they go by moonshines, which are so regular that they compute their sowing-time thereby. They are most accurate at accounts; and they easily reckon without the assistance of pen and ink, though the sum amounts to many thousands; which makes it very easy to trade with them. They are great gamesters, and very often stake wife and children, and land and body.

The government is vested in the king and the principal men; but in criminal cases the king assembles a council, where he opens the indictment, and requires every person to declare his opinion what punishment the offender deserves; and according to the verdict, execution ensues. Capital crimes are but two, murder and adultery committed with the king's or the grandee's wives. Very few instances of this happen, but history hath recorded two for murder: the offenders were upon conviction cut open alive, their intrails burnt, and their corps fixed on a pole erected in the
market-

market-place. A young man in womens cloaths shut himself up among the king's wives, and enjoyed several of them; but at last being discovered, he and the offending lady was brought forth, and sentenced to be burnt. The youth seeing several of the ladies, with whom he had passed many a night very agreeably, forward to bring wood to make his funeral pile, laughed heartily, declaring that several other ladies were likewise guilty, but he would not accuse them particularly, and so no more than he and the unhappy lady that was taken in the offence were burnt. Most other crimes are judged by the viceroys, and some trifling penance, or pecuniary mulct, set upon the offender.

The king's retinue are his wives only; and when he goes a progress, which he does once or twice a-year, he is accompanied by a thousand of the most beautiful. His grandees go not with him, but meet him at the place where he appoints to divert himself. The king has a cup which no man but himself drinks out of. Under him he has several viceroys whom he appoints at pleasure, and who in his absence act arbitrarily, and have each their vice-royalty. He has also grand captains who likewise are viceroys over some district or other. Another sort of captains are such as are entrusted with the market, slaves, prisons, and the shore. Besides all which, there are a great number of honorary captains. His revenue is very large; for there is no commodity but what pays toll; and the collectors, of which there are one thousand, disperse themselves throughout the whole land, in order thereto.

On the king's death, they have a villainous custom of stealing from one another; and this they do openly without being liable to punishment; which public violence and robbery continue till the new king is installed, when he immediately prohibits it, and is directly obeyed. If the grandees cannot agree about the succession, as sometimes it happens when the king dies without issue male, or when they are for advancing his youngest son, they publish the order, and tell the people they have a new king; but generally the old king is succeeded by his eldest son, who, on his father's demise, gets into his palace, and takes possession of his wives. The king's wives are the executors of his sentences, and it is merry enough, when a grandee has offended the king, to see three or four hundred of them go to the offender's house, which they immediately strip and level with ground.

S E N E G A L :

THE last, though the most important, acquisition of the English on the coast of Africa, is the island of Senegal, in the mouth of the river Senegal, by some called the Niger. This was ceded to us by the French in the last treaty of peace, and adds one of the most advantageous branches of traffic to our commerce of Africa; namely, the gum trade, which formerly was solely in possession of the French.

The best description we have of this fort are from the former possessors of it. Monsieur Adanson describes both the place and the manner of landing, as follows:

The same day we arrived before the factory of Senegal. After having made the usual signals, and saluted the fort with our guns, we cast anchor three leagues higher, at the mouth of the river Niger, in nine fathoms water, a slimy bottom, and good holding ground. Though we were within half a league of the bar, the sea was very high; and the winds blowing off the shore, made a prodigious surf, which occasioned our ship to roll in a strange manner. Here we were witnesses to a fatal accident, which but too often happens at sea. We put out our boat; but unluckily it overfet, and one of the men was drowned*. However we did not stay long in the road; a boat was sent from the isle of Senegal, to carry us over the bar, and pilot us into the river.

By a bar we understand a particular agitation of the waves, which in passing over a shoal †, swell and rise to a sheet of water, from ten to twelve feet high, and afterwards break in the fall. No sooner has the first wave had its effect, but it is followed by a second, and this by a third. They begin to be perceptible at a hundred and sometimes a hundred and fifty fathoms from the coast, and are as formidable to large as to small vessels. A boat runs the danger of being overfet, and a ship of being dashed to pieces. This bar extends all along the coast of Senegal; at least there are few places it does not reach. Such was the danger we had to encounter

* This we may believe, as we lost on that bar, last May, a boat belonging to the Harwich man of war, and in it captain Foreman, the next in command to the commander in chief, and, than whom, none could have more deservedly been regretted.

† Which shoal, or bank of sand, our author, should have understood by a bar; but what he says above, is only the effect of the shoal or bar. I only mean, the shoal is the bar.

before we could enter this river, the mouth of which was covered by a bank of sand, against which the billows dashed with great violence. Luckily for us, we arrived at a time of year when the sea is not so boisterous, consequently when the bar is less difficult to get over: we were piloted by negroes, all hearty fellows, and so well acquainted with this navigation, that very rarely any accidents happen*.

The pilot boats belonging to the bar are small decked vessels, from fifty to sixty tuns, and sometimes larger. They generally sail with ballast only, and seldom draw more than four or five feet water. The care of them is intirely committed to negroes, whom you must not pretend either to contradict or advise. When we were on the bar, we were obliged to keep profound silence, that the pilot might not be in the least interrupted: some hid themselves through fear of being drowned, and some through apprehension of being wet: others, more intrepid than the rest, stood upon deck to view the agitation of the waves. I, as an observer, could not help placing myself in this station; and for my pains I got thoroughly wet. We were above half a quarter of an hour in this dangerous passage; now lifted up by billows which bended under us; and now tossed by others which dashed against the sides of the vessel, and covered it all over with water. One wave lifted us up very high, and then left us aground; another came and took us up and was followed by others in the like succession: At length, after being tossed in this manner for some time, we saw ourselves out of danger. As it is customary on this occasion to make a handsome present to the negroes of the bar; each passenger behaved generously towards them, and they were very well satisfied.

As soon as we entered the river Niger, we found ourselves in a very gentle stream, of above three hundred fathoms in breadth; that is, four or five times broader than the Seine at Pont-Royal. Its direction is exactly north and south, parallel to the coast for the space of three leagues, from its mouth to the island of Senegal. The land on both sides is only one continued plain of quick sands, extremely white, with a few downs scattered here and there, and continually shifting according to the caprice of the winds. The western bank forms a very low cape or narrow slip of land, which separates the river from the sea; and whose greatest breadth is not a hundred and fifty fathoms: this is called Barbary Point.

* All accounts, as well as our short acquaintance with the bar, confirms the truth of this.

The eastern bank is higher; but they are both equally dry and barren, and produce only a few low plants. We did not perceive any trees, till we advanced two leagues higher, towards the English island; and then we spied some mangroves, which are almost the only tree we saw till we arrived at the island of Senegal.

This place is situated within three leagues of the mouth of the river, and two thirds of a league from the English island. It is the chief settlement of Senegal, and the residence of the director-general. We arrived by night-fall at the harbour east of the fort, where we landed. As soon as I set foot on shore, I waited upon M. de la Brue, the director-general, who gave me a most kind reception. I delivered to him the letters of recommendation which I had from his uncle, M. David, director of the East-India company, who was pleased to interest himself in my favour: and they operated even beyond what I could possibly expect in a country subject to such difficulties. In short, he promised to assist me on all occasions, and he did it accordingly with such readiness and good nature, as deserves a grateful acknowledgment from the lovers of natural history, if I have done any thing towards promoting this branch of learning.

He soon was as good as his word: I had the liberty of travelling up the country, and of examining into its various productions. To facilitate my design, M. de la Brue procured me a boat, with negroes, and an interpreter; in short all conveniencies, as specified by the East-India company to the superior council, in a letter wherein they informed him of my intentions.

Being arrived in a country so different in every respect from my own, and finding myself as it were in a new world, whatever I beheld drew my attention, because it afforded me matter of instruction. The air, the climate, the inhabitants, the animals, the lands, and vegetables, all were new to me: not one object that offered itself to my view, was I accustomed to. Which way soever I turned my eye, I saw nothing but sandy plains*, burnt by the most scorching heat of the sun. Even the very island I stood upon, is only a bank of sand, about one thousand one hundred and fifty fathoms in length; and one hundred and fifty or two hundred at the most in breadth, and almost level with the surface of the water. It divides the river into two branches; one of which, to the east-

* The author is mistaken, or has forgot, for the Guinea-side is all covered with woods: the island and the Barbary shore, or tongue of land, are exactly as he describes.

ward, is about three hundred fathoms broad; and the other west-ward, near two hundred, with a considerable depth.

This island, notwithstanding its sterility, was inhabited by upwards of three thousand negroes, invited thither by the generosity of the whites, into whose service most of them had entered. Here they have erected houses or huts, which occupy above one half of the ground. These are a kind of dove or ice houses, the walls of which are reeds fastened close together, and supported by stakes driven into the ground. These stakes are from five to six feet high, and have a round covering of straw, of the same height, and terminating in a point. Thus each hut has only a ground floor, and is from ten to fifteen feet diameter. They have but one square door, very low, and many of them with a threshold raised a foot above the ground; so that in going in they must incline their bodies, and lift a leg up very high, an attitude not only ridiculous but disagreeable. One or two beds are frequently sufficient for a whole family, including domestics, who lie pell mell along with their masters and the children. Their bed is a hurdle laid on cross pieces of wood, and supported by forkillas, or small forks, a foot above the ground; over this they throw a mat, which serves them for a paillasse or straw bed, for a mattress, and generally for sheets and bed-clothes; as to pillows they have none. Their furniture is not very cumbersome; for it consists only of a few earthen pots, called canaris, a few callabashes, or gourd-bottles, with wooden bowls, and the like utensils.

All the huts belonging to the same person are inclosed with a wall or pallisade of reeds, about six feet high, to which they give the name of tapade. Though the negroes observe very little symmetry in the situation of their houses, yet the French of the island of Senegal, have taught them to follow a certain uniformity in the largeness of the tapades, which they have regulated in such a manner, as to form a small town, with several streets drawn in a direct line. These streets indeed are not paved; and luckily there is no occasion for it; since they would be very much at a loss to find the smallest pebble upwards of thirty leagues all round. The inhabitants find a greater conveniency in their sandy soil: for as it is very deep, and soft, it serves them to sit upon; it is also their sofa, their couch, their bed. Besides, it has some other good uses; namely, that there is no danger in falling; and it is always very clean, even after the heaviest rains, because it imbibes the water with great ease, and there needs only an hour of fine weather to dry it. However, this town

or village, which ever you please to call it, is the handsomest, the largest, and the most regular in the country: they reckon, as I have already mentioned, upwards of three thousand inhabitants: it is about a quarter of a league long, and the breadth equal to that of the island, whose center it occupies, being equally ranged on both sides of the fort by which it is commanded.

We may safely affirm, that the negroes of Senegal are the likeliest men in all Nigritia or Negroland. They are generally above middle sized, well shaped, and well limbed. There is no such thing ever known among them as cripples, or hump-backs, or bandy legs, unless it be by accident. They are strong, robust, and of a proper temperament for bearing fatigue. Their hair is black, curled, downy, and extremely fine. Their eyes are large and well cut, with very little beard; their features agreeable enough, and their skin the deepest black.

Their usual dress consists in a small piece of linnen which passes between their thighs; and the two ends being lifted up and folded, form a sort of drawers, which are tied with a fillet before; and thus they cover their nudity. They have likewise a paan, that is, a piece of callicoe, made in the form of a large napkin, which they carelessly throw over their shoulders, letting one end of it dangle against their knees.

The women are much about the same size and make as the men. Their skin is surprisngly delicate and soft; their mouth and lips are small; and their features very regular. There are some of them perfect beauties*. They have a great share of vivacity, and a vast deal of freedom and ease, which renders them extremely agreeable. For their cloathing they make use of two paans, one of which goes round their waist, hangs down to the knee, and supplies the place of an under-petticoat; the other covers both their shoulders, and sometimes the head. This is a modest dress enough for so hot a country: but they are generally satisfied with the paan which covers the reins; and they throw off the other whenever they find it troublesome. One may easily judge that they are not long a dressing or undressing, and that their toilette is soon made.

Though the heats of this climate are excessive, to such a degree, that their winter is much warmer than our summer,

* The vast numbers of children, and children's children, the French begat by them, and left there, prove our author is not singular in his opinion.

in France, yet they are supportable. One is accustomed to them by degrees; because the air is every day refreshed with sea and land breezes, which blow alternately. The way therefore for a person to cool himself, is to catch the fanning breezes, or to take shelter within doors, when there is thorough air; and the windows are made of fine linnen.

It is to these heats that they are partly indebted for the fertility of their lands. The sands of this island are converted into gardens of considerable produce. Independently of the legumes and fruits of the country, such as the Guinea oscille, botates, annaas, guavas, and some others, they likewise plant, in the winter season, most of the European herbs and legumes. The fig-tree, the pomegranate, and the vine, are loaded every year with excellent fruit. With a little labour and care, there is no fruit nor grain, but would grow there in great plenty: they might raise whatever they want, and generally all the necessaries of life. In short, the soil of the island of Senegal, notwithstanding its being so sandy, is yet so very fruitful, that a great many plants yield several times a year. This I saw myself in a garden which I kept on purpose for such experiments: and what without all manner of doubt will appear very surprizing, is, my having sown particular legumes, of which I had above twelve crops the same year. But this curious detail I refer to another work.

There is not perhaps a country in the world where poultry are more common. They breed turkeys, Guinea hens, geese, ducks, and a prodigious number of fowls. Their pigeons are in admirable perfection; and their hogs multiply very fast. There is also plenty of fish, and especially in the Niger, where you may catch carps with your hand. This river, besides the lamantin or sea-cow, abounds in captains*, mullets, surmulletts, soles, rays, and other excellent fish: it has also plenty of crabs and lobsters. Most of these fish come from the sea; and it is said, that when they are caught in the river it improves them; because the mixture of the fresh with the salt water makes them more delicate and tender. To all these advantages we may add the pleasure of sporting; for this island is furnished with little moor-hens, with larks, thrushes, sea-partridges, and yellow wagtails; or, to express myself better, the ortolans of the country: these are small lumps of fat, exceedingly well tasted.

The only thing wanting in the island of Senegal are walks: for they say it is too small, and too naked. They might,

* A fish so called, because it is very red, and its fins resemble a feather: it is very like a carp, but larger.

without doubt, have umbrageous avenues for the sake of a shady walk, were they to plant callabash-trees, and the like, which delight in moist sands : but of what use would it be, to make a harbour for the musketoës, that is, for a greater plague than the most excessive heats ? Of what service would those avenues be in a country, where the time of walking is not till sun-set ? Ought they to regret this loss, when they have gardens enamelled with perpetual verdure, which every day present the eye with new decorations; where such a multitude of flowers, as agreeable by their fragrant odours as by the variety of their colours, shoot up almost without care or culture ? There you see, sweet basil of all sizes and colours, tuberoses, daffodils, asphodel-lillies; among which are the night-shade, the African pink, the amaranth, and pomergarnates in blossom, which produce an excellent effect. The blue and gilt lizards, with butterflies and other insects, all equally beautiful, delight in coming hither to mix their different colours, and to diversify that sameness which one sees in most gardens.

THE

THE

ENGLISH POSSESSIONS

IN

A S I A.

ИСТОРИЯ ПЕРВОЙ МИРОВОЙ ВОЙНЫ

И

А И С А

T H E
E N G L I S H P O S S E S S I O N S
I N
A S I A.

WE are now come to the last division of our work, a territory almost as extensive, and far more opulent, than any other part of our possessions. In this, however, as our gains are greater, our possession is more precarious; since we are here, in some measure, lords upon sufferance.

It is generally supposed, that the peninsula within the Ganges is under the immediate government of the mogul himself, and that the royal mandates from Delli are, according to the received notion of so arbitrary a dominion, obeyed in the most remote parts of the coast. This is so far from the truth, that a great part of that vast peninsula never acknowledged any subjection to the throne of Delli, till the reign of Aurengzebe; and the revenues from those Indian kings and Moorish governors, who were conquered or employed by him, have, since his death, been intercepted by the viceroys, which his weaker successors have appointed for the government of the peninsula: so that at this time neither can the tribute from the several potentates reach the court of Delli, nor the vigour of the government extend from the capital to those remote countries. And ever since the province of Indostan was ruined by Nadir Shaw, the weakness of the Mogul, and the policy and confirmed independancy of the viceroys, have in a manner confined the influence of the government to its inland department.

Let it therefore be understood, that the sovereign possesses a third only, and that the least valuable part, of his own vast empire. Bengal, the smallest but most fertile province, is governed

verned by a viceroy. The other division, called the Deckhan, extending from Balasore Jagonaut (or thereabouts, for the geography is certainly not settled) to Cape Comorin, is also delegated by the mogul to another viceroy, of exceeding great power, having within his jurisdiction seven large territories, to which he has the undisputed right of nominating seven nabobs, or governors of provinces. In all parts of India there are still large districts, which have preserved, with the Gentoo religion, the old form of government under Indian kings called raja's. Such are Maissore, whose capital is Seringapatam; and Tanjore, whose capital is Tanjore. There are also among the woods and mountainous parts of the country several petty princes, or heads of clans, distinguished by the name of polygars. These are all tributary to the nabobs, and those to the viceroy, whose capital is Aurenghabad. The Carnatic is that part of the Deckan which comprehends the principal settlements of the Europeans, Madrais, and Pondicherry, and also Arcot. To establish the government of the last named province, and to oppose the hostile intentions of Mr. Dupleix, the English East-India company engaged in the last war in support of Mahomet Allée Cawn.

The chain of mountains which run through the peninsula from north to south, are the cause of an extraordinary phenomenon in natural history. The countries which are separated by these mountains, though under the same latitude, have their seasons and climate entirely different from each other; and while it is winter on one side of the hills, it is summer on the other side. On the coast of Malabar a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea at the end of June, with continued rain, and rages against the coast for four months, during which time the weather is calm and serene on the coast of Coromandel; and towards the end of October, the rainy season, which they term the change of the monsoon, begins on the coast of Coromandel: at which time the tempestuous winds bearing continually against a coast in which there are no good ports, make it so dangerous for the shipping to remain there, for the three ensuing months, that it is scarce ever attempted. This is the cause of the periodical return of our ships to Bombay, where there is a secure harbour, and convenient docks.

With regard to the interior government of the country, and the splendor of its despotic king, we shall give an account thereof in the words of Sir Thomas Rowe.

Extract

Extract of a Letter from Sir Thomas Rowe, to the Archbishop of Canterbury, dated Adimere, January 29, 1615.

“ These people have no written laws : the king’s judgment binds ; who sits and gives sentence once a week with much patience, both in civil and criminal causes, where sometimes he sees the execution done by his elephants with too much delight in blood.

“ His governors of provinces rule by his firmans, which are his letters or commissions authorizing them, and take life and goods at pleasure.

“ In revenue he doubtless exceeds either Turk or Persian, or any eastern prince ; the sums I dare not name : but the reason, all the lands are his, no man has a foot. He maintains all that are not mechanics, by revenues bestowed on them, reckoned by horses ; and the allowance of many is greater than the estates of German princes. All men rise to greater and greater lordships as they advance in favour, which is got by frequent presents, rich and rare. The mogul is heir to all that die, as well those that gained it by their industry, as merchants, &c. as those that live by him. He takes all their money, only leaving the widow and daughters what he pleases. To the sons of those that die worth two or three millions, he gives some small lordship to begin the world anew. The king sits out in three several places three times of the day, except something extraordinary hinder him : an hour at noon to see his elephants fight ; from four till five to entertain all comers, to be seen and worshiped ; from nine till midnight amidst his principal men in more familiarity, being below among them.

“ All the policy of his state is to keep the greatest men about him, or to pay them afar off liberally *. There is no council, but every officer gives the king his opinion apart. He (meaning Jehan Guire, grandfather of Aurenzebe) is of countenance chearful, and not proud in nature, but only by habit and custom, for at night he is very affable and full of gentle conversation.

“ The buildings are all base, of mud, one story high. I know not by what policy the king seeks the ruin of all the antient cities which were nobly built, and now lie desolate and in rubbish. His own houses are of stone, handsome and uniform. His great men build not, for want of inheritance ;

* And whether at home or abroad, to keep a great number of spies continually about them,

and,

and, as far as I have yet seen, live in tents or houses worse than our cottages."

A Letter of the same Date from Sir Thomas Roe, to the East-India Company.

"At my first audience, the mogul prevented me in speech, bidding me welcome as to the brother of the king my master: and, after many compliments, I delivered his majesty's letter, with a copy of it in Persian: then I shewed my commission, and delivered your presents; that is, the coach, the virginals, the knives, a scarf embroidered, and a sword of my own. He, sitting in his state, could not well see the coach, but sent many to view it, and caused the musician to play on the virginals, which gave him content. At night, having staid the coachman and musician, he came down into a court, got into the coach, and into every corner of it, causing it to be drawn about. Then he sent to me, though it was ten o'clock at night, for a servant to put on his scarf and sword after the English fashion; of which he was so proud, that he walked up and down flourishing it, and has never since been seen without it. But after the English were come away, he asked the Jesuit, whether the king of England was a great king, that sent presents of so small value, and that he looked for some jewels.

"There is nothing more welcome here, nor did I ever see men so fond of drink, as the king and prince are of red wine, whereof the governor of Surat sent up some bottles, and the king has ever since solicited for more: I think four or five casks of that wine will be more welcome than the richest jewels in Cheapside."

Extracts from Sir Thomas Roe's Journal.

"The king having been far gone over night in wine, some, however accidentally or maliciously, spoke of the last merry night, and that many of the nobility drank wine, which none must do without leave. The king forgetting his order, asked who gave it, and answer was made the buckshee; for no man dares say it was the king when he makes a doubt of it. The custom is, that when the king drinks, which is alone, sometimes he will command the nobility to drink after him; which if they do not, it is looked upon as a crime: and so every man that takes a cup of wine of the officer, has his name writ down, and he makes his obeisance, though perhaps the
king's

king's eyes are clouded. The king not remembering his own command, called the buckshee, and asked whether he gave the order, who falsely denied it, for he had it from the king, and by name called all that drank with the ambassador. The king then called for the list, and the persons named in it, and fined some one, some two, and some three thousand roupees; and some that were nearer his person, he caused to be whipped before him, they receiving a hundred and thirty stripes with a terrible instrument, having at the ends of four cords, irons like spur-rowels, so that every stroke made four wounds. When they lay for dead on the ground, he commanded the standers-by to spurn them, and after that, the porters to break their staves on them. Thus most cruelly mangled and bruised they were carried out: one of them died on the spot. Some would have excused it by laying it on the ambassador, but the king replied, he only ordered a cup or two to be given him. Drunkenness is a common vice, and an exercise of the king's; yet it is so strictly forbidden, that no man can enter the Guzelcan when the king sits, but the porters smell his breath, and if he have but tasted wine, he is not suffered to come in, and if the reason of his absence be but known, it will be a difficult matter to escape the whip: for if the king once takes offence, the father will not speak for the son.

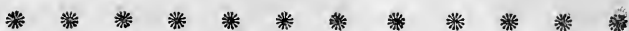
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“The second of September was the king's birth-day, and kept with great solemnity. On this day the king is weighed against some jewels, gold, silver, stuffs of gold, silver, and silk, butter, rice, fruit, and many other things, of every sort a little, which is all given to the Bramins.

“He was so rich in jewels, that I own in my life I never saw such inestimable wealth together. The time was spent in bringing his greatest elephants before him; some of which being lord-elephants, had their chains, bells and furniture of gold and silver, with many gilt banners and flags carried about them, and eight or ten elephants waiting on each of them, clothed in gold, silk, and silver.

“In this manner about twelve companies passed by most richly adorned, the first having all the plates on his head and breast set with rubies and emeralds, being a beast of wonderful bulk and beauty. They all bowed down before the king, making their reverence very handsomely. This was the finest show of beasts I ever saw.

“I found



“ I found the mogul sitting on his throne, and a beggar at his feet, a poor silly old man, all ragged and patched. The country abounds in this sort of professed poor holy men; they are called Fakeers*, and held in great veneration: and in works of mortification and voluntary suffering, they out-do all that has ever been pretended either by heretics or idolaters. This miserable wretch cloathed in rags, crowned with feathers, and covered with ashes, his majesty talked with about an hour so familiarly, and with such seeming kindness, that it must argue an humility not found easily among kings. The beggar sat, which the king's son dares not do. He gave the king a present of a cake mixed with ashes, burnt on the coals, and made by himself of coarse grain, which the king willingly accepted, broke a bit and eat it, which a nice person could scarce have done; then he took the clout that wrapped it up, and put it into the poor man's bosom, and sent for a hundred roupees, and with his own hand poured them into the poor man's lap, and gathered up for him what fell besides. When his collation, or banquet, and drink came, whatsoever he took to eat he broke and gave the beggar half; and rising after many humiliations and charities, the old wretch not being nimble, he took him up in his arms, though no cleanly person durst have touched him, and embracing him three times, laying his hand upon his heart, and calling him father, left him and all of us in admiration.

* There are few books of voyages among the Turks or Indians which do not make mention of the Fakeers or Joguies. The former is a Turkish word, and signifies poor; the latter is the Indian name for these extraordinary saints, for such they are esteemed, and are called Santos at Cairo, and in many other parts. It is well known that the veneration paid to the numerous body of these worthless and insolent beggars, is owing to the opinion of extraordinary sanctity which a few of this sect acquire by the performance of certain singular and fantastical vows. Some have made a vow to hold their arms above their head till they contract a stiffness, and can never be moved: others to keep their hands clenched till the nails grow through them: others to sit in chairs full of sharp nails, to drag a heavy chain, to carry vast weights about their necks, or fire on their heads. Some years ago one of these made a vow to measure the length of the whole empire with his own body; and at this time there is a Fakeer who every day rolls himself round the rock at Trichinopoly, which is a mile in circumference.



While the king appeared at the window, two eunuchs stood on two treffels with long poles, and feather-fans at the end of them, fanning him. He bestowed many favours, and received many presents. At one side in a window were his two principal wives, whose curiosity made them break little holes in a grate of reed that hung before it, to gaze on me; I saw first their fingers, and then, they laying their face close, first the one and then the other, I could sometimes discern their full proportion. They were indifferently white, with black hair smoothed up: but if there had been no other light, their diamonds and pearls had sufficed to show them. When I looked up they retired, and were so merry, that I supposed they laughed at me. On a sudden the king rose, we retired to the Durbar, and sat on the carpets, attending his coming out. Not long after he came and sat about half an hour, till his ladies at their door had mounted their elephants, which were about fifty, all of them richly adorned, but chiefly with turrets on their backs, all enclosed with grates of gold wire to look through, and canopies over of cloth of silver. Then the king came down the stairs with such an acclamation of health to the king, as would have out-roared cannon. At the foot of the stairs, where I met him, and shuffled to be next, one brought a mighty carp, another a dish of white stuff like starch, into which he put his finger, touched the fish, and so rubbed it on his forehead: a ceremony used presaging good fortune. Then another came and girt on his sword, and hung on his buckler, set all over with diamonds and rubies, the belts of gold suitable: another hung on his quiver with thirty arrows, and his bow in a case, being the same that was presented by the Persian ambassador. On his head he wore a rich turbant, with a plume of heron's feathers, not many, but long: on the one side a ruby unset as big as a walnut, on the other side a diamond as large, and in the middle an emerald much bigger. His staff was wound about with a chain of great pearl, rubies and diamonds drilled. About his neck he wore a chain of three strings of most excellent pearl, the largest I ever saw. Above his elbows, armlets set with diamonds; and on his wrists three rows of several sorts; his hands bare, but almost on every finger a ring: his gloves, which were English, stuck under his girdle. His coat was cloth of gold without sleeves, upon a fine semian as thin as lawn. On his feet a pair of buskins embroi-

embroidered with pearl, the toes sharp and turning up. Thus armed and accoutred, he went to the coach that attended him with his new English servant, who was cloathed as rich as any player, and more gaudy, and had broke four horses, which were trapped and harnessed in gold and velvets. This was the first coach he ever sat in, made by that sent out of England, and so like, that I knew it not but by the cover, which was a Persian gold velvct. He sat at the end, and on each side went two eunuchs, who carried small maces of gold set all over with rubies, with a long bunch of horse-tail to flap the flies away. Before him went drums, base trumpets, and loud mnsick; many canopies, umbrellas, and other strange ensigns of majesty, made of cloath of gold, set in many places with rubies. Nine led horses, the furniture all garnished, some with pearls and emeralds, some only with studs enamelled. The Persian ambassador presented him a horse. Next behind came three plankeens, the carriages and feet of one plated with gold, set at the ends with stones, and covered with crimson velvet, embroidered with pearl, and fringes of great pearl, hanging in ropes a foot deep, a border about it set with rubies and emeralds: and a footman carried a footstool of gold set with stones. The other two plankeens were covered and lined only with cloth of gold. Next followed the English coach newly covered and richly adorned, which he had given to queen Nourmahal, who sat in it. After them a third, in which sat his youngest sons. Then followed above twenty elephants royal, led for him to mount, so rich in stones and furniture that they glittered like the sun. Every elephant had sundry flags of cloth of silver, gilt sattin and taffety. His noblemen he suffered to walk on foot, which I did to the gate, and left him. His wives on their elephants were carried half a mile behind him.

When he came before the door, where his eldest son was kept prisoner, he stayed the coach, and called for him. He came and made reverence, with a sword and buckler in his hand, his beard grown to his middle, a sign of disfavour. The king commanded him to mount one of the spare elephants, and so rode next to him, with extraordinary applause and joy of all men, who ate now filled with new hopes. The king gave him one thousand roupees to cast to the people. His jailor, Asaph Chan, and all those monsters were yet on foot: I took horse to avoid the croud and other inconveniences, and crossed out of the Leskar before him, waiting till he came near his tents. He passed all the way between a guard of elephants, having every one a turret on his back,

and on the four corners of each, four banners of yellow taffety, and right before a piece of cannon carrying a bullet as big as a tennis-ball, the gunner behind it. They were in all about three hundred. Other elephants of state went before, and behind, about six hundred, all of which were covered with velvet, or cloth of gold, and had two or three gilded banners: several footmen ran along the way with skins of water to lay the dust before the king. No horse or man was suffered to come within two furlongs of the coach, except those that walked by on foot; so that I hastened to his tents to attend his alighting. They were walled in about half an English mile in compass, in form of a fort, with several angles and bulwarks, and high curtains of a coarse stuff made like arras, red on the outside, and within figures in panes, with a handsome gatehouse; every post that bore these up was headed with brass. The throng was great: I had a mind to go in, but no one was permitted, the greatest in the land sitting at the door; however I made an offer, and they admitted me, but refused the Persian ambassador. In the midst of this court was a throne of mother of pearl, borne on two pillars raised on earth, covered over with a high tent, the pole headed with a knob of gold: under that, canopies of cloth of gold, and under foot carpets. When the king entered, every man cried joy and good fortune, and so we took our places. He called for water, washed his hands, and departed.

* * * * *

“Within this inclosure were about thirty divisions with tents. All the noblemen retired to theirs, which were in excellent forms, some all white, some green, some mixed, all inclosed as orderly as any house, in the most magnificent manner I ever saw. The vale showed like a beautiful city, for the baggage made no confusion; I was ill provided with carriages, and ashamed of my equipage; for five years allowance would not have provided me an indifferent tent answerable to others; and to add to the grandeur, every man has two, so that one of them goes before to the next ground, and is set up a day before the king rises from the place where he is.”

B O M B A Y.

THE island of Bombay lies in the latitude of eighteen degrees, forty-one minutes of north latitude, on the coast of Decan, the high mountains of which are full in view, at a

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trifling

trifling distance, and is so situate, as, together with a winding of other islands along that continent, to form one of the most commodious bays perhaps in the world; from which distinction it receives its denomination of Bombay, by corruption from the Portuguese Buon-bahia, though now usually written by them Bombaim. Certain it is, that the harbour is spacious enough to contain any number of ships; has excellent anchoring-ground, and by its circular position, can afford them a land-locked shelter against any winds, to which the mouth of it is exposed. It is also admirably situate for a center of dominion and commerce, with respect to the Malabar coast, the Gulf of Persia, the Red-Sea, and the whole trade of that side of the great Indian peninsula, and northern parts adjoining to it: to the government of which presidency then, they are very properly subordinated.

Considering too that this island is situated within the tropics, the climate of it is far from intolerable from its heat, in any time of the year, though never susceptible of any degree of cold beyond what must be rather agreeable to an European constitution. In the very hottest season, which is that which immediately precedes the periodical return of the rains, the refreshment of the alternate land and sea-breezes, is hardly ever wanting, the calms being generally of a very short duration; so that perhaps, in the year, there may be a few days of an extraordinary sultry heat, and even those may be made supportable, by avoiding any violent exercise, by keeping especially out of the malignant unmitigated glare and action of the sun, and by a light unoppressive diet. Great care too should be taken of not exposing ones self to the dangerous effect of the night-dews, and of the too quick transition from a state of open pores, to their perspiration being shut up, which is so often the case of those, who, from an impatience of heat, venture to sleep from under cover, in the raw air of the night, pleasantly indeed, but perniciously cooled by the absence of the sun: a circumstance yet more fatal, to such as have besides been heated by any intemperance in eating and drinking.

Bombay, in fact, had long borne an infamous character for unhealthfulness. It was commonly called the burying-ground of the English; but this was only till an experience, bought at the expence of a number of lives, had rendered the causes of such a mortality more known, and consequently more guarded against. Amongst others, the principal ones doubtless were,

First, the nature of the climate, and the precautions and management required by it, not being so sufficiently known,

as they now are; if that knowledge was but prevalent enough, with many, for them to sacrifice their pleasures of intemperance, or the momentary relief from a present irksomeness of heat, to the preservation of their healths.

Formerly too, there obtained a practice esteemed very pernicious to the health of the inhabitants, employing a manure for the coconut-trees, (which grow in abundance on the island) consisting of the small fry of fish, and called by the country-name Buckshaw, which was undoubtedly of great service; both to augment, and meliorate their produce; but thro' its quantity being but superficially laid in trenches round the root, and consequently the easier to be exhaled, diffused, as it putrefied, a very unwholesome vapor. There are some however who deny this, and insist on the ill consequences of this manure to be purely imaginary, or at least greatly exaggerated; giving for reason, that the inhabitants themselves were never sensible of any noxious quality in that method, and that if the island is now less unhealthy, that change must be sought for in other causes. But all are agreed, that the habitations in the woods, or coconut-groves, are unwholesome, from the air wanting a free current through them, and from the trees themselves, diffusing a kind of vaporous moisture; unfavourable to the lungs: a complaint common to all close-wooded countries.

There has also been another reason assigned for the island having grown healthier, from the lessening of the waters, by a breach of the sea being banked off, which however does not seem to me a satisfactory one. There is still subsisting a great body of salt water on the inside of the breach, the communication of which with the sea, being less free, than before the breach was built, must be in proportion more apt to stagnate, and breed noxious vapours; so that this alteration, by the breach, cannot enter for much; if any thing, into the proposed solution, which may perhaps be better reduced into the before-mentioned one of the different diet, and manner of living of the Europeans: not however without taking into account, the place being provided with more skilful physicians than formerly: when there was less niceness in the choice of them, surgeons, and surgeons-mates of ships, and those none of the expertest, used to be admitted almost without any or but superficial examination; though in so tender a point, as that of the life of subjects; always precious, and surely more so, where they are so difficult to recruit. The same negligence was also observed with respect to the galleys, and other armed vessels of the company in those parts; and, to

say the truth, the pay was too slender to invite into such service any capable persons. And here I cannot omit inserting, though digressively, one instance of a wanton disregard to that material point, of the truth of which I have been credibly assured. Mr. Phipps, one of the former governors, on examining the marine establishment of Bombay, in which he proposed making retrenchments, by way of currying favour with his masters at home, which is often done, by the falsest, and most ruinous œconomy, observed the surgeons pay rated at forty-two rupees per month, which, at the usual way of reckoning of a rupee for half-a crown, was just five guineas; "What!" says he, "there must be some mistake; the figures are transposed, it must be twenty-four instead of forty-two:" and for the sake of this, in every sense a barbarous joke, he, with a dash of his pen, curtailed the pay accordingly: but surely this was rather cutting into the quick, than paring off excrescences.

But whatever may be the reason, the point is certain, that the climate is no longer so fatal to the English inhabitants as it used to be, and incomparably more healthy than many other of our settlements in India.

The most common disorders are fevers, to which muscular strong men are more subject than those of laxer fibres; and bloody fluxes; but the last make much less ravage than they used to do, where they fixed, from the superior method of treating them. New-comers too especially are liable to some cutaneous eruptions, such as the prickly heat, which is rather reckoned beneficial than otherwise; and a sort of tetters, called ring-worms, from their circular form, about the size of a shilling, which however soon submit to a gentle physicking, or even to some slight outward application.

The barbers, a violent disorder, generally ending in rendering all the limbs paralytic; and the mordechín, which is a fit of violent vomiting and purging, that often proves fatal, are distempers hardly now known on the island.

In short, this place, the name of which used to carry terror with it, with respect to its unhealthiness, is now no longer to be dreaded on that account, provided any common measure of temperance be observed, without which the tenure of health, in any climate, must be a hazardous one.

The seasons however can at most be divided into three; the cool, the hot and the rainy; or indeed properly enough into the dry weather, which lasts eight months in the year; and into the wet, which continues about four months, raining but with short intermissions. The setting in of the rains, is
common-

commonly ushered by a violent thunder-storm, generally called the Elephanta, a name which it probably receives in the Asiatic style, from the comparison of its force to that of the elephant. This however is a pleasing prelude to the refreshment that follows, from the rains moderating that excessive heat, which is then at its height, and naturally brings on, with the sun that raises the vapours, the relief from its intense ardor. They begin about the twenty-eighth of May, and break up about the beginning of September; after which there is never any, unless, and that but rarely, a short transient shower. This rainy season however, though extremely hot, in any dry intervals, when the sun shines out for a few hours, is counted the pleasantest. Yet the end of it, and some days after, are not reckoned but the sickliest time of the whole year, from the abundance of exhalations forming a kind of faint, vaporous bath, from which those who lodge in apartments the highest from the ground are proportionably less in danger, the atmosphere growing gradually clearer upwards.

During this season the country-trading vessels are laid up, especially those belonging to the black-merchants, with whom it is a kind of superstition not to send any to sea, till after a festival on the breaking up of the rains, the ceremony of which consists chiefly in throwing, by way of oblation, a consecrated coconut into the sea, gilt and ornamented. Then and not till then they look on the sea as open and navigable till the next returning rains. How this solemn anniversary foolery came to be established, I never could learn from any of the natives; it being probably one of their many traditional customs, the original of which is lost in the remoteness of their antiquity.

The government of this island is entirely English, subordinate to the Court of Directors of the United Companies of Merchants of England trading to the East-Indies, who appoint, by commission, a president, to whom they join a council, consisting of nine persons, the whole number of which are rarely, or rather never on the spot, being employed as chiefs of the several factories subordinate to that presidency. Such of the council as are at Bombay, are appointed to the posts of the greatest trust; such as accountant, warehouse-keeper, land-paymaster, marine-paymaster, and other offices for transacting the company's affairs. They are generally such as have risen by degrees from the station of writers, and take place (unless otherwise ordered from home) according to the seniority of the service.

The president then, and such members of the council as are on the spot, being convened by his order signified to them by the secretary, constitute a regular council in which all matters are decided by plurality of votes. But the influence of the president is generally so great, that few or no points are carried but according to his will and dictates. For should any of the council oppose him, he has it so much in his power to make their situation uneasy to them, that they must quit the service, and repair home; where, unless the occasion of discontent is very flagrant indeed, they rarely meet with much countenance or redress; the company thinking it rather more political to wink at the faults of a governor, where they are not such as to be too hurtful to their service, than to expose their affairs to the hazard of worse inconveniencies, from the dissentions of any number of absolutely co-ordinates. And, to say the truth, this weight a-top, though liable from human infirmity to be sometimes oppressive, serves to keep the under parts steady and fixt in their place; and it is besides easier to make one person accountable for the administration of things than a number; and since the president is he on whom the company chiefly relies, it seems but reasonable that he should have the greatest share of power.

As to the matters of a judicial nature, they were, in the year 1727, settled by a royal charter, respectively obtained for the three chief presidencies of the company in India: to wit, Bombay, Fort St. George, or Madras, on the coast of Coromandel, and Calcutta in Bengal. How this charter was received or managed in the two last places, I have had no distinct account: but as to Bombay am better informed. At the time this charter was procured for these settlements, it was generally believed to have been solicited by Mr. Harrison, once a governor of India, but at that time a director of the East-India company, who, in fact, meant it as a temporary expedient for preserving and extending his influence over the direction by this proof of his favour at court; though the plausible pretext alledged was the better administration of justice in those colonies. That such however could not be the true intention, must appear clearly from the neglect of all the proper and competent means for establishing it, especially with reference to Bombay; and indeed as to the two others, I never heard that there was any more care taken of them. The charter then appointing the judges of Oyer Terminer, the Mayor's Court, and the Court of Appeals, this last to consist of purely the president and council, was only attended with a manuscript book of instructions; which, granting it
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was framed by the ablest lawyers in the kingdom, could yet be but a very imperfect guidance to the gentlemen nominated to the several judicial offices necessary to the execution thereof. These gentlemen being, generally speaking, such as came very young out of their country, bred up entirely in a mercantile way, and utterly unacquainted with the laws of England; they were in course then liable to make great mistakes, especially in cases of capital importance: and however their natural good sense and well-meaning might make a shift in purely commercial cases to decide with tolerable equity, they could not but be greatly at a loss in those of a mixed nature, or where it was necessary to pay a regard to the particular laws of England. And no person had been sent out with capacity or knowledge enough to put this new method of procedure into a proper course, and to ascertain the limits of the several jurisdictions: so that the charter was left in a manner to execute itself. But this insufficiency of judgement was not even the worst of its consequences: for several of the company's servants, named especially to fill the offices of mayor and aldermen of the Mayor's Court, even though their jurisdiction was subordinate to the Court of Appeals, assumed to themselves such an authority and independance, as made the governor and council jealous of theirs being lessened, or at least checked by it. This bred such feuds and dissensions, that several of the members of the Mayor's Court conceiving themselves aggrieved, quitted the service, and repaired home to the company with their complaints. All which might have been in a great measure prevented, if proper persons had been appointed, and sent out by the company, to give these new powers their due digestion and form. Whereas, as it was, the want of knowledge, the inexperience and aim at independance in the appointed members of the several courts, rendered this accession of authority a dangerous tool in the hands of persons so disqualified for the exercise of it: so that it is scarce a doubt, but the charter had been better not obtained, than no better a provision have been made for its administration and maintenance. The neglect of such necessary precautions, being evidently fitter to give a sanction to unavoidable errors, and breed dissensions, than to promote a regular distribution of justice. And, to say the truth, any such disposition, which could only be made by sending out persons competently learned in the law, and vested with a sufficient authority, would not only have been attended with a great expence, but might have too much interfered with the plan of government instituted by the company at

home, and have broke that unity of direction so necessary to the due subordination of their servants.

As to the military and marine force, it is considered as more immediately under the direction of the president, who is entitled general and commander in chief, though nothing material is supposed to be ordered concerning either without the concurrence of the council.

As to the military, the common men are chiefly such as the company sends out in their ships, or deserters from the several nations settled in India, Dutch, French, and Portuguese, which last are commonly known by the name of Reynolds' (*Regnicolæ*); and lastly Topazzes, mostly black, or of a mixed breed from the Portuguese: to whom, and indeed to all the Roman-catholics in the military service, there is not the least objection made, or molestation given on account of their religion, of which they have the freest exercise imaginable; nor is even the least expediency of changing it ever mentioned to them: so that they are so easy on that head, that they might safely be trusted in any war against those of their own religion, such as the French, or even against the Portuguese themselves. At least I never heard of any complaint relating thereto.

These then are formed into companies under English officers, so as to compose the presidary force of the island; and are besides occasionally draughted off in detachments or parties sent upon command, either in the land-service, or in reinforcement of the subordinate settlements, or on board the armed vessels which constitute the company's marine in those parts.

In the military too many may be included regularly formed companies of the natives. These soldiers are called Sepays; who have their proper officers with the titles in the country-language, all however under the orders of the English. They use muskets, at which they are indifferently expert; but they are chiefly armed in the country-manner, with sword and target, and wear the Indian dress, the turbant, cabay or vest, and long drawers. Their pay is but small, comparatively to the Europeans; and yet they are on many occasions very serviceable from their inurement to the climate, and diet of the country; and are rarely known to misbehave or give way, if they are well led, and encouraged by the example of the Europeans, with whom they are joined. Generally speaking too they are very faithful to the masters who pay them; or, to use the expression familiar to the natives, to those whose salt they eat.

There is also on the island kept up a sort of militia, composed of the land-tillers, and bandarees, whose living depends chiefly on the cultivation of the coconut-trees, who, though not regularly disciplined, would be of good service, especially in any laborious part of military duty, and would assist in the defence of the island, against any foreign invasion, for the sake of their families there settled, and from attachment to the English government, the mildness and justice of which is the more sensible to them from the comparison obvious to make of it, to the oppression of the neighbouring governments.

Besides the necessary charge of a presidary force, for the defence of the island, the company has been obliged for a number of years to keep up a military marine, for the protection of trade upon the coast; the whole length of which has, for time immemorial, been infested with pirates, and bears some resemblance to that part of the African coast, which has so long been infamous for this practice. Certain then it is, that but for the constant check they were kept in by the English naval force in those parts, those seas would have swarmed with piratical vessels, and no trading one, unsufficiently armed, could have escaped them.

The coast to the northward of Bombay and Surat, was chiefly the harbour of a nest of pirates, called Sanganiens, who seldom extended their cruize far beyond the latitude of their ports, and were especially troublesome to the trading vessels bound in or out of the Gulf of Persia. But they rarely attacked any ship of strength, their cruisers being of no size, nor carrying any artillery equal to such an attempt. Their object too was chiefly plunder, without making slaves of those they found on captured vessels; a rule which however they sometimes broke thorough, where there was any considerable ransom to be hoped for.

On the opposite coast, which forms the end of the Persian Gulph, were seated the Muskat-Arabs, whose first putting forth ships for cruising was purely out of revenge against the Portuguese, whom they endeavoured to harass by all means, and even proceeded so far as to make descents on their settlements bordering upon Surat, where they committed all sort of devastations. But having once got a relish of pillaging these their enemies at sea, they began to extend their attacks indiscriminately on other nations, and amongst them on the English; from whom, however, after receiving various defeats, they were induced to abstain in future, and little by little taking a commercial turn, they have of late much remitted of that piratical turn, and keep vessels of force rather upon the defensive

five, than for any other purpose, and therewith held the power of the famous Shah-Nadir (Thomas Cooley Khawn) in defiance, who had the reduction of them much at heart.

Formerly too the Malabar coast, which, though it gives its name to the sea-shore as high as Surat, properly begins at Mount-Dilly, was also noted for the pirates that it bred, who greatly disturbed the navigation of the Indian seas. But these were long ago quieted by the Portuguese armaments; and since, having been not only overpowered by the English, but discountenanced by the country-governments who used to give them harbour and protection, are now dwindled to nothing.

To the northward too of Goa, there were several petty chiefs, who carried on this piratical course, but who at length came to an amicable correspondence with the English, from their dread and jealousy of the superior and growing power of Angria, their common enemy, though from different reasons.

It was then principally on account of Angria, whose dominions stretched from the mouth of Bombay harbour, down a great length of coast without a material interruption, that the company was, in its own defence, obliged to keep on foot a very expensive maritime force. This force consisted chiefly of galleys built here in England, on the beautifullest models that can be imagined, carrying about eighteen or twenty guns, and provided with oars, which were of a special service in a calm. They had also a few grabs, being vessels of much the same burthen, but built in the country, on the model of Angria's grabs, with prows, which seem best calculated for carrying chace-guns. The scheme of those people's gunnery being chiefly to get into the wake of their enemy, and rake him fore-and-aft; a kind of quarter-master conducting the vessel till he brings the mast of his chace into one, at the instant of which he gives the word for firing, and commonly does the greatest execution in the rigging, after which they have the easier market of the vessel thus disabled. Otherwise, they are too slightly built to lay along-side of any ship of the least weight of metal. Their great stress then lies on those prow-guns, which they manage to special advantage in a calm, having armed boats to tow them a-stern of the vessel they attack, and which for want of wind cannot avoid them. Of these armed boats called Gallevats, the company maintains also a competent number, for the service of their marine, being not only of use to oppose them to the enemy, but for pursuit, or expeditions in shoal water. For further strengthening too of the naval force in those parts, the com-

pany occasionally stations at Bombay some larger built ships from Europe, which, for their superior weight of metal, and greater difficulty of boarding, and especially in deep water, with any thing of a commanding gale, have nothing to fear from those slight vessels; though, in a calm, they might gall and plague them sufficiently.

All these vessels that formed the military marine of Bombay were chiefly manned with English, or with European deserters from other nations, and according to the exigency reinforced with detachments of soldiers from the land-forces, to serve in the nature of marines. These vessels were too, besides guarding the navigation of those seas, and convoying the trade employed on collateral services, such as protecting the interest of the company, or vindicating its honour, where requisite within the bounds of that presidency's department, as in the Red Sea, Gulf of Persia, the Bar of Surat, &c.

But whatever care could be taken of employing these cruizers to safety and advantage, it could scarce happen otherwise, but that Angria, always alert, and who knew too well the inferiority of his strength, to attack them without great odds on his side, should now and then over-match them so with numbers, as to get the better.

Towards defraying the charges of this marine, the company required of all the vessels trading in those seas, those of the other European nations excepted, to take the passes of the Bombay-government, for which they paid a small consideration, at which I never heard the least murmuring; the merchants being duly sensible not only of the benefit their trade received from the English protection, but that this contribution was far short of the cost of it.

Nothing however has more contributed to the population of this island, than the mildness of the government and the toleration of all religions; there not being suffered the least violence or injury to be offered, either to the natives or Europeans, on that account. The Roman-catholic churches, the Moorish moschs, the Gentoo Pagodas, the worship of the Parfees, are all equally unmolested and tolerated. They have the free exercise of all their rites and religious ceremonies, without either the English interfering, or their clashing with one another. This toleration makes too a contrast very favourable for our nation, to the rigors of the inquisition, which take place in the neighbouring territories of the Portugueze, whose having rendered themselves odious on that account, was not one of the least reasons that facilitated their being driven

driven out of the greatest part of them by the Marattas, who are all Gentoos. Mr. Bouchier too the present governor has greatly exerted himself, on the troubles of the government at Surat, and in the countries round about, to draw a confluence of their inhabitants, merchants and tradesmen, to settle at Bombay, where they experience quite another treatment and security than under their own governments. And, in truth, this gentleman's conduct cannot be too much commended for his incessant endeavours at encreasing the population, and improving or enlarging the trade of the island, and especially for his care of cultivating peace and friendship with those dangerous and powerful neighbours the Marattas; who being now masters of the contiguous island of Salfett, can at pleasure streighten the supplies of the island, and interrupt its inland communication.

As to the state of landed property on the island, it is to be observed, that when the cession of this island and harbour was first made to the English by the Portugueze, although so far deficient as it was, against the terms of agreement between the two crowns, and that the island of Salfett, which was manifestly included in the regalities of Bombay, was unjustly withheld from us, and consequently greatly lessened the importance of an island which must chiefly depend for its support on that of Salfett; the Portugueze also clogged the surrender of even this small part of what was our due, with the condition that the inhabitants, late their subjects, were to enjoy their possessions in the same manner as before we took possession. The island was then, and still continues, divided into three Roman-catholic parishes, or Freguezias as they call them; and are Bombay, Mahim, and Salvacam, of which the churches are governed by Roman-catholic priests; of any nation but the Portugueze, against whom the English wisely objected, from the danger of their connection and too close correspondence with the priests of their own nation, in the neighbouring Portugueze dominions, of whom we had repeated reasons to be jealous. The bulk then of the land-proprietors were Roman-catholic Mestizos and Canarins. The first are a mixed breed of the natives and Portugueze, the other purely aborigines of the country, converted to what the Portugueze call the Faith. The other land-owners were Moors, Gentoos, and Parfees, but these last are of modern date, having since purchased on the island. To all these however the article of security to their property has been inviolably kept, and the right of inheritance is regulated according to the respective laws and customs of the several denominations of cast

or religion. The land is chiefly employed in coconut-groves, or oarts, or in rice-fields, or in onion-grounds, which are reckoned of an excellent sort on this island.

The company has also acquired a considerable landed-estate, what by purchases, and by confiscations for crimes, or treasons, and seizures for debt; which estate there hath a particular officer, under the title of super-intendant, appointed to administer. There are two very pleasant gardens belonging to the company, cultivated after the European manner: the one a little way out of the gates, open to any of the English gentlemen who may please to walk there; the other a much larger and finer one, at about five miles distance from the town, at a place called Parell, where the governor has a very agreeable country-house, which was originally a Romish chapel belonging to the Jesuits, but confiscated about the year 1719, for some foul practices against the English interest. It is now converted into a pleasant mansion-house, and, what with the additional buildings, and the improvements of the gardens, affords a spacious and commodious habitation. There is an avenue to it of a hedge and trees near a mile long; and, though near the sea-side, is sheltered from the air of it by a hill that is between. Here the governor may spend most part of the heats, the air being cooler and fresher than in town, and nothing is wanting that may make a country-retirement agreeable.

As to the oarts, or coconut-groves, they make the most considerable part of the landed property, being planted wherever the situation and soil is favourable to them. When a number of these groves lie contiguous to each other, they form what is called the woods, through which there is a due space left for roads and pathways, where one is pleasantly defended from the sun at all hours in the day. They are also thick-set with houses belonging to the respective proprietors, as well as with huts of the poorer sort of people. I have before marked, that they are however reckoned unwholesome for want of a free ventilation.

As to the coconut-tree itself, not all the minute descriptions of it, which I have met with in many authors, seem to me to come up to the reality of its wonderful properties and use. Nothing is so unpromising as the aspect of this tree, but none yields a produce more profitable, or more variously beneficial to mankind. It has some resemblance to the palm-tree, if it is not even a species of it. The leaves of it serve for thatching, the husk of the fruit for making cordage, and even the largest cables for ships. The kernel of it is dried, and yields an oil
much

much wanted for several uses, and makes a considerable branch of traffick under the name of Copra. Arrack, a coarse sort of sugar called jagree, and vinegar are also extracted from it, besides many other particulars too tedious to enumerate. The cultivation too of it is extremely easy, by means of channels conveying water to the roots, and by a manure laid round them, of which I have spoke already. An owner then of two hundred of these trees is reckoned to have a competency to subsist on.

As to the rice-fields they differ in value, according to the fineness and quantity of rice they produce. The growth of this grain has a particularity not unworth mentioning; which is, that as it loves a watry soil, so to whatever height the water rises, wherever it is planted, the growth of the rice keeps measure with it, even to that of twelve or fourteen foot; that the summit of the stalk always appears above the surface. It is also remarked, that the eating of new rice affects the eyes. The fact is certain, though I cannot assume to give the physical reason for it.

There are also here and there interspersed a few brab-trees, or rather wild palm-trees (the word Brab being derived from Brabo, which in Portugueze signifies wild) that bear an insipid kind of fruit, about the bigness of a common pear. But the chief profit from them is the toddy, or liquor drawn from them by incisions at the top, of which the arrack that is made is reckoned better than that from the coconut-trees. They are generally near the sea-side, as they delight most in a sandy soil. It is on this tree that the toddy-birds, so called from their attachment to that tree, make their exquisitely curious nests, wrought out of the thinnest reeds and filaments of branches, with an inimitable mechanism. The birds themselves being of no value either for plumage, song, or the table, and are about the bigness of a partridge.

This island is however a strong instance of the benefits of a good government, and a numerous population, by not a spot of it remaining uncultivated; so that though it is far from producing sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants, and notwithstanding its many disadvantages of situation and soil, it yields, in proportion to its bigness, incomparably more than the adjacent island of Salfett, whither under the government of the Portugueze, or as it now is under that of the Marattas.

When the English first took possession of this island, they found in that part of it which chiefly commands the harbour, an old fortified house, which was the residence of the Portugueze

guezze governor; and though this house might have very well served for other valuable uses, they were tempted to make it the centre-house of the castle which they built round it. It is however impossible to conceive in every sense a more commodious structure; and the same or perhaps less cost than the reparations and additions have stood in to the company, would have built a much better mansion new from the ground. Yet the false œconomy of preserving this old piece of building, which need not to have been demolished or thrown away, had such effect, that it hindered the English not only from consulting a more commanding situation to the harbour, which is that of Mendham's Point, but made them blind to the disadvantage of the fort built round it, being overlooked by an eminence near it, called Dungharee Point, on which there is only a small untenable little fort, of no defence, and which serves now for the town-prison, for debtors, or criminals.

The castle however itself deserved a better situation, being a regular quadrangle, well-built of strong hard stone. In one of the bastions of it that faces Dungharee-Point, there is a large tank or cistern hollowed, in which is contained a great quantity of water, that is constantly replenished by the stationary rains. There is a well too within the fort, but of which the water is not extremely good, and liable to be dried up in the heats. And, by the way, be it observed, that the water in general on the island is not reckoned the best; and has been given for a reason why the Gentoo merchants were not so forward to settle on it; water being a point of great consequence with them; for, as they drink no spirituous liquors, they are very curious, and discerning in the taste and qualities of waters.

Some years after, as the town grew more populous, it was judged expedient to add the security of a wall round it; and, even then, they neglected to take in, as they might have done by a small extension, that dangerous post of Dungharee, which evidently now commands both town and castle. The curtains however between the bastions, were of little more strength or substance than a common garden wall: but there has lately been added at a great expence a ditch that encompasses the wall, and can be flooded at pleasure, by letting in the sea, at which the ditch terminates on two sides, so that the town is thoroughly surrounded with water. It is now one of the strongest places by much that the company has in India; and, considering the commodiousness of its harbour, might not improperly be made their capital place of arms, in the same nature as Batavia serves the Dutch: especially too if the envious

Portugueze had not detained us from the fertile large island of Salfett, which would have compleatly served for a granary to it. Instead of which, their supine indolent government suffered the Jesuits, who are better known in India by the appellation of Paulists, from their head church and convent of St. Paul's in Goa, to get by degrees, and with their usual arts and management of the laity, by much the greatest part of that island into their own hands, and which they kept wretchedly fortified, so that it fell an easy conquest to the Marattas; and at the same time we lost an useful barrier between us and that rapacious people.

At proper posts also round the island there are disposed several little out-forts and redoubts, as at Mazagman, Sion, Suree, and Worlee; none of which are however capable of making any long defence. The fort of Mahim is by much the most considerable, next to that of Bombay, being situate at the opposite extremity lengthways of the island. It commands the pass of Bandurah, a fort which almost fronts it on the opposite shore of Salfet, from which it is divided by an arm of the sea, that is however capable only of receiving small craft, that does not bring in great business to the custom-house established there.

The breach is the work that next claims mention, and is the most considerable for the cost of it. About two miles out of town, towards the middle of the island, the sea had so gained upon it with its irruption that it almost divided the island in two, and made the roads impassable. It did not then only take up a great expence to drain off a great quantity of this water, but to make a cause-way that should bank off this inundation. This cause-way then is above a quarter of a mile in length, and of a considerable breadth: but there is one gross fault remarked in it; that being bending near its middle, the architect has opposed to the sea a re-entering angle instead of a saliant one. Perhaps he had his reasons, but at least they do not appear. In the mean time there still lies within the breach a considerable body of water that has a free communication with the sea, as appears by its ebbing and flowings, and probably is but the wholesomer for it. Though it is not unlikely that this subterraneous intercourse may, in process of time, undermine and blow up the cause-way. After all then, I am far from convinced, that the benefits accruing from the breach are equal to the expence of it, which I am assured could not be much less than a hundred thousand pounds.

The only English church at Bombay, and which is full sufficient for any possible congregation of them at it, is a building

building, which if it has nothing to boast of as to its architecture, is however extremely neat, commodious and airy, being situate on what is called the Green, a spacious area that continues from the fort thereto, and is pleasantly laid out in walks planted with trees, round which are mostly the houses of the English inhabitants.

These are generally but ground-floored after the Roman fashion, and mostly with a court-yard before and behind, in which are the offices and out-houses. They are substantially built, with stone, lime, and smooth plaistered on the outside. They are often kept white-washed, which has a neat view, but is very offensive to the eyes from the glare of the sun. Few of them have glass-windows to any apartment, the sashes being generally paned with a kind of transparent oyster-shells square-cut, which have the singular property of transmitting the light full sufficiently, at the same time that they exclude the violence of its glare, and have besides a cool look. The flooring is generally composed of a kind of loam or stucco, called Chunam, being a lime made of burnt shells, which, if well tempered, as they have a peculiar art of it, is extremely hard and lasting, and takes so smooth a polish, that one may literally see one's face in it. But where terrasses are made of it, unless the chunam is duly prepared, and which is very expensive, it is apt to crack with the violence of the sun's heat. There have been also some attempts to paint the stucco walls in apartments, but have never succeeded, being presently spoiled, and discoloured by the saline particles of the lime, for which hitherto there has been found no cure. And here I cannot omit mentioning an use made at Surat of this manner of terrassing (for I saw no such thing at Bombay) some having instead of gravel walks in their gardens, stucco ones, a little raised above the garden-beds, so that they must be dry to walk on immediately after the violentest rain; but then, what with their whiteness and polish, they must have a very disagreeable effect on the eye, in a sun-shiny day, besides their being so slippery.

The houses of the black merchants, as they are called, though some are far from deserving the appellation of black, are for the most part extremely ill built, and incommodious; the window-lights small, and the apartments ill distributed. Some however make a better appearance, if but for being a story high, but not the best of them are without a certain meanness in the manner, and clumsiness in the execution that may be observed, comparatively, and without any partiality to the European architecture, even the ordinaryest.

There is however a convenience most of those houses either of the English or natives have, which are small ranges of pillars which support a pent-house or shed, that forms what is called in the Portuguese *Lingua-franca* Verandas, either round, or on particular sides of the house, which afford a pleasing shelter against the sun, and keep the inner apartments cool and refreshed by the draught of air under them. Such colonades might methinks even in England not be unserviceable, to summer-houses especially; which being so heated by a constant sun in the middle of the day, as to be hardly tolerable, cannot be supposed to be cooled fast enough, even in the evening, to allow of their being a refreshing retreat. It is under these verundas that the owners, especially the natives, generally enjoy the fresh air, and often transact their business, or receive visitants.

Most however of the best houses are within the walls of the town, which, to the best of my judgment on a gross guess, may be about a mile in circuit.

As for the pagodas of the Gentoos, there is not one of them worth mentioning as to their appearance, being low mean buildings, commonly admitting the light only at the door, facing which is placed the principal idol, which is made after the various imaginations they have of the subaltern deities they worship.

They fancy, it seems, that a dark gloomy place inspires a kind of religious horror and reverence; and are remarkably fond of having those pagodas amongst trees, and near the side of a tank, or pond, for the sake of their ablutions; which they do not, like the Mahometans, so much practice as a religious ceremony as purely for cleanliness, and, I might add, for the voluptuousness of them in those hot countries. These tanks, or ponds, are often very expensive works, being generally square, and surrounded with stone-steps, that are very commodious to the bathers. The most remarkable pagoda then on the island is on Malabar-hill, which is something more than two mile distance out of town, and is a kind of promontory that, stretching into the sea, forms, together with a small island called Old Woman's Island, what is called Back Bay, the entry of which is shut up by a ledge of rocks running from the one to the other. On this hill, which is far from an high one, and of easy ascent, about a mile from that ascent, after passing a plain a-top of it, on a gentle declivity to the sea-side, stands the Gentoopagoda, with a large tank or pond a few feet from it, and is of fresh water, formed by the draining of the rains, though not many yards from the sea, with which
it

it is near on a level, on that side the sea is open to it, all but where the pagoda stands between a part of it and the shore. The other three sides are surrounded with trees that form an amphitheatre, on the slopes of the hill towards it, than which no prospect that I ever saw, or can conceive, forms a more agreeably wild landscape. The trees open to all the force of the winds, follow the general law, and take a strong bent to the opposite point from them; but with such regularity, that one would think they had been trimmed or pruned to that figure they exhibit. These trees give one the idea of the temple-groves, so often pictured in the antients. A little beyond that spot, towards the extremity of the hill, was built a very small pagoda, of no manner of appearance, or worth mentioning, but for the sake of the founder of it, an itinerant Joguy or Gentoo vagrant priest, who not twenty years ago was at the expence of it, out of the alms and voluntary donations collected from those of his religion on the island. And as there is something in his history that characterises them, I shall summarily insert it here, as I received it from a Gentoo who knew him.

This man, when he first came on the island, might be about five and thirty years of age, tall, stait, and well-made. By his account, and a very probable one, considering their profession of vagrancy, he had been all over Tartary, Thibet, and on the borders of China. At length he took Bombay in his rounds; and here, though, according to his institution, which is strictly that of the old Gymnosophist of India, so plainly and so truly mentioned in ancient history, he ought to have gone stark-naked; yet, out of deference to our manners, when he took his station up in this hill, he just covered those parts, which the common ideas of decency oblige to conceal; and yet not so much, but that there might plainly be seen a brass ring passed through the prepuce, which does to those of his profession, the same office as a padlock or girdle of chastity is supposed to do to the Italian women. His hair too, which was twice the length of his body, that is to say, reaching down to his heels, and thence to the crown of his head again, was wreathed in rolls round, and rose in a kind of spire of a ruffet colour, into which it was sun-burnt from its original black. This man then, on his arrival at Bombay, addressed himself solely to the Gentoos, and to them only for money towards founding the small pagoda I have mentioned, nor indeed did I hear it suggested that he applied it to any other use. But his scheme for exciting their devotion was something extraordinary. He preached to them from the midst

of a great fire which surrounded him, and had something of a miraculous air, though there was nothing but what was very natural in it. He had a platform of earth made of the elevation of about two foot, and about twelve or fourteen foot square. Round this was set a pile of wood, which, being lighted, made him appear as if preaching from amidst the flames, though they never touched him, but must have been unsupportable to any but himself, who had from his childhood inured himself by degrees to bear such a heat. This device however had its effect, for it produced to him a collection, at several times, to the amount of what he required.

And here I cannot quit Malabar-hill without mentioning another particularity of it. At the very extreme point of it, there is a rock on the descent to the sea, flat a-top, in which there is a natural crevice, that communicates with a hollow that terminates at an opening outwards towards the sea. This place is used by the Gentoos, as a purification of their sins; which they say is effected by their going in at the opening, and emerging out of the crevice; which to me seemed too narrow for any person of any corpulence to squeeze through; though I have been credibly assured, that several very fat persons have achieved it. However, this ceremony is of such repute, in the neighbouring countries, that there is a tradition which I do not however pretend to warrant, that the famous Conajee Angria, ventured by stealth, one night, on the island, on purpose to perform that ceremony, and got off undiscovered.

Of SURAT, and the Mogul Government.

SURAT has hitherto been so closely connected with our government at Bombay, that some account of it falls naturally within my plan, but especially as it serves for introduction to an attempt of some definition of the Mogul government, in which the English are so much concerned, and which for many years past has been a kind of political paradox.

Surat then is situate on the continent a little to the northward of Bombay, about sixteen or twenty miles up the river Tappee, on the right hand side as you go up. The river itself is nothing remarkable, but the city on the banks of it is perhaps one of the greatest instances in the known world, of the power of trade to bring in so little a time wealth, arts and population, to any spot where it can be brought to settle.

It

It is not later than the middle of the last century that this place was the repair of a few merchants, who, under the shelter of an old insignificant castle, formed up a town, which in the process of a few years, became one of the most considerable in the world, not only for trade but size, being at least as large, and to the full as populous as London within the walls, and contains a number of very good houses, according to the Indian architecture. A wall was soon, after its taking the form of a town, built round it, to defend it from the insults of the Marattas or Ghenims, who had twice pillaged it; but a wall that could only be meant of use against the sudden incursion of such free-booters, as by no means capable of standing any thing like a regular siege. The castle too, which is by the river-side, and which you pass in your way up to the city, appears a strange huddle of building, fortified with cannon mounted here and there without order and meaning, and without an attempt at any thing like military architecture.

In this city then, before the East India company became by the royal grant invested with the possession of Bombay, was the presidency of their affairs on that coast. For which purpose they had a factory established there with several great privileges allowed them by the Mogul governments; and even after the seat of the presidency was transferred to Bombay, they continued a factory here, at one of the best houses in the city, which yet not being spacious enough to contain their effects, they hired another house at some distance from it, and nearer the water-side, which was called the New Factory.

In the mean time this city flourished, and grew the center, and indeed the only staple of India, it being much more frequented for the sake of the vent goods of all sorts met with there, from whence they were distributed, particularly to the inland provinces, than for either the natural productions, or manufactures of the country, though they also made a considerable part of its commerce. In short, there was hardly any article of merchandize that can be named, but what was to be found at all times here, almost as readily as in London itself. The company carries on annually a large investment of piece-goods, especially of the coarse ones, by ramparts, chelloes, and others for the Guinea market; but the English interest and influence seem of late years to have greatly declined, amidst the confusion and embroils of the century—a circumstance every where fatal to trade, and to that security and credit which are the life of it.

Whilst the Mogul government was in vigour, there was such a shew of justice, as induced the merchants of all religions and denominations to take shelter under it. The Gentoos especially resorted to it, and took up their abode there, not only on the account of trade, but for preferring a Moorish form of government to the living under Gentoos; who had none at all. And it must be owned, that in that time great care was taken that no very flagrant acts of oppression should be committed, so that in what there sometimes were, at least appearances were kept, and were mostly owing to the merchants themselves; who, on personal pique, or jealousy of trade, would find means to set the government upon one another's backs, which was not averse to interfere in their quarrels, being sure to be the only gainer by them.

B E N G A L

IS the most eastern province of the mogul's dominions, and is annually overflowed by the Ganges, as Egypt is by the Nile. It lies upon the mouth of the Ganges, and is bounded by the provinces of Patna and Jesnat on the north; the kingdom of Aracan on the east; the bay of Bengal and the province of Orixia on the south; and by the provinces of Narvar and Malva on the west; extending about four hundred miles in length from east to west, and three hundred in breadth from north to south.

The bay of Bengal is the largest and deepest in the known world, extending from the south part of Coromandel to the river Huegley*; in which space it receives the great rivers Ganges and Guena from the west side; as also the Arakan and Menamkiori or Avat river from the east side. But Bengal, as a coast, is supposed to extend only from Cape Palmiras on the north coast of Golconda, to the entrance into the Ganges. That river rises in the mountains of Nigracut, part of Great Tartary; receives many other rivers; and, after a course of three thousand miles, falls into the gulph of Bengal by so many mouths, that travellers are not agreed in the number of them: however, the common passage for European shipping is up the river Huegley, one of the most western branches.

The foreign and domestic trade of Bengal are very considerable; as may appear from the great number of Persians,

* Or Huguley.

Abyssinians, Arabs, Chinese, Guzarats, Malabarians, Turks, Moors, Jews, Georgians, Armenians, and merchants from all parts of Asia, who resort there. All the Christian nations established in the East-Indies also send their shipping to Bengal; and it is with the merchandizes of this country that they partly make their returns to Europe, besides what they export for their India trade. The principal merchandizes at Bengal are silks, cotton-cloths, pepper, rice, salt-petre, wood for dying, terra merita, lacca, yellow and white wax, indigo, camphor, aloes, and gum gutta.

The places of the greatest commerce, and where the English, French, and Dutch have their best establishments, are, Calcutta, Cossimbuzar, Huegley, Pipely, and Balifore. The capital of the viceroy is Muxadabab, which is large and populous: and Fort William, or Calcutta, is the principal place belonging to the English company in Bengal.

The capital city of the kingdom of Bahar is Patna, which lies in eighty-five degrees of east longitude, and twenty-six of north latitude, upwards of four hundred miles from Calcutta. It extends seven miles in length upon the banks of the Ganges, and is half a mile broad; so that it contains many thousands of inhabitants, and is a place of great trade for salt-petre and opium. Mr. Robert Eyre was the English chief here; but the company withdrew their factory in this city in 1750. It consisted of a chief, three council, and two assistants; with a lieutenant and forty soldiers under his command. It was thought very strange that the company should relinquish this factory, while they were able to transport the commodities of Bahar safely down the Ganges, since the destruction of the Morattoes on the banks of that river; and more especially as the company had great influence with the nabob, who had then no other European factory in his government. If frauds were committed in that factory, they ought to have been detected; not the factory to be lost by us, to give the French an opportunity of succeeding in the settlement. Mr. Cole obtained a pension; and Mr. Robert Eyre was dismissed the service; though it appears by Mr. Eyre's address to the company in 1753, that he had shewn they suffered a loss amounting to upwards of 100,000 l. by embezzlements, false entries, and bad conduct at Patna.

Orixa has such bad ports, that little trade is carried on there.

The richness and fertility of Bengal, with the safe and extensive navigation of the Ganges, shew the importance of the settlements within these limits; and have engaged the

trading companies of the maritime nations in Europe to establish factories upon the banks of the Ganges; which will be better seen by the following account of the villages on each shore, so far as they serve to convey an idea of the interest of the English company.

The first town on the river Huegley is Culculla, a good market for coarse cloth; as also for corn, oil, and other produce of the country. A little higher is the Dutch Bankshall, or place where their ships ride, when the currents prevent their getting up the river. From Culculla and Juanpardoa, two large deep rivers run to the east; and on the west side there is another that runs by the back of Huegley Island to Radnagor, famous for manufacturing cotton, cloth, and silk romaals or handkerchiefs: and on the same river is grown the greatest quantity of sugar in Bengal. Ponjelly, a little market town for corn, stands somewhat higher on the east bank of Huegley river, and exports great quantities of rice: and about a league above Ponjelly, was a pyramid, which served for a land-mark or boundary of the English East-India company's settlement of Calcutta, that is about a league higher up.

At this time Calcutta was a very flourishing place, and the presidency of the English company in Bengal. It was situated on the most westerly branch of the Lesser Ganges, in eighty-seven degrees of east longitude, and $22^{\circ} 45'$ of north latitude; one hundred and thirty miles north-east of Balifore, and forty south of Huegley. The governor resided in Fort-William; having six council, and other officers, as at Madras and Bombay; to whom all the other English factories at Huegley, Pibley, Dacca, and Balifore were subordinate. The town was large, fair, and populous; being inhabited by many private English merchants, and several rich Indian traders, who supplied the company with the commodities of the country. The fort was strong, and had a garrison of Europeans and sepoys. The plan of it was an irregular terragon, built with brick, and mortar called puckah, made of brick-dust, lime, molasses, and hemp, which becomes as hard and durable as stone. The governor's house was within the fort; and was a handsome, regular structure. There were also convenient lodgings for the factors, storehouses for the company's goods, and magazines for their ammunition. The company had also good gardens and fish-ponds; with an hospital for the sick and lame.

On the other side of the river there were docks for repairing and careening the ships; near which the Armenians had a good garden. All religions were tolerated here: the Pagans carried

carried their idols in procession; the Mahomedans were not discountenanced; and the Roman catholics had a church. About fifty yards from the fort was the English church, built by the contributions of the merchants and seamen who came to trade there. The English had the mogul's permission to settle at Calcutta in 1690; and Mr. Job Channock, the company's agent in Bengal, pitched upon that spot, for the sake of a large shady grove which grew there: but it was the worst place he could have marked out; for three miles to the north-east there is a salt-lake, which overflows in September; and when the flood retires in December, there is such a prodigious quantity of fish left behind, that they putrify and infect the air. Besides, the Gentoos worship the Ganges, and bring their sick people to its banks, to die near it: they entirely burn the bodies of the rich; but only disfigure those of the poor with the flames, and throw them into the river, where they float in great numbers, and are preyed on by the crows.

Calcutta was generally garrisoned by three hundred Europeans, who were frequently employed in conveying the company's vessels from Patna, loaded with salt-petre, piece goods, opium, and raw silk: for as the company held the settlement immediately of the mogul, they were under no apprehensions of being dispossessed. Indeed, the raja's, whose governments extend along the Ganges, between Cossimbuzar and Patna, had sometimes interrupted that navigation, and endeavoured by force of arms to exact the payment of certain duties for all merchandize that passed on the coast: but their force had been suppressed, and no farther danger was dreaded from them.

On the coast of Coromandel stands Fort St. George, the capital of the English company's dominions in the Indies. This place is situated in one of the most incommodious spots imaginable; the sea beats perpetually with prodigious violence on the sand whereon it stands; there is no fresh water within a mile of it; it is subject to inundations from the river in the rainy season; and the sun from April to September insufferably hot, the sea breezes being the only circumstance that renders it habitable. The reason of this bad choice for a settlement is variously related. The person entrusted by the company, about the beginning of the reign of Charles II. to build a fortress on that coast, according to some accounts, made choice of this place as the most proper to ruin the trade of the Portugueze settlement at St. Thomas; while others assert, that his only motive was to be nearer a mistress he had

at the Portugueſe colony. This is however certain, that there were ſeveral places in the neighbourhood free from moſt or all of theſe inconveniencies. The war carried on by the company at Bombay and Bengal, in 1685, to 1689, againſt the mogul's ſubjects; was a conſiderable advantage to Madraſs. The tranquillity which reigned here, and the vicinity to the diamond mines of Golconda, where there are frequent good purchaſes to be made, cauſed a prodigious reſort of Indian and Black merchants to this place, and thus principally contributed to render it populous and flouriſhing. The town is divided into two parts: that inhabited by Europeans is called the White town, is walled round, and can only be attacked at two places, the ſea and river defending the reſt; there are two churches here, one for the Engliſh, the other for the Roman communion. It is alſo a corporation, had a mayor and aldermen choſen by the free burghers, but the governor and his party are generally thought to determine the choice. It had beſides laws and ordinances of its own, a court in form, conſiſting of the mayor and aldermen in their gowns, with maces before them, a clerk, attorneys, ſollicitors, &c. In matters of conſequence, a few pagadoes well placed, could turn the ſcales of juſtice, the cauſe generally going according to the favour and inclination of the governor; but in trifling affairs there is not the ſame cauſe of complaint. The governor has or aſſumes a diſpenſing power to annul all its tranſactions. They have no power of inflicting capital puniſhment, except for piracy only; ſo that crimes of another nature are ſometimes made to infer piracy, out of perſonal views, or from other cauſes. A private trader, if he has the miſfortune to incur the diſpleaſure of a governor, is ſo onfound guilty of piracy. That part called the Black Town is inhabited by Gentows, Mohammedans, Chriſtians of India, as Portugueze and Armenians, there being temples and churches for each religion, all perſuaſions being tolerated. Governor Pitt walled it in toward the land, out of fear that the mogul's generals in Golconda might ſome time or other plunder it. The government of both towns are abſolutely veſted in the governor, who likewiſe commands in chief in military concerns; all other affairs of the company are managed by the governor and his council in conjunction, and moſt of thoſe are alſo ſaid to be his creatures. The company have their mint here for coining of money, from bullion brought from Europe and elſewhere, into rupees, and this brings them a conſiderable revenue. They alſo coin gold into pagadoes of different denominations and value. The diamond mines lie

a week's journey from this place. When a person goes to the mines with design to trade, he first makes choice of a piece of ground to dig in, and then acquaints the king's officers appointed for that service of his intentions. The money for leave to dig being paid, the ground is inclosed, and centinels placed round it. All stones above a certain weight (sixty grains) belong to the king. Frauds in this particular, are punished with death. Some get estates, whilst others lose their money, their labour, and their expectations. The trade of Madras was some time ago thought to be upon the decline, through the oppression of the servants of the company, which has also caused many merchants to withdraw. This colony produces little of its own growth, and next to no manufactures for foreign trade. The Moors, Gentows, and Armenians, have got possession of the trade they were wont to carry on to Pegu, the English being now chiefly employed in ship-building. The people of Surat share in their trade to China; the gold and some copper only are for their own market; the gross of their cargoes of sugar, sugar-candy, allum, china-ware, and some drugs, are all destined for Surat. Their trade to Persia is carried on by way of the river Ganges. The trade to Mocha in Coromandel goods, began in the year 1713, Fort St. David supplying the goods for that market. So that the trade of Fort St. George is altogether, like that of Holland, carried on with supplying foreign markets with foreign productions. There are computed to be in the towns and villages belonging to this colony eighty thousand people (this was some time ago) five hundred of these Europeans. They have rice from Ganjam and Orixá, wheat from Surat and Bengal, and fuel from the islands of Diu, near Matchulipatam. Thus are they easily distressed by any enemy, whose power at sea is superior to theirs. The governor is a person of great power, and treated like a prince by the rajahs of the country. He is attended abroad in a magnificent manner, having, besides his English guards, seldom fewer than three or fourscore persons in arms. Two union flags are carried before him, with a band of music, such as is used in that country. There are two persons near him, whose office is to cool him with fans, and chase away the flies.

There were formerly several other European settlements on the same coast, but all of them abandoned, on account of the exactions of the rajahs of the adjacent countries. Matchulipatam was the last quitted by the English, esteemed about seventy years ago the most flourishing colony in the Indies. Their house is now quite deserted. Some time ago the mogul's viceroy

on

on this coast, made the governor of Fort St. George an offer of the islands of Diu in a present, and the inhabitants were very well satisfied at the thoughts of being under the government of the company. But this proposal not being soon enough accepted of, the viceroy and people changed their minds, and refused to let the governor erect a factory when he would willingly have done it.

Next to this stands Narisipore, where the company had a factory for long cloths, for the use of their settlement at Matchulipatam. Not far from hence is Angerang, seated on a deep river which is navigable a great way up the country. This place is famous for the finest long cloth which the Indies produce; but the impositions of the rajahs, who possess the banks of the river, on the cloth transported on it, has ruined the place. The English factory established here in the year 1708, was soon withdrawn.

Amongst several small ports along the shore, Wahow is the most noted, producing abundance of rice for exportation, besides some cloth. It is not frequented by Europeans.

A little farther you find Vizagapatam, an English fortified factory, with eighteen carriage guns mounted on its ramparts. The country round it affords fine and ordinary cotton cloths, and the best dureas or muslins in all India. Want of money to purchase is the ruin of this settlement. In the year 1709, the nabob of Chikacul levied war upon this factory; the cause whereof was, that their former chief had borrowed monies of him on the company's seal, which his successor (for he was dead) refused to pay. The nabob applied to the governor of Fort St. George, but with no better success. Wherefore he came against Vizagapatam with an armed force, and the war, which was drawn out to a considerable length, growing burdensome to the company, the affair was at last compromised, upon paying the nabob a sum almost equal to what he demanded. The places we have now spoke of, lie in the kingdom of Golconda.

Next to this is that of Orixia. In this country lays Ballasore, on a river of the same name, four miles from the sea by land, though by windings of the river it is no less than twenty. The country abounds in commodities of its own growth, such as rice, wheat, gram, doll, calavances, pulse of several sorts, annise, cummin, coriander, and carraway seeds, tobacco, butter, oil, and bees-wax; and also in manufactures of cotton, in sanis, cafes, dimities, mulmuls, silk romaals, and romaals of silk and cotton; gurrachs, and lungies: and of herba (a sort of grass) are made gingham, pinascos, and several

several other sorts of goods for exportation. The English, French and Dutch have factories here, at present of small consideration in comparison of former times, before the improvement of the navigation of Hueghly river caused their decline. This place drives a good trade to the Maldives, which, as they afford no grain of themselves, receive hence all necessaries they have occasion for. This was formerly the principal European settlement in the bay of Bengal. Here are pilots for conducting the shipping which arrive from April to October, up the river Hueghly (a branch of the Ganges) each company maintaining pilots for their own shipping, who have liberty to serve strangers when they are not wanted by their own employers, from whence they reap considerable benefit.

Piply is seated on a river supposed to be a branch of the Ganges. This was formerly settled by the Dutch and English, and is now reduced to beggary from the same cause as the preceding. The country produces the same commodities with Ballasore. It is now inhabited by fishers.

Advancing five leagues on the western bank of the river Hueghly, you come to the river Ganga, another branch of the Ganges, which though broader than Hueghly river, is more incommodious for shipping, by reason of the sand banks in it. The Danes have a thatched house a little below the opening of this river. There are many villages and farm houses in those vast plains, which lie along the banks of Hueghly river; but no town of any consequence till you arrive at Culculla, a mart for corn, butter, oil, coarse cloth, and other country commodities. A little higher up, is the place where the Dutch ships ride, when the current of the river does not allow them to proceed farther. This place, as also Juanpardo, is seated on a great and deep river which runs eastwards, and on the west of it runs a river which washes the back of Hueghly island, and leads up to Radugur, famous for the cotton-cloths, and silk romaals, or handkerchiefs, of its manufacture. Buffundri, Fresindi or Gorgat, and Cohong, are places situated on the same river, and produce vast quantities of the finest sugar in Bengal.

Near to this is Fort William the greatest settlement the company have on this coast. The company have but small traffic in the kingdom of Dacca, the first on the eastern shore of the Ganges, no more than in those of Aracan, Ava, or Pegu, lying in order on the same coast. The islands along it are entirely uninhabited, and so no commerce can subsist in them.

Going

Going along the shore of the continent, you come to Merjee, a town situated on the banks of the Tanacerin, in the dominions of the king of Siam. This place enjoys a good harbour, and the country about produces rice, timber for building, tin, elephants teeth, and agale-wood. There were formerly settled at this port, a considerable number of English free merchants, who took advantage of the mildness of the government to drive considerable commerce, till they were ordered thence by the old East-India company, who threatened the king of Siam with a war, if he continued to harbour them; therefore, one Weldon was dispatched to Merjee; with this message, who added the outrageous murder of some of the Siamese, to the insolence wherewith he provoked the government. The people resolved to be revenged for this barbarity, and lay in wait for Weldon by night when he was ashore. But he having got notice of their design, made his escape on board his ship, and the Siamese missing him, vented their fury upon all Englishmen indiscriminately that fell into their hands. Seventy-six were massacred in this manner, scarce twenty escaping to the ship. Hitherto the English had been greatly caressed by the Siamese nation, having been promoted to places of the highest trust in the government. One was advanced to be head of the customs at Tanacerin and Merjee, and another promoted to be admiral of the royal navy. A great revolution which fell out at this time in the Siamese state, and the jealousies of the English company, caused most of the English merchants to disperse themselves, some to Fort St. George, others to Bengal, and others to Achen. The affairs of the company have been fully reinstated since that time in their former flourishing condition, and they now enjoy the benefit of the commerce of the Gulph of Bengal, from the mouths of the Ganges to the extremity of the promontory of Malacca, without being at any charge for settlements, forts or factories.

Sumatra. The company are believed to possess the best part of all the trade carried on in this island. Their factories are those of Mocha, Bantai, Cattoun, Bencoolen, Marlborough Fort, and Sillebar. The Dutch, by being possessed of the neighbouring island of Java, have had the address to fix themselves on part of this island, where they are said to be in possession of a gold mine which turns to small account to the possessors. It is not to be doubted but the English company act with as much conduct in neglecting to search after gold, as being no doubt sensible that commerce is of itself the richest mine in the world. There is no country under the sun which
 produces

produces this precious metal in greater quantities than the island of Sumatra, the empires of China and Japan only excepted; and no person can reasonably alledge that the manner in which these nations have amassed so prodigious a treasure is not the best. Now it is certain that these have acquired so much wealth by no other arts but industry and parsimony, the only certain way of enriching either nations or private persons. The company therefore act wisely in neglecting the mines on the island of Sumatra, which must be secured at the expence of forts and garrisons, and worked at the hazard of gaining the aversion of the natives, whose laziness hinders them from working them for themselves. Besides, those mines do not in any way approach the idea entertained of their riches. One reason whereof may be the following, that as all the numerous nations inhabiting the different parts of this island, are continually employed in picking up the gold which the torrents have washed into the sands of their channels, or discovered in the crannies of the rocks, not only a much greater quantity of metal must be this way found, but also may be much easier come by to the Europeans settled on the island, than the painful search for it in the mines, attended with numberless insurmountable discouragements and inconveniencies, which the Dutch in their way of mining must inevitably undergo. The only certain and adviseable method therefore of acquiring the benefit of the gold trade in the island of Sumatra is, by settling colonies in the most convenient parts, to use the inhabitants with gentleness and affability, to observe the most exact justice in all dealings with them, and thus by degrees to bring them into an esteem of European manners, the only way to engage them to use or take off European commodities. Thus the danger of securing the obedience of so many barbarous nations with a few men will be avoided; a correspondence will be maintained, which will draw vast quantities of gold into Europe, and that in return for those commodities which give bread to infinite multitudes of poor at home, the real and only solid riches of any state; and navigation and naval power will be promoted; all of them powerful reasons in vindication of the company's conduct in this particular, that they overlook the working the mines of Sumatra, a species of traffic which is generally attended with luxury and idleness (as in Spain,) and is indeed the bane and destruction of all industry, and of every other species of business whatsoever.

The English were formerly in possession of several settlements on the coasts of the Chinese empire, as well as in the king-

kingdom of Tonquin, all of them now withdrawn: though the company still do carry on trade to those parts, especially to Tonquin, for such articles as they want themselves, or can afford for the commerce of Europe, which latter are abundantly numerous. The company's factory was formerly settled in the island of Chufan, when the trade was carried on at Amoyor, from whence it has been removed to Canton, where about fifty years ago it flourished to such a degree, that the company had great hopes of being able to engross this beneficial branch to themselves. What defeated these expectations was, the high duties laid upon teas and other Chinese commodities, which by the encouragement this tax gave to smuggling, soon reduced the company's China trade to as low an ebb as that of other countries. As part of these duties have been taken off since the above impositions, it is to be presumed that this commerce goes on with its ancient prosperity; one thing is certain, that since this ease has been granted by the government, they have found the advantage of it by the increase of the revenue arising therefrom; whether this is also a national advantage, let others determine.

The company are in some sort excluded from all correspondence with the Manilla or Philippine islands, notwithstanding what the French alledge in pretending that the English carry on this trade under Irish colours, and that to a considerable extent, whatever may be really done in this way under the Morisco or Portuguese flags. The custom of the Spanish nation in this particular is without example, in laying open this trade to all nations, contrary to all the known maxims of that monarchy, the English and Dutch being the only nations excluded from this unprecedented indulgence—A precaution of small consequence where the people of the country find it their interest to overlook it.

In Japan there is not the least vestige of any English commerce, all the commodities of that empire with which our company is supplied, being furnished by means of their commerce with the Chinese and Dutch.

The following account of this traffic from a person who is far from being prejudiced in favour of the company, may possibly convey a juster idea of the nature and extent of the company's commerce than any thing hitherto said in this essay. The errors found in it will I hope be imputed to the true author, who has not thought proper to oblige the world with his name, or rather to the nature of the thing, in itself sufficiently dark and intricate, and besides most carefully hid from the eyes of the vulgar. His authorities however seem to
be

be sufficiently solid, being chiefly the public accounts of the company's sales and other transactions, at least so far as regards his own plan, which was to represent this corporation as an institution highly prejudicial to the trade and commerce of great Britain.

This traffic employs yearly seventeen sail of fine capital ships, each of the burden of five hundred tons, by the company's account, mounting thirty guns, and manned with one hundred mariners.

Account or Invoice of the Exports to India.

1442 tons iron at 15 l.	£ 21630 0 0
610 - - ordnance and wrought iron at 50l. - - - -	30500 0 0
450 - - steel at 50l. - - - -	22500 0 0
180 - - nails at 25 l. - - - -	4500 0 0
895 - - lead at 17l. - - - -	15215 0 0
800 - - cordage at 40l. - - - -	32000 0 0
550 - - stores at - - - -	305000 0 0
260 - - brass, copper, pewter, at 100l. - - - -	26000 0 0
100 - - gunpowder at 80l. - - - -	8000 0 0
32 - - quicksilver at 300l. - - - -	9600 0 0
18175 - - woollen cloths at - - - -	110000 0 0
23220 - - stuffs at - - - -	50000 0 0
47469 - - carpets at - - - -	40000 0 0
3000 doz. hose at - - - -	3000 0 0
11076 oz. gold in coin or bullion at 3l. 18s per oz. - - - -	43196 8 0

Note, the quantity of gold exported next year, amounted to 38092 oz. in coin, and 2977 oz. in bullion.

2991251 oz. silver at 5s. 3d. per oz. - 785203 7 9

The quantity exported the year following, was 2,327,329 oz. in coin and bullion.

Total amount of cargoes outwards	<u>£ 1,503344 15 9</u>
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Note, there were no more than fourteen ships cleared outwards this year, and that the above quantity of gold and silver bullion is exclusive of what is carried out by private traders, both in foreign and British coin, whereof it is impossible to fix or ascertain the value.

Follows the account or invoice of goods imported from India, with the value sold for at the public sales.

Piece-goods of the ships.

Wager, Prince of Wales, and Exter, sold at	£	250000	0	0
Scarborough	-	-	-	225000 0 0
Houghton, exclusive of tea and silk	-	-	-	10000 0 0
Admiral Vernon	-	-	-	175000 0 0
Edgcote, besides tea	-	-	-	10000 0 0
Drake and Rhoda, besides weighable goods		15000	0	0
Prince George and Streatham, ditto	-	-	-	9000 0 0
Chesterfield	-	-	-	240000 0 0
Pelham	-	-	-	85000 0 0
Bombay-Castle	-	-	-	215000 0 0
Oxford	-	-	-	195000 0 0
Hector, besides five hundred tons pepper	-	50000	0	0
Dorrington	-	-	-	194000 0 0
Seventeen ships, whose cargoes in piece-goods amount to			1,673,000	0 0
These ships do also bring home 3253900 lb. tea, which, at 4s. per lb. gross price at the sales			642,475	0 0
2000000 lb. pepper at 1s. ditto	-	-	100000	0 0
1141000 lb. coffee at 1s. 6d.	-	-	85,575	0 0
203850 lb. raw silk at 20s. ditto	-	-	20,385	0 0
900 tons salt-petre at 70l. per ton ditto		63,000	0	0
250 tons red-wood at 30l. ditto	-	7,500	0	0
600 chests china ware and drugs, ditto		99,600	0	0
Total inwards	-	-	£. 2,875,000	0 0

From which take off custom, charges, and discount, viz.

Custom.

	Value	pay per cent.	
	£		£
Callicoes	1,250,000	38 $\frac{1}{4}$	478,125
Prohibited goods	400,000	2	8,000
Tea	650,000	19	123,500
	<u>2,300,000</u>		<u>609,625</u>
			Brought

	<i>in</i> A S I A.			467
Brought over		2,300,000		609625
Pepper	-	100,000	4	4000
Silk raw	-	200,000	12½	25000
Coffee	-	85,000	22½	20500
Salt-petre	-	60,000	10	6000
Red-wood	-	5,000	10	500
China ware and drugs	-	100,000	30	30000
Valuation	-	2,850,000	tot. duties	695625

Charges.

Freight on 8500 tons shipping, at 10l.	-	£. 85,000
Wages and provisions for 1700 men, at 5l. per month	-	204,000
Interest on bonds, two years, at 3l. per cent.	-	90,000
Directors, clerks, &c. 10,000l. per annum	-	20,000
Warehouses, cost 100,000l. at eight per cent.	-	16,000
Shipping and landing of 8500 tons	-	8,500
Total of charges	-	£. 423,500
	Discount.	
On 2,875,000l. at 6½ per cent.		186,875
Total of custom, charges, and discount to be taken off		1,306,000
Net proceeds do not exceed		£. 1,569,000

My author takes notice, that the cargoes of seventeen ships are here allowed to be returned, whereas no more than fourteen were actually loaded outwards; he had before observed, that the manufactures in brass, copper, iron, pewter, and other materials, did not exceed the value of 300,000l. He likewise omits to charge any thing for insurance. There is moreover, five per cent. allowed over the real prices at the candle, amounting, as he says (by way of irony probably) to the small sum of 140,000l. All which particulars he says, will serve to answer all objections against his system. He then states the account of profit and loss on a voyage to India, thus,

Account of profit and loss on a voyage to India.

Dr.

1653.	To the cost of seventeen cargoes bought in England, as per invoices	£	1,503,344	15	9
1754.	To profit and loss for advance	-	65,655	4	3
		£.	1,569,000	0	0

Cr.

1754.	By net proceeds of seventeen cargoes sold in England as per account of sales	£.	1,569,000	0	0
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Then follows capital stock account.

Dr.

To sundry accounts for two years dividends due on 3,200,000l. at eight per cent. per ann.	-	-	-	£.	512000	0	0
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Cr.

By voyage to India gained thereby	-	£.	65655	4	3
By government securities for two years interest on 3,200,000l. lent them at three per cent.	-	-	192000	0	0
By profit and loss, for loss on capital,	-	-	254344	15	9
		£.	512000	0	0

Follows the account of Indian goods sold to, and paid for by foreigners.

578400 callicoes at 13s. 4d. being one third above the custom-house valuation, which at 10s. only, the utmost price on board	-	-	-	£.	395600	0	0
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Prohibited goods.

50 allejars	2650 nillaes
3800 bandannoes	300 niccanees
500 brawls	50 neganepauts
550 byrampauts	1500 photees
	850 blue

850 blue long cloths	100 paduasfoys
7000 chints	100 poisees
2400 chelloes	100 palampores
1400 carridarries	41000 romaals
400 cherconees	10500 soofeys
650 chilaes	200 fekterfoy romaals
55 callawapores	1000 taffaties
200 gorgoroons	1200 safracundies,
900 Guinea stuffs	and others
	valued at £. 72750 0 0

Weighable goods.

1850000 lb. pepper at 1 s.	£. 92500 0 0
700000 lb. coffee, at 1 s. 3d.	43750 0 0
All other goods, as cowries, arrangoes, shell-lack, turmeric, cardamoms, &c. &c.	
at - - - - -	45400 0 0

Total value at price free on board £. 650000 0 0

Note, the above goods, all of them bought up at ready money by English private merchants, to be by them exported, are over rated (according to my author) near 100000 l.

This detail is closed by stating the national account of a voyage to India.

Dr.

To the export of woollen manufactures	£. 200000 0 0
To ditto of copper, brass, and iron ditto	- 100000 0 0
To ditto of lead, iron, and stores	- - 374945 0 0
To ditto of silver and gold bullion	- - 828399 15 9
To two years interest on 1,500000 l.	- - 90000 0 0
	<u>£. 1,593344 15 9</u>

Cr.

By commodities re-exported	£. 650000 0 0
By useful imports	- - 283344 15 9
By national loss for bullion exported without one valuable return	- - 660000 0 0
	<u>£. 1,593344 15 9</u>

The trade of Bengal supplied rich cargoes for fifty or sixty ships yearly; besides what was carried in smaller vessels to the adjacent countries; and the article of salt-petre only was become of such great consequence to the European powers, that every thing was attempted by the French and Dutch to deprive the English of that advantage. For this reason it was greatly to be suspected that these rivals in trade has spirited up the late viceroy to extirpate the English factories within his dominions, under various slight pretences, of being treated with disrespect by governor Drake; of a right to certain duties, which were refused by the company; and for giving protection to the Moors.

Summary Reflections on the Trade of India.

THE trade to, from, and in India, has so long been carried on in an established known rote of practice, that the public could certainly learn nothing new from any particular accounts of it into which I might descend. I shall only then hazard here such reflections as occurred to me on the view of it, in its totality.

It has been said, speciously indeed, but falsely, that the returns from India, consisted chiefly either in articles of pure luxury, or such as tended to discourage the industry of our native manufacturers, by interfering with the produce of it, from their being to be afforded cheaper; and that these articles, ruinous in either sense, were yet further so by their not being to be had but in exchange for bullion, of which they consequently impoverished the nation, and for so few of our home-manufactures, as did not form an object considerable enough to counter-balance the exportation of the other.

To this heavy accusation has been opposed a very solid defence, consisting of proofs, that, admitting of no falsification, admit of no doubt; proofs from accounts easily verifiable, of the balance of national advantages being greatly in favour of that trade

Nothing is plainer, than that manufactures or employment being wanting to the industrious or useful subjects is so far from being the case, that of these there is rather wanting a sufficient number of them to the work that might be found for them at reasonable rates, and to the demands of the government for the service and defence of their country.

Whoever

Whoever will enter more than superficially into this disquisition, will find, that that pretended super-abundance of subjects, having reasons to complain of the labour of the Indians defrauding them of the livelihood to be got by theirs, might be more profitably, to the public and to themselves, employed in branches that would encrease the national wealth and power; such as the more thorough cultivation of our old colonies, foundation of new and useful ones, improving of agriculture, and especially strengthening that great national bulwark our marine, to which the complement of hands is felt, at its greatest need, so sensibly wanting; points rather preferable to many of the arts and trades, purely dependant on luxury, and which at once soften and unman those who exercise them, and those for whose sake they are exercised.

What first gave rise to the idea in me, was the observation of the wretchedness and insignificance to the defence of a country, of those so much envied artists, the whole tribes of weavers, callico-stainers, and in short all the retainers to the looms of India, whose incessant and ingenious industry never scarce extricates them out of the depths of poverty, whilst it at the same time disqualifies them for any other effectual service, being scarcely more of men than the machinery of their fabrics. Whatever advantage is made of their industry is entirely engrossed by the Banyans, Chittys, or head-merchants, men as effeminate as themselves, and in whose coffers, generally speaking, all that money stagnates that is not invested in the usurious advances which are so hard upon labour, by unconscionably screwing down its price; the which being their great point in trade, lessens the commendation due to their spirit of it, lucre being their sole object, and the public good quite out of the question.

Still it will be said, that such manufactures not only hinder the exportation of money, but actually bring it into their country. This is too evidently true to be denied, and so far they are a commendable advantage, even though susceptible of being abused. But surely it is not ultimately a less one for the nation that deals with them, or that even furnishes them with bullion, if such a trade is carried on with a moral certainty of an outlet or market for the returns, that will reimburse it with profit; at the same time that those of its subjects, who might otherwise be employed in producing the like manufactures at a much dearer rate, should, by a sound and comprehensive policy, be distributed into the many branches in which they are actually wanted, to answer much more valuable ends, in the increase of the protective force of

the nation, and of its power to extend its trade, navigation and influence. Such a reservation then of subjects, would be only preferring a greater good to a lesser one, to which too it would be far from giving the exclusion; as it is far from implying so gross an absurdity as that of discouraging home-manufactures, or from meaning any thing more than a just modification and choice of them: for in the choice of which to encourage most lies the great stress of policy, and these incontestably are those classes of mechanics who give to the crude materials produced by this country, such as wool, iron, tin, lead, &c. that additional value of their manual labour, which is so much neat profit to the nation. Imports that interfere with such, doubtless deserve to be discouraged, and we see that they actually are so. But as to those articles appropriate to India, grown into a kind of necessaries by custom, and to which the reproach of luxury can only lie in declamation, the revenue might probably find its account as much in even the quantity of their imports being increased, as in the exorbitance of the duties on them. If more enlarged and comprehensive notions were to take place, under the sanction of proper regulations, the West Indies, and our American colonies, might receive a greater benefit than they do from the East India trade, still preserving to England its right and advantage of being the central point of union of both. Thus if, by any means or device, the commerce with India could afford an augmentation of its number of shipping, the marine of the kingdom would receive a proportionable increase, and employ the greater number of hands inured to the change of climates, and the experter for those voyages of a long run; which would be a far preferable consideration, to that of their being sunk in such of the lower and more slavish branches of the mechanics, as only procuring them a bare livelihood, rob spheres of occupation, fitter for freemen, and Englishmen, of their requisite number of hands, who in them would be more essentially serviceable to the state, in the advancement of the live-force, navigation, and truly profitable trade of the kingdom. I say truly profitable, because even trade itself may be ruinously diversified and extended, if the other principal objects of government are neglected, or even not preferred, and a nation languish with faintness, amidst those riches which ought to procure its strength and happiness. But this can never be the case, if the increase of the protective power, which has so just a right to be supported by the revenue from trade, is at the same time duly consulted, and so ordered as to keep pace with it. No folly

folly being greater than that of exalting the mercantile above the military spirit, both being of such mutual benefit, that they ought never to be considered in distinct views. But if it was necessary to sacrifice the object of one of them, it undoubtedly ought to be that of trade, which must decrease in its value in proportion to its decrease of security, and because the safety and honour of a nation are points preferable to a momentary profit. But the truth is, that there is no necessity of neglecting either, and that it must be a wretched policy that does not sufficiently take care of both, and make both serviceable to each other.

The expedience of which management stands no where more fully illustrated than in the East-Indies, where it is scarce possible to carry on a commerce on other than a precarious, dishonourable, disadvantageous footing, unless a state of force procures a respect to, or confidence in our arms; the country-governments of India being constitutionally such, as scarce ever to neglect occasions of oppression or plunder, where they have no opposition, or vengeance to fear. Nor do they ever solidly bestow their countenance or friendship, but where they can depend on a protection in the revolutions, to which it is in the very nature of their despotism so often to expose them. The merchants especially prefer dealing with that nation, which they see the most powerful and able to shelter them from the tyranny of their own country-men. Thence their predilection of our government to live under, and to which they are of such notable benefit. As mere traders, the English would never have got the footing they had, if they had not added to that character the profession of arms both at land and sea. This is so true, that the special privileges, fortified settlements, and favourable grants obtained from the several princes of India, will, conformably to their original dates, appear to have been owing to the figure our nation formerly made there in war, when its victories over the Portugueze, who sunk as fast as we rose, gave it such a reputation, as that hardly any thing was denied to it; and, to say the truth, it is principally on that old foundation, that the extraction of our commerce has since subsisted: I say principally only, because no doubt our frank, unaffectedly generous national character, amidst all the faults of some of its subjects in power there, I can safely aver, without any partiality, also once bore in the eyes of the Indians a very favourable comparison with the silly, senseless, sanguinary bigotry of the Portugueze; with the unsocial dryness, imperious conduct, and keenness after gain of the
Dutch,

Dutch, and the super-refined designing politeness of the French. And yet the advantages of these last over us in the affair of Madras, did not a little shake our estimation in those parts, no people on earth being more apt to be dazzled and influenced by success than the orientalisists, and those of India above all.

The Dutch too especially insult us, in their insinuations to the country-governments, of our inferiority, in that we are not possessors of a head place of arms, such as Batavia is to them, from whence our operations might be more timely, and more effectually applied to any exigence, than as there now exists a necessity for waiting for orders and aids from Europe. They do not consider, or at least do not add a candid confession of the treacherous and cruel supplantment of us, in a time of full peace, in the spice-islands; which are the mines, from whence they draw the means of supporting the extraordinary charges of that their boasted capital place in India; a competition with which, our trade, circumstanced as it has been since that fatal epoch, could never well afford; though it is not impossible but it might have gained a much more considerable extension, if either the settlements we actually have, had been better cultivated, useful new ones had been formed, or other channels of commerce explored; or if, in short, more attention had not been given to the temptation of momentary profits and present dividends, than to the founding of permanent establishments upon greater views, but of which the immediate requisite expence appeared to be as so much lost in the distant futurity of the returns. This narrow consideration it is, which, combined with a certain general prevailing indolence, and the facility of humouring that indolence since the opening of those fatal gulphs, the public funds, which swallowing up the very aliment and support of trade, have set up a class of men called the moneyed interest, to the destruction of the commercial one, upon the produce of whose stock, which itself has depauperated, it projects lazily to live: all these, I say, have more contributed to extinguish the antient English spirit of discovery and extension, than any certainty that could with reason be pleaded, of there being nothing further to be found or hoped for from it.

The trade to the East Indies was long carried on by the Israelites through the Red Sea and the Steights of Babelmandel, not only to the coasts of Africa on the west; but also to those of Arabia, Persia, and India on the east; who reaped a prodigious profit thereby. King David was the first
who

who begun it; for having conquered the kingdom of Edom, and reduced it to be a province of his empire, he thereby became master of two sea-port towns on the Red Sea, Elath, and Eziongeber, which then belonged to that kingdom; and seeing the advantage that might be made of these two places, he wisely took the benefit of it, and there begun his traffic. After David, Solomon carried on the same commerce to Ophir, and had from thence, in one voyage, four hundred and fifty talents of gold. But the use of the compass being then unknown, the way of navigation was in those times only by coasting, whereby a voyage was frequently of three years, which now may be finished almost in three months.

However, this trade so far succeeded, and grew to so high a pitch under Solomon, that thereby he drew to these two ports, and from thence to Jerusalem, all the trade of Africa, Arabia, Persia, and India, which was the chief fountain of those immense riches he acquired, and whereby he exceeded all the kings of the earth in his time, as much as by his wisdom: but at length, the whole of this trade was engrossed by the Tyrians; who managing it from the same port, made it by the way of Rhinocorura, a sea-port, lying between the confines of Egypt and Palestine; so that it centered all at Tyre; from whence all the western parts of the world were furnished with the wares of India, Africa, Persia, and Arabia, which thus, by the way of the Red Sea, the Tyrians traded to; who hereby exceedingly enriched themselves during the Persian empire, under the favour and protection of whose kings they had the full possession of this trade. But when the Ptolemies prevailed in Egypt, they, by building Bernise, Myos-Hermos, and other places on the Egyptian or western sea, and by sending forth fleets from thence to all those countries to which the Tyrians traded, soon drew all this trade into that kingdom, and there fixed the chief mart of it at Alexandria, which was thereby made the greatest mart in all the world; where it continued for a great many years after; all the marine traffic which the western parts of the world had with Persia, India, Arabia, and to the eastern coast of Africa, being wholly carried on through the Red Sea, and the mouth of the Nile, until a way was found, about two hundred and eighty years since, of sailing to those parts by the way of the Cape of Good Hope: after which the Portuguese managed this trade; but now it is in a manner wholly got into the hands of the English, French, and Dutch.

The united company of merchants of England trading to the East-Indies, is the most considerable and flourishing

company of trade in Great-Britain, and perhaps in Europe, for riches, power, and extensive privileges; as appears by the many ships of burthen which they constantly employ; the very advantageous settlements they have abroad; their large storehouses and sales of goods and merchandizes at home; and the particular laws and statutes made in their favour.

This company was originally formed in the last years of queen Elizabeth, who granted letters patent to the London merchants, that entered into an association for carrying on this trade; and the charter which she granted them in 1599, has served as a model for all those the company has obtained from her royal successors.

The Portuguese and Dutch were in possession of several large territories along the coasts of India, before this time; as also in several other parts of Asia, proper for the prosecution of this trade. The former, indeed, had no company, which is still the case: but the latter had formed several companies so early as the year 1596, which were afterwards incorporated together.

The first fleet the English sent to the East-Indies consisted of four ships, which set sail in 1600, with Mr. John Mildenhall, who was employed as an agent to procure a trade, and carried a letter from queen Elizabeth to the great mogul, in behalf of her subjects: which ships returned so richly laden, that in a few years near twenty others were sent there by the company.

After the death of queen Elizabeth, king James the First confirmed and augmented, by a new charter, all the privileges that had been granted the company in the preceding reign: and, to shew how much he had at heart this establishment, he sent ambassadors in 1608 and 1615 to the mogul, the emperor of Japan, the king of Persia, and several other eastern princes, to conclude, in his name and that of the company, different treaties of commerce, of which some are still subsisting.

It is well known how many privileges the king of Persia granted the English company, for assisting him in the expulsion of the Portuguese from Ormus; who made use of that famous island, and its almost impregnable forts, as a citadel, to support them in the usurpation of the commerce of the Persian Gulph, which they engrossed for almost an age to themselves.

The company's charter was renewed by king Charles the Second in 1662, whereby that monarch granted them abundance

dance of privileges they had not before enjoyed; which charter is properly the basis of the company, and was afterwards confirmed by king James the Second: however, there were charters of king Charles the Second, whereby the company were granted some new privileges.

The first was dated the third of April, 1662, containing a confirmation of the former charters; or, it is rather a new one, which attributes to the company several rights it had not as yet enjoyed; and adds to, or sets forth in a proper light almost all those granted to it by the charters of Elizabeth and James the First, which will be more amply spoken of in the sequel; because it is properly the basis of all the commerce of this company; and because upon this charter are founded all the privileges and policy of the company established in 1698.

The second charter granted by Charles the Second, was dated the twenty-seventh of March, 1669, whereby his majesty made a cession to the company of the island of Bombay, with all its royalties, revenues, rents, castles, ships, fortifications, and enfranchisements: such as then belonged to him by the cession of his Portuguese majesty, reserving only to himself the sovereignty, to be held in fee from the royal hospital of Greenwich, in the county of Kent; and for all duty, rent, or service, the sum of ten pounds sterling in gold, payable yearly on the thirtieth of September, at the custom-house of London.

By the third charter, of the sixteenth of December 1674, the king likewise made a cession to the company of the island of St. Helena, as belonging to him by right of conquest. This island, which afterwards served as a staple to the company's shipping, was discovered by the Portuguese in their first navigations to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope; but having abandoned it, the island was possessed by the Dutch; who quitted it in their turn to establish themselves at the Cape of Good Hope, and were succeeded by the English, who were expelled in 1672 by the Dutch company: but captain Monday, who commanded a British squadron, retook it the year following; and this was the right of conquest that Charles the Second made a cession of to the company by the charter of 1674. The fourth charter the company obtained from this monarch orders the erection of a court of judicature, composed of a civilian and two merchants, in all the factories and places possessed throughout the extent of its concession, to judge of all cases in seizures, and contestations, with regard to ships or goods going to the Indies,

contrary to the exclusive privilege granted by the letters-patent of 1662; as also to take cognizance of all causes regarding merchandise, marine, navigation, purchases, sales, exchange, insurance, letters of exchange, and other things; even of all crimes and misdemeanours committed at sea, or in the countries, states and territories belonging to the company; the whole, notwithstanding, pursuant to the usages and customs of merchants, and the laws of England.

These four charters were afterwards confirmed by James the Second, by a charter granted in the first year of his reign: but the charter of 1662 was the principal, and consisted of twenty-eight articles, whereof the most material are as follow.

By the first his majesty erects the company into a corporation, or body politic, under the denomination of the governor and company of merchants trading to the East-Indies.

The third grants it a common seal to serve in all its expeditions; with a power of breaking and changing it at pleasure, and of making and engraving a new one.

The fourth establishes a governor, and twenty-four assistants, chose out of the proprietors, or stock-holders, of the company, to have the direction of affairs, and to give all necessary orders with regard to the freighting and sending away of ships, together with all particulars belonging to the commerce carried on throughout the extent of its concession.

The fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, and ninth, nominate, for the first time, the governor and directors; and regulate for the future, the form to be observed in the election of the said governor and directors, and a deputy-governor, or sub-governor, to preside in the absence, or in case of the governor's death. They also ordain before whom the elected shall be obliged to make oath, and what this oath is to be; lastly, they fix the time that all these officers are to continue in their post; and when the general courts of the company are to be held.

The tenth article fixes the extent of the concession, and allows all those that shall be of the company, their sons of one and twenty years of age, their apprentices, factors, and domestics, to trade and negotiate freely by sea in all the routes and passages already discovered, or that shall be so hereafter, in Asia, Africa, and America, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, as far as the Streights of Magellan; and where any commerce can be exercised, so that it is beforehand concluded on by the company: and so that also the said commerce is not carried on in the places already possessed by the subjects of some other prince.

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The eleventh article empowers the company to enact all the laws and regulations it shall judge proper, to be observed by its factors, captains, masters of ships, and other officers in its service; to revoke them and make new ones; and, in case of contravention with regard to the said laws, to ordain for offenders, such penalties, fines, and punishments, as it shall judge to be just and reasonable, without being accountable to any one whatsoever, not even to his majesty's officers; provided that the said laws, and regulations, are not contrary to those in England.

By the twelfth, his majesty wills, that for all the duties and customs, on goods coming from the East Indies in the company's ships, a whole year shall be allowed for their intire payment; that is, six months for the first moiety, and six months for the other, by giving, notwithstanding, a sufficient security; which shall hold good also for the goods exported from England for the East Indies; which goods shall pay no duty, if lost, before their arrival at the place of their destination; and, in case any duties are paid, a restitution shall be made, on the company making affidavit before the lord high treasurer of the kingdom, of the amount of the said loss: provided that if the goods imported be exported again in the space of thirteen months, no duties shall be paid for such export, if it be done aboard British vessels.

The thirteenth article allows the exportation of foreign specie out of the kingdom, to be employed in the commerce of the company; and even those of England, coined in the Tower of London, provided that the total sum exceeds not fifty thousand pounds sterling in each year.

By the fourteenth and fifteenth the company is allowed to have six large vessels, and six pinks, laden and equipped with all kinds of ammunition and provision, together with five hundred good English sailors, to support its commerce throughout the whole extent of its concession; whereon his majesty cannot lay an imbargo upon any pretext whatsoever, unless he cannot absolutely do without the said vessels in some pressing and unforeseen want in time of war to augment his fleet.

The sixteenth grants to the company an exclusive privilege of trade to the Indies, ordaining the seizure and confiscation of vessels and goods, which the other subjects of his Britannic majesty might send there; the imprisonment of the captains and masters of ships who brought them there; and lastly, a security of one thousand pounds sterling of going no more within the limits of the company's concession, in contravention to this article.

The nineteenth obliges the company to bring back into England at least as much gold and silver, as carried out every year; and assigns the ports of London, Dartmouth, and Plymouth, as the only places in the kingdom, from which it shall be for the future allowed to export the specie it shall have occasion for in its traffic; which specie of gold and silver shall be entered in the said ports either going out or coming in; though without paying any duties.

By the twentieth, the custom-house officers are enjoined not to suffer the entrance of any goods coming from the places within the extent of the company's concession, unless by a permit in writing.

The twenty-first fixes the sum in the capital stock necessary to have a vote in the meetings at five hundred pound sterling, empowering notwithstanding those who shall subscribe a less sum to join severally together for the forming one vote.

The twenty-fourth article allows the company to send ships of war, and soldiers; to build castles and forts in all the places of its concession; to make peace or war with all kinds of people that are not Christians; and to obtain satisfaction by the force of arms from all those who prejudice them, or interrupt their commerce.

And the twenty-sixth empowers it likewise to arrest and secure all the subjects of his Britannic majesty, who shall trade in Indian or English vessels, or who shall dwell in any of the places of its concession, without a special licence from the said company.

After the publication of this charter, the parliament seemed to dislike the exclusive privilege granted by the sixteenth article; which was no novelty, for it had been already agitated in the reign of James the First; but this prince, fearing to risque his authority, chose rather to repeal a like privilege, which he granted to the colonies of Virginia, than to uphold the royal prerogative.

The shares, or subscriptions, of the company, were originally only of fifty pounds sterling; but, the directors having a considerable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profit to the original, instead of withdrawing it; whereby the shares were doubled, and became of one hundred pounds sterling. The first capital was only 369,891 l. 5 s. which, being thus doubled, amounted to 739,782 l. 10 s. to which, if 963,639 l. the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole stock will be 1,703,422 l.

The company, having sustained several losses by the Dutch and the subjects of the great mogul, began to be in a declining

ing way at the Revolution; when the war with France put it into so desperate a condition, that appearing scarce possible to be supported, a new one was erected.

The rise of this new company was occasioned by the great case of the old company being taken into consideration by the parliament; which case had been depending several years; and because of its intricacy, had been first referred by the parliament to the king, and by him back to the parliament again, in the year 1698; when the old company offered to advance 700,000 l. at four per cent. for the service of the government, in case the trade to India might be settled on them exclusive of all others; and the parliament seemed inclined to embrace their proposal. But another number of merchants, of whom Mr. Shepherd was the chief, and who were supported by Mr. Montague, chancellor of the Exchequer, proposed to the House of Commons to raise two millions at eight per cent. upon condition the trade to India might be settled on the subscribers exclusive of all others: they also proposed, that these subscribers should not be obliged to trade in a joint stock; but if any members of them should afterwards desire to be incorporated, a charter should be granted to them for that purpose. The house judged this new overture not only to be more advantageous to the government, but also very likely to settle this controverted trade on a better foundation than it was on before; a bill was, therefore, brought in for settling the trade to the East Indies, according to these limitations, and some further resolutions,

The old East-India company presented a petition against this bill; which, notwithstanding, was passed in favour of the new company, who obtained a charter of incorporation, dated September 5, 1698, by the name of "The general society intitled to the advantages given by an act of parliament, for advancing a sum not exceeding two millions for the service of the crown of England." Whereby the sum total of all the subscriptions was made the principal stock of the corporation; and the new company was invested with the same privileges as were granted to the old company, by the charter of king Charles the Second. However, the old company was, by the act, indulged with leave to trade to the Indies until Michaelmas, 1701.

The fund of this new company became so considerable, and subscriptions were carried on with such facility, that, in less than two years, the company put to sea forty ships equipped for its trade; which was double the number employed by the old company in the most flourishing times of

its commerce; and it sent annually a million sterling in specie to the Indies; whereas the old company had never sent above five hundred thousand pounds.

The two companies subsisted a few years in a separate state; when, having a due regard to their common interests, and for the prevention of several inconveniencies that might otherwise have happened; both to themselves and the nation in general, they agreed upon several articles for the union of the said companies.

Accordingly, in the year 1702, a new charter of union was granted the two companies by queen Anne, under the name of, "The united company of merchants trading to the East-Indies;" which was essentially the same with those of king Charles, and king William; because, by the union of the two companies, they have adopted all the regulations made for the government of the old company: so that the united company should rather be deemed the old company continued, than a corporation erected upon a different establishment. Which charter being since expired, another charter, with new powers, was granted them in 1730; and, in the seventeenth year of king George the Second, was continued until the twenty-fifth of March, 1780; when, on three years notice, and repayment of the capital stock borrowed by the government, and the annuities, the company's right to the sole and exclusive trade to the East-Indies is to cease and determine.

To the 2,000,000*l.* advanced by the new company to William the Third, the united company, in the sixth year of queen Anne, lent the government 1,200,000*l.* more; which made their whole loan amount to 3,200,000*l.*; being what may properly be called, the capital stock of the company: the first loan of two millions was secured by the government out of the duties upon salt; and the additional stamp duties granted in the ninth and tenth years of William the Third, chargeable with the payment of 160,000*l.* as a yearly fund for paying the interest at eight pounds per cent. but, by the act of the third of George the Second, this annuity of 160,000*l.* was reduced to 128,000*l.* and transferred as a charge upon the aggregate fund; and in 1749, it was reduced to 3*l.* $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. until Christmas 1757, and after that to 3*l.* per cent. But, besides this 3,200,000*l.* there is a million more due by the public to this company, being lent by them at 3*l.* per cent. in the said seventeenth year of his late majesty.

For the œconomy and policy of the united company, all persons, without exception, are admitted members of it, natives and foreigners, men and women; with this circumstance,

stance, that five hundred pound in the stock of the company gives the owner a vote in the general courts, and two thousand pounds qualifies him to be chosen a director. The directors are twenty-four in number, including the chairman and deputy chairman, who may be re-elected for four years successively: they have a salary of one hundred and fifty pounds a year, and the chairman of two hundred pounds. The meetings, or courts of directors, are to be held at least once a week; but are commonly oftner; being summoned as occasions require.

Out of the body of directors are chosen diverse committees, who have the peculiar inspection of certain branches of the company's business; as the committee of correspondence, committee of buying, committee of treasury, committee of warehouses, committee of shipping, committee of accompts, committee of private trade, committee of house, and committee to prevent the growth of trade.

This company is not only granted an exclusive privilege of trade to the Indies, and other extraordinary concessions from the government, by the charter; but there are also several acts of parliament made in its behalf, whereby all the British subjects are restrained from going to the East-Indies; or from procuring or acting under, any foreign commission, for sailing to, or trading there; or from subscribing to, or promoting, any foreign company, for trading there, under severe penalties; though, upon the whole, this trade is monopolized by the company, and is generally esteemed highly injurious to the British navigation, as all monopolies are to that of every trading country. This is evident from the behaviour of the parliament in the reign of Charles the Second, who, was more resolute, or more happy, than his grandfather; so that the question was debated in the court of common pleas, where it was decided in favour of the king.

I shall conclude my account of this company, with observing, that this, as well as every company which is designed for building forts and making settlements in foreign countries, should have been at first incorporated for ever; because it is not to be expected, that a corporation will be at any great expence in building forts or making settlements, when they are in danger of their corporation's being dissolved, before they can reap any benefit from the expence they have been at. This was foreseen by the administration at the end of queen Anne's reign; therefore they established the South-sea company for ever, though they went a little too far in giving that company a perpetual exclusive privilege; for though this

may be necessary at first, it ought never to be made perpetual. From an act made in the following session relating to the East-India company, it would seem, that there was then likewise a design to have established that company for ever; but how that design came to be laid aside does not appear; for had it been carried into execution, the French, in the last war, would not probably have found it so easy to make themselves masters of Madras: at least, if they had, the managers for the company would have been much more to blame.

THE LIST OF THE

English Company's Forts and Factories

In the viceroyalty of Bengal; to which are, or ought to be subject, the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa.

Fort William, in the city of Calcutta, is the presidency, or chief settlement of the company, in the viceroyalty, and stands upon the east side of the right branch of the river Ganges.

Moorshedabad, or Muxadabad, is the usual residence of the viceroy, or subah, situated between the two branches of the Ganges, about sixty miles below, where the river divides itself into two branches.

Patna, the chief market for saltpetre, stands upon the same river, about one hundred and fifty miles above where it divides itself.

Dacca, or Daka, stands upon the east side of the left branch of the said river, about sixty miles above its mouth, or influx into the bay of Bengal.

Luckipore, or Juckidore, is an inland factory in Bengal.

Bulramgurry, or Balasor, in Orissa, near the mouth of the river Ganga, is a famous road, where ships bound up the Ganges usually taken in their pilots.

Negrals, is a little island near Negrals Point, on the coast of the kingdom of Pegu, and east side of the bay of Bengal, under the said presidency at Fort William.

In the viceroyalty of the Deckan, to which are, or ought to be subject, the provinces of Golconda, the Carnatic, Malabar, and, in short, the greatest part of the large peninsula, lying between the two famous rivers, Ganges and Indus.

And, first, upon the east side of the said peninsula, commonly called the coast of Coromandel, all under the direction the presidency at Madras:

Visagapatnam. Upon the said coast, and on the frontier between Golconda and Orixia.

Masulipatnam. A city upon the same coast, farther south.

Fort St. George, in the city of Madras, is the presidency upon the same coast.

Arcot. An inland city, west of Madras.

Wandivash. An inland place, south of Arcot.

Carangoly. A coast town.

Alampavra. A coast town, about sixty miles south of Madras.

Permacoil, or Perumal. An inland city, well fortified in the Indian manner, west of the former.

Fort St. David's, demolished by the French.

Davecotah. A coast town, south of St. David's.

Carical. A French settlement reduced by us.

Secondly, Upon the west side of the said peninsula, commonly called the Malabar coast, all under the direction of the presidency of Bombay:

Anjeno. About thirty-five miles north of Cape Comorin, at the south end of the said peninsula.

Tellicherry. Near two hundred miles north of the former, and a little to the north of Calicut.

Onor. About the same distance north of Calicut.

Carwar. About forty miles south of Goa, the Portuguese chief settlement.

Bombay. An island upon the northern part of this coast, strongly fortified, and wholly possessed by us.

Scindy, or Tatta. Near the mouth of the Indus, called Sindi, by the natives.

In the large island of Sumatra. Fort Marlborough, upon the south-west coast, and near the south-east end of the island; a presidency under whose direction are all the factories on this island, but the fort was lately demolished and the factory plundered by the French.

Mocomogo. Upon the same coast, about one hundred miles to the north-west of the former.

Nattal, *Tapanooly.* Both upon the same coast, but further to the north-west.

Upon the south coast of China, Canton; which is at present, the only port of China frequented by European ships.

Gombroon. At the mouth of the gulph of Bassora, in Persia.

Mocho. On the Red Sea, in Arabia, near the Strait of Babelmandel.

SUCH are the possessions belonging to us when this work was compiled ; however, as the forts and colonies belonging to a commercial nation are ever subject to fluctuate, it cannot be expected that a list of this kind can long continue exact.

And now we are come to the end of our undertaking, having given a description of an empire more extensive, and perhaps more powerful, than any that has hitherto existed ; even the great Roman Empire not excepted. In every very extensive dominion the government is feeble in proportion as its parts are remote, and the Roman Empire having a communication chiefly by land to its different provinces, often felt the severest shocks to its power, as many insurrections came to an head before the state had knowlege of them, or could march an army to their suppression. It is otherwise with us ; all the parts of our Empire, are closely connected by means of our navigation, so that we acquire strength by the facility of our conveyance of troops ; and while our commerce tends to encrease wealth and affluence, it also contributes to our internal strength and security.

F I N I S.

