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A COMPENDIOUS
GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL
GRAMMAR: /

EXHIBITING
A BRIEF SURVEY
OF THE
TERRAQUEOUS GLOBE;

AND SHEWING,

The Situation, Extent, Boundaries, and Divisions of the various
Countries: their Chief Towns, Mountains, Rivers, Climates,
and Productions; their Governments, Revenues, Commerce,
and their Sea and Land Forces;

LIKEWISE,

The Religion, Language, Literature, Customs, and Manners
of the respective Inhabitants of the different Nations;

AND ALSO,

A CONCISE VIEW OF THE
POLITICAL HISTORY
OF THE SEVERAL

EMPIRES, KINGDOMS, AND STATES.

Embellished with Maps.

"There is not a Son or a Daughter of Adam, but has some concern both in
"GEOGRAPHY and ASTRONOMY."
DR. WATTS.

LONDON:

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INTRODUCTION.

THE vast number of publications on the science of Geography already put forth, may perhaps cause some persons to think, that there is no occasion to multiply them. But this must be an erroneous principle, since the affairs of the world are always in a state of fluctuation, insomuch that the government and laws of nations are ever undergoing some alteration, and even the countries themselves changing their masters; so great is the mutability of sublunary things. This alone is a sufficient reason to outweigh all the objections of that nature that can be urged; for, as changes happen, or as alterations take place, these alterations and changes ought to be published for the information and instruction of mankind, and no way is so proper as that in which brevity and clearness are the avowed principles of the work.

This little performance, it is almost needless to say, is designed as well for the instruction of youth as for a pocket companion to those of a more advanced age. It is likewise intended as a companion to the Compendious Geographical Dictionary, published by Mr. Peacock. As that pocket geographical Vade Mecum contains a description of the various towns in the universe, that part, as well as what relates to the history of the smaller islands, are omitted in this volume, references being made to that work for accounts of them. The Geographical Dictionary likewise contains a Table of the Coins of the various Nations in the World, and their values in English Money: that table should also be consulted occasionally by all who are desirous of attaining to a competent knowledge of the affairs of the different parts of the globe; but as it is

there printed, there is no occasion for its insertion here. To that work also is prefixed, a copious Introduction, exhibiting a view of the Newtonian System of the Planets, and an ample display of General Geography; so that nothing on these subjects need be here introduced. It may, however, be necessary to give a place to, 1. A few Observations on the Variety of Complexion, &c. observable among the human race; 2. A Treatise on the Use of the Globes; and, 3. An Essay on the Construction and Use of Maps.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON THE VARIETY OF SPECIES AMONG THE HUMAN RACE.

"THE varieties among the human race," says Dr. Percival, "enumerated by Linnæus and Buffon, are six. The first is found under the Polar regions, and comprehends the Laplanders, the Esquimaux Indians, the Samoied Tartars, the inhabitants of Nova Zembla, Borandians, the Greculanders, and the people of Kamtschatka. The visage of men in these countries is large and broad; the nose flat and short; the eyes of a yellowish brown, inclining to blackness; the cheek bones extremely high; the mouth large; the lips thick, and turning outwards; the voice thin and squeaking; and the skin a dark gray colour. The people are short in stature; the generality being about four feet high, and the tallest not more than five. Ignorance, stupidity, and superstition, are the mental characteristics of the inhabitants of these rigorous climates: for here

Doze the gross race: nor sprightly jest nor song,
Nor tenderness they know, nor aught of life,
Beyond the kindred bears that stalk without.

The Tartar race, comprehending the Chinese and the Japanese, forms the second variety in the human species. Their countenances are broad and wrinkled, even in youth; their noses short and flat; their eyes little, sunk in the sockets, and several inches asunder; their cheek bones are high; their teeth of a large size, and separate from each other; their complexions are olive, and their hair black,

The third variety of mankind is that of the southern Asiatics, or the inhabitants of India. These are of a slender shape; have long straight black hair, and generally Roman noses. These people are slothful, luxurious, submissive, cowardly, and effeminate.

—————The parent sun himself
Seems o'er this world of slaves to tyrannize;
And, with oppressive ray, the roscate bloom
Of beamy blasting, gives the gloomy hue,
And features gross: or worse, to rattle's deeds,
Mad jealousy, blind rage, and fell revenge,
Their servid spirit fires.

The negroes of Africa constitute the fourth striking variety in the human species; but they differ widely from each other. Those of Guinea, for instance, are extremely ugly, and have a very offensive scent; while those of Mosambique are reckoned beautiful, and are untainted with any disagreeable smell. The negroes are in general of a black colour, and the downy softness of hair which grows upon the skin gives a smoothness to it resembling that of velvet. The hair of their heads is woolly, short, and black; but their beards often turn gray, and sometimes white; their noses are flat and short; their lips thick and tumid, and their teeth of an ivory whiteness. These wretched people are subject to the most barbarous despotism; the savage tyrants who rule over them make war upon each other for human plunder; and the deluded and wretched victims are bartered for spirituous liquors, are torn from their families, their friends, and their native land, and consigned for life to misery, toil, and bondage, in climes more inhospitable than those whence they were taken. But, alas! how must we be shocked to record, that this infernal commerce is carried on by the humane, the polished, the Christian inhabitants of Europe, and above all, by—Englishmen! whose ancestors have bled in the cause of liberty, and whose breasts still glow with the same generous flame! Would to God this horrid practice were abolished in all parts of the world, as it has been by some of the more enlightened nations.

The native inhabitants of America make the fifth race of men: they are of a copper colour, with black, thick, straight

hair, flat noses, high cheek bones, and small eyes; they eradicate the hair of their beards and other parts, except the head, as a deformity; their limbs are not so large and robust as those of the Europeans; they endure hunger, thirst, and pain, with astonishing firmness and patience; and though cruel to their enemies, are kind and just to each other.

The Europeans may be considered as the sixth and last variety of the human kind: they enjoy singular advantages from the fairness of their complexions. The face of the African black, or of the olive-coloured Asiatic, is a very imperfect index of the mind, and preserves the same settled shades in joy and sorrow, confidence and shame, anger and despair, sickness and health. The English are of the fairest of the Europeans; and we may therefore presume, that their countenances best express the variations of the passions, and vicissitudes of disease. But the intellectual and moral characteristics of the different nations which compose this quarter of the globe, are of more importance to be known. These, however, become less discernible, as fashion, learning, and commerce, prevail more universally.

THE USE OF THE GLOBES.

THE globes exhibit to our view the situations of the various places on the surface of the earth, and the positions of the different fixed stars in the heavens; but this purpose is also answered by maps. The principal use of the globes consists in explaining the phenomena that arise from the diurnal and annual motion of the earth, or apparent motion of the sun and stars: But the use of the globes is better explained by a set of problems with their solutions, than by any theoretical form of words. The following may serve that purpose:

Prob. I. To find the latitude and longitude of any given place; and the latitude and longitude being given, to find the place.

Bring the place, by turning the globe to the East side of the brazen meridian; on the meridian you have the latitude, and on the equator you have the longitude. To answer the second part of the problem, seek the given latitude on the equator,

bring that point to the brass meridian, and under the degree of latitude on the meridian you have the place.

Prob. II. A place being given, to find all places of the same latitude and longitude.

Bring the place to the brass meridian, and under the meridian you have all the places of the same longitude. Mark the latitude of the place on the brass meridian, turn the globe quite round, and all the places that pass under the mark are of the same latitude.

Prob. III. The time being given, to find the sun's place and declination.

On the wooden horizon seek the month and day, against which is the sign and degree of the sun's place. On the globe bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the brazen meridian, and directly over it on the meridian is the declination.

Prob. IV. To find the distance between any two given places.

Apply the quadrant of altitude to the two places, and the number of degrees is between them. Multiply the degrees by 60, and the product is the distance in geographical miles, such a mile being the 60th part of a degree. But if you want the distance in English miles, multiply the degrees by $69\frac{1}{2}$.

Prob. V. To rectify the globe, or fit it for the situation of a given place.

Elevate the pole, according to the latitude of the given place; bring the place to the meridian; set the horary index to XII noon; screw the quadrant of altitude to the zenith, or the point directly above the place; and set the brass meridian due South and North by the help of the mariner's compass; then the situation of the globe will correspond with that of the place, and be fitted for the solution of problems relative thereto.

Prob. VI. To find the angle of position of two places, or the angle formed by the meridian of one place, and a great circle passing through both places.

Rectify the globe for one of the places; turn the quadrant of altitude about, till the fiducial edge thereof cuts the other place, and the number of degrees upon the horizon; between the said edge and the brass meridian will be the angle of position required.

Prob. VII. To find the Periaci, Antaci, and Antipodes to any given place.

Rectify the globe for the given place; then the place under the same parallel with the given place, at the distance of 180 degrees, or at the lower side of the meridian, is the Periaci sought; the place under the upper side of the meridian, which is of the same latitude, but on the other side of the equator, is the Antaci; and the place of the same latitude, on the other side of the equator, at the lower side of the meridian, is the Antipodes.

Prob. VIII. The hour of the day at one place being given, to find the hour at the same time in any other place.

Bring the place at which the hour is given, to the meridian; turn the horary index to the given hour; then turn the globe, till the place at which the hour is required, comes to the meridian; and the index will point out the hour required. The time betwixt the given and required hours, converted into degrees, by allowing 15 degrees to an hour, gives the difference of longitude of the two places.

Prob. IX. The day of the month being given, to find those places to which the sun will be vertical that day.

Bring the sun's place in the Ecliptic to the Meridian, mark the degree over it, turn the globe round, and all places that pass under the mark will have the sun vertical that day.

Prob. X. A place in the torrid zone being given, to find those two days of the year on which the sun shall be vertical to the same.

Bring the given place to the meridian, and mark the degree directly over it; then turn the globe round; and those two points of the ecliptic which pass under the said mark, are the sun's place; against which, upon the wooden horizon, are the days required.

Prob. XI. To find where the sun is vertical at any given hour.

Bring the place of your residence to the meridian, set the index to the given hour, then turn the globe about till the index points to XII noon; this being done, that place on the globe which stands under the degree of the sun's declination on the meridian, has the sun verticle or in the zenith, at the given hour.

Prob. XII. The day and hour at any place being given, to find all those places where the sun is then rising, setting, culminating, where it is midnight, where the twilight is then beginning and ending.

Having found, by Prob. XI. the place where the sun is vertical at the given hour, bring the said place to the zenith; then will the sun illuminate the whole upper hemisphere; and the wooden horizon will be the circle terminating light and darkness.

All places in the western semicircle of the horizon, will have the sun at that time rising; and all places in the eastern semicircle thereof, will have the sun then setting.

To all those who live under the upper semicircle of the meridian it is noon, and to those who live under the lower semicircle thereof it is midnight.

In all those places that are 18 degrees below the western semicircle of the horizon, the twilight in the morning is just beginning, or day is breaking; and in all places 18 degrees below the eastern semicircle of the horizon, the twilight is ending, and total darkness beginning; and,

The height or depression of any place, above or below the horizon, will be equal to that of the sun above or below the same.

Prob. XIII. The month and day being given, to find the time of the sun's rising and setting, as also the length of the day and night in any given place, betwixt the equator and polar circles.

Find, by Prob. III. the sun's place for the given day; elevate the pole to the latitude of the given place; bring the sun's place to the meridian, and set the horary index to XII noon; turn the globe eastward, till the sun's place touch the eastern horizon; then will the index point at the hour of sun-rising, which doubled, gives the length of the night: turn the globe back again from East to West, and the sun's place will describe the diurnal arc; and when it arrives at the western horizon, the index will point at the hour of sun-setting, which doubled, gives the length of the day.

Prob. XIV. The length of the longest day, not exceeding 24 hours, being given, to find the latitude of the place.

Bring the solstitial point to the meridian, and set the index to XII noon; then turn the globe westward till the index point at half the number of hours given; then slide the me-

ridian up or down in the notches, till the solstitial point coincide with the horizon; and the elevation of the pole will be the latitude of the place.

Prob. XV. A place being given in one of the frigid zones, suppose the northern, to find the time when the sun begins and ceases to revolve without setting; and consequently the time of his continuance above the horizon, or the length of the longest day: as also to find the time when he begins and ceases to disappear totally, or to revolve without rising; and consequently the time of his continuance under the horizon, or the length of the longest night: and also to find the interval betwixt the end of the longest night and the beginning of the longest day, and the interval betwixt the end of the longest day and the beginning of the longest night, or how many days the sun continues to rise and set every 24 hours.

Rectify the globe to the latitude of the given place; and then, because the latitude is North, turn the globe till some point in the first quadrant of the ecliptic intersect the meridian in the North point of the horizon; and write against that point of the ecliptic in the calendar on the wooden horizon, is the month and day when the sun begins to revolve without setting, or the time when the longest day begins; and the number of days betwixt this and the succeeding solstice being doubled, gives the time of the sun's continuance above the horizon, or the length of the longest day.—Again, turn the globe till some point in the third quadrant of the ecliptic intersect the meridian in the South point of the horizon and against this point on the wooden horizon you have the month and day when the sun begins to revolve without rising, or the time when the longest night begins; and the number of days betwixt this and the succeeding solstice being doubled, gives the time of the sun's continuance under the horizon, or the length of the longest night, which is always equal to that of the longest day.

The number of days betwixt the end of the longest night and the beginning of the longest day, is equal to the number of days betwixt the end of the longest day and the beginning of the longest night; which therefore being doubled, gives the time the sun continues to rise and set every 24 hours.

Prob. XVI. The month and day being given, to find when the morning and evening twilight begins and ends in any given place.

Elevate the pole to the latitude of the given place: screw the quadrant of altitude to the zenith, and turn it westward; bring the sun's place to the meridian, and set the index to XII noon; then turn the globe eastward, till that point of the ecliptic, which is diametrically opposite to the sun's place, be elevated 18 degrees above the western horizon; then will the sun's place be 18 degrees under the eastern horizon, and the index will point at the hour when the morning twilight begins. Again, turn the quadrant of altitude eastward, and move the globe, till the point of the ecliptic, opposite to the sun's place, be elevated 18 degrees above the eastern horizon; then will the index point at the hour when the evening twilight ends.

Prob. XVII. A place being given, to find the time when the twilight begins to be continual.

Elevate the pole to the latitude of the given place: then, if the place be in the northern hemisphere, and the complement of latitude greater than 18 degrees, their difference will be the sun's declination North, when the twilight begins to be continual. But if the complement of latitude be less than 18 degrees, their difference will be the sun's declination South, when the twilight begins to be continual. Turn, therefore, the globe till some point in the first or third quadrant of the ecliptic pass under the declination on the meridian, and that is the sun's place, against which, on the wooden horizon, is the month and day when the twilight begins to continue all night, or be perpetual. And if you turn the globe round, as it now stands, the sun's place will pass the lower semicircle of the meridian just 18 degrees under the horizon.—If the given place be in the southern hemisphere, the only difference in this case will be, that the sun's declination will be on the contrary side. If the latitude of the given place be less than 48 degrees 30 minutes, there will be no continual twilight. At the North pole the twilight ceases and begins when the sun's declination is 18 degrees South; so that total darkness prevails only from the 13th of November, till the 29th of January; that is, about 14 weeks; and the moon too is above the horizon for the half of that time. This remark may be easily applied to the South pole.

Prob. XVIII. The month and day being given, to find those places in the frigid zones where the sun begins to revolve

without setting; and also those places where he begins to disappear, or revolve without rising.

Find the sun's declination by prob. III. and set it off from either pole toward the equator, and mark the place where it ends on the meridian; then turn the globe; and all the places which pass under the mark nearest to the sun, are those where the sun begins to revolve without setting; and the places which pass under the other mark, are those where the sun begins to disappear, or revolve without rising.

Prob. XIX. The latitude of a place, and the day of the month being given, to find the hour of the day when the sun shines.

Elevate the pole to the latitude, place the meridian due South and North, and bring the horizon to a level; then fix a needle perpendicularly over the sun's place in the ecliptic; bring the needle thus fixed to the meridian, and set the index to XII noon; turn the globe till the needle points directly to the sun, and casts no shadow; and then the index will point at the hour of the day. N. B. The shadow of the axis will also cut the hour on the horary circle. The wooden horizon being brought to a level, if you turn the North pole towards the sun, and raise it up, down, or sideways, till the axis cast no shadow, then will the elevation of the pole above the horizon be the sun's altitude.

Prob. XX. The latitude of a place, the sun's place, and his altitude, being given, to find the hour of the day, and the sun's azimuth.

Rectify the globe; turn it and the quadrant of altitude, till the sun's place cut the given degree of altitude on the fiducial edge; then will the index shew the hour of the day, and the quadrant will cut the horizon in the azimuth.

Prob. XXI. The latitude and hour of the day or night being given, to find the sun's altitude or depression, and azimuth.

Rectify the globe; bring the sun's place to the meridian, and set the index to XII noon; turn the globe till the index point at the given hour of the day; bring the quadrant of altitude to cut the sun's place; and on the fiducial edge is the sun's altitude at the given hour, and the quadrant cuts the horizon in the azimuth. If the given hour be XII noon, the arc of the meridian betwixt the sun's place and the horizon, is the sun's

meridian altitude, and the complement thereof to 90 degrees is his zenith distance. If the given hour be in the night, bring that point of the ecliptic which is opposite to the sun's place to the meridian, then proceed as above; and the altitude thus found, will be the depression. By having the sun's azimuth, a meridian line may be found thus: place the wooden horizon quite level, and bring the pole to the zenith; then turn the horizon about till the shadow of the axis cut off the azimuth in hours on the horary circle; then will the meridian of the globe stand due South and North, and perpendiculars dropt from it on any fixed plane will be a meridian line.

Prob. XXII. The latitude, the sun's place, and his azimuth, being given, to find his altitude, and the hour.

Having rectified the globe, bring the quadrant of altitude to the given azimuth in the horizon; and turn the globe till the sun's place cut the edge of the quadrant, then will the said edge shew the altitude, and the index will point to the hour. In like manner, the latitude and sun's place being given, with either the altitude, hour, or azimuth, the other two may be found.

Prob. XXIII. The declination and meridian altitude of the sun, or of a star, being given, to find the latitude of the place.

Mark the degree of declination upon the meridian, and move the meridian in the notches, till the degree of declination coincide with the given altitude; then will the elevation of the pole be the latitude of the place.

Prob. XXIV. The day and hour of the lunar eclipse being given, to find all those places on the globe where the same will be visible.

Find, by Prob. XI. the place to which the sun is vertical at the given hour, and bring that place to the zenith; then will the eclipse be visible in all those places which are under the horizon. Or, if you bring the antipodes of the place where the sun is vertical to the zenith, then will the eclipse be visible in all places above the horizon. As eclipses of the moon usually last some considerable time, the places toward the eastern horizon will continually be setting, and lose sight of the eclipse; and those on the western horizon will be constantly rising,

and come within view of it. When a solar eclipse happens to be central, if you bring the place where the sun is vertical at the time to the zenith, some part of the eclipse will be visible in most places in the upper hemisphere. But an eclipse of the sun's being visible in any particular place, depends so much upon the moon's latitude at the time, that it cannot be determined with any certainty by the globe, but by calculation only.

Prob. XXV. To find the right ascension and declination of the sun, or of a star.

Bring the sun's place, or the star, to the meridian; then will the degree of the equator cut by the meridian be the sun's, or star's right ascension; and the degree of the meridian directly over the sun's place, or over the star, is the declination. If the right ascension and declination be given, to find the sun's place, or the star, bring the degree of right ascension on the equator to the brass meridian; and under the degree of declination on the meridian, is the sun's place, or the star sought.

Prob. XXVI. To find the latitude and longitude of a given star.

Bring the solstitial colure to the brass meridian, screw the quadrant of altitude over the pole of the ecliptic, then turn the quadrant to the given star; and the arc betwixt the star and the ecliptic will be the latitude, and the degree cut on the ecliptic will be the longitude.

The converse of this problem, viz. from the latitude and longitude given to find the star, is so obvious, that it would be idle to give directions. The distance in degrees betwixt two stars is found by laying the quadrant of altitude over them.

Prob. XXVII. The latitude of the place, the month, day, and hour being given, to find what stars are then rising or setting, what stars are culminating or on the meridian, and what is the altitude and azimuth of any given star above the horizon.

Elevate the pole to the latitude of the place; bring the sun's place to the meridian, and set the index to XII noon; turn the globe till the index point at the given hour; then all those stars that are in the eastern semicircle of the horizon are rising,

those in the western semicircle are setting, and those under the meridian are then culminating. And if the quadrant of altitude be screwed to the zenith, and applied to any particular star, the edge will show the altitude, and the horizon will be cut in the azimuth.

If, instead of the hour, the altitude or azimuth be given, the other two may be easily found.

If the globe be now turned quite round, all those stars that do not pass under the horizon during a full revolution of the globe, never set in that place; and the stars that do not come above the horizon, never rise in that latitude.

If a parallel to the equator be described touching the horizon, and dividing the stars that never set from those that do, this parallel is called, the circle of perpetual apparition; and if on the other side of the equator another such parallel be described, dividing the stars that never rise from those that do, this parallel is called, the circle of perpetual occultation; and the distance of these circles from their respective poles is always equal to the latitude of the place; so that, as the latitude increases, these circles will recede from the poles, till at last, in the latitude of 90 degrees, or under the poles, they coincide with the equator and the horizon.

Prob. XXVIII. The latitude of the place being given, to find the amplitude, oblique ascension, and descension, ascensional difference, the semi-diurnal and semi-nocturnal arc, with the time of continuance above or under the horizon, of any star or point in the heavens.

Elevate the pole to the given latitude, bring the given star or point to the meridian, set the index to XII noon; then turn the globe till the given star or point come to the eastern horizon; then the arc of the horizon betwixt the star and the East is the amplitude oriental, and the degree of the equator cut by the horizon is the oblique ascension. Turn the globe back again till the given star or point come to the western horizon, then the arc of the horizon betwixt the star and the West will be the amplitude occidental, and the degree of the equator cut by the horizon will be the oblique descension; and the time betwixt the hour to which the index now points, and the hour of six, is the ascensional difference in time; which converted into degrees, and added, or subtracted, as the case

requires, to or from 90 degrees, gives the semi-diurnal arc, the complement whereof to 180 is the semi-nocturnal arc; and the hour to which the index points, doubled, gives the time of continuance above the horizon, the complement whereof to 24 hours is the time of continuance under the horizon. If the amplitude, oblique ascension, &c. of the sun be required; then, besides the latitude of the place, the month and day must also be given; because these things, with respect to the sun, on account of his annual motion, vary every day; whereas, with respect to the fixed stars, they are the same all the year round.

Prob. XXIX. The latitude of the place, with the month and day, being given, to find the hour when any star rises, sets, or culminates.

Elevate the pole to the given latitude, bring the sun's place to the meridian, and set the index to XII noon; then bring the star successively to the eastern horizon, to the meridian, and the western horizon; and the index in these respective situations will shew the hour of rising, culminating, and setting. If the latitude of the place, with the hour of rising, setting, or culmination of a star, be given, to find the month and day, or sun's place; in this case, bring the star to the horizon, or the meridian, and set the index to the given hour; then turn the globe till the index points at XII noon, and the meridian will cut the ecliptic in the sun's place; whence the month and day may be found in the calendar on the wooden horizon.

Prob. XXX. The latitude of the place, the month and day, with the azimuth of a star being given, to find the hour of the night.

Elevate the globe to the latitude of the place, bring the sun's place to the meridian, and set the index to XII noon; screw the quadrant of altitude to the zenith, and bring it to the star's azimuth in the horizon, then turn the globe till the star cut the edge of the quadrant; and the index will shew the hour of the night.

The azimuth or bearing of a star may be found, thus: place the meridian of the globe due South and North, by help of the compass, or a meridian line, and at the same time bring the horizon to a level; then fix a long needle perpendicularly in the zenith; place a long joiner's square on the wooden horizon,

shift the square till the needle, the edge of the square, and the star be in a line; and on the horizon you have the azimuth or bearing, and that either in degrees or points. If you bring the edge of the square to the North or South point of the horizon, you will then perceive what stars are on the meridian.

Prob. XXXI. The latitude of the place, the month and day, and two stars of the same azimuth or the same altitude, being given, to find the hour of the night.

Elevate the pole to the given latitude, bring the sun's place to the meridian, set the index to XII noon, and screw the quadrant to the zenith; then turn the globe and quadrant about till both stars coincide with the edge thereof; then will the index shew the hour of the night. If the two stars are of the same altitude, move the globe till the same degree on the quadrant cut both stars; then will the index shew the hour.

If the altitude of two stars on the same azimuth be given, and the latitude of the place be required: in this case, lay the quadrant over both stars at the given degrees of altitude, then shift the meridian in the notches, till the quadrant cut the given azimuth in the horizon; and the elevation of the pole will be the latitude of the place.

If two stars be given, one on the meridian, and the other in the East or West point of the horizon, and the latitude be required: in this case, bring the star on the meridian to the meridian of the globe, then shift the meridian in the notches, till the other star comes to the East or West point of the horizon; and the elevation of the pole will be the latitude of the place.

Prob. XXXII. The latitude of the place being given, to find the degree of the ecliptic which rises or sets with a given star, and thence to determine the time of its cosmical and achronical rising and setting.

Elevate the pole to the given latitude, bring the given star to the eastern horizon, and observe what degree of the ecliptic rises with it; then look for that degree on the wooden horizon; and in the calendar you have the month and day when the star rises cosmically, and the degree of the ecliptic then cutting the western horizon will give the time of the star's

rising achronically. Then bring the star to the western horizon, and the degree of the ecliptic which then rises, will give the month and day when the star sets cosmically, and the degree of the ecliptic now in the western horizon will give the time of the achronical setting.

Prob. XXXII. The latitude of the place being given, to find the time when a given star rises and sets heliacally.

Elevate the pole to the given latitude, bring the star to the eastern horizon, and that degree of the ecliptic which is now 12 degrees under the eastern horizon, is the sun's place when the given star, if it be of the first magnitude, begins to emerge from the sun's beams, and becomes visible in the morning before the sun rises. The degree of the ecliptic is thus found: turn the quadrant toward the western horizon, and move it till the edge thereof cut the ecliptic in 12 degrees of altitude above the horizon; and the point of the ecliptic opposite to this will be 12 degrees under the eastern horizon, and is the sun's place; when the star begins to rise heliacally, the day and month answering to which may be found on the wooden horizon. To find the time of the heliacal setting, bring the star to the western horizon, and turn the quadrant to the eastern, so that the 12th degree thereof above the horizon may cut the ecliptic; and the degree of the ecliptic opposite to the point now cut, is the sun's place when the star begins to set heliacally, or turn invisible in the evening; whose correspondent month and day are on the wooden horizon.

Prob. XXXIV. The latitude of the place, with the month and day, being given; to find the hour when any given planet rises, sets, or culminates.

Find the place of the planet for the given day in some ephemeris, mark its place on the ecliptic; then elevate the pole to the given latitude, bring the sun's place to the meridian, and set the index to XII noon; and then turn the globe till the marked degree of the ecliptic comes successively to the eastern horizon, to the meridian, and the western horizon; and the index will, in these respective situations, shew the hour of the planet's rising, culminating, and setting.

Prob. XXXV. The month, day, and hour of an eclipse of one of Jupiter's satellites being given, to find the places where it will be visible.

Find, by Prob. XI. the places to which the sun is vertical at the given hour, bring that place to the zenith, and set the index to XII noon; then all the places in the eastern semicircle of the horizon are those to which the sun is then setting: fix therefore the semicircle of position to the North and South points of the horizon; and while it lies flat on the eastern horizon, slip a small wedge betwixt it and the globe, that it may keep its place, and revolve with the globe; then if Jupiter be in consequence of the sun, or rises after him, turn the globe westward till the index point at the difference in time betwixt the sun's and Jupiter's right ascension; then will the space betwixt the semicircle of position and the eastern horizon comprehend all those places of the earth where Jupiter will be visible from the setting of the sun to the setting of Jupiter. But if Jupiter be in antecedence of the sun, or rises before him, bring the place to which the sun is vertical, to the zenith, and all the places in the western semicircle of the horizon will be those to which the sun is then rising; wherefore, having laid the semicircle of position on the western horizon, put in a wedge to keep it fast, and turn the globe eastward till the index point so many hours from noon as is the difference of the right ascension of the sun and Jupiter; then will the space betwixt the semicircle of position and the western horizon comprehend all those places on the earth, where Jupiter and the eclipse will be visible betwixt the rising of Jupiter and the rising of the sun.

Prob. XXXVI. The latitude of the place, with the month, day, and hour, being given, to find the right ascension of the mid-heaven, and divide the whole heavens into the twelve astronomical houses.

Elevate the pole to the given latitude, bring the sun's place to the meridian, and set the index to XII noon; then turn the globe till the index point to the given hour; and the degree of the equator which now culminates, will be the right ascension of the mid-heaven. Then fix the semicircle of position to the North and South points of the horizon, and from the point of the equator cutting the eastern horizon, count 30 degrees upward on the equator, and bring the semicircle of position to this 30th degree; and the space betwixt the semi-

circle and eastern horizon will be the twelfth house, and the degree of the ecliptic now cut by the semicircle will be the cusp thereof. Again, move the semicircle other 30 degrees upward, and it will cut the ecliptic in the cusp of the eleventh house, and the meridian now cuts it in the cusp of the tenth house. Next, bring the semicircle to the West side, and elevate it to 30 degrees below the culminating point of the equator, and it will then cut the ecliptic in the cusp of the ninth house: Bring the semicircle 30 degrees lower, and it will cut the ecliptic in the cusp of the eighth house, and the western horizon cuts it in the cusp of the seventh house. The eastern horizon cuts the ecliptic in the cusp of the first house; and as the first is diametrically opposite to the seventh, so is the second to the eighth, the third to the ninth, the fourth to the tenth, the fifth to the eleventh, and the sixth to the twelfth.

THE CONSTRUCTION AND USE OF MAPS.

A map is a plane figure, representing the surface of the earth, or some part thereof, according to the laws of perspective. On maps, as well as on globes, are inscribed the circles of the sphere, viz. the equator, the meridians, the tropics, the polar circles, and other parallels; and on the map of the world is also inscribed the ecliptic. In maps, the top is the North, the foot the South, the right hand the East, and the left hand the West. The degrees of latitude are numbered on the East and West side of maps, and the degrees of longitude at top and bottom. Rivers are described in maps by black lines, which are always wider or broader nearer the mouth than towards the head or source. Mountains are represented by a sort of cloud; forests or woods by a kind of shrub; bogs or morasses by shades; lands or shallows by small dots; roads usually by double lines; and towns by o, or by the shape of a little house. The depth of water in or near harbours, is usually expressed in fathoms, by figures. Thus, 4, 5, 6, 7, denotes the water to be so many fathoms deep. A map is the representation of the earth or a part thereof on a plane surface. The globe truly represents the earth, but a map no more than a

plane surface can represent one that is spherical. But although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet by means of several of them, each containing about 10 or 20 degrees of latitude, the representation will not fall very much short of the globe for exactness; because such maps, if joined together, would form a spherical convex nearly as round as the globe itself.

The distance between two places is found on the map thus: Take the extent betwixt the two places with a pair of compasses, and applying that to the scale of miles, usually placed in some corner of the map, you have the distance in miles; or applying it to the degrees of latitude on the side of the map, you have the distance in degrees.

The latitudes of places is found, by taking the nearest extent between the place and the parallel next above or below it, and that extent laid from the same parallel on the graduated meridian the same way, will point out the latitude.

The longitude of a place is found, by taking the nearest distance from the place to the next meridian, and applying that extent from the same meridian upon the graduated parallel; but the minutes, if there is meridian for every degree, or the degrees of a meridian for every 5 or 10, must be estimated by the eye.

All those places having the same latitude are found under the same parallel, and all places of the same longitude under the same meridian.

The length of the longest day and number of the climate of any place, is found by comparing the latitude of the place with the table of climates, where the correspondent climate and length of the longest day is exhibited.—See the Introduction to the Geographical Dictionary, p. 32.

When the hour of the day in one place is given, to find the hour of the day in another, compare the longitudes of the places, and allow 4 minutes difference of time for every degree of difference of longitude, to be added to the given hour, if the place of which the hour is required lie East of that of which the hour is given, but subtracted if it lie to the West.

When the latitude and longitude of a place is given to find the place on the map. Move your finger from the latitude given parallel to the nearest parallel till you come to the given longitude, where you will find the place.

If you have no map, but the latitudes and longitudes of two places given, in finding the distances there will be three varieties, 1. If both places lie under the same meridian, the difference of latitude gives the distance in degrees. 2. If under the same parallel, the distance is found by multiplying the difference in degrees by the number of miles answering to a degree in that parallel. 3. If the given places differ both in latitude and longitude, find the miles corresponding to a degree of longitude on a mean parallel between the two latitudes, by which multiply the difference of longitudes in degrees. Reduce also the difference of latitudes to miles; square both these, and the square root of their sum will be the direct distance.

Concerning the maps which embellish this Grammar, we must observe, that the size of the page naturally compelled us to have them drawn on a small scale; they are, however, as full as their size will admit. They are such as relate to the countries in general, none being given for the world or various quarters, as they are already inserted in the COMPENDIOUS GEOGRAPHICAL DICTIONARY.



A COMPENDIOUS GEOGRAPHICAL GRAMMAR.

IT is the usual practice of geographers to begin their descriptions of the terraqueous globe with descanting on Europe, and the various kingdoms and states which compose that grand division of the world; but as we see cause to deviate from their plan, we think it a duty incumbent upon us to state our principal reasons for such deviation. First, then, according to the light of nature, of reason, of history, and of the sacred writings of the word of God, it evidently appears, that when that Almighty Being created man, he placed him in the garden of Eden, which was situated in Asia. Secondly, that from the various emigrations from Asia, the other parts of the earth were peopled. Thirdly, it was in Asia that the Jewish theocracy subsisted, and that the immediate revelations of the Deity to mankind were made, through the medium of Moses and the prophets, and, lastly, by Jesus Christ himself, who wrought and accomplished the grand work of our redemption in this said quarter of the globe. And, fourthly, it was in Asia that the first empires and kingdoms were founded, while the other parts of the earth were inhabited only by wild beasts. Such are the reasons that have influenced us in our choice; and, therefore, we shall commence our operation with a description of

ASIA:

WHICH is superior to Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it stretching into all climates, from the frozen wilds of Siberia in the north, to the sultry regions of India in the

south; a difference of climate causing a difference in the constitutions of the inhabitants. Thus, in one part, they are robust, brave, and hardy; while, in another, they are weak, indolent, and effeminate. In the earliest ages Asia was the seat of the empires of the Assyrians, Medes, Persians, and Greeks; after the extinction of these empires, the Romans carried their arms even beyond the banks of the Ganges. During these revolutions, Asia continued to be cultivated; but the Saracens, in their zeal for the propagation of Mohammedanism, spread devastation and ruin over the fertile regions of great part of this extensive continent, trampling on the liberties of the people, binding them in the bonds of slavery, and rendering their fertile fields uncultivated deserts. There are various religions professed in Asia; as, Judaism, Christianity, Mohammedanism, and Paganism; but the votaries of idolatry are by far the more numerous.

Concerning the origin of the name of this quarter of the globe there are various opinions; but the conjecture of Bochart seems to be the most reasonable. He supposes it to be a corruption of the Phœnician word *Asi*, which signifies middle, because Asia Minor, whence the rest received its appellation, is situated in the midst between Europe and Africa; these three divisions being all that were known to the ancients of the habitable globe.

The continent of Asia is situated between 25 and 180 degrees of E. longitude from London, and between the equator and 74 degrees of N. latitude, without including the islands that lie south of the equator. It is about 4740 miles long, from the Dardanelles in the W. to the Eastern shore of Tartary; and about 4380 miles broad, from the Southern part of Malacca to the most Northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the N.; on the W. it is separated from Africa by the Red Sea; and from Europe by the Mediterranean, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the E. it is bounded by the Pacific, and on the S. by the Indian Ocean.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE CONTINENT OF ASIA,
AS DIVIDED INTO SIX DISTINCT EMPIRES OR
KINGDOMS.

Empire and Kingdoms.		Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
1.	China	1450	1260	Pekin.
2.	Tartary Ruffian Chinese Mogulian Independent	As the tribes of Tartars live in a state of continual hostile war, no certain limits can be assigned to their respective territories.		Tobolski. Chymian. Tibet. Samarcand.
3.	Hindostan	2000	1500	Dehli.
4.	India beyond the Ganges	2000	1000	Siam or Pegu.
5.	Persia	1300	1100	Isfahan.
6.	Part of Arabia	1300	1200	Mecca.
	Syria	270	160	Aleppo.
	Holy Land	210	90	Jerusalem.
	Natalia	750	308	Bursa or Smyrna.
	Mesopotamia, or Diarbekr	560	310	Bagdad.
	Turcomania	360	300	Erzerum.
	Georgia	210	140	Teflis.

JAPAN, OR NIPHON.

THE empire of Japan is called by the natives Nippon, which signifies the foundation of the sun; but by the Chinese it is called Zippon or Siphon. The islands which compose this vast and wealthy empire are situated in the Pacific Ocean, to the E. of China, and lie between 31 and 42 degrees of N. latitude, and between 130 and 147 degrees of E. longitude from London.

Nippon, the largest of these islands, is, according to Kämpfer, about 900 miles long, and in some parts near 360 broad; but its mean length and breadth are not near so much. To this island are added two others much smaller, and separated from it only by narrow freights. These three islands are encompassed by an inconceivable number of others, some of which are small, rocky, and barren; but others are large, rich, and so fruitful as to be governed by petty princes, who are subject to the emperor of Japan.

These islands, to which may be added two others which were conquered from the kingdom of Corea, are divided into 68 provinces, and these again into 604 smaller districts. There are likewise some distant islands, which, though not immediately belonging to the empire of Japan, acknowledge the emperor's supremacy, and implore his protection.

The coasts of Japan are remarkably well secured by rocky mountainous coasts, and by two very dangerous whirlpools. The one lying near Simabara is, at high water, even with the surface of the sea; but no sooner does the tide begin to ebb, than, after some violent turnings, it is said suddenly to sink to the depth of fifteen fathoms, swallowing up, with great force, ships, boats, and whatever at that juncture happens to get within its vortex, dashing them to pieces against the rocky bottom. The other, which lies near the coast of the province of Kijuokuni, rushes with a loud boisterous noise about a small rocky island, which, by the violence of the motion, is said to be kept in perpetual agitation; but though this has a formidable appearance, yet it is not esteemed so dangerous as the former; because, as its noise can be heard at a considerable distance, mariners have an opportunity of avoiding it.

There are a great many burning mountains on the island of Japan, and, consequently, the country is subject to earthquakes: these are so frequent, that the inhabitants have very little dread on their account. In 1703, an earthquake, attended by a great concussion which threw all bodies into one promiscuous heap, overturned almost the whole of the large and populous city of Jeddo, the capital of the empire, destroying the king's palace, and about 200,000 of the inhabitants.

From the situation of Japan, it enjoys a healthful climate, it not being exposed to the burning heat of a tropical sun, nor to the extreme cold and severe frosts of a more northern region.

Japan is mountainous, rocky, and naturally barren; but the industry of the inhabitants has rendered it somewhat fruitful, so that it supplies them tolerably well with all manner of necessaries. It produces gold, silver, copper, tin, lead, and iron. In short, every province is so rich, that it furnishes plenty of those things which are necessary either for home consumption or exportation. The country is plentifully supplied with fresh water, and abounds in springs, lakes, and rivers; some of which are so very large, deep, and rapid, that all attempts to build bridges over them have been rendered abortive.

All sorts of submarine plants, shrubs, corallines, corals, stones, mushrooms, sea fans, algæ, fuci, and the like, as also shells of all kinds, are found in the greatest plenty in the Japanese seas, in no wise inferior in beauty to those found about Amboyna and the other Spice islands.

The varnish tree, which affords a milky juice, produces a more beautiful varnish than is to be found in any other part of the world. They have likewise a tree which they call kadsi, or paper tree, which is exceedingly useful. It is of the mulberry kind, and grows with amazing quickness. From the bark, they make not only paper, but stuffs, cloth, ropes, and several other articles. They have likewise the camphire tree, tea shrub, peaches, apricots, plums, and figs. Japan, indeed, may vie with most, if not with all the countries in the known world, for the great variety of beautiful plants and flowers with which nature has adorned its fields, hills, woods, and forests.

Japan is but scantily supplied with quadrupeds, either wild or tame. Their horses are small, but exceedingly agile. Bulls

and cows serve only for the purposes of ploughing and carriage. They have also buffaloes, dogs, and cats. Their wild beasts are monkeys, bears, deer, hares, wild boars, and some others.

They have several kinds of wild and tame fowl; as cocks and hens, ducks, cranes, herons, wild geese, wild ducks, pheasants, woodcocks, and storks.

The history of this empire, like that of China, is much obscured by their fabulous relations; but we must observe, that the Portuguese were the first Europeans who obtained a footing in this country; they discovered it in 1543, and, induced by a prospect of gain, settled a small colony on the coast. By the crafty insinuations of the missionaries, they gained over some of the princes of the empire, and many of the common people, insomuch, that they meditated a revolution in the government. Their treachery being at length discovered, Taico, the emperor, began to abridge them in the exercise of several privileges that had been granted them. He died in 1598, and his successors prosecuted the plan with the utmost rigour. The Portuguese and their Japanese converts were persecuted during 40 years; which persecution exceeded every thing of the kind recorded in history. At length Christianity was in one day entirely exterminated in Japan; for 37,000 Christians took up arms, and having got possession of the castle of Simabara, on the sea coast, determined to defend their lives to the utmost extremity: after a siege of three months, the castle was taken April 12, 1638, and all who remained alive were cruelly butchered. The Portuguese at Macao, some time afterwards, sent to Japan a splendid embassy; but the Japanese had so rooted a hatred against them, that the ambassadors, with their whole retinue, to the number of 61 persons, were beheaded, except a few of their meanest servants, who were reserved in order to carry home the tidings of this dreadful massacre.

The Dutch, allured by the advantageous trade of the Portuguese at Japan, first landed in that country in 1600. Finding their rivals in trade, made great opposition to their settlement in that part of the world, and that the Japanese were endeavouring to extirpate the Portuguese, the Dutch, in a truly Christian spirit, renounced the religion of Jesus, and assisted the Japanese in driving from their coasts the much despised professors of the Romish faith. In reward for their eminent

services, the Dutch were allowed some considerable privileges ; but the Japanese became alarmed when the Dutch built a factory and warehouse of hewn stone, stronger, more lofty, and extensive than the buildings of that country ; and the more so, when, unlading one of their ships into their capacious warehouse, the bottom of a large box started, and, instead of merchandize, a brass mortar fell out. This circumstance caused the Japanese government to send immediate orders to the Dutch to demolish all their buildings, under pain of death, and to remove from the port of Firando, where they then were, to the little island of Desima, which is about 236 paces long and 80 broad. The vast profits made by the Dutch in their trade to Japan, caused the English, about 1663, to attempt to open a commercial intercourse with that country ; but the Dutch, dreading such a rivalry, informed the Japanese, that the English king, Charles II. had married a daughter of the king of Portugal. This effectually alienated the minds of the Japanese from the English, and the hopes of the British merchants were frustrated.

CHINA.

It is difficult to assign the reason why several European nations call this vast empire by the name of China, since it is called by the natives themselves Tchong-kone, and by the inhabitants of Hindostan, Catay. It is situated on the eastern borders of Asia, having Chinese Tartary on the N. the Yellow Sea and the Pacific Ocean on the E. the Chinesian Sea and Tonquin on the S. and Thibet and part of Russia on the W. It is included between the latitudes of 20 deg. and 42 deg. N. and between the longitudes of 98 deg. and 133 deg. E. being about 1450 miles long, and 1260 broad.

China is divided into 16 large provinces, of which Kian-nang, Chang-tong, Tche-kiang, and Fo-kien, are on the coasts of the Yellow Sea and the Pacific Ocean ; Petcheli, Chan-si, and Chen-si, extend along the great wall which separates China from Tartary on the N. Se-chuen and Yun-nan are on the western borders, and a part of the S. ; and Quan-si and Quan-

tong or Canton, are on the remainder of the southern borders, but Honan, Hou-quang, Koic-tchou, and Kian si, are situated in the middle, and are surrounded by the other eleven. There is another province called Quan-tong, which is situated on the northern coast of the Yellow Sea, beyond the great wall. These are the proper bounds of China, though a great part of Tartary is subject to the emperor, which greatly increases his power. Part of the islands of Formosa, Amooi, and Macao, with some other smaller ones, are likewise subject to him.

From the vast extent of the Chinese empire it must necessarily have a variety of climates, inasmuch that the northern provinces are very cold, the middle ones temperate, and the more southern ones excessively hot.

The soil is also different, according as it is situated more or less N. or S. it is, however, generally fruitful; and where it is not so by nature, the indefatigable labour of the husbandman has effectually cured its sterility.

China produces a variety of tall and straight trees, well adapted to the purposes of building; and these are transported to the more distant provinces by means of the rivers and canals, with which the whole country abounds. Some of their mountains produce iron, quick-silver, copper, and even gold. They have vast quantities of pit coal, which is the most usual fuel. The mountains likewise produce loadstones, cinnabar, vitriol, and allum. Lapis lazuli and a kind of jasper are also found here. They have also rock crystal, porphyry, and several quarries of various kinds of marble.

According to Le Compte, the springs are not numerous, neither is the water palatable; but there are a great many rivers, some of which are very large. The more considerable are, 1. The Kiam, which, from its deep channel has given rise to a proverb, which intimates, "that the sea has no bounds, nor the Kiam any bottom;" and, indeed, in some places, it is unfathomable. 2. The Yellow River; and, 3. The Tay. Besides these, there are an innumerable quantity of smaller rivers, and such vast canals, some of which extend upwards of a thousand miles in length, that the whole face of the country is well watered in every direction.

All sorts of fruit grow here with very little assistance from the gardener, such as pears, apples, apricots, peaches, figs,

grapes, pomegranates, walnuts, chefnuts, and, in short, all the variety known in Europe. They have likewise some delicious fruits, to which Europeans are strangers, such as the tse-tse, the litchi, the longyen, and the seze. They have among their trees several that are remarkable, though common in their country, particularly one which bears a pod, containing pease; for the shape, colour, shell, and taste, are similar to our garden pease. There are two kinds of varnish trees; one called by the Chinese tichu, is of a small size, with a whitish bark. The gum, which distils drop by drop, resembles the tears of the turpentine tree. If an incision be made in it, it will yield a much greater quantity, but the tree will be weakened, and, in the end, be destroyed. This varnish is a strong poison, but is greatly esteemed by artificers, because it will take all colours alike, and, if it be managed with skill, will neither lose its lustre by age or change of air. The other varnish tree, called tongohu, nearly resembles a walnut tree: it bears a nut filled with a soft pulp, that contains a thickish oil: this oil is prepared for use by boiling it with litharge: it has also a poisonous quality. The tallow tree seems to be peculiar to China: it bears a fruit about the size of a nut, which contains a kernel, having all the qualities of tallow, even in smell, colour, and consistency. The inhabitants use it in the making of candles.

Among the shrubs of this country, that which we call tea deserves to be particularly noticed. It is distinguished into three sorts: the first, called song-lo-tcha, is what we denominate green tea, and is principally produced in the province of Kian-nang. The second, called you-y, or bones, grows in the province of Fo-kien, and receives its name from a celebrated mountain there. The third sort is called pou-eul-tcha, from a village in the province of Yun-nan, near which it grows in the greatest perfection. The leaves are longer and thicker than those of the two former kinds; these they roll up and sell at a high price. But the most useful of all others is the cotton shrub. When the husbandman has got in his harvest, then he sows the cotton in the same fields: and raking the earth over the seeds, a shrub about two feet high is produced, the flowers of which appear about the middle of August. These are generally of a reddish yellow: the flower is succeeded by a small button of the size of a nut, which opens

in three places ; and, about the fortieth day after the appearance of the flower, three or four wrappings of cotton are observed, of a beautiful white ; which being fastened to the bottom of the pod, contains seed for the next year. It is then the season for getting in the crop ; but if the weather is fine they leave it to be exposed two or three days to the heat of the sun, which, causing it to swell, increases its value. After the seeds are separated, they card and spin the cotton, and, weaving it, convert it into callico.

In China are all the various kinds of cattle found in England ; but as the country is well watered and intersected by canals, the breed of cattle for drawing and burden is rendered an inconsiderable object. In the mountains there are many wild beasts, as rhinoceroses, camels, buffaloes, tigers, bears, and wild boars.

The origin of the Chinese empire is wrapt in obscurity ; but, according to their regular history, the dynasties, or royal families of China, whence their kings sprung, are supposed to have commenced about 2207 years before the Christian era. Some have conjectured, that Noah retired to China after the flood ; others, that some of his descendants, in the second or third generation, first settled there ; but Sir William Jones, from his late researches, is of opinion, that the empire of China was peopled by large emigrations from the N. E. parts of India.

The Chinese, in their persons, are not such grotesque figures as their paintings represent ; but we may form a tolerably just idea of them in general, by considering what they esteem beauty. They imagine, that it consists in having a large forehead, small eyes, a short nose, a broad face, a mouth of a moderate size, large ears, and black hair ; together with a certain symmetry and proportion between all the parts. Their complexion, in the southern parts, is of an olive colour ; but, in the northern provinces, they are naturally as fair as the Europeans, and, in common, their faces are not disagreeable. The women are commonly of the middle stature ; their noses are short, their eyes little, their mouths well made, and their lips rosy ; their ears are long, their hair black, and their countenances florid ; their features are regular, and their countenances full of vivacity. Owing to the practice of binding the feet of female children in their infancy, that part of their body

is rendered extremely small. The men shave their heads, leaving only one lock of hair growing on the crown: this tuft is esteemed a valuable ornament, and a Chinese would part with his life as soon as he would with this decoration.

The disposition of the Chinese is in general, mild, tractable, and humane; they have much affability in their air and manner, and pride themselves on being more polite and civilized than other nations: but under this mask of civility, politeness, and friendship, the most base treachery is sometimes concealed; they will sawn upon the person they hate, and seek an opportunity of gratifying their revenge, by plunging him in irrecoverable ruin. Interest may be said to be the grand mover of all their actions; and in their dealings with strangers they are exceedingly deceitful, endeavouring to cheat them in every possible way: if a stranger even employs a Chinese interpreter, to act as a broker, it is well if the merchant and the broker do not join in the deception, and share the profits of their illicit traffic.

The Chinese are a very ceremonious people. The common salutation is performed by joining their hands before the breast, moving them gently, and making a slight inclination of the head, saying, Prosperity, prosperity. On meeting a person to whom they owe great respect, they join their hands, lift them up, then lower them almost to the earth, bowing their body very low, and crying Happiness. In conversation they use the most respectful terms; and, if they are not intimate friends, they usually, in an affected tone of voice, utter, The service the Lord has done for his meanest servant has greatly affected me. Such, and many more, are the extravagant ceremonies observed by them; but they never proceed from the heart.

Their feasts begin generally in the evening, and, continuing four or five hours, are not ended till midnight, when they separate with much ceremony, and the servants or dependants of the guests walk before their master's chairs, carrying great lanterns of oiled paper, on which the quality and sometimes the name of their master are written in large and preposterous characters.

The Chinese regulate their marriages by the grand principle that is the foundation of their political government; namely, the veneration and submission of children to their parents:

for it is a maxim of their philosophy, that kings ought to have for the empire all the tenderness of a father, and fathers in their family all the authority of a king. Hence the inclinations of the children are never consulted; and the choice being made by either the father or the nearest relation of the person who is to be married, after a vast deal of ceremony, the day is fixed on for the celebration of the marriage ceremony; but if the bridegroom, upon seeing his intended wife, is dissatisfied with his lot, the maid is sent back with her relations: this, however, seldom happens. Though they do not admit of polygamy, yet a man may keep a number of concubines, who are all treated with respect, but their children are considered as the offspring of the wife, and inherit their portions of the father's estate.

The china-ware of this country is well known in England. Many persons have endeavoured to imitate it, but none of them have been able to make it of that fine and delicate texture observable in that which is brought from China. The Chinese likewise excel in the manufacture of silk; and our best authors agree, that silk and silk worms came originally from China.

The knowledge of the Chinese in the mathematical sciences is but slender; but their skill in astronomy is more considerable. So long, and so closely, have they applied themselves to the study of this science, that they have an account of an eclipse which happened 2155 years before the birth of Christ. This likewise serves, in some measure, to prove the antiquity of their nation; but their origin is carried farther back by Gaubil, who observes, that for above 120 years before that period, they have given the number and extent of their constellations, what stars answered the solstices and equinoxes, the declination of the stars, and the distance of the tropics and the two poles. The Chinese astronomers compose a calendar or almanack every year, at the head of which they put the emperor's edict, by which all persons are forbidden, under pain of death, to use or to publish any other calendar; and of this work several millions of copies are annually sold.

The great wall, which separates China from Tartary, has long been the wonder and admiration of mankind; it excels all the ancient fortifications that ever were invented, being about 1500 miles long, and strengthened by towers in the

same manner as the walls of cities are. The gates on the side of China are fortified with large forts; and where the passes appear to be more weak, they have raised bulwarks behind each other, so that they may afford a mutual defence. It is from 20 to 25 feet high, and so broad that five or six horsemen may travel abreast without inconvenience. This wall, which is still nearly entire, was raised 300 years before the Christian era, so that it is now about 2100 years since its foundations were laid. "It is said," says Le Compte, "that during the reigns of the Chinese emperors, this wall was guarded by 1,000,000 of soldiers; but as that part of Tartary now belongs to China, they are content with guarding only the most dangerous and best fortified parts of it."

The cities are divided into three classes: of the first, there are above 160; of the second, 270; and of the third, above 1200, besides upwards of 300 walled cities, which they omit in this calculation, as not of sufficient importance to be ranked in either of those classes, though most of them are places of great trade, and are well inhabited. The villages are numberless, especially those of the southern provinces.

Among their buildings most worthy of notice, we must not omit their pagods or temples. These are very numerous, and consist partly of porticos paved with large square stones, and partly of halls that have a large communication by long galleries, adorned with statues. The roofs of these structures shine with green and yellow tiles, and the corners are embellished with dragons of the same colours projecting forward. The china tower of Nanking is a very curious pile of building. It is ascended by a stair-case of ten or twelve steps, which lead to the hall. This room, which serves for the temple, is very lofty, and stands on a small marble basis, that projects two feet all round beyond the rest of the wall. It is curiously adorned after the Chinese fashion, the outside being encrusted with a coarse china ware. On the top of the tower, which is nine stories high, is a thick pole, which stands upon the floor of the eighth story, and reaches more than 30 feet above the roof. A kind of spiral line, like a screw, winds round at several feet distance from the pole, and on the top is placed a golden ball, of immense bulk. The height of the whole tower, from the ground to the ball, is upwards of 200 feet.

The history of the affairs of China is much involved in obscurity, and the fabulous accounts delivered to us in the Chinese annals make us frequently suspect those relations which may be founded on fact. Their form of government seems to have been invariably monarchical, and the succession generally hereditary. Their history divides the emperors into 22 dynasties, or epochs of each imperial family that has successively filled the throne, but it does not furnish us with many interesting events till the middle of the last century, when, in 1644, the empire was conquered by the Tartars, who took advantage of the enfeebled state of China, occasioned by various domestic dissensions. At the time when the Tartars entered the country, the discontented parties were so numerous, that there were no less than eight different armies under the direction of as many chiefs. In this season of general anarchy, the Tartars seized upon the capital in the above year, and soon after subjected the whole empire. The moderation and wisdom of the Tartarian emperors effected as much as their arms; and the attachment which they shewed to the established laws and forms of government, and their impartiality in dispensing honours and emoluments, completed their conquest in a short space of time. Thus the Chinese and Tartars were united into one nation; and by this union the latter seems rather to have submitted to the laws of the former, than to have imposed any new burdens upon them. In reality, Tartary became subject to China, which still holds the seat of empire, and has the supreme courts of justice. Thither flows all the wealth of the united sovereignties; and there all honours are conferred. Thus China has gained an accession of strength from Tartary, and has now no enemy to fear. On the death of T'ung-gei, who had thus conquered China, his son Kang-hi ascended the throne. During 60 years, for so long this prince swayed the sceptre, the kingdom was in a very flourishing state. He was succeeded, in 1722, by his fourth son Yong-ching, who died in 1736. Of their late history, we have no certain accounts; for the only Europeans who resort to Peking are the Russians, who carry on a lucrative trade with the empire, chiefly in furs.

The emperor of China is an absolute monarch, and the respect paid to him is indeed a kind of adoration. He disposes of all places in the empire; he nominates the viceroys

and governors, and displaces them at his pleasure; he chuses which of his sons he pleases for his successor, and if he prefers to the eldest one of more distinguished merit, he gains great popularity. His revenues are amazingly great; but it is not easy to give an exact account of them, because the annual tribute is paid partly in money and partly in commodities; it particularly arises from the produce of their lands, as rice, wheat, and millet; from salt, silks, stuffs, linen, cotton, with innumerable other articles. All these, together with the customs and forestal estates, annually amount to upwards of 20,000,000. *liang*. According to Olbeck, a poll tax is levied on each person in China, from the age of 20 to that of 60; and he makes the number from whom it is collected, to amount to 58,000,000: so that we may safely conclude, there are little less than 100,000,000 of inhabitants in the vast empire of China.

The religion of China is two-fold. One as ancient as the empire itself, and probably introduced by its founders; the other of much later date, and derived from India, not long after the birth of our Saviour. The latter has idols, temples, sacrifices, priests, monks, festivals, and many external rites and ceremonies; but the former is entirely free from every thing of this nature, and is, perhaps, as artless and simple as any religion that ever was taught in the world. It prescribes reverence to an invisible Being, presiding in the visible heaven, who distributes hence happiness and misery among the inhabitants of the earth; but it enjoins no particular worship to him; so that temples, priests, assemblies, sacrifices, and rites, are things entirely foreign to it. This religion is comprehended in some ancient and valuable books, called "The Five Volumes." It appears from one of these ancient books, that Tien, the object of public worship, is the principle of all things, the father of the people, independent, almighty, omniscient; to whom the secrets of the heart are fully known, and who constantly watches over the conduct of men. Owing to various troubles occasioned by civil wars, and an almost universal corruption of manners, this ancient religion was nearly abolished, and a kind of Paganism introduced in its room, till at length Confucius arose and revived it. This truly great philosopher made a collection of the most excellent maxims of the ancients, which he not only taught to the

people, but observed himself. He preached up a severe morality, and endeavoured to prevail upon his followers to esteem temperance, justice, and other virtues, and to condemn riches and worldly pleasures: he strove to inspire them with such magnanimity as to be proof against the frowns of princes, and with a sincerity incapable of the least dissimulation. What is most to be admired, is, that he preached more forcibly by his example than by his words, whence he reaped considerable fruits from his labours: kings were governed by his counsels, and the people revered him as a holy man. So great was his zeal for the propagation of this moderate and equitable system of religion, that he sent 600 of his disciples into different parts of the empire to reform the manners of the people, and to instruct them in the principles of justice and virtue. Indeed Confucius seems to have carried the religion of nature as far as unassisted reason could possibly reach. After his death he was revered by the greatest part of the nation as an eminent saint, as a messenger inspired and sent by that invisible Being who regards the actions of men, to render that instruction to his fellow mortals which they stood in need of; nay, some carried their respect so far as to reverence him almost as a deity. But, alas! interpreters soon arose, who, by their annotations and glosses, explained away the simplicity and purity of his doctrine, and, by introducing idle distinctions and superstitious rites, by oververting and wresting his meaning, as well as by giving false interpretations of the ancient books, they destroyed the worship due to the Supreme Being, and formed a system of religion and philosophy equally impious and absurd.

Besides the above religion there are in China vast multitudes who follow the idolatry of Fo, which is altogether repugnant to reason. There are likewise a great many Jews, in different parts of the empire; and a few Christians.

For an account of the following principal towns of China, we refer to the Compendious Geographical Dictionary: Peking or Peking, Nanking, Teyvan, Canton, and Yunnan.

To the Chinese empire belong some islands in the adjacent seas, of which Formosa and Amson or Hainan may be reckoned the principal. The island of Formosa is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which run from E. to W. The eastern part is inhabited by the original in-

habitants, and the western by the Chinese, who expelled the Dutch in 1661. It abounds with all the necessaries of life.

The island of Hainan, though of large extent, is rendered unhealthy by the badness of the water, the inhabitants being obliged to boil it before they can drink it. This island is reckoned as part of the province of Quang-tong.

TARTARY.

THIS is a country of great extent, which, if taken in its utmost limits, reaches from the Eastern Ocean to the Caspian Sea, and from Corea, China, and the two Bokharas to Siberia and Russia. It is inhabited by Tartars of different denominations, and different manners, and is situated between 55 degrees and 144 degrees of E. Longitude from London, and between 37 degrees and 55 degrees of N. latitude; being 3600 miles long, and 960 broad, but in the narrowest part it is not above 330 miles broad. Great part, however, of this extensive country either belongs to the emperor of China, or is tributary to him; but that which more properly may be termed

CHINESE OR EASTERN TARTARY,

EXTENDS from 41 to 55 degrees of N. latitude, and from about 94 to 144 degrees of E. longitude from London. As this was the country whence the present race of the Chinese emperors received their origin, it is entirely under the government of China. In this vast extent of country the soil is various; in most parts it is unfit for tillage, but there are many spots exceedingly fertile. Here are mines of tin and some other metals, and large forests of timber, great quantities of which are sent to Peking for the purposes of building. The tame cattle are camels, horses, cows, and sheep; and their wild ones may be reckoned the dromedary, wild horse, chalon, and tyger.

RUSSIAN OR WESTERN TARTARY.

WE mention that part of Tartary which is subject to the Russians in this place, because it is included in the extensive limits just mentioned. That portion which belongs to the empire, is situated between 55 and 97 degrees of E. longitude, but its breadth is various. It is in general not very fertile, for the Tartars, especially those who inhabit many parts of this district, are constantly changing their place of habitation, so that the ground lays in a great measure uncultivated. There are some mines, but very few of them are much worked. Their animals are the same as those of Eastern Tartary. Mr. Bell, speaking of Tartary, says, From the river Volga to the wall of China, there are three great Tartar princes, the Ayuka Chan, the Koutayfha, and the Tushetu-Chan. These three mighty nations have almost the same features, religion, and language: they also live in much the same manner. Few languages can carry a traveller over a greater extent of country than that of the Tartars. With the Arabic indeed a person may travel through many places of the East, even from Egypt to Delhi; but with the Illyric he may travel much farther, even from the gulf of Venice to the West to the utmost boundaries of Kamtschatka in the East.

It must, however, be observed, that some parts of Tartary, included in the above limits, still maintain their independency. These parts are chiefly about Bokhara, Samarcand, and a few other places. See these described in the Geographical Dictionary, under their proper names.

COREA or KAOLI.

THE Kingdom of Corea, called both by the Chinese and the natives Kaoli, is a peninsula of Asia that extends from 84 to 43 degrees of N. latitude, and from 124 to 128 degrees of E. longitude from London; being about 430 miles long, and 225 broad. It has Chinese Tartary on the N. part of Chinese

Tartary and the Yellow Sea on the W. the Sea of Corea, which separates it from Japan, on the E. and the Chinese Sea on the S.

The cold is so intense in the north part of Corea, which is mountainous, that the rice and cotton plant will not grow. The poorer people of which district feed on barley, while the opulent have meal brought from the more southern parts. The mountains are, during the winter, covered with deep snow, and the inhabitants, in order to walk upon it without sliding, wear pieces of boards under their feet. The most considerable rivers are the Yalou and the Towmen, both of which rise in the same mountain; one takes an eastern and the other a western course: They are both deep and rapid, and the water excellent. Though the northern parts of this country are rather barren, yet the more southern are extremely fertile, and produces all the necessaries of life, especially rice, wheat, millet, and other sorts of grain. The ginseng, a root highly esteemed by the Chinese for its medicinal qualities, grows here. The natives cultivate tobacco, hemp, and cotton, together with most of the trees found in the northern parts of China.

The Coreans have plenty of horned cattle, which they use for the purposes of agriculture: they have also swine, dogs, and cats of the wild kind: there are tigers, bears, wolves, and fables; deer, foxes, and many others. The rivers are often infested with alligators or crocodiles, and the land with abundance of snakes and other venomous creatures. The country abounds with fowl; and there are plenty of herons, woodcocks, pheasants, pigeons, swans, geese, ducks, and all sorts of poultry; likewise eagles, hawks, kites, and some others unknown in Europe. They have few natural rarities, except a breed of horses not above three feet high, and a species of hens, whose tails are about three feet long. They cannot, however, bear of any vines or fruits which the more temperate climate of China produces.

Corea is divided into eight provinces, which contain upwards of 200 cities and large towns, besides many villages. The forts and castles are principally built on eminences.

The Coreans are generally well shaped, and of a mild and tractable disposition: they are lovers of learning, and are fond of music and dancing: they are moderate in eating and drinking, are commonly healthy, and take no physic. They are much afraid of the sick, particularly of those whose dis-

orders are contagious, whom they remove in little straw hovels in the midst of the fields, where their friends look after them, and give notice to passengers to keep at a distance; but when the sick have the misfortune to have no friends, others will rather suffer them to die for want of attendance than to go near them. When a town or village is infected with a plague, the avenues to it are shut up with hedges and briars, and some are placed on the tops of the infected houses, as a warning to strangers. As to physicians, there are very few in the country, and as the poor are unable to employ them, they are generally excluded from relief.

The language of Corea is a mixture of Chinese and Minchew Tartarian; it is copious, and they make use of three different hands in writing: the first consists of large broad strokes, somewhat similar to those of China, and is likewise the character in which their books are printed; the second is a kind of running hand, used by the great men and governors in answering petitions; the third, which is a ruder scrawl, is chiefly used by the common people. All these kinds of writing are performed with a hair pencil. They have abundance of old books, both printed and manuscript, which are preserved with the utmost care. They print from blocks of wood like the Chinese.

As Corea is tributary to the Eastern Tartars, who subdued it before they conquered China, an ambassador is sent thence every year to receive the tribute, which the Coreans pay in ginseng.

The king of Corea is, notwithstanding, absolute monarch over his own subjects. None of them have any property in the lands, and the revenues of the nobles arise out of those parcels of land which they hold of him during pleasure.

The revenues for the support of the king's household and his forces, arise out of the duties paid for every thing produced in the country, or brought by sea. In all towns and villages there are store houses for the fruits of the earth, which the farmers of the revenues take upon the spot in the time of harvest. Those who have employments under the government, receive their salaries out of the revenues of the place wherein they reside; and what is raised in the other parts of the country is assigned for the payment of the sea and land forces.

As by far the greater part of Corea is encompassed by the sea, a large naval force is very essential, and therefore every town is obliged to fit out and maintain a ship of war. These have generally two masts, and about 30 oars, with five or six men to each oar. They are stocked with small pieces of cannon and artificial fireworks.

The Koreans have scarcely any trade except with the Japanese, and the people of the islands of Genkima, who have a store house in the town of Poulang. They supply Corea with pepper, fragrant wood, allum, buffaloes horns, goats and buck skins, and in exchange, take the produce and manufactures of the country. The Koreans also carry on some trade with the northern ports of China in linen and cotton cloth. None but the rich merchants of Sior trade to Peking, which is carried on over land, and occasions them to be generally three months on the road.

SIBERIA.

THIS is a country of very great extent, reaching from Russia in the W. to which empire it is subject, to the North Pacific Ocean in the E. on the S. it has Western and Eastern Tartary, and on the N. the Frozen Ocean; being about 2000 miles long, and 750 broad. It extends from 50 to 77 degrees of N. latitude, and from 45 to 180 degrees of E. longitude from London, taking in the whole of the Russian dominions in that part of the world.

The face of the country is covered with large and almost impenetrable woods, with high mountains covered with eternal snows, and with fens, lakes, and marshes. The climate is therefore generally cold, but in the southern parts it is more moderate. To these dreary regions, where the inhabitants are shut up in their huts during 9 months in the year, the Russians banish those who are so unfortunate as to fall under the displeasure of the government. We must observe, that the snow falls on the mountains in the beginning of September, and such vast quantities soon descend

as to leave scarcely any traces of a habitation. It seldom begins to thaw till the middle of April, and does not entirely disappear till the end of May : so that the severity of winter is suspended only three months. The principal rivers, which have very long courses, are the Obi, the Jeniski, and the Lena. [See the Dictionary.] Here are mines of gold, silver, copper, and iron ; also jasper, lapis lazuli, and loadstones. Siberia has many animals unknown in Europe, and is inhabited by many distinct nations that have different manners, customs, languages, and religions.

KAMTSCHATKA.

THIS large peninsula extends from 52 to 61 degrees of N. latitude, and its southern extremity is 156. 45 E. from London. It is bounded on the N. by the Koniacks ; by the North Pacific Ocean on the S. and E. and by the Sea of Okotik, on the W. A chain of Mountains divides it nearly into two equal parts. The three great rivers are the Bolshane Kaugreest river, the Kamtschatka, and the Awatka ; besides which there are several smaller, such as the Goltioffka, the Bistrain, the Tigil ; and of others the number is almost infinite. No part of the soil seems capable of being turned to advantage, either for pasturage or tillage. The face of the country is covered with stunted trees, with a bottom of moss, and low weak heath. Some parts, however, produce hay and grain, the former of which is particularly adapted to the fattening of cattle. The summer of this peninsula may be calculated from the middle of June to the middle of September. October may be called an autumnal month ; and all the remainder of the year is gloomy winter. Storms of thunder and lightning are very uncommon ; but this peninsula abounds in volcanoes, among which may be numbered one near Awatka, that of Talbatchick, and a third at the top of the mountain of Kamtschatka. Hot springs are very numerous. The trees are the birch, poplar, alder, several species of willow, two sorts of dwarf-elders, larch, service-tree, and white thorn. Of the shrub kind are the juniper, mountain-ash, wild rose-trees, raspberry bushes, and berries of various kinds. Several kinds of vegetables are also found in their wild state, and some curious plants, particularly the serana and sweet-grass.

The animals are the fox, the stoat or ermine, the zibeline or sable, the isatis or arctic fox, the varying hare, the mountain-rat, or early marmot, the weasel, the glutton, the wild-sheep, rein-deer, bears, wolves, and dogs. The birds are wild-duck, the mountain-duck, and a variety of water-fowl; eagles, hawks, falcons, and bustards; woodcocks, snipes, grouse, and swans. Seals and otters are also found here; and fish of various kinds in great perfection. The inhabitants are Kamtschadales, Russians, and Cossacks. The former are probably very ancient, and believe that they were placed on this spot by their god Koutkow. They are probably descended originally from the Mongolian Chinese, as several terminations of their language are similar, and their persons very much alike. They were first discovered by Feodor Alexicoff, who sailed with eight vessels, round the peninsula of the Tschutka, from the river Kovyma, about the year 1648. Several rebellions happened, and much blood was shed, before the Russians established their dominion. There has not, however, been any insurrection since 1770; and, indeed, the government established here is mild and equitable. In 1767, the small-pox attacked the Kamtschadales for the first time. This dreadful disorder, not less destructive in its ravages than the plague, seemed to threaten an entire extirpation of the people. It is computed that near 20,000 died of this malady in Kamtschatka and its neighbourhood. In some places the inhabitants of whole villages were swept away; and in the ostrog of Paratouka no more than 36 remained alive out of 680 inhabitants. The taxes which the Kamtschadales pay to the Russians, is only one skin of such creatures as every man is used to hunt, such as sables and foxes. In the Kurile islands the skin of a sea otter is required; but as this is much more valuable, one skin serves to pay the tribute of several persons.

KORIAKI AND TSCHUKOTSKOI.

THE country of the Koreki and Tschukotskoi, is situated to the N. of Kamtschatka; it extends from 62 to 69 degrees of N. latitude, and from 160 to 190 degrees of E. longitude.

The Koreki may be divided into two bodies, the one fixed, and the other wandering. The fixed Koreki are those who

dwell in towns, and are tributary to the Russians; while the wandering tribes, who are constantly shifting their places of habitation, are under the dominion of no particular nation; they are treated with great respect by the fixed Koreki, who assist them to the utmost of their power. The wandering Koreki are wholly employed in breeding and pasturing deer, (hence they are called the Rein-deer Koreki,) and some of their chiefs are said to possess herds of 4000 or 5000. Deer is almost the only food they use, and their sledges are drawn by these kind of animals.

The Tschukotki live farther N. than the Koreki, and are a well made, courageous, and warlike race of people. Their country is, like other northern regions, very barren, producing little more than pasture for their herds of rein-deer. The Russians long endeavoured to bring the people under their subjection, but after several fruitless expeditions for that purpose, the design seemed to have been laid aside. The last attempt was made in 1750. But what the Russians could not accomplish by force was effected by accident in the following manner: When the Resolution and Discovery appeared on the coast of Tschukotkoi in 1778, a friendly intercourse was maintained between the natives and the ship's companies. Capt. Cook and the officers made their new acquaintances some presents which were highly acceptable, and as they had no knowledge of any other European power than that of Russia, they concluded, that these were Russian vessels; and, being struck with the kindness of the strangers, soon after the vessels departed from their coast, they sent a deputation to the governor of Ingiga, voluntarily offering to enter into a league of friendship, and to pay an annual tribute.

SAMOIEDA,

A country on the N. W. part of Siberia, is a very extensive province, reaching as far as the Frozen Ocean. The natives, who are called Samoiedes, are rather below the middle stature, are thick, broad shouldered, and of a tawny complexion. They have long and little eyes, broad flat faces, hanging lips, with high cheek bones, and, in general, countenances calculated rather to strike us with disgust. The men have little or no beard. In summer they live in houses made in the form of a

bee-hive, with a hole at the top; but in winter they have caves under ground, to which they retreat during the severity of that season. Here they are confined eight or nine months in the year, amidst the stench of their lamps, and the closeness and filth of these subterraneous dwellings. Yet the love of society, during this long cessation from labour, induces them to make ways under ground to the habitations of their neighbours, that they may have the pleasure of each other's company, during these months of festivity. They live upon the flesh of horses, oxen, sheep, deer, and fish; and travel in sledges drawn by rein-deer. Their religion is a kind of Paganism; but several of them have been converted of late years, by the Russian missionaries, to embrace Christianity and become members of the Greek church.

THIBET OR MOGULEAN TARTARY.

THIS country is called by the Orientals, Tibt, by the Tartars, Barostola, and by some European authors, Bontan. It is situated between 26 and 39 degrees of N. latitude, and 81 and 103 degrees of E. longitude from London. Its greatest length is about 2000 miles, and its greatest breadth about 1500 miles. It is bounded on the N. by Western Tartary, on the E. by China, on the W. by Hindostan, and on the S. by Hindostan and Ava.

As the land of Thibet is considerably elevated above the level of the sea, more than any other parts of Asia in general are, the air is rendered very cold, considering the latitude of the place. The soil is in most parts tolerably good, producing rice and pulse; and the chief commodities with which the natives trade with other nations, are furs, particularly those of martens, together with musk, rhubarb, and wormseed.

The inhabitants are strong and well made, but their noses and faces are somewhat flat. Both sexes are clothed in summer with a large piece of suttan or hempen cloth, and in the winter with a thick cloth resembling a felt. The men are restrained to one wife; but, according to Regis, the

women are allowed several husbands. Mohammedanism and Paganism are the religions of Thibet.

The princes of this country were subject to the emperor of Hindostan before his power was circumscribed; hence it was called Mogulcan Tartary; but since that time, they are in a great measure independent.

HINDOSTAN, MOGULISTAN,

OR

THE HITHER PENINSULA OF INDIA.

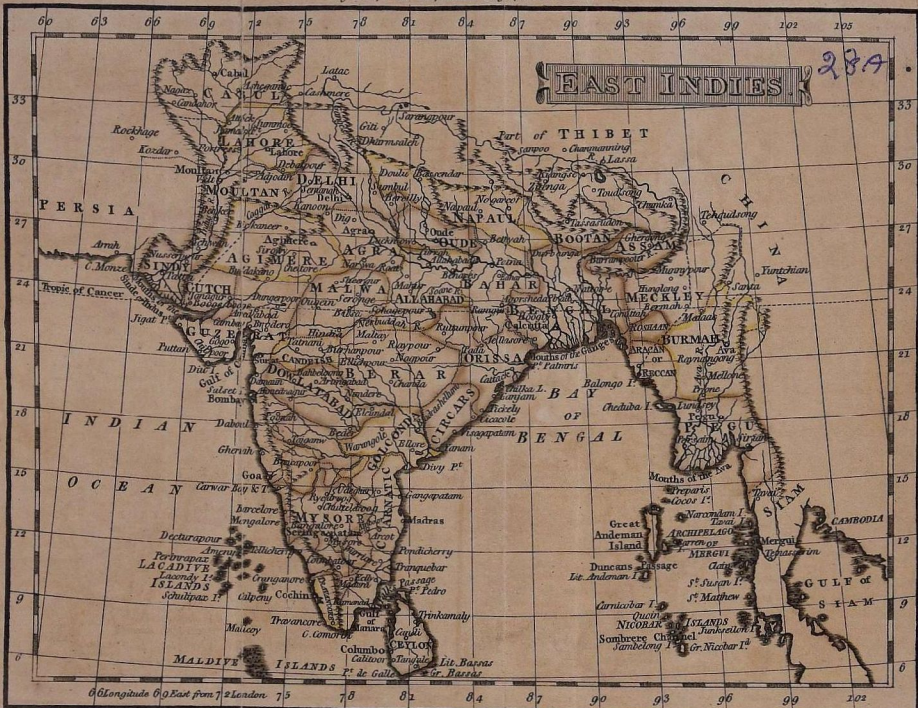
HINDOSTAN is the empire of the Great Mogul in the East Indies. The name of India was doubtless derived from the river Indus, which is the western boundary of this grand territory; it received the name of Hindostan from its original inhabitants, the Hindoos; but the late race of monarchs, who have swayed the sceptre in this part of the globe for upwards of 300 years, being of Tartar extraction, are called by the Hindoos, Moguls, (from Maghul, an Arabic word signifying foreigner,) hence the country was called Mogulistan. It is also called India Proper. This country is bounded by Thibet and part of Tartary on the N. and N. E. by Ava, Achem, and the Bay of Bengal on the E. by the Indian Ocean on the S. and by the same ocean, and Persia on the W. It extends from 7 to 37 degrees of N. latitude, and from 56 to 92 degrees of E. longitude from London; being about 2043 miles long, and 842 in the broadest part.

The N. E. division of Hindostan contains the provinces of Bengal, Naugraet, Jessat, Patna, Necbal, Gor, and Rotas. The S. E. called the Coromandel coast, contains Oxixa, Golconda, Bisanagar, Tanjore, and Madura. The middle division contains Bando, Jengapour, Callimere, Hendowns, Lahor, Dehli, Agra, Guakeor, Narvar, Ratipore, Chitor, Berar, and Chandesh. The N. W. division contains the provinces of Cabul, Haican, Multan, Bucknor, Scinda, Jesselmere, and Soret. The S. W. called the Malabar coast, contains the

provinces of Guzarat, Decan, Visapour, and part of Bishnagar. Though it has been generally imagined, that the whole of these provinces were under the great Mogul's immediate government, and that the mandates from Delhi were obeyed even to the remote parts of the coast, yet nothing could be more contrary to the truth; for a great part of the peninsula never acknowledged the authority of the Mogul, till the reign of Aurengzebe; but since his death the revenues of the crown have been greatly diminished, and even withheld. The monarch of Delhi has for many years been reduced to such circumscribed authority, as to be nothing more than an imaginary phantom, rendered subservient to the purposes of the servants of the English East India Company.

The chief mountains of Hindostan, are those of Caucasus, Naugracut, and Balagate, which run almost the whole length of India from N. to S. Many of the mountains produce diamonds, rubies, amethysts, and other precious stones. The chief rivers are, the Indus and the Ganges. The northern and midland provinces of India enjoy a fine, serene, and temperate air, while those of the S. are parched with heat during some months in the year. The principal fruits are the palm, cocoa-nut, tamarind, guava, mango, plantain, pine-apple, orange, lemon, pomegranate, and the melon; these they have in the greatest perfection. The country also produces rice, wheat, pepper, and a great variety of garden-stuff. The animals of this country are elephants, camels, horses, oxen, buffaloes, sheep, deer, lions, tigers, and all manner of wild beasts and game. There is a great plenty of fish and fowl. Serpents, scorpions, mosquitos, locusts, shining-filars which appear like stars in the night, and monkies, abound in these parts. This great country, which is said to be extremely populous, contains inhabitants of various complexions, manners, and religions. In the Northern parts, which is possessed chiefly by Mohammedans, the people are white or swarthy. Towards the South, and the middle parts, quite through India, they are quite black, and are Pagans. The sea-coasts in general are possessed by people of an olive complexion; but they have also a multitude of other inhabitants, as well black as white. The Mohammedans have the chief rule in the countries subject to the Mogul; who appoints, from among the great men of his court, the viceroys;

or subahs, of all the great provinces; and these appoint the governors, or nabobs of the subordinate districts. The Mussulmen in India, like those of Turkey, and Persia, and other Mohammedans, are allowed several wives, live very temperately, eat almost every thing but swine's flesh, but seldom drink any liquor except water. The Pagans, who were the original inhabitants of India, are called Gentoos, or Hindoos. Of these, it is said, there are near eighty tribes, which never intermarry, or even associate with one another, or indeed with the people of any other nation or religion. The marriages of the Indian idolaters are made by their parents when the parties are children. They are solemnized with great splendor, when the parties come of age. The husband is not allowed to refuse his wife elect; but he may take another, and entertain as many concubines as he pleases. If his wife murmurs at it, he may reduce her to the condition of a slave. In some provinces on the Malabar coast, it is said, a woman is allowed three husbands, who contribute jointly to the maintenance of the issue. A woman brings no other fortune than her cloaths and ornaments, and two or three female slaves; and the father of the bridegroom frequently pays a sum of money to the bride's friends. In short, she is in a manner purchased. The manufactures of India are chiefly muslin, callico, and silk. They have some merchant-ships of their own, and traffic with the countries bordering upon India, and particularly with Persia. The Europeans usually purchase most of their manufactures, and pay money for them. Great part of the silver that is brought from America, is carried to the East Indies by the merchants of every European nation; and, as they have the richest diamond mines in the world here, no country abounds in wealth more, as Kouli Khan experienced, when he plundered Dehli the capital. The forces of the Mogul are computed to amount to 300,000 horse, raised from among his Mogul or white subjects, who are usually denominated Moors in India. The forces of the Rajas, or black Princes, amount to about as many more. These mount the Mogul's guard with 20,000 men by turns. They are principally foot; and, when the Mogul attacks any of the unsubdued Rajas, in the defiles and passes of the mountains, he makes use of the Rajaputes, who are in the service of the black Princes. The revenues of the Mogul are estimated at 40,000,000 sterling per annum, which arise from the duty on



merchandize, trade, and the labour of the people; but chiefly from the presents of the great men, and the revenues of the numerous provinces. Every viceroy, or nabob, and governor, is obliged to send the Mogul a kind of tribute annually from every province; and the Rajas, or black Princes, under the dominion of the Mogul, pay him also an annual tribute.

The native Hindoos are men of strong natural parts, and are now found to be no small proficient in literature and science, as the English translation of the Ayeen Akbery has incontestably evinced. They are said to have some of Aristotle's writings in the Arabian tongue; and some of the works of Avicenna, a famous physician; and likewise some fragments of the Old Testament in the same language. But this is only to be understood of the Mohammedan inhabitants, many of whom are descended from the Arabs. These have but few books, which are all in manuscript, for they are unacquainted with the art of printing. According to the Abbe Raynal, we may trace the origin of most sciences in this country. Even before the age of Pythagoras the Greeks travelled to Hindostan for instruction. The trade carried on by them with the eldest commercial nations, in exchange for their cloth, is a proof of the great progress they made in the arts of industry.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES,

OR

THE FARTHER PENINSULA OF INDIA.

THE territory of India beyond Ganges extends from one to 30 degrees N. latitude, and from 92 to 109 degrees E. longitude from London; being near 2,000 miles long, and 1,000 broad, but great part of these limits is covered by the sea. It has Thibet and China on the N. China and the Chinese Sea on the E. the same Sea and the Straights of Malacca on the S. and the Bay of Bengal and part of Hindostan on the W.

In the northern districts the air is dry and beautiful; but the southern provinces are very hot and moist, especially in the vallies and low lands near the sea and rivers. These places are not so healthy; and yet in them they build most of their towns. Their houses stand upon high pillars, to secure them from the floods, during which season they have no communication with one another but by boats; and such dreadful storms of wind, thunder, and lightning happen about the equinoxes, on the shifting of the monsoons, as are seldom seen in Europe. The year is not divided into winter and summer as with us, but into the wet and dry seasons, or into the easterly and westerly monsoons which term is sometimes applied to those periodical winds, and sometimes to the wet and dry weather. There are sea and land breezes near the coast, which shift every 12 hours, when the stormy weather ceases.

In this peninsula of India are the following kingdoms, viz. Achem, Ava, Aracan, Pegu, Martaban, Siam, Malacca, Tonquin, Laos, Cochin China, Cambodia, and Champa. As these nations are described under their respective names in the Dictionary, we refer to the several articles in that work.

The Siamese and Malayan languages are principally spoken in Farther India, except in Tonquin, which, lying contiguous to China, has a mixture of the Chinese. The religion is Paganism.

PERSIA.

THE large and ancient empire of Persia extends from 25 to 48 degrees of N. latitude, and from 45 to 70 degrees of E. longitude from London; being about 1,300 miles long, and 1,100 broad. There are various ways of accounting for the origin of the name of this country, but the most probable appears to be, that it is derived from the word *Paras*, which signifies Horseman, the country having for many ages been famous for its beautiful and swift horses, and their forces principally consist of cavalry. It is bounded on the N. by Carcassia, the Caspian Sea, and part of Tartary; by Hindostan

on the E. by the Persian Gulph and the Indian Ocean on the S. and by Arabia and Asiatic Turkey on the W.

The Persian empire contains the following provinces: Chorassan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Herat; Sablutan, including Candahor, and the ancient Bactria; Sigilan, the ancient Drangiana; Makoran; Kerman, the ancient Gedrosia; Farsistan, the ancient Persia; Chusistan, the ancient Susiana; Irac Agemi, the ancient Parthia; Curdesian, part of the ancient Assyria; Adirbeizan, the ancient Media; Georgia, Gangea, Daghistan, part of the ancient Colchis; Mazanderan; Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, on the Caspian Sea; and Schirvan.

The mountains of Caucasus and Ararat, which are sometimes called the mountains of Daghistan, occupy the whole isthmus, which lies between the Euxine and Caspian seas. Taurus, and its several branches, run through Persia, from Nisolia to India, and fill all the middle of the country. The air of this country differs in the various divisions. On the mountains of Caucasus and Daghistan, which are frequently covered with snow, it is cold. On the tops of other mountains it is always cool; but in the valleys it is excessively hot, which renders the coast of the Caspian and Persian seas very unhealthy. The middle of Persia, however, is much admired for the pureness and serenity of the atmosphere. The soil is not very fruitful. Silk, woollen, mohair, camblets, carpets, and leather, are manufactured here.

Persia is an absolute monarchy; and the lives and estates of the people are entirely at the disposal of their prince. The king hath no council established, but is advised by such ministers as are most in favour; and the resolutions adopted by the women in the haram, frequently defeat the best-laid designs. The crown is hereditary, but females are excluded. The sons of a daughter are allowed to inherit the crown. The laws of Persia exclude the blind from the throne, on which account the reigning prince usually puts out the eyes of the males of the royal family, of whom he has any jealousy. There is no nobility in Persia; nor is any respect shewn to birth and family, except to those who are of the blood of their great prophet, or their patriarchs.

The Persians have always been esteemed a brave people, of great vivacity, and quick parts. They are famed, however,

for nothing more than for their humanity and hospitality. Their greatest foible is profuseness and vanity. The richness of their cloaths, and number of their servants and equipage, too frequently exceed their revenues, and plunge them into difficulties. There is no place where women are so strictly guarded and confined as in Persia, especially in the courts or harems of their princes and great men. When the king's women remove, they are sent away in covered litters, with a strong guard : and all men are ordered, on pain of death, to quit their habitations and remove to a great distance from the place through which they are to make their journey.

The Persians drink coffee for breakfast, and at eleven they dine upon melons, fruit, or milk. Their chief meal is in the evening, when they have a dish of pilau, consisting of boiled rice, fowls, or mutton, which is so over-done, that they pull the meat to pieces with their fingers, and use neither knives, forks, nor spoons. They never eat pork or hares, or any of the animals which are prohibited by the Jewish law. Their bread consists of cakes baked upon the hearth. They season their meat very high with salt and spices when they dress it ; but always eat it on the day it is killed. They spread a cloth upon the carpet, and sit down cross-legged upon it at their meals, wash both before and after they eat, when their handkerchiefs supply the place of towels. They always invite strangers, as well as their neighbours, to partake of their fare, if any happen to be in their houses at meal-time. They are frequently entertained with music, both vocal and instrumental, at their festivals, and send for dancing-girls to divert the company. Their usual drink is water or herb-tea, as in other Mohammedan countries, for wine is prohibited. But the officers and soldiers, frequently break through this law, and drink wine, which is made by the Armenians in Schiras and other Persian provinces.

Persia constituted a part of the first great monarchy in the universe, and is supposed to have been founded by Nimrod, or his son Belus, the Baal of the idolatrous nations. The Persian history, however, is not to be depended upon before the year of the world 2083, when Abraham fought a battle with four Persian princes, and defeated them with only 318 of his own family. We regret that our limits are so confined, that we are constrained to pass over in silence a vast number of

interesting events relating to the ancient history of this country. When Cyrus conquered Babylon, he united the dominions of Media, Persia, and Babylon, about the year of the world 3468. In the year of the world 3568 Persia was invaded by the Grecians under the conduct of Philip of Macedonia, who was chosen generalissimo of the confederate armies of Greece; but being murdered, his son Alexander, afterwards known by the name of Alexander the Great, succeeded him. This prince passed the Hellespont at the head of 30,000 foot, and 5000 horse, and defeated Darius on the banks of the Granicus. Darius's army consisted of 100,000 Persians and 10,000 Greek auxiliaries. Upon this defeat Sardis and several other cities submitted to the conqueror. Alexander the Great took Tyre by storm, and put all the inhabitants to the sword, except 2000 which he reserved for crucifixion; which cruel sentence they afterwards suffered upon crosses erected for that purpose along the sea coast! This detestable transaction will cast an everlasting stigma on the character of Alexander. After the death of Darius, who was murdered by Bessus, one of his generals, Alexander took possession of the throne, and the Grecian monarchy commenced in the year of the world 3575. After Alexander's death the empire was divided among his general officers, of whom Seleucus, Antigonus, and Ptolemy, were the chief. The posterity of these princes was subdued by the Romans, about 137 years before Christ. Upon the decline of that empire, these dominions were divided among several princes, until Tamerlane, a Mogul Tartar, subdued most of the southern nations of Asia. These, however, he abandoned almost as soon as he had conquered them, reserving only India, and some of the eastern provinces of Persia. This monarch was succeeded by his son, whose posterity still reign in India, and are styled Great Moguls, from their victorious ancestors. After the retreat of Tamerlane from Persia, Shaik-Adin, a doctor of the Mohammedan law, and a popular preacher, obtained the sovereignty of Western Persia, by pretending he was descended from Mohammed. He assumed the title of Caliph, which comprehends the offices both of priest and king and was succeeded by his son, Sophi, from whom the kings, his descendants, were sometimes called Sophis. Shaw Abbas, who sprung from Sophi, vastly enlarged his empire. He conquered the

provinces of Candahor; he reduced Lar and Ormus, and drove the Turks out of Armenia and Georgia. He then transplanted the Armenians from Julpha to Ispahan, and made them his factors and merchants in every part of Europe and Asia. Shaw Sultan Houssein, the last king of this race, succeeded to the crown in the year 1694, and enjoyed a reign of tranquillity and peace for a long course of years. But the Persian court was now in such a state of licentiousness, that every thing, even the government, was offered for sale. Merewis Khan, a popular nobleman, became the purchaser, but was soon after displaced for another, who could advance more money. Merewis immediately assembled his friends and dependants, and drove his rival out of Candahor. He then began to march towards Ispahan, the capital, but died before he reached it. Mahommed, his son, advanced with his army to Ispahan, took the city, and murdered the king and all the royal family, except prince Thomas, who escaped and fled to the north of Persia. In his turn, Mahommed was soon after murdered by Ebril, one of his officers, who directly usurped the throne. Prince Thomas lost no time in attempting the recovery of his paternal crown. He assembled an army, and invited Nadir Khan, who had obtained great reputation for his valour and conduct, into his service. By his assistance he defeated the usurper Ebril, put him to death, and recovered all the places of which the Turks and Russians had made themselves masters during the rebellion. Nadir Khan was the son of a Persian nobleman, on the frontiers of Ussac Tartary. His uncle, who was his guardian, kept him from the possession of the castle and estates which were his inheritance. In order to procure a livelihood, he formed a party, and began to rob the caravans. At length the number of his followers increased to upwards of five hundred, and became the terror of that part of the country, especially of his uncle, who had seized his estate. This treacherous guardian, therefore, endeavoured to bring on a reconciliation, and invited him to the castle; where, after he had splendidly entertained his nephew, Nadir ordered his followers to murder his uncle in the night-time, and to turn his people out of the castle. Not long after this transaction, prince Thomas sent for him to lead his armies, and met with all the success for which he could hope. In order to reward this fortunate commander, he continually loaded him with favours; and by his means

Prince Thomas now seemed to be established on the throne. Nadir shaw, however, to whom the sultan had given the name of Thomas Kouli Khan, which signifies the slave of Thomas, thinking his services not sufficiently rewarded, and pretending that the king had a design against his life, or at least to lay him aside, formed a conspiracy against his sovereign. It succeeded. The king was taken prisoner; and, as it is supposed, put to death. He immediately usurped the throne, and called himself Shaw Nadir, or king Nadir. He afterwards laid siege to Candahor, of which a son of Mereweis was in possession. While he lay at this siege, the court of the great Mogul being distracted by factions, one of the parties invited Shaw Nadir to come to their assistance, and betrayed the Mogul into his hands. On this he marched to Delhi, the capital of India, summoned all the viceroys and governors of provinces to attend him, and bring with them all the treasure they could raise. Those that did not bring as much as he expected were tortured and put to death. After having amassed greater treasures than ever any prince before this period had possessed, he returned to Persia. First, however, he gave the Mogul his liberty, on condition that he should resign the provinces on the west side of the Indus to the crown of Persia. In his return, the greatest part of his booty was lost by various accidents. But Nadir was not dispirited; for he afterwards made a conquest of Usbec Tartary, and plundered Bokhara, the capital city. He then marched against the Daghistan Tartars, but lost great part of his army in the mountains. Next he defeated the Turks in several engagements, but was twice compelled to raise the siege of Bagdat. His next step was an attempt to change the religion of Persia to that of Omar. He hanged the chief priests, and was guilty of such cruelty, that at length he was assassinated by his own relations, who pleaded in their defence, that his senses were disordered. His death happened in 1747; since which period the nation has been almost ruined by the number of competitors for the sovereignty; among whom Kerim Khan, being the most fortunate, was crowned at Tauris in 1763, and is supposed to be still in possession of the throne.

The religion of Persia is Mohammedanism; and the Arabic, in which the Alcoran, and other books of divinity and morality are written, is esteemed the learned language. The

Persian language is rather a modern tongue enriched with words from the languages of those nations which have at various times conquered the empire.

The different provinces which compose the empire of Persia, together with their principal towns, are described in the Dictionary under their respective names.

ARABIA OR ARABISTAN.

THIS is a country of great extent, lying between 52 and 59 degrees of E. longitude, and 12 and 36 degrees of N. latitude, being about 1,200 miles long, and 1,000 broad. Among most nations this country hath hitherto retained its ancient name, but whence it received it is not altogether determined. The clearest etymology seems to be, that the inhabitants were called by the ancient Jews *Harabim*, i. e. Robbers; and such indeed they have always been. In conformity to this derivation the orientals call the country *Arabistan*, which signifies the land of robbers.

Arabia is generally divided in three parts, viz. 1. Arabia Petraea in the N. from its stony and rocky soil, 2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle, being composed of vast sandy deserts; and 3. Arabia Felix, in the S. so called on account of its fertility. It is bounded by Syria on the N. W. by Persia on the N. E. by the Persian Gulph on the E. by the Arabian Sea on the S. and by the Red Sea on the W.

The great diversity of climates, added to the nature of the soil in many parts, renders the country for the most part barren, hot, and dry, yielding but little for the support either of man or cattle, and, consequently, it is not well peopled. The northern parts are subject to Turkey, and the general religion is Mohammedanism. Many of the Arabs go almost naked; but their women are so enveloped, that nothing can be discerned except their eyes. The usual covering for the head is a turban.

The produce of this country is principally aloes, cassia, spikenard, frankincense, myrrh, manna, and other costly gums, cinnamon, pepper, cardamum, dates, figs, oranges, le-

mons, pomegranates, and other fruits; likewise honey and wax in great plenty. In their seas are found coral, pearl, and a species of cornelian which is much esteemed, because it is easy to be engraved upon.

Among the domestic animals, the camels, which are very numerous, are of singular use for carriage, especially for the caravans; indeed they seem to be formed by Providence in a more especial manner for the sultry and dry soil of Arabia, where no water is to be found in a journey of several days over the sandy deserts. This creature has been known to subsist upwards of a fortnight without tasting any liquid. The loads which they carry on their backs, generally weigh about 600 weight, and they need not be unloaded during their journey; for they naturally kneel down to rest, and in due time rise up with their burden. These animals are chiefly employed in the caravans, or numerous troops of merchants, who travel with a sufficient escort to guard them against the Arabian robbers.

The Arabians are of a swarthy, middling stature; they are raw-boned, of a wild and fierce countenance, and exceedingly agile. They have no settled habitation, except those who inhabit the sea-coasts, where cities and towns are more regularly built. Those who reside in the inland parts sleep under tents, which they pitch in a convenient place, and remove at pleasure. Their present language is a corruption of the old Arabic.

Concerning the history of this famous part of the world, we shall observe, that Mohammed, the founder of the Mohammedan religion, and of the empire of the Saracens, was born at Mecca [See the Dictionary, article Mecca.] in 571. He was descended from the eldest branch of the honourable tribe of Korash; but his family was now greatly reduced in circumstances. He was left an orphan at about eight years of age, and his uncle Abuteleb, a merchant, having compassion on him, took him under his protection, and sent him with his camels to Syria, Palestine, and Egypt, as his agent or factor. In these journeys, he formed an acquaintance with some Jews and Christians, by whose assistance, it is pretty confidently said, he composed his Alcoran. He was afterwards invited into the service of a rich widow, of the name of Cadiga, for whom he traded to Damascus and

other places. This widow, who was then in the fortieth year of her age, fell passionately in love with her agent, who was at that time about 28. Soon after, she married him; and by these means he became one of the richest men in Mecca. The numerous sects and divisions among Christians had been examined with particular attention by Mohammed, in his journeys to Palestine and other places. At length, after reflection, he fancied, that it would not be very difficult to introduce a new religion, and make himself the high priest and sovereign of the people. This design he proposed to accomplish, by pretending to revive the primitive way of true worship and the purity of living practised by the ancient patriarchs. In order to accomplish this design, he had procured the assistance of Sergius, a monk, whose libertine disposition had induced him to forsake his cloyster and profession, and engage in the service of Cadiz. He continued with her, indeed, after she had married Mohammed; and by his great learning amply supplied the want of education in his Arabian master. His first step was to engage the admiration of the people by his devotion and absterious life. He retired therefore every morning to the cave of Hira, near Mecca, where he spent his time in praying, fasting, and other acts of mortification. When he returned home at night, he used to entertain his wife and the family with the visions which he had seen, and the strange voices which he had heard in his retirement. He continued this practice two years, in which time, he acquired a great reputation for his sanctity; and at length ventured to declare himself a prophet. He was then in the fortieth year of his age, and declared, that he was sent from God to reform his heathenish countrymen, and to reclaim them from idolatry. The first doctrine he taught, therefore, was, that there is but one God, and that all idols and representations ought to be destroyed; and that those, who taught that God had sons or daughters, or companions who associated with him, ought to be abhorred. He did not deny the mission of Jesus Christ, or of Moses, or the divine authority of the Scriptures; but charged both Jews and Christians with corrupting the holy word, and declared he was sent to purge them from their errors, and to restore the law of God to its primitive purity. The eastern countries were at this time strongly infected with the heresy of Arius, who allowed the prophetic office, but

denied the divinity of Jesus Christ. The Jews, who had fled from the persecution denounced against them by the emperor Adrian, had settled in Egypt and Arabia in great numbers; and the other inhabitants of these parts were Pagans, who were grown entirely indifferent about the state of their decayed and derided idolatry. Mohammed's system being admirably well suited to these three kinds of men, it is no wonder that he met with so little difficulty in obtaining proselytes. He afterwards proceeded to publish the Alcoran, which he pretended the angel Gabriel brought him chapter by chapter. It was first written on the bones of camels, and was dictated by Mohammed to his amanuensis; for he could neither write nor read. He is allowed to have been a man of great wit and insinuating address. He could bear affronts without shewing any resentment. He flattered the rich, and relieved the poor; and managed with so much address and dexterity, that his followers were soon very numerous. The chief of the citizens began to be alarmed, at these new doctrines; and, soon discerning that he had a design against the government, they determined to surprize him, and cut him off. He, however, being informed of their design, fled to Yathrib, which was afterwards called Medina Talmah, or the city of the prophet. His flight to this city was in the forty-fourth year of his age, and in the year 622; from which period the Mohammedans compute their time. Mohammed was received with joy by the citizens, who readily submitted to him as their prince; and, being joined by a great number of Arabians, he began his enterprising expeditions. In the first of them, he intercepted several caravans, which were trading between Mecca and Syria; and by these means greatly enriched his disciples. Mohammed afterwards made war on several of the Arab tribes, and compelled them to embrace his religion, or become tributaries to him. At the same time, he declared that his cause was the cause of God, and that whoever died in defence of it went immediately to Paradise. He likewise declared, that the term of every man's life was fixed by God; and that none could preferre it beyond that time which he in his wisdom had appointed, or shorten it by any dangers, to which he might seem to be exposed in the day of battle. He next obtained a victory over a tribe of Jewish Arabs that opposed him; he put them all to the sword. His men,

however, who were heated with wine, and deeply engaged in play, had nearly been surprised by the enemy; on which Mohammed determined to prohibit the use of wine and gaming. In the year 627, he caused himself to be proclaimed king at Medina. Till this time he had assumed only the office of high priest of his new religion. He next, as soon as he found himself sufficiently reinforced, laid siege to his native city Mecca, and took it; and, after he had cut off all that opposed him, he broke down the images which he found in the Kaaba; among which were those of Abraham and Ishmael; and others, which the Arabians worshipped, as mediators with the Almighty. This happened in the eighth year of the Hegira, A. D. 629, and so enraged the rest of the Arab tribes, that they assembled all their forces and gave him battle. Mohammed, however, was conqueror, and suffered neither pleasure nor idleness to stop his career. He immediately pursued his victory, and reduced the greater part of Arabia, and some towns of Syria, which were then subject to the Grecian emperor. At length, the progress of his arms was checked by a greater power than any who had hitherto opposed him. The great stroke of death put an end to all his boasts, to all his successes, and convinced him of the vanity of his impotence when he had attained the forty-third year of his age, in 632. The loss of their leader, however, did not dishearten his disciples.

As Mohammed died without male issue, and had not nominated a successor, different parties arose, claiming an exclusive right of appointing one. Abubeker, however, who had always been the friend of peace and good order, proposed two persons, Omar and Abou Obeid, for their choice of one of them; but this proposition created still greater divisions, and the election remained undetermined, till Omar, to the astonishment of every person present, addressed himself to Abubeker, and, kissing his hand, desired that he (Abubeker) would assume the sovereignty himself; and the latter was accordingly chosen, amidst the acclamations of the assembly; but he refused from an inviolable veneration to the memory of the holy prophet, to take on him the title of sovereign; he chose that of Caliph, which signifies successor, which was afterwards the title of all who reigned over the Arabs.

On the death of Abubeker, in the 18th year of the Hegira, Omar was elected caliph without opposition, having been

nominated by Abubeker; and Omar, who was assassinated*, was succeeded by Othman, who also met with the like fate.

On the death of Othman, Hali ascended the throne; but he soon quarrelled with those who were about his person, and by that means became noxious to the people, so that he was forced to quit his capital. A revolt ensued in Syria; and Moawiyah, the governor thereof, declared that Hali was not worthy of the crown, and caused himself to be proclaimed the only lawful caliph, fixing his seat at Damascus. Hali took up arms; but was defeated, and even was happy that by means of a treaty, he could secure to himself the title and prerogative of caliph in Arabia. He was shortly after assassinated, leaving two sons, on the eldest of whom the Arabians bestowed the crown.

Yazid, son and successor of Hali, after a reign of about six months, abdicated his throne in favour of Moawiyah, who had been a continual terror to him, so that Moawiyah became sole possessor of the throne. He was acknowledged by all the muslims as the true and lawful caliph, and was the first of the dynasty of the Ommyians, so called from Ommyah the

* The circumstances of this assassination are as follow: A native of Persia, named Firooz, refusing to embrace Mohammedanism, a tax was levied upon him; upon which he made his complaints to the caliph, soliciting that the tax might be taken off, or at least reduced in magnitude, as he was unable to pay it. "What trade do you follow?" said Omar. To which he replied, "Three," "Very well then," said the caliph, "you are very moderately taxed." Firooz, who possessed a very wicked and vindictive soul, entered the mosque a few days afterwards while the caliph was there, and took an opportunity of stabbing him in three different parts of his body with a knife. The assassin was instantly surrounded; but he defended himself with the bloody instrument, and stabbed thirteen others, seven of whom died in a few hours. Fresh efforts, however, were made to secure him; and, finding that he should be overpowered, plunged the knife into his own bowels and expired.

head of that prince's family. Moawiyah adopted measures to render the dignity of caliph hereditary, which had before been elective, and succeeded in his design. His crown descended to his son, and continued in the family for 14 successions, though not always in a direct line.

The house of Ommiyah was destroyed by the Abbassians, princes so denominated from their being descended from Abbas, Mohammed's uncle. They took up arms against the Ommiyans, under pretence of revenging the death of Hali, whom, they alledged, had been murdered by them, and Abul Abbas was accordingly proclaimed caliph.

Abdallah, uncle to Abul Abbas, caused an act of grace to be published in the caliph's name, for all the Ommiyans who should appear before him, and take the oaths of allegiance to the new caliph. A day was appointed for the meeting of the chiefs or princes, and Abdallah attended them; but while he was preparing to tender the oaths, a party of soldiers, appointed for the purpose, drew up behind them, and destroyed them all on the spot, except one, who escaped and fled to Spain. Immediately after this barbarous deed, the soldiers put to the sword a great number of muslimen known to be devoted to the house of Ommiyah; and Abdallah, having put an end to the slaughter, completed his bloody transactions with a most horrid entertainment. He caused the bodies of the Ommiyans who had been slaughtered by the soldiers, to be placed close to one another, and covered with boards, over which he ordered carpets to be laid; and upon their flooring he gave a sumptuous feast to the officers of the army. "Perhaps," said he, "all of them may not be quite dead, in that case we shall have the happiness to hear them groan." The crown remained in the family of Abul Abbas more than 500 years, under 37 princes.

TURKEY IN ASIA

FORMS a grand division of the Turkish empire. It abounds not only with all the necessities, but even with the luxuries of life, and contains some of the most fertile and

delightful provinces of the universe. Asiatic Turkey is about 2000 miles long, and 1750 broad. It is usually divided into six parts, viz. 1. Syria, 2. Holy Land, 3. Natolia, 4. Diarbekr, 5. Turcomania, and 6. Georgia. Of each of these we shall treat in their turn; but, previously to our entering upon them, it may not be amiss to say a word or two respecting the inhabitants and the country in general.

The grand Signior is sovereign of all Turkey, whether it be situated in Europe, Asia, or Africa, for in each of these quarters he has very large possessions; he is absolute master of all the goods and estates of his subjects, and the same may be said with respect to their lives, for they are indeed at his command. His extravagant titles are, God upon earth, the shadow of God, the brother of the sun and moon, the disposer of crowns, &c.

The land produces more spontaneously than many other places do by cultivation; but the superstitious notions, and absurd customs of the people, prevent their enjoying the half of those blessings with which the God of nature has enriched their country. They are slaves to the tyranny of their government, and to their own passions, taking more pains to be luxuriously idle, than more active people do to be profitably employed. The religion and political constitution of the country obliges them to innumerable absurdities while their inclinations impel them to seek all manner of indulgence. Their lives, therefore, are an odd mixture of morality and libertinism, of self-denial and excess.

Many parts of Asiatic Turkey, have been much celebrated both in sacred and profane history; but, as we shall have occasion to mention these in going through the several provinces, we shall not anticipate our descriptions of them by elucidating the subject in this place.

SYRIA or SOURISTAN.

THIS country, generally known by the name of Syria among Europeans, is, by the Turks, called Sourie or Souristan, from its capital Tzor or Tzur, which the Greeks softened into Sur and Tyre. It is about 270 miles long, and 160 broad. Its principal mountains are Libanus, Antilibanus,

Gilead, Tabor, Carmel, Sion, Hermon, Ebal, Olivet, Calvary, Gerizzim, and Moriah. Its chief rivers are Euphrates, Jordan, Cassimir, Licomes, Chrysorrhoas, Orontes, and Odonis.

Syria is blessed with the most serene, temperate, and healthful air imaginable; during the hot months of June, July, and August, it is agreeably refreshed by cooling breezes from the Mediterranean Sea. The face of the country is level, and the soil rich and fertile, insomuch, that, in these particulars, as well as in its excellent climate, it may be justly said to vie with any other country in the world, though under the same parallel of latitude; but these desirable qualities are embittered by the arbitrary government of the Turks, which is such, that its tyranny prevents the inhabitants from ever tasting the sweets of that most essential requisite to human happiness—Liberty!

The established religion of Syria, like that of the other Turkish dominions, is Mohammedanism; but there are here a great many Jews and Christians of different sects: viz. Greeks, Latins, Armenians, Malchites, Maronites, and Jacobites. The Armenians differ but little from the Greeks, and have a patriarch, who usually resides at Damascus. The Maronites of Mount Libanus, hold some of the Greek, and some of the Eutychian tenets; they give the sacrament in both kinds, and use the Syriac liturgy. Their patriarch is always styled Peter, and is believed by them to be the only true successor of that apostle. The Jacobites, who are so called from their founder Jacobus Syrius, have a patriarch who is always named Ignatius; and he is deemed the real successor of the venerable father and martyr of that name. The Drusians, who live among the mountains know little of Christianity besides the name; they, in a great measure, resemble the Curdes who reside among the Armenian mountains, and pay a much greater respect to the devil than to God, for which peculiarity they assign the following curious reason: that God is so very good humoured at all times, that he would not do them any injury, let them be ever so neglectful or remiss in their duty; but, on the contrary, the devil has frequently such mischievous fits, and is naturally inclined to such diabolical frolics, that the utmost precaution is necessary to keep his infernal highness in any tolerable temper.

The language spoken by the Syrians is a corrupt kind of Arabic or Morisco; but most of the inhabitants of the trading towns discourse in the *Lingua Franca*.

THE HOLY LAND,

CALLED also Judæa or Palestine. It received the name of Judæa from Judah, whose tribe was the most considerable of the twelve; and that of Palestine from the Palestinians or Philistines, as they are termed in Scripture, who possessed the greater part of it. It had likewise a variety of other names, such as, the Land of Canaan, the Land of Israel, the Land of God, the Land of the Hebrews, &c. but the most pre-eminent appellation by which it hath ever been distinguished is, the Holy Land. This country is 210 miles long, and 90 broad.

Both Jews and Christians call this district the Holy Land, for these distinct reasons: the former give it that epithet, because it was solely appropriated to the service of God under their immediate dispensation; and the latter distinguish it by that name because Christ was born there, and it became the scene of all that was wrought or suffered for the salvation of mankind. It was likewise called, in a figurative way, the Land of Promise, as having been promised by God himself to his chosen people; and also the Land flowing with Milk and Honey, from its wonderful fertility.

In this country are the mountains Oliver and Calvary, so famous in the writings of the New Testament. Mount Oliver, i. e. the Mountain of Olives, so called from the vast quantity of that fruit which grew thereon, is about a mile from Jerusalem, being separated therefrom by the brook Kidron, and the valley of Jehoshaphat. Its height is considerable, and from its summit there is a good prospect of Jerusalem and the adjacent country. It runs in a ridge, and has three or four heads higher than the rest; from one of the principal of these Christ ascended into heaven; and the impression of a foot in the hard rock, shewn there by the religious to this day, is pretended to have been made by him.

Mount Calvary, or Golgotha, is the place where our Saviour was crucified. It is a rocky hill on the west side of Jerusalem, [See a very particular description of Jerusalem in

the Geographical Dictionary.] and was anciently used as a general charnel house to that city, whence it received the appellation of Golgotha, which, in Hebrew, signifies the place or repository of a skull. According to the authority of the ancient fathers, it was on this mountain that Abraham went to offer up his son Isaac. It was formerly the place where criminals were executed; but, since the crucifixion of Christ, it has been so revered and resorted to by Christian pilgrims, that it has, if we may be allowed the expression, drawn the city of Jerusalem round about it, for it now stands in the midst of that famous town.

As we have, in our description of Arabia, given an account of the life of Mohammed, the founder of the Mohammedan religion, we shall in conformity thereto, and to imprint it more strongly on the minds of the younger branch of the community, give a concise account of the life of Christ. In the time of Herod, God sent the angel Gabriel to a holy virgin, named Mary, who was espoused to Joseph of Nazareth, to inform her how God had highly favoured her. The consummation of marriage between Joseph and Mary had not taken place, it being a custom among the Jews, as well as other eastern nations, to betroth their children in their infancy, but not to suffer them to cohabit together till they are of riper years. Mary, however, conceived by the Holy Spirit, and God sent an angel to Joseph, to convince him of the chastity of his spouse, and the divinity of that which should be her son. During her pregnancy, she went to Bethlehem with her husband Joseph, in order to be taxed, agreeable to a decree of Augustus Cæsar. The city was so crowded, that there was no room for them in the inn, and they were obliged to retire to a stable, where she was delivered. In due season he was presented in the temple, when two pious persons, Simeon and Anna, praised God for having sent a Redeemer into the world. Herod, being informed of the birth of the child, endeavoured to get him into his power; but, by Joseph's withdrawing into Egypt, his design was frustrated. Joseph remained in Egypt with the child twelve years. On their return, Jesus disputed with the doctors in the temple, and soon after departed for Jordan, where he was baptised by John; when the heavens opened, and the Holy Ghost descended upon him in the form of a dove, and a voice

was heard to pronounce these words, "This is my beloved son, in whom I am well pleased." Jesus then remained in the wilderness forty days and forty nights, without breaking his fast; at the expiration of which time, the devil tempted him to eat bread of his own providing; but being foiled, he endeavoured to persuade him to throw himself down from the battlements of the temple, that he might be convinced of his divinity. Failing also in this attempt, he took him to the top of an exceedingly high mountain, shewed him the glories of the world, and offered them to him if he would fall down and worship him. This so much excited the indignation of Jesus that he ordered him to depart from his presence. Soon after he wrought his first miracle at Cana in Galilee; he drove the money-changers out of the temple, and, travelling into Judæa and Galilee, wrought many miracles. After some time, he at length explained his mission more fully to his disciples, and, at the time of the passover, ate the paschal lamb with them, when he washed their feet, and informed them that one of them should betray him. Judas soon after left them, and in a short time Jesus was surrounded by a company of armed men, having been betrayed by Judas with a kiss. When he was led away, all his disciples, except Peter, fled; but he followed at a distance; and John having recovered his spirits, returned into the high priests' hall, where Jesus was brought before Annas, who, though prince of the sanhedrim, refused to judge him; whereupon he was sent bound to Caiaphas. Thither Peter came, and was thrice challenged with being a disciple of Christ, but he thrice denied it, and that with an oath: Being, however, sensible of his crime, he went out, and wept bitterly. While Jesus remained in custody, the Jews mocked him, and smote him. The principal accusation against him was, that he had said, he would destroy the temple, and in three days build it up again. To this Jesus making no reply, Caiaphas abjured him, by the living God, to declare whether he was Christ the Son of God. To this he answered in the affirmative. Then Caiaphas accused him of blasphemy, and he was instantly condemned to death by Pontius Pilate the Roman governor, who, though conscious of his innocence, yielded to the solicitations of the Jews, and delivered him over to be crucified. Judas hearing the final

sentence, brought in the thirty pieces of silver, in value about 3*l.* 1*s.* sterling, which they had given him as a reward for his treachery, and throwing it among them exclaimed, "I have betrayed the innocent blood." With the money the Jews bought the Potter's field, to bury strangers in; and Judas, stung with remorse, went out and hanged himself. The time being come for the execution of the sentence passed against Jesus, he was arrayed in a kingly robe, a reed was put in his hand in imitation of a sceptre, a crown of thorns was put upon his head, and he was led forth to Mount Calvary, where he was crucified, with this inscription placed over his head: "Jesus of Nazareth king of the Jews."

NATOLIA, OR ASIA MINOR.

THIS country, called Anatolia (corruptly Natolia) and the Levant on account of its eastern situation with respect to Europe, is bounded on the N. by the Euxine or Black Sea; on the W. by the Levant Sea; on the S. by the Mediterranean and Syria; and by Georgia and Turcomania on the E. It extends from 37 degrees to 41 degrees 30 minutes of N. latitude, and from 27 to 42 degrees of E. longitude from London; being about 780 miles long, and 308 broad. Geographers in general divide this country into four provinces or districts, viz. 1. Natolia Proper, 2. Amasia, 3. Aladulia, and, 4. Caramania.

Natolia naturally is, and always has been, deemed one of the finest countries in the world, yet such is the miserable policy of the Turkish government, and the indolence of the people, that it has been permitted to become almost a desert, and, though uncommonly rich, fertile, and well watered, they have suffered it to be over-run with weeds, briars, and brambles. The air is exceedingly serene and temperate, and would, doubtless, become still more salubrious if the cultivation of the lands were properly attended to. The inhabitants are not incommoded by excessive heats, nor chilled by intense frosts. The few parts which are cultivated, produce, with little labour, great plenty of various kinds of corn, exquisite grapes and wines, olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, dates, &c. besides abundance of coffee, rhubarb, opium, galls, and other valuable drugs and gums.

I. NATOLIA PROPER,

IS governed by a beglerbeg, who has under him five sangiacs, 245 zaims, and 7,740 timars: the number of troops are 60,000; and the annual revenue of the beglerbeg is 1,000,000 of aspers, i. e. about 2,500l. sterling. In this country is situated the famous Mount Olympus, or rather the double chain of mountains so denominated. They are supposed to be the highest mountains in the eastern part of the world. They are continually covered with snow, and the sides abound with pine and other trees. At the beginning of the dog-days the air of Mount Ida, the highest part of this chain of mountains, is so serene, that very little air appears to be stirring, and at night the rays of the sun seem as it were to dart all around the horizon, and the whole has the appearance of fire.

At Abydos, in the north of this province, where the straits of Gallipoli, which separate Asia from Europe, are only two miles over, Xerxes began his famous bridge, which was so well completed in a week's time, that 170,000 foot and 80,000 horse, inclusive of carriages and camels, marched over it. About 1235 years before Christ a gold mine was discovered near this place, by which Priam, king of Troy, was enabled to carry on many useful and magnificent works. When Philip of Macedon laid siege to the opulent town of Abydos, he took it by storm; but the inhabitants, rather than be carried into slavery, first murdered their wives and children, and afterwards destroyed themselves.

In this country stood the once famous city of Troy, which withstood the whole Grecian army the space of ten years, when it was taken, 1184 years before Christ, and the inhabitants put to the sword. Part of its ruins are still to be seen.

The ruins of the cities in this part of the world, says the ingenious Marquis d'Argens, have for several years engaged the curiosity of travellers, yet the Turks lessen them every day, and carry away vast quantities of the marble. How much therefore must there have been of it at first! The mosque of the Sultan Achmet, was built only of the stones fetched from the ruins of Troy. The columns which form the peristyle of that temple, and which are not less than 130 in number,

were found all entire in the fields of that ancient city. For near 200 years, continues he, the Turks made use of no other bullets for the cannon of the Dardanelles, than Corinthian chapitres, and columns, which they broke to pieces, and then cut to make them serve that purpose.

The honourable J. Ægidius Van Egmont, envoy extraordinary from the United Provinces to the court of Naples, in reciting his travels through Natolia, says, "In the country are a great number of flocks, which afford the inhabitants an odd kind of diversion. They place hens' eggs in the flock's nest, and when the young are hatched, the male, on seeing them of a different form from its own species, makes a hideous noise, which calls together a crowd of other flocks hovering about the nest, and who, to revenge the disgrace the female has in appearance brought on her nest, destroy her, by pecking her to death; the male in the mean time making the heaviest lamentation, as if bewailing his misfortune which obliged him to have recourse to such disagreeable severities."

2. AMASIA.

THIS province, like that of Natolia Proper, is governed by a beglerbeg, who has sangiacs, zaims, and timars under him. Selim the first emperor of the Turks, and Strabo the celebrated philosopher of antiquity, were natives of Amasia. The land in the environs of Trebizond is very fertile, but not well cultivated. The mountains are covered with oak, elm, birch, and other stately trees, which grow to an astonishing height, and the whole face of the country forms an agreeable landscape. Vast quantities of rock honey is found here; but it is so exceedingly delicious, that it is dangerous to eat it in large portions. This rich quality is ascribed by Tournefort to the nature of the flowers whence the bees extract it. In the neighbourhood of Tocat some curious fossils are found, particularly subterraneous vegetations of exquisite beauty. Like our flints, they are enclosed in matrices, which, when broken, display some of the finest crystallizations imaginable: some have the appearance of petrified mother of pearl, while others seem like candied lemon and orange peel. The manufactures of Amasia and many other parts of Asiatic Turkey consist principally of silk, leather, red linen, and copper.

worked into a variety of utensils. About two miles from Teat, the ancient Neocaesarea, in this province, are two small rooms cut out of the solid rock, which are held in great estimation by the Christians, who imagine, that they were the retreat of St. Chrysostom during his exile.

3. ALADULIA, OR DOLGADIR,

AS it is called by the Turks, is the next grand division of Asia. It is generally unfit for the purposes of agriculture, being rough and hilly; but there is excellent pasture, and abundance of admirable fruit and wines. Here are fine horses, camels, and black cattle, besides vast herds of goats, and sheep, venison, and all kinds of game. The mountains contain silver, copper, iron, allum, &c. This province is also governed by a beglerbeg, who has under him sang acs, zaims, and timars.

4. CARAMANIA, OR CARAMAN-ILI,

AS it is denominated by the Turks, extends along great part of the sea-coast, and is governed by a beglerbeg, whose revenues are exceedingly large: he has under him seven sangiacs, and a great many zaims, and timars. In this province is Satalia, the ancient Attalia, which is divided into three distinct towns, each of which is surrounded by its own strong walls, and the gates are shut precisely at noon every Friday, from a superstitious notion, that at such an hour on that day, the Christians are to surprize it. Caramania was united, in 1488, to the Turkish empire by Bajazet; and it has ever since remained in possession of the Turks.

MESOPOTAMIA OR DIARBEKR.

THIS province, which is about 560 miles long, and 310 broad, is situated between 29 and 38 degrees of N. latitude, and 39 and 47 degrees of E. longitude from London, having Turcomania on the N. Persia on the E. Irac Arabi on the S. and Syria on the W. The air is exceedingly temperate and serene, unscorched by excessive heats, and not incommoded by severe frosts. The country produces silk, and is tolerably fertile, being rich in grain, fruits, and pasturage, though the

inhabitants take very little pains to cultivate its lands. Numerous flocks and abundance of cattle feed on the pasture grounds; indeed in some parts there are considerable uninhabited deserts. Diarbekr, being a frontier province towards Persia is always well guarded; yet, such is the tyranny of the Turkish government, and the indolence of the people, that the art of agriculture is very little attended to, and the number of its inhabitants are consequently small. The divisions of this province are into beglerbegates and bashaships; and these are subdivided into sangiacates, inferior to which are the zaimets, and timarots. The men of Diarbekr are more affable and courteous, and the women are treated with more tenderness, and have greater indulgence granted them, than in any other part of the Turkish empire. The principal manufactories carried on here, are dyeing, dressing, and tanning leather, particularly the skins of goats, of which immense quantities, known by the appellation of Turkish leather, are vended in various parts of Europe, as well as Asia. They likewise dye linen and cotton to great perfection, the waters of the Tigris, being, it is said, remarkably well adapted to the purposes of dyeing in general.

The heat, however, of some parts of this province is so excessive, particularly about Mosul and Bagdad, that from about two hours after sun-rise, till about an hour after sun-set, the inhabitants dare not venture out of doors. There is likewise, according to several travellers, a pestilential wind, called famiel, which is supposed to be the same east wind mentioned by Job. It is so strongly impregnated with sulphureous vapours, that those who inhale them are instantly killed by its noxious effluvia. When the inhabitants perceive them coming, they fall flat on their faces, and sometimes escape. The hot air is likewise so dangerous, that it frequently injures the lungs, inflames the blood, and parches the skin of the inhabitants, generally raising it into blisters, and occasioning it to peel off. On this account travellers wear a kind of mask made of a soft black crape to preserve their eyes; but, if, after all their precaution, they become inflamed, the afflicted person anoints them with a mixture of sugar and long pepper sifted very fine, and made into a kind of salve. In some parts they have no rain for eight months in the year; but the lands are watered by the Euphrates, Tigris, and other

rivers and canals. Sometimes it has not rained for the space of two years and a half; but if it rains three or four times in the year, say travellers, it perfectly satisfies the inhabitants, who find that sufficient to answer all the purposes of agriculture. Its fertility is so great, that its grain generally yields two hundred and sometimes three hundred fold. The palms, particularly those of the date kind, afford the inhabitants meat, wine, and honey.

This country is famous for the great plain of Shinaar, where the whole human race were collected into one body after the flood, and thence dispersed themselves over the face of the earth: it is also supposed by some, that the seat of the terrestrial paradise was here, but that opinion is denied by others; indeed its precise spot is unknown.

Some parts of this province are inhabited by a wandering tribe called Curdes, and the district they live in is called Curdistan; they are supposed to be the descendants of the ancient Chaldeans, and subsist principally upon rapine and plunder. They are continually upon the watch for caravans, and when they meet one, if they are strong enough, they usually rob and murder the whole company. While the weather permits, they dwell in tents upon the plains, and do not retire to their villages till they are compelled by the snows. They wander likewise into Persia, but acknowledge no subjection either to Turks or Persians. They call themselves Christians; but know very little about Christianity, for their superstitious notions, make them much afraid of the devil, and therefore they worship him more than God. In fine weather they drive their herds about in search of pasture; and while the husbands look out for plunder, the women mind the cattle, and make butter and cheese.

TURCOMANIA, OR ARMENIA.

THE province of Turcomania is bounded on the N. by Georgia, on the E. by Erivan and Adirbeitzan in Persia, on the S. by Diarbekr, and on the W. by Natolia; being about 660 miles long, and 300 broad. It is generally a mountainous country, not but some fine dales and pleasant vallies are interspersed among the hills. The country, however, pro-

duces nothing without the most indefatigable labour. The inhabitants are forced to cut trenches in order to water it, and many parts are even watered by hand in the manner of gardens, and, after all, the grain is but indifferent. The cold here is more intense than in any other part of Asiatic Turkey. Snow sometimes falls in June, but the hills are covered with it all the year round. The inhabitants have a singular method of ploughing land. Ten or a dozen oxen are put to the plough. The furrows are made exceedingly deep, to preserve the seed from the cold, and to intermingle the soil of the surface, which is dry and sandy, with the more humid earth that lies beneath; yet the land is so impregnated with salt and nitre, that the roots of every thing would be burnt up, if a profusion of water was not every where used to meliorate the heat.

The Armenian merchants are generally men of probity and politeness. They manage all the trade of the Levant, and are in fact, the greatest merchants in the universe. They spread themselves over the principal parts of the world, as many are to be found in Italy, France, Germany, Holland, England, &c. and even in the dominions of the Great Mogul. All over the Turkish and Persian territories Armenian merchants are to be found; and so great is their thirst of gain, that they have settlements in Siam, Java, the Philippine islands, and in all parts of the East except China.

The Armenians speak two languages, which are distinguished by the appellations of vulgar and learned. The former is understood by the Armenians in general, but to be well versed in the latter, is deemed a great accomplishment, as it is only found in their ancient manuscripts, and used in the performance of divine service. They pretend, that it bears no affinity to any other oriental language; but is superior to them all, being more energetic, expressive, and elegant, and comprising not only all the common, but likewise all the technical terms of theology, and the various arts and sciences.

It is supposed, that Armenia was first peopled by the immediate descendants of Noah; for Noah's ark rested on Mount Ararat in this country: [See Dictionary, article Ararat.] it then became a kingdom, and remained so till it was subdued by the Persians: it was afterwards possessed by the immediate successors of Alexander the Great, then conquered by the

Romans. About 687 the Saracens made themselves masters of it, and held it till they were deprived of it by the Tartars and Turks, from whom it received the name of Turcomania.

GEORGIA, OR GURGISTAN,

WHICH has Circassia on the N. Turcomania on the S. Shirvan and Daghestan on the E. and the Euxine or Black Sea on the W. is about 210 miles long, and 140 broad. It belongs partly to the Turks, and partly to the Persians; it abounds with mountains, woods, beautiful vales, and fertile plains.

The air of Georgia is dry, cold in winter, but hot in summer. The country produces all kinds of excellent fruit, and the bread is hardly to be paralleled. Here are vast herds of fine cattle, and the pork is admirable. The Georgians have likewise wild and tame fowl, and excellent fish. Their wine is remarkably fine, and the inhabitants drink vast quantities of it. Georgia formerly contained many large cities, as history informs us, and their ruins evince; but at present there are but few cities and towns in proportion to the uncommon fertility of the soil, and those but thinly inhabited. This is perhaps owing to a barbarous custom prevalent in this country, of selling the younger part of the natives for slaves, it being no uncommon thing for a nobleman to sell his tenants and vassals, for parents to sell their children, and even masters to sell their servants, as they think proper. The principal factors in this unnatural traffic are Jews, who purchase the boys and girls when young, give them a suitable education, and, when they arrive at a proper age, dispose of them to the Turks and Persians, by whom they are employed in their armies and seraglios, as concubines, slaves, mutes, eunuchs, soldiers, &c. and many have been raised to the rank of statesmen. The Georgians are faithful friends, but, on the slightest offence, become implacable enemies. They do not deem luxury, drunkenness, or libertinism, crimes, or even follies; the clergy, in general, being worse than the laity, and the women as vicious as either. All religions are tolerated in Georgia, every one being at liberty to think, pray, and speak as he pleases. The Georgian houses are built after the Persian taste, and the inhabitants imitate the Persians in their modes of eating, sitting, lying, &c.

The sovereignty of the Turks and Persians over Georgia is rather nominal than real; for, as they are a hardy warlike race, and can easily retire to, and defend the passes of their mountains, it would be dangerous to quarrel with them, as no moderately sized army could subdue them, and from the nature of their country, they might become very troublesome neighbours, by making incursions into the adjacent Turkish and Persian provinces. Though the prince of Georgia is a Mohammedan, yet the generality of the people profess a sort of Christianity.

With respect to Turkey and Persia, Georgia is in much the same predicament as Flanders in Europe; for, when a war happens between those empires, this country is usually the seat of it. In 1578, the Turkish forces took Teflis, the capital; but the Persians coming to the assistance of the Georgians, the Turkish troops were defeated, and 70,000 of their men left dead on the field of battle.

When a Georgian dies, a bishop says mass over the corpse, for which he receives a hundred crowns; but if the defunct has not left a sufficient quantity of money to pay this exorbitant demand, some of his quondam friends very homanely sell his wife and children for slaves, to raise the money, for the clergy must not go unpaid. After mass has been said, the bishop lays a letter on the breast of the corpse, which is a complimentary card to St. Peter, intimating, that the funeral expences have been honestly paid, and entreating him to open the gates of paradise to the deceased. The body is then wrapped in linen and buried. The Mohammedans of this country likewise send a note by the dead to Mohammed. In Mingrelia, a district of Georgia, the clergy are, in general, more ignorant than those in the other parts of the province; but their whole employment is to cheat and rob their deluded votaries. They neither preach nor pray, but live in an almost continual state of intoxication. The inferior priests copy their superiors; and the people think they cannot do better than imitate the clergy. Sometimes, after the priests have defrauded the people, the catholicos, or archbishop, has robbed both priests and people; the prince will depose and plunder the catholicos. Nay, the people are very expert robbers, so that it may be said, with very little deviation from truth, that the inhabitants of Georgia, of whatever rank or degree, are thieves.

The marriages of the people of Asiatic Turkey are variously conducted, according to the peculiar notions of the inhabitants of any particular district; but the general mode seems to be, that they are negotiated by the ladies. When the terms are finally settled, the bridegroom pays down a sum agreed on, with which a place for their habitation is furnished. A licence is then procured from the *cadi*, and as soon as the ceremony is performed, festivity succeeds. The Mohammedan law permits a person to marry as many wives as he can maintain; and the wealthy Turks also keep a vast number of concubines.

The Turks were originally Scythian or Tartarian shepherds, who used to wander from one country to another with their flocks and herds, but resided chiefly north of the Palus Mæotis and Euxine Sea. In the eighth century they travelled southward, and settled in Georgia, between the Euxine and Caspian Seas, and continued there about 200 years. About the year 1000 they extended themselves into Armenia, the name of which place they changed for that of Turcomania. They soon after subdued Bagdad, ravaged Persia, and made themselves masters of the northern provinces of Arabia. They then invaded the territories of the Grecian emperor in Asia Minor, where they conquered several cities, as the Saracens had done in Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. They greatly oppressed the Christians who resided in the parts which they conquered, and the emperor of Constantinople implored the assistance of the European powers to oppose both the Turks and the Saracens. The pope interested himself in the affair, and endeavoured to excite an emulation in the people to rescue the Holy Land from the infidels. All Europe took the alarm, and in 1096 the first crusade commenced, when 300,000 Christian enthusiasts engaged in the enterprize, and proceeded towards Palestine: of these more than two-thirds perished by sickness, famine, and the sword. Great multitudes of regular troops followed under celebrated commanders; but upon mustering the whole of their forces, it appeared, that of the vast numbers of persons who set out on this glorious war of religion, not more than 100,000 horse, and about twice that number of foot could be found! The arms of the Christians were, however, crowned with success, and Godfrey of Boulogne was crowned king of the conquered country by

the title of King of Jerusalem. The Christians established four kingdoms, viz. Edessa, Tripoli, Antioch, and Jerusalem. The Christians did not long agree together, and the Turks, taking advantage of their quarrels, laid siege to many places under Ottoman their leader, and, being successful, established the Ottoman empire, making Neapolis the seat of his government. He was succeeded in 1328 by his son Orchanes, who extended the bounds of the empire. Orchanes, who died in 1359, was succeeded by his son Amurath. This prince was in the early part of his reign disturbed by a confederacy of Mohammedan princes and Christians; but having subdued these, he transported his army into Europe, where he took many places from the Grecian emperor, particularly Adrianople, which he subdued in 1362, and made the capital of his Asiatic and European dominions. Amurath now returned into Asia with a view to suppress an insurrection, when the Servians, Bulgarians, and Illyrians, invaded his European territories; but Amurath, at the head of 200,000 men crossed the Bosphorus, and totally defeated them. Amurath did not long survive this battle; for a Christian soldier, pretending to beg his life of him, took an opportunity of stabbing him with a dagger, which the treacherous villain had concealed. Of this wound the emperor died in 1373, and was succeeded by his son Bajazet, who, that he might have no rivals, began his reign by murdering his brother. He besieged Constantinople during eight years, but was at length compelled to raise the siege. He was so great a tyrant, that many of the Mohammedans, as well as the Christian princes, invited Tamerlane, commonly called the Great, to march against him; Bajazet advanced to oppose him, at the head of 1,000,000 of soldiers, and a most obstinate battle was fought in the plains of Stella, in which the Turks were defeated, and Bajazet was taken prisoner. Tamerlane treated him at first with great humanity; but Bajazet's insolent behaviour, caused Tamerlane to order him to be confined in an iron cage, which he carried with him wherever he went. The haughty Turk, not being able to endure this ignominious treatment, dashed his brains out against the bars of his moveable prison.

After the death of Tamerlane, which happened in 1404, Bajazet's five sons disputed for the sovereignty of the Ottoman empire: Solyman the eldest reigned a short time, when his youngest brother Mohammed proving successful, was unani-

monly acknowledged sole sovereign of the Turkish dominions. He died in 1422, and was succeeded by his son

Amurath II. who met with a variety of disappointments in war, and endeavoured to retrieve his fortune by laying siege to Croia. He assaulted the city many times; but not being able to carry it, he died before its walls in the 30th year of his reign. He was succeeded by his eldest son

Mohammed II. who raised the siege of Constantinople, and returned to Adrianople. He then murdered his brothers, and laid siege to Constantinople afresh, which he took May 20, 1453. Having now conquered the Grecian empire, he assumed the title of Emperor, which has been retained by his successors ever since. He extended the Turkish empire in Europe and Asia; but, though a great warrior, he was the most cruel and unrelenting monster that ever disgraced human nature. His cruel, base, and treacherous murder of Irene, is sufficient to paint his character in colours the most odious, which ages cannot efface, nor time wear away. He died in 1481.

Bajazet II. his eldest son, succeeded him. This prince took several towns from the Venetians; but, being dethroned by the Janissaries, was succeeded by his son

Selim, who began his reign by murdering his father, his brothers, and all their children. He then subdued the Mamelukes, and put an end to their empire in Egypt, annexing that country to his dominions. He died in 1520, and was succeeded by his son

Solyman II. surnamed the Magnificent. He subdued the island of Rhodes, and took several cities in Hungary. He penetrated into Austria, and laid siege to Vienna, but was not able to take it; he was not, however, discouraged, and returned with an army of 500,000 men; but was so well received by an assemblage of Christian armies, that he was compelled to retreat to Constantinople. He became so much enamoured of his concubine Roxalana, that, to oblige her, he put his eldest son, Mustapha, to death, as he also did some time after, Bajazet, his youngest son, for being concerted in a conspiracy against the government. He died in 1566, in the 77th year of his age, and the 47th year of his reign. He was succeeded by his only surviving son

Selim II. who, after a warlike reign of nine years, died Dec. 9, 1574, and was succeeded by his eldest son

Amurath III. who, like many of his predecessors, began his reign with the murder of his five brothers; and, to prove himself a true Turk, and not inferior in cruelty to his ancestors, he caused them to be executed in his presence. He waged an unsuccessful war with Persia, and died Jan. 18, 1595, in the 20th year of his reign. He was succeeded by his son

Mohammed III. who likewise began his reign with the execution of his brothers, 20 in number; but this did not satiate his revengeful disposition, for he ordered 10 of his father's favourite concubines, whom he supposed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the sea. His reign was marked with cruelty; and with all the horrors of a guilty conscience, he died in 1604, in the 45th year of his age. He was succeeded by his son

Achmet, who died Nov. 15, 1617, and was succeeded by his brother

Mustapha, who being supposed unfit to govern, was deposed, and his nephew Osman was advanced to the throne: but, on a dispute with the Janissaries, he was murdered, and Mustapha again took the reins of government. Being still supposed insufficient to manage the affairs of a large empire, he was deposed, and Osman's younger brother

Amurath IV. was advanced to the imperial dignity. This emperor was a cruel tyrant, the number of murders committed by him were incredible, and the modes of execution were shocking to human nature. He died Feb. 8, 1640, and was succeeded by his brother

Ibrahim, a wife and politic prince. He was deposed by his mother in 1648, and was soon after murdered. He was succeeded by his son

Mohammed IV. a child of only seven years of age. By reason of his ill success in war, his troops became dissatisfied; and, to appease them, he sent the heads of the grand vizir and several other persons to them. They were, however, not contented with this sacrifice; but, burning with revenge, they deposed him in the 33d year of his age. He was succeeded by his brother

Solyman III. who dying in 1689, was succeeded by his brother

Achmet II. He did not long possess the throne, and was succeeded by his nephew

Mustapha II. who was deposed in 1703, and his brother

Achmet III. was advanced to the throne. During this emperor's reign Charles XII. of Sweden, after his defeat at Pultowa, took refuge in the Turkish dominions, where he had interest enough to persuade the Turk to declare war against the czar of Muscovy. The czar raised a large army, but, by the superior power of the Turkish emperor, he was obliged to sign whatever conditions the grand signior was pleased to impose upon him. By reason of ill success, Achmet III. was deposed, and his nephew

Mohammed V. was, in 1730, advanced to the throne. He was unfortunate in his wars both with Russia and Persia, and died in 1754. He was succeeded by his brother

Osman III. who died in 1757, and was succeeded by another brother

Mustapha III. who died Jan. 21, 1774, while engaged in an unsuccessful Russian war. He was the wisest, best, most humane, and disinterested monarch that ever sat upon the Ottoman throne. He was succeeded by his brother

Abdul Hamet. In the course of the war, begun in the reign of Mustapha III. against the Russians, the Greeks, in almost every part of the Morea, took arms against the Turks, whom they massacred, without mercy, in most of the principal towns, and in the islands of the Archipelago. During these devastations, Scarschier, the basha of Bosnia, entered the Morea, with an army of 30,000 men. He immediately recovered the northern part of the peninsula, and issued out orders to put every Greek to death who was found in arms. The Russians were now driven back to their ships; but, on the arrival of a reinforcement, as soon as the Turkish fleet appeared in view, an obstinate engagement took place in the channel of Scio. Both parties fought desperately. Two of the largest ships were blown up. They had fastened themselves together with grappling irons, and the Turkish vessel, being set on fire by hand-grenades, blew up, and the Russian was involved in the same fate. The engagement continued till night, when the Turks escaped into a bay on the coast of Natolia, in which all their vessels, except one man of war, and a few galleys, were burned by some fire ships, which the enemy sent among them, under the conduct of lieutenant Dugdale, an Englishman in the

Russian Service. They then entered the harbour, and before nine in the morning scarcely a vestige of the town, the castle, or the fleet, were to be seen. This was a fatal stroke to the Turks, who, indeed, suffered dreadful and repeated losses during the whole of the war, which terminated in 1774, when a treaty of peace was concluded, and ratified on the 21st of July. The substance of the articles were, 1. The acknowledgement of the independency of the Crimea. 2. The absolute cession to Russia of Kilburn, Kerche, Janichala, and all the district between the Bog and the Dnieper. 3. The granting to Russia a free navigation in all the Turkish seas, including the passage through the Dardanelles, with all the privileges and immunities granted to the most favoured nations. In return for which concessions, Russia was to restore all the places she had conquered, except Asoph and Taganrok. Abdul Hamet died in 1789, and was succeeded by Selim III. the present emperor.

In the more recent disputes between the courts of Russia and Turkey, the fortress of Oczakow seems to have been the object of contention. At length, through the mediation of England and Prussia, Oczakow was yielded to the Russians in 1791, and a period was put to the jangling of the two nations for the present.

THE ASIATIC ISLANDS

Lie in the Pacific, Eastern, and Indian Oceans, or in the Levant. The principal of those to which the European nations trade, or on which they have settlements, are,

The Japanese islands, which form a very extensive empire. They trade with the Dutch. See above, p. 4.

The Ladrone Islands.

Formosa.

The Philippines.

The Molucca or Spice Islands, consisting of Banda, Amboyna, Ternate, Macassar or Celebes, Tidor, Motier, Machian, and Timor.

Gilolo.

Borneo.

Sumatra.

Java.

The Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

Ceylon.

The Maldives.

Bombay.

The Kurile Isles in the sea of Kamtschatka.

New Holland.

The Asiatic islands in the Levant are, Cyprus, Rhodes, Lesbos or Mytelene, Scio, Samos, Nicaria, and Stanchio.

To the above may be added, in the Pacific Ocean, New Guinea, Papoua, New Britain, New Ireland, New Hebrides, New Caledonia, New Zealand, the Friendly Isles, Otaheite, The Society Isles, and the Sandwich Islands.

As the above islands are all described under their respective names in the Geographical Dictionary, we refer to that work for an account of them.

AFRICA,

WHICH may be called a peninsula, it being joined to Asia, by the Isthmus of Suez, is another grand division of the globe; but it is neither so generally fertile as the other three, not so populous as either Asia or Europe: it nevertheless abounds in riches, and might be rendered of much greater importance than it is at present. Africa is surrounded with water, except at the isthmus of Suez, which is only about 60 miles from the Red Sea to the Mediterranean; by which means it is rendered almost an island, enjoying such a vast extent of sea coast, that it is remarkably well situated for the purposes of commercial intercourse with every part of the habitable world; but navigation is neither esteemed nor cultivated by the natives, the best of whom are but indifferent sailors. Africa was once famous for power, riches, learning, arts, and commerce; but the alternate depredations of the Romans, Vandals, and Saracens, have reduced it to the lowest ebb of ignorance and barbarity. The complete history of all the parts of Africa does not appear to have been ever written. The most ancient of its inhabitants, of whom we have any account, were the Egyptians, and the people who live on the Southern coasts of the Mediterranean Sea. And though these parts were well known to the ancients, very little of their history has reached modern times; and probably their knowledge of the middle and southern parts of Africa was confined within very narrow limits: for the great deserts and parching heats, which were soon met with in travelling towards the

south, probably deterred men of speculation from visiting the interior parts of this continent. As the greater part of Africa lies between the tropics, the equinoctial line passing nearly through the midst of it, it cannot possibly have any great variation of climate; and the whole of the country is so exceedingly sultry, that it proves in general very disagreeable, if not fatal, to those who were born in the more northern regions, while the burning sands contribute not a little to render the heat still more incommodious. The inhabitants are altogether unacquainted with ice, hail, or snow; and, as there is but very little rain in the country, they depend on the overflowing of the rivers for the fertilization of the land in many parts, while other extensive tracks are composed of burning sands, and are consequently sterile and barren.

Africa is in length, from Cape Bona in the N. to the Cape of Good Hope in the S. 4,300 miles, and from Cape Guardafui in the E. to Cape de Verd in the W. it is 3,500 miles; having the Mediterranean Sea on the N. the Southern Ocean on the S. the Indian Ocean and the Red Sea on the E. and the Atlantic on the W.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE COUNTRIES OF AFRICA.

Nations.		Length.	Breadth.	Chief Towns.
Barbary.	Barca	400	300	Tolemeta.
	Tripoli	700	240	Tripoli.
	Tunis	300	250	Tunis.
	Algiers	480	100	Algiers.
	Morocco	500	480	Morocco.
The Desert.	Biledulgerid ..	2500	350	Dara.
	Zaara	2400	660	Tigessa.
	Tombut	Limits	uncertain	Tombut.
	Sierra Leona ..	2200	840	Mundingo.
	Mundingo			
Negroland.	Pholey			
	Jaloffs			
	Guinea; containing	1800	360	Xavier, Assam, Great
	Whidah, Ardrah,			
	Slave Coast, Gold			
	Coast, Fetu, Com-			
mendo, Jaby, An-	ta, Axim, Tooth	1800	360	Cape Coast Castle,
	Coast, Grain Coast			
	Benin			
	Benguela			
	Angola	Limits	uncertain	Benin.
Congo.	Congo Proper.			
	Loango			
	Monomotapa			
	Monoemugi			
	Calfratia	1120	700	Cape Town.
Zanguebar; contain-	ing Melinda, Mo-	1400	350	Melinda.
	fambique, Sofala.			
	Abex			
	Upper Ethiopia....			
	Nubia	940	600	Nubia.
Egypt	Egypt	600	250	Grand Cairo.

BARBARY.

THE large countries included in the general name of Barbary, are tolerably fertile and populous, the inhabitants carrying on a pretty brisk trade with several parts of the world. Barbary is bounded on the N. by the Mediterranean Sea, on the E. by Egypt, on the S. by the Deserts of Zaara, and on the W. by the Atlantic Ocean; being upwards of 2000 miles long, and about 750 miles broad, containing the following kingdoms and states, viz. Barca, Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, Morocco and Fez.

BARCA,

WHICH is almost a mere desert, extends about 400 miles from N. to S. and about 300 miles from E. to W. It was better known to the ancients than the moderns, and is particularly mentioned by Virgil, on account of the ferocity of its inhabitants. It is styled by the Arabs Ceyrant Barka, or the Desert of whirlwinds and Hurricanes. The territory about the towns and villages produce a scanty pittance of corn, millet, and maize; the other parts being totally barren. The whole labours under a great scarcity of water. And small as the produce of the country is, the natives are under the necessity of bartering some part of it for camels, sheep, dates, &c. Those who dwell near the sea coast are much given to piracy. The authors of the Universal History, whose information was the best that could be procured, speak thus concerning the principal places of Barca, "What condition they are in, what commerce they drive, or how and by whom they are governed, we cannot find any satisfactory account of." And as we have no recent accounts relative to them, farther than those gentlemen have adverted to, we can only add, that the natives are most determined, ferocious, and cruel robbers, both by sea and land; that they are so poor, as to be sometimes under the necessity of selling their wives and children to augment their means of subsisting, and to get rid of all that they may deem incumbrances.

TRIPOLI.

THE kingdom of Tripoli is bounded on the N. by the Mediterranean Sea, on the E. by Barca, on the S. by Mount Atlas, and on the W. by Biledulgerid, extending along the coast above 700 miles, and being about 240 broad. The whole kingdom is divided into six provinces, viz: Tripoli Proper, Mefrata, Haicha, Benolefa, Gulph of Sidra, and Or-guela. The deficiency of fresh water in Tripoli, and the great sterility with respect to grain, are both supposed to have been occasioned by the encroachments of the sea, which has sometimes been known to overflow the neighbouring territory to a very considerable distance: but these inundations, though they have essentially injured them in the above respects, have considerably benefited them in another particular, that is, the amazing increase of the lotus tree, which thrives best in a saline clay or sandy soil, and produces both food and drink, as the fruit has an excellent taste, is very nutritious, and makes a most delicious wine. The towns which are situated on the western coast of the Gulph of Sidra, are the best in the country; those on the eastern side, and within the gulph, are in a very wretched condition, and present a dreadful picture of the devastations of time.

These parts of Africa have been subject to a great variety of revolutions, from the inundations of Goths, Vandals, Arabs, Mohammedans, &c. who have overrun the country at different times; to which may be added the depredations of the Europeans, and the tyranny of their own government. After the Moors were driven out of Andalusia in Spain, they built the town of Derne on the western part of the Gulph of Sidra, which is indeed the best town of the district of that name.

The district of Mefrata was anciently in a flourishing condition, but is now much reduced; it, however, still contains a few towns on the sea coast, and some scattered villages; the people can, upon an emergency, send 40,000 men into the field: they are of a very restless disposition, are often at war with the wild Arab tribes, and pay their tribute to the bey of Tripoli with great reluctance.

The beys of Tripoli are not mere nominal vassals to the Turkish government, like those of Algiers and Tunis; but

are obliged to pay a considerable tribute, which puts them under the necessity of tyrannizing over the poor people, and reducing them to the utmost indigence and misery, in order to obtain a sufficient sum to discharge their quota. The revenues are raised by an impost on the corsairs, by a tax on commercial imports and exports, and by a subsidy which the Jews are obliged to furnish.

The principal article of commerce is slaves, which are either taken by the corsairs at sea, or are stolen by the wild Arabs and Moors from the neighbouring states. Both are, however, usually sent to Turkey, that being reckoned the best market. They likewise export vast quantities of ashes, which are disposed of to the Europeans, for the purposes of making soap and glass.

The first accounts of Tripoli we have from the Romans, who represent it as a flourishing state. After the inhabitants had thrown off the Roman yoke, they were successively subdued by the Vandals, Saracens, and the sovereigns of Morocco, Fez, and Tunis. At length, in the reign of Bucamen, king of Tunis, who ruled the Tripolitans very despotically, the inhabitants thought fit to revolt, and constituted one of their own people king of Tripoli. On account of the tyranny of the new monarch he was poisoned, and succeeded by Abubacer, who had been one of his officers, but who quitted the military for the hermetical life. In the beginning of this king's reign, Tripoli was besieged and taken by the Spaniards, soon after which this kingdom was made tributary to Spain.

In the reign of Sultan Solyman, Tripoli was besieged by the Turks, who obtained possession of it. For some years Tripoli continued under the government of a sangiac, who was deputed by the porte to collect the revenues; but the despotism and extortions of the Turks became so intolerable, that, about the close of the sixteenth century, a general revolution took place: this was, however, quelled by the overpowering force of the Turks, who settled Mohammed Beygh in the government, making him tributary to the porte. In 1685 the French bombarded Tripoli, the capital, when great damage was done to the Tripolitans. At length, by the interference of the court of Constantinople, the affair was adjusted, and an advantageous treaty in favour of the French was agreed upon and ratified. In 1716 a treaty of peace and commerce was con-

cluded between the regency of Tripoli and the British admiral Baker, which was highly advantageous to the British nation.

TUNIS.

THE kingdom of Tunis, anciently the republic of Carthage, was formerly of a much greater extent than it is at present, being now about 300 miles long, and 250 broad. It is divided into eight districts, viz. 1. Tunis Proper, 2. Byrsa or Carthage and Goleto, 3. El-Medea, 4. Sufa, 5. Kayr-wan or Cairwan, 6. Hamamet, 7. Biserta, and, 8. Porto Farino. Belonging to this state are a few islands, viz. a small one in the river Zaine, rented by the Genoese; Cape Negro Island, rented by the French African Company; the Jalta, and the islands of Cani, remarkable only for the dangerous shoals near them. Here are several capes; as those of Sarra; Three Brothers; Bianca, where Scipio first landed in Africa; Zibced; and Bon, or the promontory of Hercules. The principal gulphs are those of Biserta and Tunis. The most remarkable mountains are, 1. The Zowaan, which is lofty, and gives name to a town situated at its foot, 2. The Gueslet, 3. The Nufura, and, 4. The Bene-tesren.

The Tunisians have plenty of palms, figs, dates, citrons, lemons, olives, &c. but feel a great scarcity of corn; and are not even secure in the possession of what little they are able to raise; for it is no uncommon thing in harvest time, for the Arabs to come suddenly upon the husbandmen, and plunder the whole territory of all the ripe grain. The rich, however, are supplied by commercial means with wheat, with which they make fine cakes, and an excellent kind of vermicelli. They have plenty of honey and fruits; but seldom eat meat, except upon the occasion of some festival. The staple commodities are woollen and linen, in which articles the manufacturers excel all others in Barbary.

The inhabitants of this country, but particular of the capital, are a mixture of Turks, Moors, Arabians, Jews, and Christians of various nations; but their general character does them singular honour, as they are more polite and just, kinder to their slaves, and less haughty, insolent, and mercenary, than the generality of the inhabitants of Barbary. In short, they are said to prefer the fruits of honest industry to unlawful

plunder, and seek wealth from commerce, rather than from piracy. Both sexes are clean in their persons, and neat in their dresses, use perfumes very much, and bathe frequently: the women when they go abroad are veiled; but at home they are permitted to be seen by, and converse with strangers.

Along some part of the coast of this kingdom are very dangerous land banks, which hydrographers call *lyttes*. Small ships are often lost by being drawn into their vortex. In several parts of Tunis are hot springs, some of which are too hot for the purposes of bathing. There are likewise salt lakes and marshes, and mountains of salt, one of which is called *Jibbel Hadidessa*.

The government of Tunis is despotic and hereditary; but not in a right line, for the bey is at liberty to nominate which of his sons he pleases for his successor, or even a nephew, or any other relation. There is a shew of vassalage to the Ottoman Porte; but the bey of Tunis is in fact independent. Through motives of policy, the beys of Tunis keep up a good correspondence with their neighbours the Algerines and Tripolitans, and endeavour to cultivate a friendship with the subjects of England and France, though they are at perpetual variance with the Spaniards, Sardinians, Venetians, Maltese, the subjects of the Ecclesiastical States, &c.

The revenues arise from the duties on imports and exports, and from the tributes paid by the Arabs and Moors. Another branch of the revenue may be said to arise from the prizes taken by private adventurers; for, when a ship carries in a prize, the hull of the vessel, and half the cargo, after all expences are deducted, belong to the bey, and the remainder is divided between the captain and the ship's company, in the following manner: the captain has six shares, the mate four, the pilot four, the gunner four, the clerk three, the quartermaster two, the cockswain two, and the private men a share and a half each. The bey has, moreover, one half of the prisoners taken, and the privilege of purchasing the rest, if he chooses it, at 100 pistons a head.

The trade of the Tunisians consists chiefly in the exportation of corn, oil, wax, wool, hides, Morocco leather, beans, lentils, &c. and the importation of Spanish wool, Languedoc cloth, pepper, sugar, vermillion, cloves, wine, brandy, hardware, iron, steel, paper, gold and silver tissue, damasks, silken and woollen stuffs, &c. They likewise trade for a variety of articles to

Egypt, Arabia, the Levant, and the neighbouring piratical states. In Tunis, the English, Dutch, French, Genoese, and Germans, have their consuls, who are treated with great respect. All public writings are in the Arabic language; but commerce is carried on in that jargon of tongues, called *Lingua Franca*.

Besides renegadoes of all nations, Jews are very numerous in this kingdom, and it is affirmed by several writers, that there are upwards of 10,000 in the capital only. Like their brethren in other parts of the world, they adulterate the articles in which they trade, and cheat all they can.

The religion, customs, manners, laws, &c. of the Tunisiens, are similar to those of the Algerines. If a renegado should turn Christian again, they wrap him up in a cloth dipped in pitch, and burn him; or else they pile stones, mud, mortar, &c. all around him, and having walled in all but his head, they rub that over with honey, which attracts wasps and other insects, who torment the poor wretch with their stings till he expires, which sometimes does not happen for several days. If a slave is caught attempting to escape, or murders his patron, his limbs are all broken, and then he is fastened to a horse's tail, and dragged through the streets till he dies.

Tunis has been alternately subjugated by the Romans, Goths, Vandals, Saracens, and Arabs. Abdul Hedi, a Moorish officer of Seville, landed with a considerable force, and obliged the Arabs to evacuate the towns and villages, and ruled the kingdom in quality of viceroy to the emperor of Morocco, governing the country with great reputation till his death, when he was succeeded by his son Abu-Zechariah. After some time, the celebrated Barbarossa advanced to Tunis, where he committed great depredations. Owing to the great number of Christian slaves, he became fearful lest they should join the Arabs, and overpower him; to prevent which disaster he ordered them, to the amount of 7000, to be blown up. Herein, however, he was defeated; for the Christians having received intimations of his design, shook off the yoke, seized the castle and the immense treasures contained therein, murdered the guard, and when Barbarossa demanded admittance, they answered by a volley of musquetry. Perceiving his cause to be on the decline, he retreated, and was at length overcome. Tunis was now under the dominion of the Christians, in some

measure acknowledging the emperor Charles V. This was, however, only a temporary affair, for it was not of long continuance, the whole being subjected to the Ottoman yoke in the reign of Selim II. Since this period, they have been governed by deys, who are generally some popular persons elected by the principal inhabitants. The Tunisiens are in alliance with some of the Christian powers, particularly the Dutch and English.

ALGIERS

IS a kingdom, among the Barbary states, being about 480 miles long, and 100 broad. It has the Mediterranean on the N. the Desert of Zaara on the S. Tunis on the E. and Morocco on the W. It is divided into three parts, viz. Algiers Proper, Tremecen, and Constantina. The climate of Algiers is remarkably serene and fine, and as the people are unacquainted with the extremes of heat and cold, the country seems to enjoy a perpetual verdure. But it must be remarked, that this is the case only towards the sea, the inland parts being principally wild and barren, and very little inhabited, except by a variety of wild beasts, such as lions, tigers, leopards, buffaloes, wild boars, stags, porcupines, monkeys, ostriches, &c. It is generally a mountainous country, the principal chain of which is known by the appellation of Mount Atlas. The chief rivers are, the Mulvia, Suffran, Major, Guadalbarhar, but neither of them are navigable far from the sea. Its bays are those of Marsalquiver, Oran, Algiers, and Bugia. Its capes are those of Falcon, Fergula, Ivy, Cambron, Bugia, and Metafuz.

As to the produce of this country, it consists of but one kind of wheat and barley. In some districts, where they have a command of water during the summer season, the natives cultivate rice, Indian corn, and particularly a white sort of millet, which the Arabs called drab. This they prefer to barley for the purposes of fattening their cattle. Oats are not cultivated at all by the Arabs, for the horses of this country feed altogether upon barley; and they never employ it in making cakes, or bread. The Moors and Arabs continue to tread out their corn, after the primitive custom in the East. As soon as the grain is trodden out, they winnow it by

throwing it up in the wind with shovels. They lodge it afterwards in mattamores, or subterraneous magazines. Of roots, pot-herbs, and the fruits of this country, there is not only great plenty and infinite variety, but also a continuance, or succession at least, of one kind or other, throughout the whole year. There are a great number of palm trees in this country, and also almond-trees, apricots, plums, cherries, mulberries, apples, pears, peaches, nectarines, pomegranates, prickle-pears, olives, and walnuts; but they have no filbert, gooseberry, or currant-trees. In the salt-petre works of Tremecen, they extract six ounces of nitre from every quintal of the common mould, which is of a dark colour. At Doufan Kirwan, and some other places, they use the same quantity of a loamy earth, which is in colour something betwixt red and yellow.

The female part of the inhabitants of this kingdom are so handsome, that they would be esteemed beauties, even in Great Britain. Their children certainly have the finest complexions of any nation in the world. The boys, indeed, by wearing only the Tiara, are exposed so much to the sun, that they quickly attain the swarthiness of the Arabs; but the girls, by keeping more at home, preserve their beauty till they are thirty, at which age they are usually past child-bearing. No objection can be made against the natural parts and abilities of these people, which are certainly subtil and ingenious. Yet they want time, application, and encouragement, to cultivate and improve them. Few persons here will either admit of advice or medicine, as they are strict believers in absolute predestination. Some of them, indeed, who are less superstitious, prevent the assistance of both, by their ill conduct and management, and put implicit confidence in the strength of nature, or else in Magareach, as they call charms and enchantments. The Arabians who reside in Algiers, follow no regular trade or employment. Their lives are one continued round of idleness or diversion. When no pastime calls them abroad, they do nothing all day but loiter at home, smoke their pipe, and repose themselves under some neighbouring shade. They have no relish for domestic pleasures, and are rarely known to converse with their wives, or to amuse themselves with their children. They value themselves above all

things in their horses, and place their highest satisfaction in those animals.

The Algerines, properly so called, are the most cruel and dangerous pirates of all the Barbary states; they are exceedingly base, perfidious, and rapacious. Neither oaths nor ties, human or divine, can bind them when their interest interferes. In short, whatever respect they may pretend to pay to their prophet Mohammed, gold is the principal object of their worship.

The revenues of the dey of Algiers cannot be ascertained, for as they are founded on rapine and plunder, and depend chiefly on casual robberies, they must fluctuate continually, and be at all times uncertain. Justice is venally administered, favour publicly sold, and corruption so general, that it is not looked upon as a crime.

The religion is the Mohammedan, and the principal officers who preside over the ecclesiastical matters are, 1. The mullis, or high priest; 2. The cadi, or ecclesiastical judge; and, 3. The grand marabout, or superior of the monkish orders.

The general language of Algiers is a compound of Arabic, Morisco, and the remains of the ancient Phœnician; but all public business is transacted, and records are kept in the Turkish tongue, though the *Lingua Franca* is the commercial language, and consequently generally understood.

The Algerines were first subdued by the Carthaginians, afterwards by the Romans, and then by the Vandals. The country was, however, again restored to the Roman empire; but the Saracens wrested it from the Roman yoke; and these were in turn subdued by the Turks, who have kept possession of it ever since. By the repeated depredations of the Algerine corsairs, the Spaniards were greatly irritated, insomuch that, in July 1775, a very formidable fleet and army was sent to the attack of Algiers; but, by the misconduct of their principal officer, the Algerines obtained a complete victory, and the Spaniards were obliged to retire with loss. The year 1784 was likewise remarkable for a conspiracy, which was soon quelled, and for two attacks made upon it by the Spaniards, in consequence of the piracies of the Algerine corsairs. These were likewise ineffectual.

MOROCCO AND FEZ.

THE empire of Morocco, including the kingdom of Fez, is generally divided into three parts, viz. Fez, Morocco, and Suz, being about 500 miles long, and 180 broad. It has the Mediterranean and the Straights of Gibraltar on the N. Algiers on the E. Biledulgerid on the S. and the Atlantic Ocean on the W.

Mount Atlas, which runs the whole length of Barbary, from East to West, passes through Morocco, and terminates at that ocean which divides the eastern from the western continent, and is from this mountain called the Atlantic Ocean. This mountain, the poets feigned, sustained the universe, from which fable, Atlas is shewn with the world on his shoulders; and every description of the globe assumes the name of an Atlas. The air of this country is temperate; the winds from the sea and Mount Atlas refresh them in the hottest season, and their winter is of short continuance.

This country produces vast quantities of corn, wine, and oil. Our garrison of Gibraltar has frequently been supplied with provisions from the Barbary coast. The inhabitants trade by land chiefly with Arabia or Negroland. To Mecca, indeed, they send caravans, which consist of several thousand camels, horses, and mules, twice ever year, partly for traffic, and partly upon a religious account. Great numbers of pilgrims take that opportunity of paying their devotions to their great Prophet. The goods they carry to the East are very fine woollen manufactures, Morocco skins, indigo, cochineal, and ostrich feathers. They bring back from these countries, silk, muslins, and drugs. By their caravans to Negroland they send salt, silk, and woollen manufactures, and bring back gold and ivory in return, but above all negroes. From this place it is that their emperor chiefly recruits his black cavalry, though there are a great number born in the country. They bring those of both sexes very young from Negroland. The females become the wives of the males, who are all made soldiers as they grow up. They first carry a musket, and serve on foot, and, after some time, they are preferred to be enrolled in the cavalry. These, as they have no other hopes or depend-

ance but the favour of the emperor, prove much the most faithful and obsequious of all his subjects; and, indeed, support the prince in his tyranny over the rest, who would not probably have borne the barbarous cruelties of the two last reigns, if they had not been governed with a rod of iron, in the hands of these negroes. To return, however, to their caravans. They always go in parties sufficiently strong to defend themselves against the wild Arabs of the deserts in Africa and Asia. Yet, notwithstanding all their vigilance, some of the stragglers and their baggage often fall into their hands. They are also forced to load one half of their camels with water, in order to prevent their perishing by thirst, in their journeys over their extensive deserts. They find also a still more dangerous enemy in the sand itself. When the wind rises, the caravans are perfectly blinded with dust; and there have been instances, both in Africa and Asia, where whole caravans, and even armies, have been buried alive in the sands. There is no doubt also but both men and cattle are sometimes surprised by wild beasts, as well as by robbers, in those vast deserts. The hot winds are also a dangerous evil. These blow over a long tract of burning sand, and are equal almost to the heat of an oven. They have destroyed abundance of merchants and pilgrims. If it were not for devotion, or in expectation of very great gain, no man would undertake a journey in these deserts. Great are the hazards and fatigues which they must of necessity undergo. Those, however, who reach Mecca, assure themselves of paradise when they die, and have uncommon honours paid them at home if they survive the perils of so dangerous a pilgrimage. People crowd to be taken into the eastern caravans; and the gold, that is found in the South, makes them no less eager to undertake that journey.

In Morocco, murder, theft, and some other crimes are punished with death; and their punishments in general particularly for crimes against the state, are exceedingly cruel. Among these are impaling; dragging the prisoner through the streets at a mule's heels, till all the flesh is torn off; throwing him from a high tower upon iron hooks; hanging him upon hooks till he dies; crucifying him against a wall; and, indeed, the punishment, as well as the condemnation, of

criminals, is in a manner arbitrary. One extraordinary punishment is sometimes used, which is blowing a criminal out of a large mortar, loaded with gunpowder, into the sea.

The Moors, or natives of this country, are of the same complexion with the Spaniards on the opposite shores. Those who are exposed to the air are a little tawny; but the rest are as fair as Europeans. But there have been such a prodigious multitude of negroes introduced from Guinea, especially near Mequinez, where the court resides, that the blacks are almost as numerous as the white people. Their houses have neither wainscot nor hangings. They are adorned with neither beds, chairs, stools, tables, nor pictures. They sleep upon a mattress on the floor, which, in the mansions of persons of quality, are covered with carpets.

A plurality of wives and concubines are allowed in Morocco, in the same manner as in other Mohammedan countries. As to their funerals, the corpse is carried to the grave in the usual dress, with the priests singing before it, "La illa Al illa, Mohammed Refoul Alla; God is a Great God, and Mohammed his Prophet."

The emperor has an unbounded power over the lives and properties of his subjects, and he is said to be the universal heir to all his subjects upon their demise; so that the greatest part of the wealth of the empire centers in the royal coffers. The emperor's titles are very high sounding, he being styled, "The most glorious, mighty, and noble Emperor of Afric, King of Fez and Morocco, Tafilet, Suz, Dabra, and all the Algarbe, and its territories in Afric, Grand Cherif, i. e. descendant, of the prophet Mohammed, &c. &c. &c." In fine, his will is the only law, his passions the interpreters thereof, the judges his creatures, and the executioners his minions.

This part of Africa was undoubtedly peopled by a Phœnician colony, which was subdued by the Romans after the demolition of the Carthaginian empire. These gave place to the Vandals, and the Vandals to the Saracen Caliphs, whose descendants still govern in Morocco. The emperors are always at war with the Spaniards and Portuguese. Their ancestors, indeed, made a conquest of the greatest part of Spain in the eighth century, and were not entirely driven out of it until the sixteenth; and by the articles granted the Moors,

on the surrender of Granada, they were to have enjoyed their estates in Spain, and the free exercise of their religion. The Spaniards, however, broke through these articles, and after they had banished several hundred thousands of them into Africa, they erected the court of Inquisition, to consume the Moors who remained in Spain. After this arbitrary step, the banished Moors joined their brethren on the coast of Barbary in an invasion against the Spanish coasts, and carried many thousands of the Spaniards into captivity. They have maintained a perpetual war with that nation ever since that period.

THE DESART.

THIS vast track of land, whose soil consists for the most part of burning sands, whose inhabitants are generally wandering tribes and exceedingly inhospitable and ferocious, and whose appearance presents nothing but universal desolation, has not improperly obtained the appellation of Desert. This extensive district is divided into various provinces or kingdoms, the chief of which are, Biledulgerid, Zaara, and Tombut.

BILEDULGERID.

THIS very extensive country, which is about 2500 miles long, and 350 broad, received its name from Biled-el-gerid, an Arabic word signifying the land of dates, on account of the great quantities of that fruit which grow within its borders, and which is so plentiful that the inhabitants are enabled to supply the neighbouring states. It is bounded on the E. by Egypt, on the S. by Negroland, on the W. by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the N. by the Barbary states. The climate is extremely hot, and though the inhabitants are said to be healthy and vigorous, yet they labour under great inconveniences from the burning sun-beams and scorching sands, insomuch that their features become greatly shrivelled and their complexions swarthy. Their eyes are likewise much inflamed by the sands, which are frequently blown into them by the easterly winds; and these winds are so tempestuous, that numbers of people

are often overwhelmed by them. As for rivers or springs, in a country abounding with sands, it cannot be thought there are many, and those few which have been noticed by travellers are not worth mentioning, for they neither contain water that is palatable or wholesome.

Though the Arabs are the principal people that inhabit this desert, yet there are amongst them some of the ancient Africans, who live in towns and villages, and are supplied with most conveniences by the Arabs. The former think themselves the nobler race, and being independant, some of them for pay will serve neighbouring princes in war. The generality, however, either follow the employment of plundering or hunting; the latter of which is the most common, and the ostrich the principal object, which is here of a prodigious size, and in great abundance. Though these birds are so large that they cannot fly, yet by the fluttering of their wings, and the swift motion of their feet, they will for some time run so fast, that it is difficult for a horse to overtake them. Their great bulk, however, tiring them out, they are obliged to yield to their pursuers, who quickly dispatch them by cutting their throats. They eat their flesh, barter their feathers for corn and other commodities, make pendants of their talons for their ears, convert their skins into knapsacks, and use their fat or oil as a medicine; so that they make every part of the animal serviceable. Besides the flesh of the ostrich, they likewise eat that of goats and camels, and their drink is the liquor or broth in which the flesh of those animals is boiled. They chiefly use dates instead of bread; but they have some corn and pulse which they purchase from the neighbouring countries. They have small horses that are principally used in hunting, and are very serviceable in plundering expeditions; on both which occasions the better sort are attended by their slaves; but those who are of a lower degree are attended by their wives, who look after their horses, and do other menial services. Their religion, if they have any, is Mohammedanism.

ZAARA or SAHARA.

THIS is another vast desert, being about 2400 miles long, and 660 broad, The Arabs divide it into three parts, viz, Cash,

or the Sandy; Zaara or Sahara, or the Stony; and Afsar, or the Marshy. Some parts are very dry, sandy, and barren, while others, particularly on the banks of the river Senegal, are amazingly fertile, producing wheat, barley, millet, some vegetables, and a great variety of delicious fruits. Many parts of the country are greatly infested with wild beasts, as lions, tigers, &c. Here are also great numbers of scorpions, vipers, and other venomous creatures. At particular seasons they are greatly infested with locusts, which are so numerous as to destroy the principal part of their corn and grain.

The inhabitants of Zaara are chiefly Arabs, who are generally illiterate and savage: they lead a wretched life, wandering about from place to place, and feeding on the milk of their flocks with a little barley meal and some dates. Their tents or huts are low and mean, consisting only of a few sticks, covered with some coarse cloth made of camel's hair, and a rough kind of wool or moss that grows upon the palm trees. They lie on mats, but have no covering. They have neither laws nor government, being only subject to the will of their cheyks, who rule them with a rod of iron.

The wild Arabs here are continually at war with the negroes, whom they endeavour to take alive, in order to sell them for slaves at Fez or Morocco; for which reason, when the latter happen to obtain a conquest, they butcher, in the most cruel manner all that fall into their hands.

The religion of the inhabitants is a mixture of Paganism and Mohammedanism; but the latter is so strangely corrupted that it does not even deserve the name. Their language is in general a corruption of the Arabic, but it differs according to the various tribes and provinces.

The whole country of Zaara is so flat and barren, that, in long journies, travellers have the greatest difficulty to find their way, there not being a building, tree, or any other mark to direct them. To remedy this inconvenience, as well as to avoid the excessive heat of the sun, they generally travel in the night, and chiefly guide themselves by the course of the stars.

TOMBUT

Is a very extensive kingdom, but its exact limits are not well known to Europeans. It is a tolerably fertile country, being

well watered by the river Senegal, which runs through it; and when that river overflows, which it does annually, like the Nile in Egypt, the water is conveyed by sluices to Tombut the capital. Besides this, there are many springs of excellent water. The chief produce is corn and cattle, great quantities of which they export to the neighbouring kingdoms, particularly to Fez and Morocco. The inhabitants of Tombut are generally of a chearful and lively disposition, spending a great part of their time in singing and dancing. Among them are many artificers and manufacturers, particularly weavers of cotton cloth, some of whom are very rich. Their horses are in general of the small breed, on which account the king purchases great numbers of the Barbary breed for his cavalry. It is said that the people of Tombut have no coin; but instead thereof, use bars of gold, six of which weigh an ounce. They have also shells brought from Persia, 400 of which are estimated at the value of a ducat. They carry on a tolerable trade with the merchants of Barbary.

NEGROLAND.

THIS is a vast tract of country, being about 2200 miles long, and 840 broad. It has Abyssinia and Nubia on the E. the Atlantic Ocean on the W. Zaara on the N. and Guinea and Benin on the S. The river Niger or Senegal runs through the country, and has on its banks several settlements belonging to the English, as there are also on the river Gambia, which is navigable for small vessels upwards of 600 miles. After the rainy seasons in the inland parts of the country, these rivers overflow their banks, like the Nile in Egypt, and render the districts through which they pass exceedingly fertile. Indeed Negroland in general is a fruitful country, abounding in rice, Guinea grain, and Indian corn, cocoa nuts, plantains, pulse, palm trees, and abundance of tropical fruits. Here are vast herds of cattle. The generality of the people are black, but there are a great many of a tawny complexion intermixed with them. Both follow the Mohammedan religion. The Europeans traffic

with them for slaves, gold, ivory, bees-wax, and drugs, particularly gum senega, which is a profitable article.

Negroland may be divided into four parts, viz. Sierra Leona, Mundingo, Pholey, and Jaloffs.

SIERRA LEONA.

THIS country is rendered considerable by the river which gives name to it, and by the settlement lately made there of a colony sent from England. It is bounded on the N. by Cape de la Vega, on the S. by Cape Tagrin or Sierra Leona. These capes form a spacious bay, into which the river discharges itself. The climate of Sierra Leona is excessively hot, and rather unwholesome. During some months in the year it rains, thunders, and is so very sultry, that the inhabitants are obliged to keep close within their huts; the air is likewise so corrupted by the lightning, that, in a few hours, all animal food is reduced to a state of putrefaction. The flat open country, however, is not so bad; for though in summer the heat is excessive in the former part of the day, yet it is temperate in the afternoon, when refreshing breezes generally blow from the S. W. The banks of the Sierra Leona are lined with mangrove trees, the leaves of which exactly resemble those of an European laurel. The branches of these trees are nearly of an equal length; but the shoots growing downwards, as soon as they touch the water or the earth take root, and by that means make a hedge so thick as to be almost impenetrable. The whole country abounds with millet and rice which is the principal food of the natives. It also produces oranges, lemons, bananas, Indian figs, ananas, &c. They have great plenty of deer, hogs, goats, and fowls, which the natives sell to the Europeans for spirituous liquors. In the bay and river of Sierra Leona are great plenty of fish, which is of infinite service to the European sailors, not only for provisions, but also for traffic.

The inhabitants of Sierra Leona are not so black as those of the neighbouring countries, neither have they such flat noses or thick lips. The men are generally tall and well made, of a cheerful disposition, and not given to quarrelling; but the women are rather short and robust. Both sexes anoint their bodies and limbs with palm oil, and some use civet in

order to give them an agreeable scent. They are remarkably temperate, and though they are fond of brandy, yet they never drink it to excess.

MUNDINGO.

THE kingdom of Mundingo is much larger than any other situated on the banks of the Gambia, and the inhabitants of it are very numerous. It was conquered by the Portuguese in the beginning of the fourteenth century, when some people of that nation settled in it. As their descendants have ever since intermixed with the natives, there is little difference between them either as to their colour or shape, both being alike black, and rather thick and clumsy; but as they still retain a corruption of the Portuguese language, and as they christen and marry by the help of a priest sent annually from St. Jago, one of the Cape de Verd islands, they consider themselves as different from the Mundingoes, as if they were really natives of Portugal. Indeed the real natives of Mundingo are extremely black, and have very disagreeable features, their lips are thick, and their noses broad and flat. In their dispositions they are rational and humane, and are very civil to strangers; they are generally brisk and lively, but if offended, are impetuous and revengeful; nor can any quarrel be otherwise adjusted, than by the destruction of one or other of the parties. They are remarkably kind to, and careful of, their slaves, whom they treat with respect, and whom they will not suffer to be ill-used. This is a forcible lesson from the wild and savage Africans, to the more polished and enlightened Europeans, who, forgetting that the same Almighty Being that framed the master made the servants also, treat them as if they were a lower order of creatures, and abuse them in the most shocking manner!

With respect to the buildings of the Mundingoes and other negro nations, especially those of the common people, they are very low and mean, of a conical form, and have not any other light than what is admitted by the door, which is usually so low, that they are obliged to stoop to enter their huts: they are formed of a kind of wicker work, plastered over with earth, and covered on the top with the leaves of the palm tree.

PHOLEY.

THE Pholeys or Foulies are dispersed in the different kingdoms and provinces of Negroland; but their principal country extends near 600 miles along the river Gambia. They are rather of a tawny complexion, and greatly resemble the Arabs, whose language they speak, though they have one peculiar to themselves. They are of a middle size, are well shaped, and have good features. The women are short, and remarkably thin. Their principal care is to attend their flocks and to cultivate their lands, which are very fertile, producing plentiful crops of large and small millet, cotton, tobacco, peas, rice, and other pulse. Their goats and sheep are exceedingly fine, and their oxen are so large, that the French buy up their hides at a high price. They are fond of European merchandize, and treat the traders with great civility.

The religion of the Pholeys is the Mohammedan; but in some particulars they are very superstitious. Their king is exceedingly powerful, and is an absolute monarch. All the great men of his kingdom are his vassals; and they pay him, every fourth year, a certain number of oxen and slaves by way of tribute. He keeps a standing force of cavalry, and his infantry are armed with sabres, lances, and bows and arrows.

JALOFFS.

THE country of the Jaloffs extends about 400 miles from the sea coast in the W. to the eastward, and about 300 miles from N. to S. They are blacker, if possible, than the Mungingoes, and are better featured, their noses not being so broad, nor their lips so thick. Both sexes are fond of decorating their hair, wearing rings in their ears, and bracelets on their arms and legs. The men are naturally courageous and addicted to arms; notwithstanding which they are good natured, modest, and hospitable, particularly to strangers. The power of their king is absolute, and the greatest respect is paid to him and his family: for when any comes into the royal presence, he must immediately prostrate himself upon the ground with his face towards the earth.

GUINEA.

THE extensive regions of Guinea are divided into two principal parts, and are distinguished by the appellation of Upper and Lower Guinea. The latter is more properly called Congo. The whole length of Guinea, considered in this extensive point of view, is about 3500 miles, exclusive of the turnings, windings, and bays on the coast.

UPPER GUINEA.

OR GUINEA PROPER, is about 1800 miles long, and 360 broad, being bounded on the E. by the unknown parts of Africa, on the N. by Negroland, and on the S. and W. by Congo and the Atlantic Ocean. Upper Guinea is divided into four parts, viz. 1. The Grain Coast; 2. The Ivory Coast; 3. The Gold Coast; and, 4. The Slave Coast.

THE GRAIN COAST

EXTENDS about 400 miles along the sea coast. It received its name from the Guinea Pepper, called by the Spaniards Malagueta, which grows here in great abundance. It also produces another species of pepper, known in England by the name of Jamaica pepper, because it is very common in that island. The English and Dutch purchase great quantities of these articles; but the chief commerce consists in ivory and slaves. The climate is unhealthy, owing to the periodical rains and winds; but the soil is tolerably good, producing great quantities of vegetables and fruits. They have cows, sheep, hogs, goats, and a few horses. Their wild beasts are, elephants, buffaloes, tigers, apes, and deer.

The natives of the Grain Coast are tall and well-featured; they are tolerably sensible, and are courteous to strangers. Both sexes decorate their bodies with rings, bracelets, and necklaces, made of gold, ivory, or copper. Their common food consists of rice, millet, fish, and fruits; and their general drink is water mixed with a little palm wine, or the milk of

cocoa nuts. Their sovereign is a despotic monarch, who governs with such austerly, as to keep his subjects completely in awe. Their religion is Paganism.

THE IVORY COAST.

SO called on account of the vast quantities of elephants' teeth purchased here by the European merchants, the principal part of which are found on this coast, and in its vicinity. It is called by the natives Quaque, which signifies a tooth. The soil is generally fertile, producing rice, millet, maize, peas, and fruits. The pasturage is excellent, and the inhabitants have a great number of cattle. Indigo and cotton are so common to this country, that they are said to grow almost without cultivation. Some tobacco grows here, and if this plant were carefully looked after, it might turn to great advantage.

The negroes born on the Ivory coast are very fond of trade, but are extremely cautious of going on board any European vessels. When they see a ship on the coast, they examine it, and, if they think they can deal safely, carry their goods on board, such as gold, ivory, slaves, or provisions. They are, however, always mistrustful; and this mistrust is but too well founded, for the Europeans have often trappanned them, and afterwards sold them as slaves.

Though the elephants teeth are no less plentiful here at this time than formerly, yet the blacks have considerably enhanced the price of them, which is owing to the trade having become more general, the coast being now annually visited by ships belonging to the English, French, Dutch, Danes, and Portuguese.

THE GOLD COAST.

THIS coast is full of high mountains. The principal rivers are Sierra Leona, the Sherbro, and the Volta. The chief capes are those of St. Ann, Palmas, and Three Points. The negroes of this country are remarkable for their flat noses, thick lips, and short woolly hair. They are generally crafty, fraudulent, and lazy. Some few are Mohammedans, but the greater part are idolaters, each particular person having his own peculiar god. The inland countries are said to abound with gold

mines; and though the natives are not artists enough to follow a vein, yet they find great quantities of it in several of their mines. They are, however, so well assured of the value of these mines, that they will not permit any European to see those which have been discovered, or to search for others. The Gold Coast contains eleven districts, some of which are called kingdoms, viz. Axim, Anta, Adom, Jaby, Commendo, Feto, Saboe, Fantyn, Acron, Agonna, and Aquamboe. Seven of these districts are governed by their respective kings; the rest are republics. The whole of this coast is very unhealthy, owing to the extreme heat of the days, and the coldness of the nights; to which may be added the damp sulphureous mists which arise every morning from the mountains. Tornados are also frequent here, particularly in April, May, and June.

THE SLAVE COAST.

THIS coast is very extensive, being upwards of 600 miles in length. It contains four kingdoms, viz. Coto, Popo, Whidah, and Ardrah. The two first are small and inconsiderable states; but the two latter are large and deserve notice.

WHIDAH

IS a populous country, and is well furnished with large villages. The fields are always green, and the inhabitants cultivate beans, potatoes, and fruits. The people are greatly civilized, and industry seems to pervade all descriptions of them. Those who are rich employ their wives as well as their slaves in tilling the land, and carry on a considerable trade in the product of their lands and slaves; for some of them are able to deliver 1000 of the latter monthly. They have so great a propensity to gaming, that they will stake all their possessions at play, not even excepting their wives and children. Their religion is idolatry, and they are very superstitious. They have plenty of black cattle and other animals, as well wild as tame. Their fruits are citrons, lemons, oranges, bananas, tamarinds, &c. They have great quantities of palm trees, from which they make excellent wine. The king of Whidah is so powerful, that he has annexed the kingdom of Ardrah to his own dominions. The chief trade

of this country consists in slaves, elephants' teeth, wax, and honey.

A E D R A H.

THIS country, which joins to that of Whidah, is tolerably fertile; but the custom of dealing in slaves is very prevalent here. Its produce, animals, and fruits are the same as those mentioned in its neighbouring kingdom.

BENIN.

BENIN lies along the coast betwixt Guinea Proper and Loango in Lower Guinea, reaching one degree to the south of the equator. Its extent from W. to E. is about 600 miles; but its breadth cannot be well ascertained. The land in general is low, and abounds in wild beasts and game. The soil produces oranges, lemons, cotton-trees, and some pepper. The country is inhabited by several different nations, whose princes are vassals to the king of Benin, who can raise an army of 100,000 men. The city Benin is situated on the river Formosa, and is a large populous place. The streets are long and broad, and markets of cotton, elephants' teeth, and other goods, are continually held in them. The Portuguese carry on a great trade here, but have no settlement. The people in general seem to believe that there is a God, the creator of all things; but at the same time, they are superstitious and idolatrous.

CONGO, OR LOWER GUINEA.

CONGO or Lower Guinea is a very extensive country, S. of the kingdom of Benin, being about 1700 miles long. It may be divided into five principal parts or kingdoms, viz. 1. Loango, 2. Congo Proper, 3. Angola, 4. Benguela, and, 5. Matamoras.

LOANGO.

THE kingdom of Loango is bounded on the N. by Benin, on the E. by Macoco, on the S. by Congo Proper, and on the

W. by the Atlantic Ocean. This country, which is 410 miles long, and 300 broad, contains several provinces or petty states, which are nevertheless subject to, or dependent on, one king, who is himself under the controul of the Portuguese governor. This kingdom abounds in poultry and all sorts of cattle; also in elephants, tigers, civet cats, leopards, and other beasts. Here may be had great quantities of elephants' teeth, and fine furs. The inhabitants are called bramas, and are tall, well shaped, and of a shining black colour. In their dispositions they are civil, and are free and generous to each other; they are very covetous to attain riches, and are much addicted to drinking. Polygamy is allowed here, and the women do all the slavish work, while their husbands, who are lords of their families, take their pleasure.

CONGO PROPER,

WHICH is about 540 miles long, and 420 broad, has Loango on the N. Matamba on the S. Angola on the S. and the Atlantic Ocean on the W. St. Salvador is the capital, and the residence of the king. The climate of this kingdom is not so sultry as might be expected from its equatorial situation; for the breezes, with which it is constantly refreshed, serve to cool the air, and render it more tolerable. There are several mines, particularly iron and copper. The whole country is well watered, and the soil is pretty fertile, producing various kinds of grain, and a great variety of fruits. The people are of a middling stature, and so revengeful, that they generally poison the person whom they suppose to be their enemy. Many of the inhabitants have been converted to Christianity by the Portuguese missionaries; but the prevailing religion is still idolatry.

ANGOLA.

ANGOLA lies betwixt Congo and Benguela, and is about 360 miles long, and 250 in the broadest part. This kingdom is a fertile country, and comprehends several petty principalities and states. On this coast the Portuguese have several forts and settlements, and pretend a dominion over the negro princes in their neighbourhood; but yet the English, Dutch, and other European nations traffic with the negroes, and purchase slaves here, without any restraint. It is said, that the king of

Angola can raise an army of 200,000 foot; but they prove dastardly soldiers; for 200 Portuguese have often routed all his forces. Most of the people are still idolaters, their priests, called gungas, are held in great veneration. The Portuguese have converted some to Christianity. The natural produce of the kingdom of Angola, as well as the persons, manners, customs, religion, government, &c. are similar to those of Congo. The language of Angola and Congo are radically the same; but the dialects of the different provinces vary so essentially in pronunciation, that it is difficult for those born in places remote from each other to converse together.

BENGUELA.

BENGUELA extends from the river Coanza, or Cape Ledo, in latitude 10 degrees S. to Cape Negro, in latitude 16 degrees 30 minutes S. being about 430 miles long and 280 broad. This country is fruitful, and the land low. The most considerable countries along the coast are Libolo, Aio, Sova-Caria, Sova-Calemba, Sunbis, and Quimbondos. The inland countries are little known. At the town of Benguela the Portuguese have built a fort, which now has several neighbouring villages under its jurisdiction. The climate is very unwholesome, and so prejudicial to strangers, that few stay on shore for any considerable length of time. The inland parts of the country are covered with forests, which are inhabited by prodigious numbers of wild beasts, particularly lions, tigers, elephants, rhinoceroses, and wild mules. The inhabitants have the same manners, customs, and religion, as those of Congo and Angola.

MATAMAN.

THE kingdom of Mataman extends from Cape Negro, in latitude 16 degrees 30 min. S. to the mouth of the river Bravagbul, in 24 degrees S. latitude, being about 450 miles long, from north to south, and about 160 miles broad, from west to east. This is a waste and dreary country, with which Europeans have little intercourse or commerce. This coast is very sandy; but the climate is tolerably mild, considering its tropica

situation. Its government is said to be despotic, and the whole is affirmed to be under the guidance of one sovereign.

CAFFRARIA.

THIS country is as finely situated as any in the universe for navigation and commerce, yet is as much, if not more, neglected, than any part of the known world, except where that enterprising people the Dutch have planted colonies and raised plantations. This country, considered in its utmost limits, is about 1120 miles long, and 700 broad. The Cape of Good Hope, the most southern promontory of Caffraria, and of all Africa, was discovered by the Portuguese in 1493. About the year 1600 the Dutch began to touch at the Cape, in their way to and from the East Indies, and in 1650 they effected a settlement at the place, which hath arisen to great power and opulence, and has been of essential service to the United Provinces in general. The country is generally fertile, but wants the advantages of cultivation. Caffraria is divided into four parts, viz. 1. The inland countries; 2. The Country of the Hottentots; 3. Terra de Natal; and, 4. Terra dos Fumos. The inland countries are so little known to Europeans, that we cannot pretend to give any description of them.

THE COUNTRY OF THE HOTTENTOTS.

IS very large, and is divided into twenty States or provinces, which are all said to be independent of each other: their names are Heykam, Chamtour, Houteniqua, Gaarique, Damaqua, Dunqua, Sonqua, Hessequa, Koopman, Chainaqua, Cahona, Hancumqua, Heniaqua, Attaqua, Chirigriqua, Namaqua, Odiqua, Saffiqua, Cochaqua, and Gorenghaicon. The people of some of these nations follow agriculture, and the breeding of cattle, while others of them are indolent, and, according to some writers, would rather starve than take the least pains to cultivate or improve their land. The year is here divided into two seasons, viz. winter and summer, or the wet and dry.

monsoons. The wet monsoon sets in about March, and the dry one in September, so that their summer commences about the time that it concludes with us. The rivers, which have their sources in the mountains, and glide over a gravelly bottom, are clear, pleasant, and salubrious; but most other streams are dark, muddy, and unwholesome. In the vicinity of the Cape of Good Hope is an excellent clay, which is very useful for the purposes of making bricks and earthen ware. White and red chalks are here found in abundance. All kinds of European grain, oats excepted, thrive well here; but many of the vegetables in the cultivated parts suffer greatly from caterpillars, mildews, and the incursions of wild beasts. Besides the trees which might originally have grown here, the Dutch have introduced many exotics from Europe and India; so that the Cape now produces oak, fir, camphir, pine, cypress, orange, lemon, citron, and other trees. The vines of Germany and Persia, have likewise been introduced, so that the most inconsiderable husbandman is not without a vineyard. This must, however, be understood as relating only to the European settlements, the Hottentots themselves generally detesting the idea of cultivation. The Dutch possessions at the Cape may be considered under four different heads, viz. Cape Colony, Stellenbosch Colony, Drakenstein Colony, and Waveren Colony. Cape Colony extends from the Cape itself to Falso Bay. Stellenbosch Colony was originally a wild country, overrun with shrubs, brambles, and brush wood. It was settled by Simon Van Stel, governor at the Cape, when it received the name of Stellenbosch, i. e. Stel's Bush, colony. Drakenstein Colony was settled in 1675, principally with French refugees, under the direction of governor Simon Van Stel, who gave it its present name in compliment to his patron baron Van Rheeden, lord of Drakenstein in Guelderland. Waveren Colony, which was settled in 1701, by governor William Van Stel, is named after the Waveren family, to which the governor claimed relationship. It is the most easterly colony from the Cape.

TERRA DE NATAL.

THIS country, which was purchased by the Dutch from the natives, is inhabited principally by Caffres, who differ in

some respects from the Hottentots. These encourage industry; they sow corn, brew a kind of beer, and build square houses with a sort of plaister. They trade with the Arabians and rovers of the Red Sea, for silk, elephants teeth, coffee, &c. which they barter with the Europeans for cordage, anchors, tar, and other maritime stores; and again exchange with the former for various articles. Elephants are so plentiful here, that they feed together in prodigious herds; here are also lions, tigers, buffaloes, black cattle, deer, hogs, and other quadrupeds; there are likewise fowls of various kinds.

TERRA DOS FUMOS,

IS but a trifling country, so far as it is at present known to Europeans, who have not yet made any settlement here. The Caffres, who inhabit it, live in a simple state of nature, without towns, villages, or settled habitations, and frequently without even moveable huts.

MONOMOTAPA.

MONOMOTAPA is a large empire, about 960 miles long, and 660 broad, having Monoemugi on the N. It is divided into six provinces, the governors of which are subject to the emperor. The names of these provinces are, Monomotapa Proper, Quiteve, Manaca, Inhambana, Inhambior, and Sabia. The soil is fertile in millet, rice, fruit, and sugar canes. The country abounds in ostriches, elephants, gold-dust, and gold mines. The emperor is very powerful, having several tributary princes under him. The Portuguese have some traffic with the natives of this country, and are even said to have converted the emperor and several of his great men to Christianity. In acknowledgment for their services, the emperor is said to have assigned them a large tract of ground, whereon they have built a fort. Its principal town is Monomotapa, where the emperor resides.

MONOEMUGI

IS a very large kingdom, being about 900 miles long, and 600 broad, having Zanguebar on the E. and Monomotapa on the S. The Portuguese are the only Europeans who have any trade with the natives; but as they never penetrated far into their country, this kingdom is very little known to Europeans. It is, however, said to abound in gold, silver, copper mines, and elephants. Portuguese merchants relate, that in this kingdom is a very large lake, full of little islands, abounding with all sorts of wild fowl and cattle, and inhabited by negroes. The air is exceedingly hot and unwholesome. The people are Pagans. The large lake abovementioned is called Maravi, at the southern extremity of which is a district with a town of the same name.

ZANGUEBAR.

ZANGUEBAR is situated along the E. coast of Africa, being about 1400 miles long, and 350 broad. It has Ajan or Anian on the N. the Indian Ocean on the E. the tropic of Capricorn on the S. and the inland parts of Africa on the W. It contains the kingdoms of Melinda, Mombaze, Terra de Raphael, Quilfa, Molambique, and Sofala. Zanguebar is well watered by rivers, which render the soil exceedingly fruitful. Rice and maize are their principal grain, and the country is well planted with cocoas, plantains, sugar canes, oranges, lemons, and other tropical fruits. From this country also the Portuguese are furnished with gold, slaves, and ivory, brought from the inland parts of Africa. Hence also they import ostrich feathers, senna, aloes, civet, ambergris, and frankincense. The country is very populous, but the inhabitants consist chiefly of negroes. The city of Melinda alone is said to contain 200,000 people. The Portuguese are sovereign of all the coast, and have a great number of black princes sub-

jest to them. The Portuguese language is spoken almost all along the coast of Africa; besides which the people of Zanguebar have a language of their own.

ANIAN OR AJAN.

ANIAN is a very large country, being about 900 miles long, and 300 broad. It is bounded on the N. by the Red Sea and the Streights of Babelmandel, on the E. by the Indian Ocean, on the S. by Zanguebar, and on the W. by Inland Ethiopia and the nation of the Gallas. It is divided into the following

Kingdoms.

Brava,
Magadoxa,
Adca,

Adel,

Chief Towns.

Brava.
Magadoxa, Bandel.
Adca.

{ Adel, Zela, Doara, Bar-
bara, and Cape Guar-
dafui.

This coast abounds with all the necessaries of life, and produces plenty of very good horses. The kingdom, or, as some call it, the republic of Brava, is said to be under subjection to the Portuguese, and to pay them a yearly tribute. Most of the inhabitants on the coast are fair, with long black hair; but in the inland parts are negroes, who, intermarrying with the Bedouin Arabs, have children that are mulattoes. The commodities exported from this country are gold, wax, ambergris, and horses. The religion in general is the Moham-
medan.

UPPER ETHIOPIA,

COMPREHENDING

ABYSSINIA, NUBIA, AND ABEX.

THESE three countries were anciently called Upper Ethiopia, or Ethiopia Superior, they are situated between 6 and 25

degrees of N. latitude, and between 20 and 42 degrees of E. longitude; the whole being about 1320 miles long, and 1100 broad, having Egypt and the Desert of Barca on the N. the Red Sea on the E. Inland Ethiopia on the S. and the unknown parts of Africa on the W.

These three countries seem originally to have been known by one and the same name; and as the word *Æthiopia* signifies the Country of Blacks, they were sometimes called *Ethiopia Africana*, in opposition to *Ethiopia Asiatica*, or the Country of Blacks in Asia. They and the great Inland Ethiopia made one country, and were known by one name, viz. *Ethiopia Superior*, or *Upper Ethiopia*; and were so called in opposition to *Negroland* and *Guinea*, which antiently obtained the name of *Ethiopia Inferior*, or the *Lower Ethiopia*. They were likewise sometimes called *India*, being a name which the ancients gave promiscuously to all countries under the *Torrid Zone*; but, at length, upon their falling under different sovereigns, they came to be distinguished by the names they are now known by. The history of these countries, and indeed of all Africa, from the *Tropic of Cancer* to the *Cape of Good Hope*, is little known, and seems never to have been much attended to, few travellers having ever penetrated into those barbarous parts. We learn from the ancients, who sailed a considerable way round the coasts, that the inhabitants lived in the same rude state, about 2000 years ago, in which we suppose them to be at present, and that they are totally unacquainted with the arts and learning of Europe.

ABYSSINIA.

ABYSSINIA is a large and populous empire; and the present inhabitants are said not to have been the original natives of the country, but to have come antiently from Arabia Felix. They have a tradition, that their prince or emperor is descended from Solomon by Makeda the Queen of Sheba. The country abounds in lofty mountains, betwixt which lie extensive valleys. They have periodical rains in May which begin when the sun is vertical, are attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and descend in torrents from the mountains. There are here several considerable rivers; such as,

The Nile, Tacazee, the Mareb, the Maleg, the Howash, the Zebee, the White river. The only great lake is called Dambea.

The soil is fertile, and yields two or three crops in a year of good wheat, barley, millet, and *tef*. Here also are dates, figs, grapes, flax, cotton, sugar, salt, and sulphur. Their animals are large, of which they have great variety; such as oxen, horses, mules, lions, tigers, leopards, panthers, wolves, foxes, monkeys, wild cats, civet-cats, hares, rabbits, squirrels, &c. Gold dust, and even grains of gold, are washed down from the mountains, and gold-mines might be found here if the people knew how to dig for them. The Turks have engrossed the whole trade of this country; and they keep such a strict guard upon the coasts of the Red Sea, that it is difficult for any other people to have access to them.

This large country contains a great number of independent kingdoms, but no cities, the people all living in tents or villages: all the princes of the several kingdoms are absolute slaves to the emperor, who is despotic, and styled *negascha*, that is, king of kings; any prince being called *negus*, or king. The Abyssinian arms are a lion holding up a cross, with this motto, "The lion of the tribe of Judah hath obtained the victory." It is said, that the emperor can raise an army of 1,000,000 of men. In the dry season he lives in tents, and is attended with a numerous retinue. The tents are very magnificent, and form a spacious camp, that looks like a vast city.

The religion of the Abyssinians is a mixture of Christianity, Judaism, Mohammedanism, and Paganism; but Christianity is the most predominant, which they pretend was introduced by the eunuch of queen Candace, and afterwards more fully propagated by Frumentius, sent thither by Athanasius, patriarch of Alexandria. They do not admit of any order superior to that of a presbyter. Judaism, they say, was brought in by queen Makeda, who received it from king Solomon. This queen is in Scripture called queen of Sheba, which, it seems, was one of the ancient names of this country. Mohammedanism was introduced by the Arabs. The Paganism which prevails here is to be considered as the remains of ancient idolatry and superstition.

The Abyssinians are blacks, but well shaped, having regular features, and brisk lively eyes. They are naturally ingenious,

witty, inquisitive, and desirous to learn. The letters of their alphabet seem to be a mixture of the Hebrew, Syriac, and Arabic; and the same thing may be said of their language.

NUBIA.

NUBIA has a capital of the same name, is a large kingdom, but little known. The people here too live in tents and villages. The produce of this country is much the same as that of Abyssinia; and their religion also is a mixture of Christianity, Judaism, Mohammedanism, and Idolatry. The king or sovereign is said to maintain a strict amity and alliance with the emperor of Abyssinia.

ABEX OR HABASH.

THIS country has the Red Sea on the E. Nubia on the N. Nubia and Abyssinia on the W. and Abyssinia on the S. It is about 500 miles long, and 100 broad. This country is governed by a Turkish viceroy, it having been subjected to that empire about a century ago, when it was wrested from the Abyssinian empire. It is very mountainous, and has more wild beasts than men for inhabitants. The heat is intolerable, and the air very unhealthy. The forests abound with ebony trees. The religion of the court and the common people is that of Mohammed. Notwithstanding this country is tributary to the Turks, yet the people are in strict alliance and friendship with the emperor of Abyssinia. The most remarkable produce of the country is salt, of which commodity the inhabitants export great quantities.

EGYPT.

THIS very ancient country, called Mizraim in Scripture, is situated between 20 and 32 degrees of N. latitude, and between 30 and 36 degrees of E. longitude, being about 600 miles long, and 250 broad. It is bounded on the N. by the

Mediterranean Sea, on the E. by the Red Sea, on the S. by Abyssinia, and on the W. by the Desert of Barca and the unknown parts of Africa. Egypt is divided into Upper and Lower : in Lower Egypt the chief towns are, Grand Cairo, Alexandria, Rosetta, Damietta, and Bulac, which is situated about a mile from Cairo, and is the port town to it. In Upper Egypt the chief towns are, Said or Thebais, and Cossir.

The only river of Egypt is the Nile, which rises from two sources at the foot of a mountain in the province of Goyam, in Abyssinia. These springs, says Father Lobo, are about 30 paces from each other, each appearing like an ordinary well. The labours also of Mr. Bruce declare, that it has its rise from two sources in Abyssinia. It is increased by numberless rivulets which run into it from almost every part of the kingdom : these greatly contribute to the enlarging of its stream, till it becomes a very considerable river. After innumerable turnings and windings it flows into Egypt, and thence into the Mediterranean. The cataracts of the Nile have been extravagantly magnified both by ancient and modern writers, who have asserted, that at them the water falls from a prodigious height, with such a dreadful noise, that people have been deafened by it. Dr. Shaw, on the contrary, assures us they are only ordinary falls of water, which we frequently meet with in great rivers where the stream is a little confined ; and that they are navigable, so that a boat may pass them safely. The doctor, however, does not inform us, whether he saw them at the height of the flood, or when the river was low. This circumstance must certainly occasion a great difference. The ancients themselves indeed acknowledge that boats did sometimes pass them, which makes it very probable they do not fall from such stupendous heights as some authors pretend. What confirms this opinion is, that the ancients brought all their vast pillars and obelisks from the marble rocks in the Upper Egypt upon floats down the Nile. As there seldom falls any rain in Egypt, this river which waters the whole country by its regular overflowings, supplies that defect, by bringing thither, as a yearly tribute, the rains of Abyssinia. The rains begin to fall in April, in Abyssinia, and about the latter end of May the Nile begins to rise in Egypt : it continues to rise till about the middle of September, when

the water is conveyed into the numberless canals which were cut by the Egyptians in almost all parts of their country.

The air of Egypt is unwholesome during some months, particularly in April and May, when the hot winds blow: at this time the sand is driven about in such quantities, that it is dangerous to venture out. During this period also they are more subject to diseases than in any part of the year. As soon, however, as the Nile begins to rise and overflow its banks, all distempers, and even the plague, which visits them once in six or seven years, cease to rage. It seldom rains in Upper Egypt, or any part of the inland country. In Lower Egypt they have sometimes showers, but not often; so that they depend entirely on the water of the Nile for nourishing the fruits of the earth. The soil of Egypt, as far as the flood extends, has been formed by the mud which the Nile brings with it; and, in the opinion of Dr. Shaw, the land of the Lower Egypt, on this account, is much higher than it was originally, as something is added to it every year. But, at the same time it must be considered, that these torrents sometimes carry away as much or even more earth than they bring; so that possibly the ground may not be much higher than what it was at first. All writers, however, agree, that the flood renders the land exceedingly fruitful. As soon as the waters retire, the husbandman has little more to do than to harrow his corn and other seeds into the mud, and sometimes to temper the mud with sand, to prevent the corn being too rank. In a month or two after this short process, the fields are covered with every species of grain, peas, beans, and other pulse. The land also which is not sown, becomes rich pasture. In October and November the wheat and barley are put into the ground; and the rice, flax, and hemp, about the same time. The rice, as it grows in water, is chiefly sown in the Lower Egypt. Their cattle are turned out to graze in November, and continue at grass till the flood returns. Their harvest is usually in March or April.

The Lower Egypt is entirely a sea at the height of the flood, and only the tops of the forest and fruit-trees appear, intermixed with towns and villages built upon natural or artificial hills. In the dry seasons are seen beautiful gardens, corn-fields, and meadows, well stocked with flocks and herds, which a little before

were under water. They then enjoy a serene heaven and pure air, perfumed with the blossoms of oranges, lemons, and other fruits. When the pulse, melons, sugar-canes, and other plants, want water, they convey it from their cisterns and reservoirs by little channels into their fields and gardens; where, besides the fruits already mentioned, they have dates, plantains, grapes, figs, and palm trees, from which they draw wine.

The Turkey company have a consul at Cairo, for the protection of their traffic, which, besides the product of their country, consists chiefly in the coffee, frankincense, gum, drugs, and other merchandize, which are brought from Arabia and the Eastern countries, which they export to Europe. They also export great quantities of Cassia, senna, sal ammoniac, saffron, sugar, wax, leather, callicones, cotton, thread, flax, and other articles. Several of the Christian states, besides England, have consuls at Cairo, who superintend the interests of their respective nations.

Since the Ottoman emperors have had the dominion of this kingdom, they have always governed it by a viceroy, who is styled the Bassa of grand Cairo; but, as Egypt is parcelled into several districts, by the Sheiks, or heads of the Arab tribes, who act as sovereigns in their respective territories, the Bassa transacts nothing without their concurrence. The Turkish government dare not overload this people with taxes, for fear of a general revolt; that the whole revenues raised by the government do not amount to 1,000,000*l.* sterling; and two-thirds of this are spent within the kingdom, for not above one-third is carried into the Grand Signior's treasury.

This country is inhabited by several different sorts of people, so that their stature, complexion, and habits, are of course different. The Turks and Arabs, are neither alike in their stature, complexion, habits, nor way of life. The Turks are tall, fair, personable men, and clothed as they are in Turkey. The Arabs who reside in Egypt live in tents which are scattered all over the country, and pitched in a circular form. They compose a kind of village, which they call a Daer. They lie upon mats, and the blankets they wrap about them in the day-time, serve for a covering in the night. Both Turks and Arabs rise very early, as they constantly attend the

public devotion at break of day, as they do again at noon, at sunset, and at the setting of the watch, when it begins to be dark. The Egyptian women, who are not exposed to the sun, have fine complexions as well as features.

The pyramids, catacombs, labyrinths, and all the large works and ruins in the Upper Egypt, were made before the invasion of Cambyles; but by whom, and on what account, is not known. So little, indeed, is told of the ancient history of Egypt, that not even the names of the founders of these immense works are recorded.

As to the religion of the Mohammedans of Egypt, it differs but little from that of the Turks. It is observed, however, that the Moors and Arabians, who at present make up the bulk of the people, are here much more superstitious and zealous in points of religion, than the Mohammedans in Turkey. The former have their Santos, or Puritans, among them, for whom they express an extraordinary veneration, while the Turks despise them as hypocrites.

The Egyptians are a very ancient nation. They reckon above sixty princes of the line of the Pharoahs, who reigned as it is said, in an uninterrupted succession, to the year of the world 3484, when Pharaoh Psammenus, the second monarch of that name, was conquered by Cambyles II. king of Persia, who united Egypt to that empire, under which it remained till the reign of Darius, which was a period of above one hundred years. It then revolted from that crown, and became an independent kingdom again; in which state it continued about fifty years, when Ochus, king of Persia, recovered the dominion of it. Egypt remained subject to the Persian monarchs till Alexander the Great defeated Darius III. when it fell under the power of that prince, with the rest of the provinces of the Persian empire.

After the death of Alexander, his generals divided the empire. Ptolemy, the son of Lagus, or, as others insinuate, the son of Philip of Macedon, and consequently half brother of Alexander, chose for his share the kingdom of Egypt, and once more rendered it an independent state. His successors, the kings of Egypt, retained the name of Ptolemy; and it continued in this line between two and three hundred years. The last sovereign was the famous Cleopatra, wife and

Sister to Ptolemy Dionysius the last king, and successively mistress to Julius Cæsar and Mark Antony.

Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy, collected the Alexandrian library, which was said to consist of seven hundred thousand volumes. This prince also caused the scriptures to be translated into Greek; but whether by seventy-two interpreters, and in the manner as is commonly related, is justly questioned. The Ptolemies sometimes extended their dominions over great part of Syria. After the death of Cleopatra, this kingdom became tributary to the Romans.

In the reign of Heraclius the emperor of Constantinople, the people being disgusted with the governors, called in Omar the third caliph of the Saracens, and submitted themselves to the Mohammedan power. This relation happened about the year 640 of the Christian æra.

The caliphs of Babylon were sovereigns of Egypt till 870, when the Egyptians set up a caliph of their own, called the caliph of Cairo, to whom the Saracens of Africa and Egypt were subject.

About the year 1160, Assaredin, or Saladin, son of Noradin the Saracen sultan of Damascus, subdued the kingdom of Egypt; and, about the year 1190, took Jerusalem from the Christians. It was this prince who established a body of troops in Egypt like the Janizaries at Constantinople, composed of the sons of Christians taken in war, or purchased of the Tartars, to whom he gave the name of Mamalukes, which, it is said, signifies Slaves.

The posterity of Assaredin enjoyed the crown till the year 1242, when the Mamalukes deposed Elmutan, their sovereign, and placed one of their own officers upon the throne. These Mamaluke sultans were engaged in continual wars with the Christians in Syria and Palestine; and Arapheus, the sixth sultan, entirely defeated the Christians of the Holy Land. The ninth sultan, Melechnassar, subdued the island of Cyprus, and made it tributary to Egypt.

Tonombeius, the last sultan of the Mamalukes, was deposed and put to death by Selim emperor of the Turks, and, according to some accounts, was hanged at one of the gates of Grand Cairo. Gazelle, one of the grandees of the Mamalukes, maintained a war for some time against Selimus, but

was at length defeated, and Egypt made a province of the Ottoman empire in the year 1517, under the government of which it still remains.

The Mamaluke sultans were always chosen by a majority of Mamalukes, out of their own body, who were so jealous of the kingdom's being made hereditary, that they scarcely ever elected the son of the preceding sultan. If indeed the choice ever happened to fall upon such a person, they were so apprehensive of its being made an ill precedent, that they never rested till they had deposed him.

In 1785 the fire of war was kindled between the Ottoman porte and the beys of Egypt. The following was the occasion of it : Ivo Salovich, the commander of a Venetian ship, had taken on board some goods at Alexandria, on account of some Aleppine merchants, but did not deliver them. The Aleppiners, in revenge, caused the Venetian consul to be arrested, and carried before Amurath Bey, who then commanded in Cairo, where he gave an obligation, in the name of the republic of Venice, for a sum greatly surpassing the value of the goods which had been unjustly detained. Soon after this transaction, the monks at Alexandria built a much larger church for themselves, than they had permission to do. Hereupon the bey demanded 50,000 patafches of the Christians collectively ; on their refusal to pay the exorbitant demand, the officer began to demolish the church. The Franks, of Cairo, however, appeased the bey by a present of 5000 patafches. Upon the receipt of the money, the bey rebuilt the walls of the church, and endeavoured to appease the offended Christians ; but they were so much incensed, that they would not listen to his apologies, and laid their complaints before the porte at Constantinople. The divan, it should be observed, were glad of an opportunity of shewing their disapprobation of the conduct of the beys, and therefore they lent a willing ear to the complaints of the people, and ordered the beys to pay the sum of 10,000,000 of patafches, which they were well able to do ; but they treated this order with contempt, and laughed at the sultan. Hereupon orders were sent to the kapudan pasha to commence a war against them. The beys now endeavoured to effect a reconciliation, but the kapudan pasha would not admit the persons sent by them to an audience, whereupon the beys resolved to resist.

The kapudan pasha obtained some slight advantages over the beys ; but nothing decisive, till, on the 8th of August, when he seized 18 barks belonging to the beys, laden with provisions and warlike stores. He now thought proper to pursue the beys, as the people seemed to be dissatisfied with their tyranny. He seized all the valuables which the beys had left behind in their houses. He was much employed in examinations relative to the Christians, whose complaints he determined to hear, and whose grievances he resolved to redress, at least to make a shew of doing so, and a shew only it was ; for, after having seemingly satisfied them, he charged it upon them as a grievous crime, that they rode upon great asses, and not upon little ones ; that they did not wear coarse cloths and stuffs, but dressed themselves in a finer sort ; that, when they met a Turk in the street, they did not pass by him on the left hand : that their wives, and even the men, did not wear yellow, but black shoes ; that the ladies covered their faces with taffety, &c. On all these points very severe firmans were published. They passed through the hands of a certain Siek-pedat, who carried on a regular trade in them with the merchants and traders, and indeed in a very artful manner ; by delivering out a firman in the morning, and revoking it in the evening at the price of several thousand patafches. He sold by auction all the female slaves he had found in the harems of the beys, and practised a thousand other tricks of the like kind. It is easy to imagine what sort of an impression these proceedings must have made upon the people. They saw that the kapudan pasha, instead of pursuing the enemies, was only intent upon plundering the public, and studying to oppress them by every method he could devise ; and found that they were infinitely worse situated under their pretended deliverer, than while they were subject to the beys ; so that in one moment there arose a general revolution in the sentiments of the inhabitants of Cairo. They lamented the fate of the beys, and wished to see them returned ; and the farewell they gave them in their hearts, roused them against the kapudan pasha. They cursed both him and those who had sent him. Weary of his extortions, they longed for the hour of his departure and the return of the beys, that they might drive out the commander appointed by him, who treated them

with incomparably more cruelty than the former; as all this in fact did happen afterwards.

On the 11th of August, the Franks waited on the kapudan pasha, and were tolerably well received. The Franks and the Venetian mercantile house Pini, offered him two handsome presents. The 12th, the kapudan pasha demanded of the French 50,000 pataches, and of Pini 6000, as a loan, for which he would give them security; this, however, they refused to accept. In fact, he reimbursed them the whole sum within twenty days. The 25th, the troops of the kapudan pasha disbanded themselves of their own accord, whereupon he hastened to them, sabre in hand, to force them to return, and narrowly escaped being cut to pieces, as matters had already proceeded to extremes. However, he appeased them by allowing them to march back again to Cairo after three days. He then set himself in motion, with 11,200 men, as did several other pashas with a large force. On the 8th, of October they arrived close by the camp of the beys; and on the 9th, they came to an attack, when it was given out that the beys were beaten, but exactly the reverse was the fact. On the 19th, the troops which the kapudan pasha had sent as a reinforcement, came into camp; but the beys, six hours before, had fled into Upper Egypt. Previous to their retreat, they had looted whatever they could not immediately use, for the sake of lightening their baggage, and had rendered the three great canons, of which their artillery consisted, unserviceable, by spiking them up, and ramming large balls into their mouths. They pitched their camp in a situation that was advantageous to them in several ways; not only, as they were accustomed to the climate, but as they here could always supply themselves with whatever they wanted, knew the wells of potable water, which may easily be mistaken on account of its bad taste, and knew how to render innocuous such as were unwholesome, by infusing a decoction of certain plants. The people of the kapudan pasha, on the contrary, ignorant in all these matters, not inured to the air, as even the hottest days are always succeeded by cold nights, obscured by clouds of insects and thick fogs, without any supply of necessaries, obliged to take their drink from the bogs, or from wells that, though from appearance the waters were good, yet in five or six days after drinking it, caused fevers and leprosy, found

themselves in a very bad condition. The kapudan pasha was sensible of this; wherefore, finding it impossible to gain a victory over the beys, and knowing that many things were laid to his charge, for which he must be answerable to the divan, he resolved to return to Constantinople; when one of the beys, for the sake of gaining his friendship, sent him two others, who were devoted to the sultan, but basified by the beys, and were now come back to conspire their destruction, and resume their forlorn posts. They not only gave the kapudan pasha information on many particulars, but promised him support. On the 20th, he dispatched two barks, with six beys newly appointed by him, and 600 men; who joined the army that was stationed in Upper Egypt. The 25th, this army marched, to make an attack upon the hostile beys; but they having received intelligence of their design, broke up their camp to give him the rencontre. The 27th, before day-light, they were exactly facing each other in the midst of a thick fog. As soon as the troops of the kapudan pasha were apprised of the nearness of the beys, they fired on the troops; but without regularity. The beys had no artillery, but a vanguard of 1600 armed horse, each of whom was provided with two large fire-arms and four pistols. These rode up to the troops of the kapudan pasha, and gave them no time to recharge their muskets. Immediately the Osmali took flight, and after them the pashas, and at last the beys, on which they were pursued by the enemy. When they had reached their forts, the kiaia ordered the artillery to play upon the beys; and thus prevented their total defeat. In this action, the beys lost no more than ten horses, which were killed by the first firing of the great guns; whereas, of the 12,000 horses the kapudan pasha had before the onset, there remained not more than 1,000. The 5th of November the remains of the routed army returned by shipping to Cairo. From whom it was learned, that, in the flight, the kapudan pasha's forces pressed the beys with so much haste into the barks, horses and all, that they overloaded them, insomuch that they sunk, and all were drowned; that the beys had made slaves of many of the gassali, but afterwards set them free; that these however were killed by the Arabs who met them in the desert, so that scarcely twenty men came back; that they (the beys) had caused all the galeangis to be beheaded, while they lay in

shall had violated their women, and sold them to the highest bidders, &c.

These accounts threw the kapudan pasha into great confusion, and the Franks into dismay. The Arabs, however, were desirous to see the beys return. Had the latter known how to improve their victory; had they only continued the pursuit to Cairo, they would have remained masters of the place, and have compelled the kapudan pasha to sue for peace; but fortune would have it otherwise. The kapudan pasha, seeing that the beys had retreated, made a new levy of recruits, which amounted to about 12,000 men. The 6th of November the beys seized on all the provisions in the villages between their camp and Cairo. The 14th, the kapudan pasha sent a deputy to the beys, who was honourably received. Amurath bey presented him with 1000 Venetian sequins; Ibrahim bey with a pelice valued at 5000 piasters, and a horse completely caparisoned worth 4000 piasters, and others with very ample provision for his journey back. The kapudan pasha advised the beys, no longer to resist the will of the sultan; and said, that if they would return to Cairo, he would assure them of his protection, and promised them pardon and advancement. On the 19th, the beys sent him for answer, that they had never fallen off from their obedience to the sultan; that they were ready to give him an account of whatever he required; that, if he would procure them the favour of being permitted to remain in a part of Egypt, they would grant him all he demanded; and assured him, in writing, that, in conformity with their laws, they would not be unmindful of their promises; but the kapudan pasha seemed unwilling, notwithstanding his word, to seek either their pardon, or endeavour to procure their advancement. The sad two of the hostile beys were seen reconnoitring from Ghiza to Ambala. The 5th of December the adverse beys marched towards Ghiza, and drew up in order of battle. On receiving intelligence of this, the kapudan pasha strengthened the fort, with 3 beys; but, on the approach of Lascin bey, with 100 mamalukes, and the kiazif with 1000 Arabs, the troops of the kapudan pasha began, through fear, to discharge their artilery, before the enemy were within reach of the shot, and continued so doing for more than two hours. The enemy, accordingly,

made a halt, still beyond the reach of their cannon: and, on seeing them thus waste their strength and ammunition without effect, they dismounted from their horses, and let them graze at large. The hostile beys, towards noon, advanced in easy steps, with their tobacco-pipes in their mouths, close up to the rampart. Amurath bey, who led the van of the beys, made himself master of the caravan from Aleppo, full of gold-dust and precious commodities, and was attended by six ships laden with corn, together with black slaves of both sexes. On the 30th, the kapudan pasha marched against the beys with an army of 18,000 men. To these were added, a great number of vassals, who all acted as soldiers, and about 12,000 horses and other beasts of burden. They altogether amounted to 30,000 heads, who, from the sterility and other defects of the country, were very badly provided.

The 2nd of January, 1786, came three beys, with 31 of their relations and allies, whom the enemy had turned out of their camps as invalids, to the kapudan pasha, to implore his pardon. The 15th of February, the van guard of the beys, consisting of 4000 men, encamped early in a valley. On the other side of the valley the beys posted themselves on a spacious plain. On this side of the valley, at the distance of about 11 miles from it, was the army of the kapudan pasha. The 16th, the van guard of the beys put themselves in motion to attack the camp of the kapudan pasha. The engagement at length began, and ended much to the disadvantage of the latter; whose troops being struck with a panic, took to flight. The beys pursued them to their ramparts, and made a dreadful slaughter among them. The beys had only 58 killed and 12 wounded, since they were all completely armed, as I said above. The kapudan pasha had 6000 killed, and more than 1000 wounded. The 4th of March, the 38 heads of those that were slain in the army of the beys, were brought to Cairo. The 1st of May, news were brought that Amurath bey was on his march to Cairo, with 20,000 Arabs. The astonishment this intelligence caused the kapudan pasha may be imagined, as he had but a short time ago written to Constantinople, that he had entirely defeated the chiefs, and that he would send their heads thither the next day; that he designed to make a dreadful havoc at Cairo, and to execute all their adherents, and that Allan bey, with the remains of his

army, had submitted to Amurath bey. On the 20th, Amurath bey encamped at Siuf, having brought together all the corn, rice, and beans, he could find in the neighbouring villages. At length, finding himself unable to conquer the beys, the kapudan pasha dispatched two dignitaries of the religion, attended by an officer and two of the learned in the law of Mohammed, to conclude an accommodation with them, who, on May 20, departed on their way to the beys. The beys seemed willing to come to an agreement; but the kapudan pasha was yet unsatisfied. Therefore, on the 1st of July, he ordered it to be signified to the beys, that he required, in their place, certain hostages; but on the 15th the deputies returned, with the positive answer, that they would not send any other hostages than those which had been already sent; and that they begged him to put an end to the commotion as soon as possible, and to send them a firman with the imperial seal, and another with his own; with which they would be contented. The 20th the kapudan pasha sent them the firmans as desired; with two pellices of marten skins of great value. These firmans imported, that the sultan would place them in two provinces in Upper Egypt, where they might take up their abode in peace; under the condition, that they should pay the tribute to the sultan which was usual from those provinces. The beys then sent him another hostage, with twenty horses and six camels as a present. On the 5th of October the kapudan pasha fixed his departure for Constantinople, and, in a treacherous manner, declared he would take the hostages with him. On the 8th the kapudan pasha began his march, with the reputation, that he had made himself master of Cairo. Thus much, however, is true, that he left Cairo with a sum of ten millions of parasches, after having sacrificed above 30,000 men, and laid all Egypt waste. Cairo he left in the hands of two rapacious tyrants, who immediately began to extort large sums of money from the merchants in a collective capacity, that they might complete their plunderings as speedy as possible; knowing that the fugitive beys would not omit to come, and quickly put a stop to their proceedings; as it really happened. Thus ended the war between the Ottoman porte, and the Egyptian beys.

AFRICAN ISLANDS

SITUATED IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

<i>Islands.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Madeira,.....	Santa Cruz, and Funchal.
Canaries,.....	Palma, St. Christopher.
Cape de Verd,.....	St. Domingo.
Goree,.....	Fort St. Michael.
Bissagos,.....	No Towns.
St. Helena,.....	St. Helena.
St. Matthew, }	{ Two small uninhabited islands.
Ascension, }	
Anaboa,.....	Anaboa.
St. Thomas,.....	St. Thomas.
Prince's Isle.	

IN THE INDIAN OCEAN.

Mauritius,.....	Mauritius.
Madagascar,.....	St. Austlin.
Bourbon,.....	Bourbon.
Socotora,.....	Calanfia.
Babel-Mandel,.....	Babel-Mandel.

For a description of the above islands see the Compendious Geographical Dictionary.

EUROPE.

THOUGH Europe is by far the smallest of the four general divisions of the globe, yet it is superior in many respects to the other portions or quarters. Whence it received its name is uncertain: it was known to the ancient Romans, as it is to the modern Italians and Spaniards by the name of Europa. The French and English call it Europe. The Turks distinguish it by the names of Rumeli and Alfrank. The Georgians give it the appellation of Francoba; and all the other Asiatics call it Frankistan, i. e. the country of the Franks. Europe is bounded on the N. by the Frozen Ocean, on the S. by the Mediterranean Sea, on the W. by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the E. by Asia. It lies between 35 and 72 degrees of N. latitude, and between 9. 37 W. and 72. 25 E. longitude. From Cape St. Vincent to the mouth of the river Obi, it is near 3,600 miles long; and from Cape Matapan in the Morea, to the North Cape in Lapland, it is about 2,200 miles broad.

Europe may be said to be superior to the other grand divisions of the globe, on account of the civilization of its inhabitants. Here the arts and sciences, whether useful or ornamental, have been carried to a higher degree of perfection than in any other part. Hence the European literati are more extensive and deep in their researches, the mechanics are more ingenious and expeditious in their contrivances, the military are more skillful and intrepid in their operations, the

legislators in general more equitable and liberal in their decisions, and the people more enlightened, than are those of the major parts of Asia, Africa, or America.

The continent of Europe is likewise blessed with many natural advantages, one of which is, that no part of it is situated within the torrid, and but a small portion within the frigid zone. Add to this, the difference of its face, or variety of its surface, such as seas, rivers, mountains, &c. which are at once innumerable and beneficial, serving as boundaries to the various states, and aiding the commercial intercourse of the natives of the different countries.

Most of the governments of Europe are monarchical, in which one man only bears sway. There are also aristocracies, or governments of nobles; and likewise democracies, or governments of the people. There is also a mixed form of government, as that of England, in which a king, lords, and commons, manage the affairs of state. Which of these modes or forms of government, are most compatible with the ideas of mankind, or most consonant to reason, we pretend not to determine.

Concerning the changes which have taken place in the political state of Europe, it may not be impertinent to observe, that it was here that the two great empires of the Greeks and Romans, which held under their subjection the greater part of the known world, were erected. That of the Greeks was raised by Alexander the Great, son to Philip, king of Macedonia. He was chosen general of the united power of Greece about 340 years before Christ. He over-ran, in the course of a few years, the great empires of Persia and India, with an army every where victorious. His territories, however, were divided after his death into many distinct kingdoms, by his generals. The empire of the Romans lasted much longer. It was formed gradually, and by repeated conquests, in the space of 700 years. The Romans first conquered the territories around their own city, Rome, extended their power afterwards over the remainder of Italy, and, being continually engaged in war, proved more than a match for any enemy that opposed them in the civilized parts of the world. The Carthaginians gave them most difficulty. Their power had risen by commerce, and they

commanded both sides of the Mediterranean. Corsica and Sardinia had fallen under their subjection. Sicily had difficulty to defend itself, and the danger had come too near the Romans not to take up arms. The hostilities between Rome and Carthage, known by the name of Punic wars, lasted above 50 years, and are the most famous we read of in history. The Romans next turned their arms against the different states of Greece, and the various kingdoms possessed by Alexander's successors. They found less resistance in all these famous nations than in one barbarous prince, Mithridates king of Pontus. His kingdom bordered on the inaccessible mountains of Caucasus, and abounded in a race of men whose minds were not enervated by pleasure, and whose bodies were firm and vigorous; but Mithridates was at length compelled to yield to the superior fortune of the Romans, destined to be the conquerors of the world. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. Gaul is subdued by Julius Cæsar; and his successor Augustus, about 34 years before Christ, received ambassadors from all quarters of the known world. The emperors who came after Augustus rivetted the chains which had been formed. The various countries of France, Spain, England, Germany, &c. became so many provinces of the Roman empire; which, being now stretched out to such an extent, had lost its spring and force. The violent irruption of the Goths and Vandals from the north of Europe, and north-west of Asia, hastened its destruction. The contentions between these barbarous nations and the Romans continued during several centuries, when the native bravery of the former prevailed over the effeminate, though disciplined troops of the latter. About the end of the sixth century, the Saxons, a German nation, were masters of great part of Britain; the Franks, another tribe of Germans, of Gaul; the Goths, of Spain; the Goths and Lombards, of Italy, and the adjacent provinces. Scarce any vestige of the Romans appeared, and every thing was new in Europe. In the beginning of the ninth century, Charlemagne king of France, conquered Germany and Italy; and endeavoured to introduce a more orderly and regular government into his dominions, than had taken place since the downfall of the Roman empire. But the slavery to the great nobles or

chieftains, and the ignorance which had been occasioned by the inroads of the barbarous nations, did not begin to disappear till about the thirteenth century; when the Italians and Hanse Towns, set about cultivating commerce. This rendered the lower ranks of people in these countries less dependent on the great for subsistence; and it softened the manners of the whole society. Edward the III. of England followed their example. The Portuguese, applying themselves to naval affairs; discovered the Cape of Good Hope in the year 1497; which gave a new turn and vigour to the commerce of Europe. About the same time Columbus discovered America; and the different nations of Europe have, within these two centuries, so much increased in wealth and in number of inhabitants, as to have planted and colonized many distant countries.

GENERAL VIEW OF EUROPE.

Empires and Kingdoms.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Towns.
Spain	100	500	Madrid.
Portugal	500	100	Lisbon.
France	620	600	Paris.
Italy	600	400	Rome.
Switzerland	250	100	Bern.
Austrian and French Netherlands	200	150	Brussels.
United Provinces	150	150	Amsterdam.
Germany	600	500	Vienne.
Bohemia	300	150	Praque.
Hungary	300	200	Buda-Pest.
Transylvania	160	150	Hermannstadt.
Sclavonia	300	75	Pofega.
Croatia	180	70	Carlad.
Poland	700	600	Warsaw.
Russia	1500	1100	Petersburg.
Sweden	600	500	Stockholm.
Denish & Denmark	120	180	Copenhagen.
Norway	100	100	Bergen.
Turkey in Europe	1000	500	Constantinople.

EUROPEAN ISLANDS.

Islands.	Chief Towns.	Islands.	Chief Towns.
Great Britain com- prehending, 1. England.....	London.	Ivica.....	Ivica.
2. Scotland.....	Edinburgh.	Majorca.....	Majorca.
Ireland.....	Dublin.	Minorca.....	Port Mahon.
Iceland, to Denmark.....	Schwibolt.	Corfica.....	Sutia.
Zealand.....		Sardinia.....	Cagliari.
Funes.....		Sicily.....	Falcrina.
Alfon.....		Islands in the Archipelago, subject to the Turkish em- pire,.....	
Langland.....	Subject to the King of Den- mark.	Lesbo.....	Iedna.
Laland.....		Corfu.....	Corfu.
Falster.....		Cephalonia.....	Argoli.
Mons.....		Zant.....	Zant.
Bornholm.....		Lauredia, sub- ject to Tur- key,.....	Leucsa.
Gothland.....	Subject to Swe- den.		
Aland.....			
Suecia.....	Subject to Rus- sia.		
Oslo.....			
Dagob.....	Subject to Rus- sia.		
Wolfin.....			

SPAIN.

SPAIN is situated between 36 and 44 degrees of N. latitude, and between 10 degrees of W. and 3 degrees of E. longitude from London, extending 700 miles in length, and 500 miles in breadth, having the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenean Mountains, which divide it from France on the N. the Mediterranean Sea on the E. the Straights of Gibraltar on the S. and Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean on the W.

The kingdom of Spain is divided in the following manner:

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Gallicia,	Compostella.
Asturia,	Oviedo.
Biscay and Ipuscod,	Bilboa.
Navarre,	Pampeluna.
Aragon,	Saragossa.
Catalonia,	Barcelona.
Valencia,	Valencia.
Murcia,	Murcia.
Granada,	Granada.
Andalusia,	Seville.
Old Castile,	Burgos.
New Castile,	Madrid.
Leon,	Leon.
Estremadura,	Merida.
Ivica,	Ivica.

ISLANDS IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

{ Majorca,	Majorca.
{ Minorca, formerly sub- ject to Great Britain, but ceded to Spain by the peace in 1782.	{ Citadella and Port-Mahon.

Gibraltar is a strong fort, situated in the most southerly part of Spain, and belongs to Great Britain. It has a very commodious harbour, formed by nature for commanding the passage of the Straights, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean Sea. The Straights of Gibraltar are but 15 miles broad, and 24 long.



The chief Mountains are, the Pyrenees, the Cantabrian Mountains, Sierra Molina and Tablada, Sierra Morena, Sierra Nevada, and Mount Calpe that covers Gibraltar. Mount Calpe and Mount Abyla, which is opposite to it on the African side, are the ancient pillars of Hercules.

The most considerable rivers are, the Minho, the Douro, the Tajo, the Guadiana, the Guadalquivir, the Xenil, the Segura, the Xucar, the Guadalaviar, the Ebro, the Segre, the Lobregat, and the Ter.

Round the coasts of Spain are these Promontories or Capes, Cape de Creus, Cape de Gates, Mount Calpe, Cape St. Vincent, Cape de Espichel, Cape de Mandego, and Cape Finisterre.

The chief Bays or Gulphs are those of Biscay, Ferrol, and Corunna, commonly called the Groyne, on the N. W. Vigo on the W. Cadiz and Gibraltar on the S. W. Carthagena on the S. and Alicant, Altea, Valencia, and Roses on the E.

The soil in Spain is generally rich, and produces variety of wines, oil, and fruit; such as oranges, lemons, prunes, figs, raisins, almonds, pomagranates, chestnuts, and capers. It produces also flax and cotton; and has mines of iron, steel, copper, lead, alum, and quicksilver. Sugar canes thrive in Spain, and it yields saffron and honey in great abundance. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs. It is computed that in Spain are 40,000 shepherds. The sheep-walks afford the finest wool, and are a treasure in themselves. The kingdom of Murcia abounds so much with mulberry trees, that the product of its silk amounts to 200,000*l.* annually.

The treasures of America are regularly imported every year to Cadiz, in the flota and galleons; but as the Spanish manufactures of silk, wool, copper, and hardware, are not sufficient to purchase them, other trading nations reap the chief advantage from the American commerce. The attempts of the Spaniards to prevent this traffic have hitherto been unsuccessful. Their supine negligence of the Spaniards has hitherto made it advantageous for their neighbours, that such immense treasures should rather belong to them than to any more active and industrious people.

The king of Spain is an absolute monarch, with the title of Catholic Majesty. He is of the same family with the late kings of France, viz. the house of Bourbon. His residence is at Madrid, which is the capital of the kingdom. His eldest

son is styled prince of Asturias, the younger sons are styled infants, and the daughters, infantas. The revenue of the crown is about 8,600,000*l.* sterling, the greatest part of which is derived from the American mines, of which the king has a fifth. The finances of his present Catholic Majesty are on a better footing, both for himself and for his people, than those of any of his predecessors.

The land forces of the crown of Spain are never fewer in time of peace than 70,000; but in case of a war, they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 110,000. The great dependance of the king, however, is upon his walloon or foreign guards. His present majesty has been at great pains to raise a powerful marine; and his fleet in Europe and America exceeds 65 ships of the line.

Spain was formerly far more populous than it is at present, which is owing partly to the great numbers of religious of both sexes who lead a life of celibacy; partly to the intestine wars carried on between the ancient inhabitants and the Moors, who had invaded them from Africa, (170,000 of whom were at one time expelled from Spain about 300 years ago,) but most of all to the continual drains of men sent from Spain into America, and the indolence of the inhabitants, who are at little pains to raise food for their families. In the year 1787, a valuation of the people of Spain was made by order of the king, when it appeared, that they were 10,268,150 people, of whom 188,625 were religious. They are of a moderate size, their hair and complexions swarthy, and their countenances expressive. The Spanish ladies are by no means so beautiful as they have been represented to be. The lower ranks, especially the trading part of the nation, have long maintained a high reputation for probity and honour. During the most embittered wars which they have had with England for near a century back, there is no instance of their confiscating the British property on board their galleons; and all the British subjects which fell into their hands met with the most humane and generous treatment. But the character of the court is very different; it is rapacious and oppressive at home, and equally ambitious and faithless with regard to foreign states.

The established religion of this country is Popery of the most rigid kind, without toleration of any other. They have

eight archbishops, and forty bishops, who have all rich livings. The archbishop of Toledo is styled Primate of Spain, and has a revenue of 120,000*l.* sterling, per annum. The Inquisition reigns here with terror, and is the most oppressive court that ever was established among rational creatures. The prisoner is put to torture, and forced to confess himself guilty, whether he be so or not: he neither knows his accusers, nor the witnesses against him. There are in Spain 2140 convents and nunneries, containing an incredible number of monks and nuns.

The Spanish language has a great affinity to the Latin, with a mixture of Arabic words and terminations. Arts and sciences are not much cultivated by the Spaniards, yet they have several universities; the chief whereof are those of Salamanca, Terragona, Toledo, Alcalá, Seville, Granada, Valladolid, Ossuna, Oueica, Saragossa, Sigüenza, Valentia, ~~Madrid~~, Barcelona, Compostella, and Mexico in America. Learning owes much to Isidore bishop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Calderoni and Lopez de Vega have discovered great genius in dramatic writing. Cervantes, author of *Don Quixote*, died fighting for his country at the battle of Lepanto. His satire on knight-errantry cured them of that ridiculous spirit. Had he composed another against bigotry and superstition, and been as successful in it, Spain would, in all probability, have made a more distinguished figure in literature before this time.

Spain was anciently called Iberia, and was the principal cause of the two Punic wars between the republics of Carthage and Rome. The event of the second Punic war; between 2 and 300 years before Christ, paved the way for the conquest of the southern part of the kingdom by the Romans; but the mountainous provinces of the north were not subdued till the reign of Augustus. The Roman empire in this country lasted more than 400 years after the Christian æra; about which period the Goths, Vandals, and other northern nations, broke in upon it, and made a conquest of Spain. These again, towards the end of the seventh century, were invaded by the Moors; who conquered all Spain, and obliged some bodies of resolute Christians to take refuge in the mountainous parts, where they concerted measures to shake off the Arabic yoke. The Arabs attacked them all in their respective

strong holds, which obliged the Christians to choose different chiefs in different places, who made separate conquests upon the Moors. This circumstance gave rise to the distribution of Spain into several kingdoms. During a very long subsequent period, Spain was perpetually engaged in bloody wars, in which the Moors met with repeated overthrows from the bravery of the Christians, till about the middle of the fifteenth century, when all the kingdoms of Spain, Portugal excepted, which had been previously separated from it by Alphonso, were united in Ferdinand and Isabella, who, having taken the city of Granada in the year 1491, expelled all the Moors who would not be converted to Christianity, together with their Jewish subjects, from the kingdom. In 1556, Charles V. after a long and turbulent reign, resigned the crown to his son Philip II. and shut himself up in a monastery, where he died in 1558. Philip II. exercised great cruelties against his protestant subjects, particularly in the Low Countries; and in 1588, he sent out what was vainly and proudly called the Invincible Armada, for the invasion and conquest of England: but the vigilance of Elizabeth, and the activity and bravery of the English, together with assisting storms, destroyed nearly the whole of the fleet. Charles II. king of Spain, having no issue, England, France, and Holland, formed in 1699, the famous treaty of partition, for dividing the dominions of the crown of Spain upon his death. Charles was so much offended at this, that on his death-bed, he signed a will, by which he bequeathed all his dominions to Philip Duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV. of France. Accordingly, on the 18th of February, 1701, after the death of Charles II. Lewis declared his grandson Philip, king of Spain, who arrived at Madrid on the 14th of April, 1701. A war ensued; and Charles Archduke of Austria, second son to the emperor Leopold, was set up in opposition to Philip V. His claim was supported by the maritime powers, and at first favoured by many of the grandees of Spain. After various successes of the Allies, in the course of which Philip was driven from his capital, and almost obliged to abandon the kingdom, his party at length prevailed, and at the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, he was acknowledged king of Spain by all the confederates leagued against him, except the emperor Philip, by the articles of this peace, was left only in possession of Spain, its American

colonies, and its settlements in the East Indies. But the Spanish dominions in Italy, with the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, were dismembered from the monarchy: and the island of Minorca, with the fortress of Gibraltar, were ceded to Great Britain. Philip V. having thus ascended the throne of Spain; was not yet firmly seated upon it, because the inhabitants of Catalonia still refused to acknowledge him. After a stubborn defence, they were at length entirely reduced by the king's forces, when their country was annexed to the crown of Castile, as a conquered province. After the reduction of Catalonia, Philip turned his thoughts to the recovering of his Italian dominions. With this view he married Elizabeth Farnese, heiress of Parma, Placentia, and Tuscany. In 1761, Charles III. king of Spain, entered into a correspondence with the court of Versailles, which terminated in the famous family compact, ratified in September 1761. It contained among other things a mutual defensive alliance between the branches of the house of Bourbon, and a reciprocal guarantee of all the dominions they should be possessed of at the next peace. The consequence of this compact was a war between Spain and England in 1762; which terminated the following year, greatly to the disadvantage of the Spaniards, since, beside the heavy losses they sustained in the capture of the Havannah in America, and that of Manilla in the East Indies, they suffered very materially in their trade, from the activity of the English navy, and were also disappointed in the only instance in which they might reasonably have expected success, their invasion of Portugal. By the treaty of peace in 1763, they desisted from their pretensions to a fishery at Newfoundland; were obliged to cede both the Floridas to us, and to allow us to cut logwood in the bay of Honduras. In 1767, a memorable event happened in Spain, the expulsion of the order of the Jesuits from the whole kingdom. The incident itself was not more extraordinary than the mode in which it was conducted. On the 31st of March, about midnight, troops were sent to the several houses of these fathers in Madrid, the doors and bells secured, and a sentinel placed at each cell, till all the fraternity could be assembled, when the king's commands were signified to them. They were immediately conveyed to Carthagena with all their baggage, whence they were embarked and landed in Italy. The same precautions were

taken throughout the kingdom, so that the total expulsion of that numerous and formidable body was completed in every part of the Spanish dominions without the least confusion or disturbance. In the year 1779 Spain was again drawn into a war with England in consequence of the family compact above-mentioned. In this war they seem to have had a favourite object in view, the recovery of Gibraltar; which, however, they did not recover, as it still remains in the hands of the English. Peace was concluded in 1783. Spain is at present engaged in a war, in concert with several other European powers, against the republic of France; but the Spaniards are at present worsted by the contest.

PORTUGAL.

PORTUGAL is situated between 37 and 42 degrees North latitude, and between 7 and 10 degrees West longitude; extending 300 miles in length, and 100 miles in breadth; having Spain on the north and east, the Atlantic Ocean on the S. and W. Like Spain it is divided into Provinces, the names of which are,

Provinces.

Chief towns.

Entre Minho e Douro,....	Oporto, Braga, Viana.
Tra los Montes,	Miranda, Villa Real.
Beira,.....	Coimbra, Lamega, Guarda.
Estremadura,.....	Lisbon, St. Ubes, Leiria.
Alentejo,	Ebora, Beja,
Algarva,	Tavira, Faro, Lagos.
Guadiana,	Portulegre Elvas.

Portugal was formerly a province of Spain, but is now a separate kingdom; is mountainous like Spain, and very subject to earthquakes. The principal rivers and capes are mentioned under Spain. The bays are those of St. Ubes, and Lagos in Algarva.

The air of Portugal is not so pure, nor the soil so fertile as in Spain; nor are their fruits so good, but they are of the same kind. They have but little corn; but this and all their other wants are abundantly supplied from England. The Portuguese are possessed of Goa, Diu, &c. in Asia; of Mosambique and several other places in Africa; and the Brazils in America; which last is a very profitable colony.

The commerce of Portugal is very extensive, but does not prove of much benefit to her, as the European nations trading with her engross all the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities; her ivory, ebony, spices, and drugs of the East-Indies and Africa, and her drugs of Brazil. The Portuguese, however, make a little linen, and some coarse silk and woollen, with a variety of straw-work. Lisbon is the capital of the kingdom; but for a particular description of it we refer to the Compendious Geographical Dictionary.

According to the latest calculations, Portugal contains near two millions of inhabitants, of whom 1,700,000 are lay-persons, and the remaining 300,000 ecclesiastics. The Portuguese retain nothing of that spirit and enterprise which rendered their ancestors masters of the Indies 300 years ago. They are a slothful, degenerate, treacherous, and revengeful people.

The revenues of the crown are said to amount to 3,500,000*l*. sterling annually. Of late they are thought to be considerably increased by the establishment of companies for carrying on different branches of trade; and by the suppression of Jesuits and some other religious orders and institutions. The king's fifth annually sent from Brazil, amounts to 300,000*l*. The Portuguese government depends chiefly on England for protection, which renders both their fleet and army less considerable than their circumstances might seem to require.

Portugal is an absolute monarchy; but this nation, as well as Spain, still preserves an appearance of its ancient free constitution, in the meeting of the cortes or states, consisting of Clergy, Nobility, and Commons, and the only real power they enjoy is that their assent is necessary in every new regulation with regard to the succession.

About the middle of the 16th century the Portuguese were possessed of more knowledge in astronomy, geography, and navigation, than any of their neighbours. The same age also produced their poet Camoens; but at present, literature and science are equally neglected by them. Their universities are those of Coimbra, founded in 1291; Evora, founded in 1559; and the college of the nobles at Lisbon.

The religion is Roman Catholic, and tho' the Portuguese had a Patriarch, they depended entirely on the court of Rome with regard to ecclesiastical affairs. But the power of his holiness

in Portugal is of late considerably abridged, and the inquisition is now taken out of the hands of ecclesiastics, and converted to an engine of state, for supporting the absolute power of the crown. The archbishoprics are those of Br ga,  vora, and Lisbon. The Portuguese language differs so little from that of Spain, that it may be regarded as a dialect of it; both are a corruption of the Latin mixed with Morisco.

In the reign of Alphonso VI. king of Castile, Henry, born duke of Burgundy, did that monarch such eminent services in the wars against the Moors, that he gave him his daughter Theresa in marriage, created him earl of Portugal in 1093, and left him as his own absolute property all the conquests he had made in that country. Thus Henry, without assuming the title of king, laid the first foundation of the separate sovereignty of Portugal. His son Alphonso Henriques, who succeeded him, having obtained a signal victory over the Moors in 1139, was proclaimed king by his army; which title was afterwards confirmed to him in 1179 by Pope Alexander III. and in 1181 by the assembly of the state at Lamego. Alphonso III. added the kingdom of Algarva to the crown of Portugal. The succession continued in the house of Alphonso, till in the year 1383 the legitimate male line was extinct in Ferdinand; upon which, John I. his father's natural son, was admitted to the throne in 1385; in whose reign the Portuguese settled in Africa, and discovered the Madeira islands and the Azores. His great grandson John II. an enlightened prince, was the first who declared Lisbon a free port, and made the science of astronomy subservient to navigation. Under his reign the Portuguese doubled the Cape at the extremity of Africa. It was then called the Cape of Storms; but the prince, who foresaw that it would open the passage to the East Indies, named it the Cape of Good Hope. Emanuel his cousin, who succeeded him, pursued the views of his predecessor, and in 1497 sent Vasco de Gama with a fleet to India; this admiral, after a dangerous voyage of 13 months, landed at length in the East Indies, where the Portuguese settled colonies, and became at that time the sole masters of the trade between India and Europe. In 1501 they possessed themselves, by means of Americus Vesputius, of the rich country of Brazil, in South America, which had been discovered fortuitously the year before by Peter Alvarez Cabral. John III. son of Emanuel, admitted,

in 1540, the new-founded order of Jesuits, of which he was a member, previous to any other European prince. He sent a multitude of missionaries to convert the eastern nations, and, among them, the famous Francis Xavier, founder of the order, who planted the christian religion in India, Persia, China, and Japan, as well as on the coast of Africa. This king was succeeded, in 1557, by his grandson Sebastian, who was then but three years old, and who, in 1578, unadvisedly marched a powerful army against Muley Moluc, into Africa, where he was slain in a battle with that king, whose death, in the midst of the action from illness, did not prevent his troops from obtaining a compleat victory. Sebastian was succeeded by his uncle cardinal Henry, who died after a reign of 17 months. After his death, Philip II. of Spain, possessed himself of the crown, by means of his general, the Duke of Alva, who reduced the whole kingdom of Portugal to his obedience. Portugal remained 60 years under the dominion of Spain; during which time the Dutch, having shaken off the Spanish yoke, possessed themselves of the best settlements the Portuguese had in the East Indies, Africa, and America, which they had enjoyed unrivalled upwards of an hundred years; but the Portuguese afterwards recovered the provinces the Dutch had reduced in Brazil. The Portuguese, wearied at length with the cruelties and oppressions which they suffered under the Spanish government, revolted in 1640. They seized the opportunity of Spain being weakened by a long and unsuccessful war with France, and the rebellion of Catalonia, and by means of a conspiracy, as wisely planned as it was happily executed, placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. on the throne. This prince, having taken every possible precaution to secure to himself the quiet possession of the crown, died in 1656, leaving two sons, Don Alphonso and Don Pedro, and a daughter named Catherine, afterwards married to Charles II. king of England. This alliance was the first cause of maintaining Portugal in its independence; for Philip IV. of Spain having renewed his claim to that kingdom, and invaded it, the Portuguese, supported by England and France, obtained a decisive victory over the Spaniards at Villa Viciosa in 1660, and obliged Philip to renounce his pretensions. Alphonso VI. when he ascended the throne in 1656, was only 13 years old. In the early part of his reign he was supported by the wise and pru-

dent administration of his mother the queen dowager, who had been declared regent by the will of her husband. But being a weak prince when he took the reins of government into his own hands, he was no longer able to maintain himself on the throne. His queen, daughter of Charles Amadeus, duke of Nemours, whom he had lately married, and his brother Don Pedro, conspired against him, deposed, and sent him prisoner into the Azores. After this, Don Pedro procured a dispensation from the Pope, and married his brother's wife. He took the title of regent, and governed in his mother's name till the year 1683, when Alphonso died, and Don Pedro was proclaimed king. In the year 1703, Portugal entered into the grand alliance for opposing the succession of the house of Bourbon to the crown of Spain, and for transferring it to the house of Austria. But the exertions of the Portuguese upon this occasion were by no means equal to their engagements. From their own inactivity, therefore, and the perpetual dissensions between the respective commanders, they suffered much during this war, in the course of which Don Pedro died, after a reign of 29 years, including his regency, in 1706. He was succeeded by John V. in the second year of whose reign the battle of Almanza was lost, which totally put an end to the claims of the house of Austria, and fixed Philip V. upon the throne of Spain. No other material incident happened in Portugal during this prince's reign, which was long and peaceable, since he governed 44 years, dying only in 1750, and was succeeded by his son Don Joseph, the late king of Portugal. In November, 1756, that dreadful earthquake happened which laid great part of the wealthy and flourishing city of Lisbon in ashes. The shocks continued for several days, and were felt in most parts of Europe; the waters in many places were agitated in a most surprising manner; the city of Setuval, or St. Ubes, not far from Lisbon, was destroyed; and these convulsions of nature, were succeeded by a conflagration, which did still more mischief to the capital than the earthquake had done. Upon this melancholy catastrophe, the parliament of England voted 100,000*l.* for the relief of the sufferers. Four years after, these natural commotions were succeeded by an event which renewed the alarms of the Portuguese, scarce yet recovered from the terror with which the former had inspired them. On the third of

September 1760, an attempt was made upon the king's life, who was attacked and wounded by a number of assassins, in a solitary place on the road near Belam, on the way to Lisbon. Some of the most distinguished nobility of Portugal, suspected of having had a share in this intended assassination, were soon after condemned and executed for it. But these unfortunate nobles have, by a very late edict, been declared innocent of the fact, and their proscribed descendants restored to their former rank. The Jesuits too, who were found to be concerned in the conspiracy, were expelled from every part of the Portuguese dominions. In 1762, Spain availed herself of the natural and political distresses of this calamitous kingdom, to renew her pretensions to the empire of it, war was declared by France and Spain, jointly, against Portugal, which was invaded on many sides by large bodies of Spanish troops, assisted with 8000 French auxiliaries. The English immediately sent 8000 men to the succour of their allies, under the command of lord Tyrrawley and the earl of Loudon, while the Portuguese were commanded by a German nobleman, count de la Lippe Buckebourg. The Spaniards gained no other advantage than the capture of Almeida, which they were afterwards obliged to evacuate; and the judicious dispositions of count de la Lippe, joined to the vigilance and exertions of the British troops, disappointed all the efforts of the Spaniards, and obliged them to fall back into winter quarters on the frontiers of their own country. Portugal was freed from this storm by the ensuing general peace in 1763. In the beginning of the year 1777, Don Joseph, the late king of Portugal, died, in the 63d year of his age, and the 27th year of his reign. In the year 1732, he had married the Infanta of Spain, by whom he had issue 4 daughters. The eldest of them, Maria Francis Isabella, Princess of Brazil, was married in 1760, by virtue of a dispensation from the Pope, to her uncle Don Pedro. Their son, the prince of Beira, born in 1761, was married just before the king's death to the princess Maria Benedicta, his mother's youngest sister. Upon the death of the king, the princess of Brazil was immediately acknowledged as sovereign, and still enjoys the crown.

FRANCE,

IS situated between 42 and 51 degrees north latitude, and between 5 degrees west, and 8 degrees east longitude, extending 620 miles in length, and 600 in breadth. It is bounded on the N. by the English Channel, on the N. E. by the Netherlands, on the E. by Germany, Switzerland, Savoy, and part of Italy, on the S. by the Mediterranean, on the S. W. by the Pyrenean Mountains, and on the W. by the Bay of Biscay. France is divided into several governments, &c.

<i>Governments.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Picardy,	Amiens.
Isle of France,	Paris.
Champagne,	Troyes.
Normandy,	Rouen.
Bretany,	Rennes.
Orleanois,	Orleans.
Lionois,	Lions, now Ville Affranchie.
Provence,	Aix.
Languedoc,	Thoulouse.
Guienne,	Bordeaux.
Gascony,	Bayonne.
Dauphine,	Grenoble.
Burgundy,	Dijon.
Lorrain,	Nancy.
Alsace,	Strasbourg.
Franche Comté,	Besançon.

To these may be added several fine provinces, which, since the reformation, have been annexed to this great kingdom by marriage, purchase, or conquest; but as the present affairs of France render its boundaries uncertain, it is needless to enumerate them.

The mountains, besides the Pyrenees and Alps, are Vauze, Mount Jura, the Sevoennes, and Mount Dor. The chief capes and points are, in the English Channel, Cape Antifer, Barfleur, and La Hague. In the Bay of Biscay, Penmark, Quiberon, and Portes on the coast of Provence.



This was a populous country, till the number of its inhabitants was reduced by persecution, wars, and famine; but still there remain about 26,000,000 of people. The air of France is more temperate than that of any other country in Europe; and the soil is exceedingly fruitful, producing corn, wine, oil, and flax, in great abundance. It is well watered by several large navigable rivers, particularly the Seine, the Loire, the Garonne, the Rhone, and the Rhine. The stature of the French is not large, but they are generally men of bright parts, and the most active and enterprising of any other people in the universe.

With respect to the government of this country, it was formerly an absolute monarchy, the several parliaments having little power, so that the chief use of them was to register the arbitrary edicts of a mercenary despot, who could at any time command the fortunes and even liberty of his subjects. Should any one hesitate, or not be willing to comply with his order, *lettres de cachet* were immediately issued, the unfortunate victim was seized, thrown into prison, detained there perhaps for many years, or else he was privately put to death!

Louis XIV. ascended the throne in the fifth year of his age, and was placed under the superintendence of cardinal Mazarin. The reign of this prince was so long, upwards of 72 years, and so replete with events, that our narrow limits will not permit us to enter into a detail of them. We shall only observe, that although in the beginning of it, France was torn with intestine divisions, on account of the opposition made to the despotic power of cardinal Mazarin, the prime minister; and although it was marked by one of the most impolitic measures that could have been adopted, the revocation of the edict of Nantes, yet, upon the whole, it constituted the most brilliant period of the French history. His unbounded ambition caused him to be the general disturber of the peace and tranquillity of Europe, as his frequent wars with different powers sufficiently evince. The latter part of his reign was, however, as disgraceful as the former had been glorious, particularly in the wars carried on in Flanders against England and her Allies. The English were commanded by the duke of Marlborough, who was constantly victorious; so that, from 1702 to 1711, Louis experienced a continued series of mortifications and calamities. These affected him so much, that, notwithstanding his

advanced age, he had formed the desperate resolution of collecting his forces, and rather dying at their head, than submit to the shame and disgrace which he imagined to be advancing quick upon him, when a change of the administration and system of politics in England relieved his anxiety, and produced the peace of Utrecht, which was concluded in 1713. He died September 1, 1715.

He was succeeded by his great-grandson Louis XV. nearly at the same tender age. Philip duke of Orleans was appointed regent: he displayed great ability and judgement in his exalted station, and may be ranked among the greatest men that have governed France. He died suddenly; and the king, about two years after his death, appointed his preceptor, cardinal Fleuri, prime minister. The cardinal being of a pacific disposition, endeavoured by directing his views to the internal administration of the kingdom, and by prudent economy, to recover its finances from the deplorable state in which they had been left by Louis XIV. He was, however, compelled to take part in several wars, though much against his inclination. At length the good cardinal died in 1743; and the king, not chusing to have another prime minister, was governed by his mistresses during the remainder of his reign. His life now became a continued scene of the most infamous debauchery and profligacy; and if France, at the expence of her finances, had been raised to a high pitch of glory in the reign of Louis XIV. she experienced a strange reverse of fortune under this monarch; with this mortifying difference, that the finances which had before been lavished at least for the aggrandisement of the nation, were now equally squandered among greedy favourites and insatiable mistresses, or to gratify the inordinate desires of a libidinous sovereign. He died May 10, 1774, and was succeeded by his grandson

Louis XVI. whose intrigues formed an alliance with the United States of North America, then at war with England, with a view to the dismemberment of that part of the British dominions from the crown. In consequence of this alliance, hostilities commenced between France and England in 1778, and shortly after Spain, by reason of the family compact, joined France against England. The issue of this war is pretty well known, as England was obliged to make concessions to obtain a peace; the independency of the American

states was established, and Florida was ceded to Spain. Under Louis XIV. XV. and XVI. the most unheard of outrages were committed; people were by no means safe; spies and informers were encouraged; a general jealousy prevailed; every person suspected that those whom he conversed with would betray him, and that, instead of returning to his family, he might be sent to a Bastile or some other state prison, and, according to the accusation, be either confined or butchered!

Such was the case till July 1789, when one of the strangest revolutions took place that ever happened in the political world. The king was in one day stripped of all his absolute authority, and became one of the most limited monarchs. The bastille, that den of slavery, cruelty, and oppression, was the first object of the resentment of the populace, which they so compleatly demolished, as not to leave one stone upon another. The miserable objects set at liberty on this occasion excited emotions of pity in the most stony heart. The king was now styled King of the French; but so great a revolution could not be effected in an instant, and the nation experienced various commotions, jealousies, and dissensions, till the middle of 1791; when, in the night between the 20th and 21st of June, the king and queen made their escape from the palace of the Thuilleries in Paris, and took the route towards Mons. On the 21st it was decreed, that all persons should be stopped from going out of the kingdom. The king and queen were arrested at Varennes. June 25, it was decreed, among other things, that the king should return to the Thuilleries, under the guard of the commandant general; and that the king and queen should be heard in their own defence. July 7, it was decreed that all the people of France should have a right to go out of the kingdom, and should return at their pleasure. Sept. 1, the king, attended by a deputation of 60 members, went to the National Assembly, and amidst the applauses of those august senators, solemnly consecrated the assent which he had given the preceding day, to the constitutional act. On the 30th of the same month, he issued a proclamation, in which he declared, "that he had excepted the constitution, and that the revolution was completed." In December following the emperor of Germany published a manifesto, wherein he declared against France. To this manifesto the king of the French returned a very spirited answer. April 19, 1792, the National

Assembly declared war against the king of Hungary. In this declaration is the following passage: "The National Assembly declares, that the French nation, faithful to the principles consecrated to the constitution, will not undertake any war with the view of making conquests, and will never employ its force against the liberty of any people, only take up arms in defence of their liberty and their independence." On the 12th of May it was decreed, "That the immense heap of papers and parchments, which relate to the late nobility, and collected from various monasteries, &c. and deposited in the church *des Grandes Augustins*, shall be burned." 600 volumes were accordingly committed to the flames on the 19th of June. On Sunday, the 6th of August, the city of Paris was alarmed early in the morning by an attempt made by the king to escape from the *Thulleries*. Upon being recognized by a sentinel, he sent for the mayor of Paris, and told him, that he had gone out solely for a *promenade*. The king was in the habit of a peasant. On the following day a petition, signed by several thousands of people in the *Champ de Mars*, and requesting the deposition of the king, was presented to the National Assembly. Long and interesting debates now took place on this important circumstance, and on Sunday Aug. 12, the assembly passed the following decree, "First, the hotel of the minister of justice shall be inhabited by the king. Second, he shall be furnished with a guard, subordinate to the mayor of Paris, and to the commandant of the national guard, who shall be answerable for his safety, and that of his family. Third, there shall be a sum of 500,000 livres allowed to pay his expences, until the moment of the national convention meeting*." The hotel of the minister of justice not being

* The following is the act of the legislative body on the suspension of the king: "The National Assembly declare that the king is suspended, and that both himself and family remain as hostages; that the present ministry have not the confidence of the nation, and the assembly proceed to replace them. That the civil list ceases to take place.

Genfonne, President.

Lecointe Puyraveau, Secretary."

secured a safe place by the persons to whose care the royal family were committed. The assembly left the choosing of the residence to the commune of Paris, that he might be prevented from making his escape. The Temple was chosen, and the assembly passed a decree for conducting the royal family to that place. Respecting divorce, the following various resolutions were made by the assembly Sept. 14. "1. That a divorce, that is to say, dissolution of marriage, by the mutual consent of the husband and wife, be allowed. 2. That a divorce be allowed at the desire of either the husband or wife, on the simple allegation of difference of temper, or other stated grounds." This decree, however, was afterwards revoked. This month orders were given to some of the French troops to enter the king of Sardinia's dominions, that potentate having declared against the operations of the National Assembly: in consequence of which, several places belonging to his Sardinian majesty fell into the hands of the French. On the 15th, the convention decreed, on the motion of M. Gregoire, "That royalty is abolished in France." The day following the convention decreed, "1. That all public acts shall be dated *The first year of the French republic*; 2. That the state seal shall be changed, and have for legend, *French republic*; 3. That the national seal shall represent a woman sitting on a bundle of arms, and having in her hand a pike, with the cap of liberty upon it, and on the exergue, *Archives of the French Republic*; 4. That petitioners shall not be admitted to the bar, but during the evening sittings." It is undoubtedly requisite in all states, that those who are set apart to be judges in criminal and other cases, should, at least, be properly initiated into the knowledge of the laws of those states: but the members of the French convention seem to have entertained a different idea, when, on the same day, they passed a decree, "That all judges may be chosen without distinction from among the citizens." It being suspected, that several people of rank had been concerned in the robbery of the jewel office, the convention, Sept. 24, decreed, "1. The French republic no longer acknowledges princes; 2. The National Convention, in consequence, suppresses all appointments."

On the 1st of October, a letter from the war minister was read, informing the assembly, that, in consequence of a propo-

declaring the King of Prussia a traitor had never appeared, and the fear of this atrocious proposal was removed. Louis XVI. acknowledged the authority of the national assembly, and confessed, that the present order of things was contrary to the happiness of the people. A negotiation for a cession of provinces was also set on foot, between the duke of Brunswick, the comte Lachaux, the king of Prussia's ministers, and plenipotentiaries with an general Fleuryville, on the part of the French. On this occasion, the duke of Brunswick addressed the latter in the following terms: "Our nations are not bound to encroach on each other, and there remains but to be probably found at least one difference in an amicable manner. We have no right to hinder a nation from giving laws to itself, or form its interior government: nor is such our pretension. The fate of the king is all that occupies our attention; assure us, that he shall have a peace, according to the present order of things, under some denomination or other, and his majesty, the King of Prussia, will return to his capital, and become your ally." How different the language of this speech from that of the famous manifesto, made by the duke of Brunswick, when he entered the territory of the French republic, and from that addressed by the other confederated monarchs! But who can understand the declaration of the king of Prussia, notwithstanding the peace signed on, his majesty thought himself obliged to retract the declaration, and was compelled him to retreat.

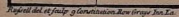
On the 8th the convention decreed, that all emigrants taken with arms in their hands should be put to death. On the 6th of November, M. Malou carried the report of the committee appointed to collect the proofs of emigration against Louis XVI. to the convention. Among the number of dispatones on this subject, several proved the transmission of immense sums to different persons, friends or supporters of sinking royalty; that Louis, following in the disguise of humanity, as observed by his council Deleze in his declaration, provided for the maintenance of his nephews the children of the Count d'Artois, the eldest fourteen, the youngest seven years of age, by sending to them a pension of 500,000 livres; notwithstanding, the decree of accusation passed against them. On the 13th of November, 1793, it was also decreed,

whether the king could be brought to trial. The French having taken possession of the duchy of Savoy, the convention decreed, on the 27th, that the ci-devant duchy of Savoy was united with France.

We are now to speak of the trial of Louis XVI. On Sunday, December 2, a deputation from the commune of Paris, appeared at the bar, and in the name of the sections of Paris, made the following requests: 1st, To put the question, whether Louis, the ci-devant king, merited death, and whether it would be proper to execute him on the scaffold? 2d, To pursue that business with the utmost activity, and for that purpose sit four afternoons every week while it lasted. The president replied, "That the grand tribunal of nations, the public opinion, had decided his doom a long time since, and the tribunal of the French people would shortly pronounce sentence." He then invited the deputation to assist at the session. After violent debates on the day following, St. André said, "Louis XVI. has been already judged on the 10th of August, when he caused thousands of the citizens to be assassinated. The primary assemblies have confirmed their judgement. A decree of accusation is no longer necessary. You ought to pronounce that he is an enemy of his country." Robespierre said, "There is no necessity for a trial; the important question in discussion is resolved in these few words: Louis was dethroned for his crimes; Louis denounced the French people as rebels; he called in, to punish them, the aid of brother tyrants; victory and the people declared himself to be the rebel; Louis therefore cannot be tried; he is already condemned, &c." After some more debates on the subject, it was decreed, "That Louis XVI. be tried by them." On the 4th, the convention decreed, "That whosoever wishes to establish royalty in France, or whosoever endeavours to restore it under any form, or by any means whatever, shall suffer death." On the 11th, the king was at length brought to the bar, and the trial commenced. The king was allowed counsel, who made for him the best defence in their power. Nothing now remained to be done, but for the convention to determine whether Louis Capet were guilty or not; accordingly, after the sense of the members had been taken, the president arose and said, "I hereby declare, that the national convention has found

Louis Capet guilty of a conspiracy against the liberty of the nation, and the safety of the state." On the 17th of January, 1793, the majority of the convention having declared against the king, the president arose, and said, "In consequence of this, I declare, that the punishment, pronounced by the national convention against Louis Capet is death." He was accordingly guillotined in the Place de Revolution on the 21st of the same month. In the beginning of 1793, hostilities commenced between France and England; but as a detail of the various actions between the republican and allied armies would lead us beyond the proposed limits of our volume, suffice it to say, that the French seem at this time to be gaining ground, and the allies to be on the retreat.

On the 1st of August, it was decreed, that Marie Antoinette should be delivered over to the Revolutionary tribunal, that she should be immediately conducted to the prison of the Conciergerie, and that Louise Elizabeth should remain in the Temple till after the judgement of Marie Antoinette. On the 8th, the convention decreed, that from the 1st of November next, bread should be sold at 3 sous per pound, that the bakers should be granted an indemnification according to the price of grain, and that the indemnification should be supported by a tax on the rich. On the 18th of September it was decreed, that, "1. The pay of the bishops should be reduced to 6000 livres. 2. That the episcopal vicars should be suppressed, and a pension of 1200 livres granted to them till they should be nominated to a curacy; and, if they refused it, their pensions should cease. 3. No person in the receipt of a pension should have the benefit of the second article. 4. The pensions shall be paid when due, not in advance." On the 12th of October, it was decreed, that the name of Lyons, which, after its defection had been taken by the republican forces, should be changed to Villa Franche. On the 16th of the same month, Voulland, in the name of the committee of general safety, informed the convention, that the trial of Marie Antoinette had lasted three days; that, being found guilty, she had been condemned to death, and had been executed about an hour ago, from the time of his speaking. Chaveau, one of her pleaders, being taken into custody, made the following declaration: "My conference with Marie Antoinette lasted no more than three quarters of an



hour, and the conversation was carried on loud enough to be heard by four persons who were in the room. Antoinette made no declaration to me of importance, she spoke only of her trial; in all her questions she discovered the deepest dissimulation. The only unguarded expression she made use of, was the following: 'I fear none but Manuel.' The subsequent trait is a sufficient proof of her artifice. As she was on her way from the revolutionary tribunal to the Conciergerie, after her first examination, she asked me, if I did not think that she infused too much dignity in her replies? I put the question to you in consequence of hearing a woman say to her companion, 'Observe how proud she is.' She was executed, in pursuance of her sentence.

On the 1st of April, 1794, the form of a decree for the abolition of the slave trade, having being referred to the committee of public safety, was presented and passed in the following terms: "The slavery of Negroes is abolished. In consequence, the convention decrees, that all the inhabitants of the colonies, whatever be their colour, are French citizens. They shall enjoy all the rights belonging to this title!" An example worthy of imitation.

On the 1st of June, a most dreadful engagement between the French and English fleets took place. The fleets were nearly equal; but the English obtained the victory, taking and sinking several French men of war. The names of the captured ships, are *La Juste*, of 80 guns; *Sans Pareille*, 80; *L'Amerique*, 74; *L'Achille*, 74; *Northumberland*, 74; *L'Impetuex*, 74; and, *La Venguer*, 74, which sunk almost as soon as she was taken possession of. The *Jacobin* also sunk during the action. This, according to all accounts, was the best fought action that ever happened between the fleets of the two nations.

ITALY.

ITALY is situated betwixt 38 and 47 degrees north latitude, and between 6 and 19 degrees east longitude, extending 600 miles in length, and 400 miles in breadth. It is

bounded on the N. by part of Switzerland and part of Germany, on the E. by the Gulph of Venice, on the S. and S. W. by the Mediterranean Sea, and on the W. by the Var and Alps, which separate it from France. Italy is thus divided:

The Northern Division comprehends,

		<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Savoy, a Dukedom,		Chamberry.
Piedmont, a Principality,		Turin.
Montferrat,		Casal.
Milanese,		Milan.
Parmesen, } Dutchies,		Parma, Placentia.
Modenese, }		Modena.
Mantua,		Mantua.
Venice, } Republics,		Venice.
Genoa, }		Genoa.

The Middle Division comprehends,

Tuscany, a Dukedom,		Florence.
Ecclesiastical State,		Rome.
Lucca,		Lucca.
St. Marino, } Republics,		St. Marino.

The South Division comprehends,

Naples, a Kingdom,	Naples.
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Great Islands.

Sicily,	{ Palermo, Messina,
	{ Syracuse.
Sardinia,	Cagliari, Oristagni.
Corfica,	Bastia,
Malta,	Malta, or Valetta.

Small Islands.

In and near the Gulph of Venice are Cherso, Osero, Vegia, Arbe, Pago Longa, Brazza, Lefina, Curzola, Cephalonia, Corfu

or Coreyra, Zant, La Praga. On the N. of Sicily are the Lipari islands, feigned by the poets to be the habitation of *Æolus* and *Vulcan*; the chief of which are, Lipari, Stromboli, Rotté, Palmaria, Ercusa, and Ustica. On the W. coast of Italy are, Capri, Ischia, Ponza, Giglio, Elba, Pianosa, Capraria, and Gorgona.

The mountains in Italy are, the Alps, on the north and west; the Appenines, which runs the whole length of the country; and Mount Vesuvius, a remarkable volcano near Naples. By an eruption of this volcano, the city of Herculaneum was buried under a deluge of bituminous matter, in the reign of the Emperor Titus. Mount *Ætna* is another terrible volcano in Sicily. The principal rivers in Italy are, the Po, with its numerous branches; the Var, the Adige, the Arno, the Rubicon, the Tiber, and the Volturno. The most considerable sea-port towns and harbours are, Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final Savona, Vado, Spezia, Lucca, Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policastro, Rhegio, Taranto, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice. The soil in Italy is generally rich. The country produces variety of excellent wine, oil, oranges, lemons, citrons, and such quantities of chestnuts, cherries, plumbs, and other fruits, that they are of little value to the proprietors. The cheapness of all these fruits, upon which the lower ranks of people almost entirely subsist during great part of the year, is one great cause of the idleness and laziness of the natives. They have silk in abundance, and their manufactures of stuffs, brocades, and velvets, are the best in Europe. From Italy too, we import the finest marble and alabaster. In architecture, painting, carving, and music, no nation exceeds the Italians; and no country affords such a variety of antiquities and curiosities. It is probable, that Italy is not near so populous at present as it was anciently. The Campagna di Roma, and several others of the most beautiful parts of it, are now in a manner deserted. But, on the other hand, some new cities, particularly Venice, have arisen in modern times, which contain a great many inhabitants; so that the numbers are commonly reckoned at 20,000,000. The Italians are rather of a swarthy complexion, but otherwise very handsome and well proportioned. The women are beautiful and amorous. They are contented and submissive under the present arbitrary go-

verments, which generally prevail in their country. Their manners are licentious and dissolute, though they are moderate in eating and drinking. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more superstitious than devout. The Roman Catholic religion prevails over all Italy; and it was in this country that it had its origin, which was the work of much time, and great address on the part of the Popes, originally no more than Bishops of Rome. The principal articles in which this religion differs from the Protestant, are, 1. The belief of the Pope's supremacy and infallibility. 2. That there are seven sacraments of the law, truly and properly so called, instituted by Christ, and necessary to the salvation of men, though not all of them to every one; these are, baptism, confirmation, eucharist, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage. 3. That in the mass there is offered unto God, a true and propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the most holy sacrament of the eucharist, there is really, and substantially, the body and blood, together with the soul and divinity, of Jesus Christ. 4. The belief of a purgatory, and that the souls kept prisoners there do receive help by the prayers of the faithful. 5. That the saints are to be prayed unto. 6. That the images of Christ and of the Virgin Mary are to be held in veneration. 7. That the church has the power of giving indulgences for sin. The established religion being Popery, the number of their patriarchs, archbishops, bishops, and inferior clergy, is very great; and almost one half of the year is made up of holidays. Their language is the Latin corrupted. Their universities are those of Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Parma, Padua, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Pisa, Naples, Salerno, and Perugia.

SARDINIA.

TO the king of Sardinia, who is an absolute monarch, belong the island of Sardinia, Savoy, Piedmont, Montserrat, part of the Milanese, and Oneglia in Genoa. He is styled "King of Sardinia, Duke of Savoy, Prince of Piedmont, &c." His residence is at Turin in Piedmont, which is strongly fortified, and one of the finest cities in Europe. His revenues are computed at 500,000*l.* sterling per annum, out of which he

maintains an army of 30,000 men, and in time of war he can raise 50,000 or upwards; but he has no navy. The number of inhabitants are computed at 1,800,000; and the country of Savoy being mountainous and barren, they are obliged to seek their bread all over the world. His Sardinian Majesty, by his situation, holds the keys of Italy against the French. With respect to the island of Sardinia, which is situated in the Mediterranean Sea, it is about 152 miles long, and 80 broad. It is pleasantly diversified with hills, and vales. The air in summer is hot and sultry, and is reckoned unhealthful. The soil is very fruitful where it is manured, producing corn, wine, and oil, in plenty; but there is a want of hands, and those that are there are said to be exceedingly lazy and indolent, seldom making any great improvement in their ground. The language is Spanish. This island having been under the dominion of Spain till very lately. The Phœnicians and Greeks, who called it Icanusa, first sent colonies to this island, and erected several small states, as they had done in the South of Italy and Sicily. The Carthaginians succeeded them, and had the dominion nearly of the whole island. The Romans dispossessed the Carthaginians. The Saracens held it in the 9th century, as they did Naples and Sicily. The republics of Genoa and Pisa recovered part of the island from them. Pope Boniface took upon him to transfer the island to the king of Arragon, who subdued the Genoese, Pisans, and the rest of the inhabitants, and annexed it to his own dominions. It remained united to the crown of Spain, till the allies made a conquest of it, in 1708. It was allotted to the emperor at the peace of Utrecht, 1713. The Spaniards recovered it in 1717, but were obliged to abandon it about 2 years after; when it was conferred on the Duke of Savoy, in lieu of the kingdom of Sicily, in 1719; and his descendants now enjoy the throne. The revenues do very little more than defray the ordinary expence of the government.

SAVOY.

THE duchy of Savoy has Switzerland on the N. Piedmont and Valois on the E. Bugey and Breffe on the W. and Dauphiny and part of Piedmont on the S. It is about 83 miles long, and 67 broad. It is rather mountainous, and the air consequently cold; but the soil is pretty fertile. The

chief commodities of this country are paper, fustians, raw silks, hides, cloths, iron-work, and timber. Savoy was anciently possessed by the Allobroges, and reduced under the obedience of the Romans in the reign of Augustus; and, having been successively subject to the northern nations, which destroyed the Roman empire, was at length incorporated with the kingdom of Burgundy, on the ruin of which the Emperor of Germany possessed himself of it, and conferred it on Hugh duke of Saxony, creating him duke of Savoy, and Prince of Piedmont. Victor Amadeus II. last duke of Savoy, married Anne Mary of Valois, daughter of Philip, duke of Orleans, and of the Princess Henrietta, daughter of Charles I. king of England; and by the said Mary of Valois had issue the late duke of Savoy (king of Sardinia); Mary Adelaide, mother of Louis XV. king of France, and Mary Louisa Gabrielle, who married Philip V. king of Spain, by whom he had issue the late king Ferdinand. The late duke of Savoy entering into the grand alliance against France, in 1702, lost all his strong towns; and Turin, his capital, was upon the point of being taken, when the allies marched to his relief, and raised the siege, utterly destroying the French army that lay before it, in 1706; and, at the peace of Utrecht, 1713, he was made king of Sicily, for the service he had done the allies in that war. Afterwards, in 1719, he exchanged Sicily for the crown of Sardinia, of which his present Majesty remains possessed.

PIEDMONT,

HAS Vallois on the N. Milan and Montferrat on the E. Nice and Genoa on the S. and Dauphiny and Savoy on the W. It is 175 miles long, and 40 broad. It contains many high mountains, among which there are several rich and fruitful vallies. The inhabitants are generally attached to the religion of the Church of Rome, and carry on a great trade in raw silk.

MONTFERRAT,

IS a small duchy, having Milan, and part of Genoa on the E. Genoa on the S. Piedmont on the W. and the Verfellese and Canavese on the N. It is fertile and well-cultivated, abounding in corn, wine, oil, and silk.

MILAN

Is a considerable duchy, having the Swiss and the Grisons on the N. the republic of Venice, and the duchies of Parma and Mantua on the E. Parma and Genoa on the S. and Piedmont and Monferrat on the W. It is 150 miles long, and 78 broad. In this country is the famous Lago Maggiore, which is about 50 miles long, and 5 broad. The country is extremely fertile and beautiful, producing every necessary, and many of the luxuries of life. The revenue of the duchy is computed at 900,000*l.* per annum; and the forces it is supposed to maintain 30,000. The natives are fond of literary and political discussions, and form societies for these purposes, which they term *Mascherite*, or secret. Their inland trade is considerable; but their exports fall short of their imports. The duchy of Milan constituted the north part of the ancient Liguria, and was inhabited by the Insubres, when the Romans reduced it under their dominion. The Goths made a conquest of it in the fifth century, and were dispossessed by the Lombards in 572. Milan composed the best part of the kingdom of Lombardy, which was subdued by Charlemagne, about 800; but, in the wars between the emperors and the Pope, Milan withdrew her allegiance, and assumed an independency, sometimes in the form of a republic, and at others governed by dukes. This duchy was long an object of contention between the emperor and the French, till Charles the V. expelled the French from it about the year 1525, and gave it, with Spain, to his son Philip II. It remained subject to this crown till the Imperialists, with the assistance of their allies, drove the French out of Italy in 1706. The Spaniards and French recovered it from the Imperialists in the year 1743; but by a subsequent peace it was restored to the emperor, on his ceding Naples and Sicily to the king of Spain; and the Austrians remain possessed of the duchy of Milan to this day, the emperor governing it by a viceroy.

PARMA.

THIS duchy has the river Po on the N. the Mantuan on the N. E. Modena on the E. Tuscany on the S. and Placentia on

the W. the air is wholesome, and the inhabitants live to a good old age. Here are some inconsiderable mines of copper and silver. The soil is exceedingly fertile in corn, wine, oil, and hemp. Parma underwent the fate of the rest of Italy, till it became subject to the German Emperors; it afterwards came under the power of the Pope, the Venetians, the Milanese, and the French, successively. Pope Julius II. in 1545, reduced it under the obedience of the See of Rome; and Pope Paul III. created his natural son, Peter Lewis Farnese, Duke of Parma: but the male line failing, the late Emperor Charles VI. granted it as a fee of the empire to Don Carlos, king of Spain, and, in right of his mother the queen dowager, heir of the house of Parma, against which the Pope protested, esteeming it a fee of the holy see. Parma was afterwards relinquished by Don Carlos, on his being advanced to the throne of Sicily; but by the late treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, it was allotted to the Infant Don Philip his brother. By the same treaty the Duchies of Placentia and Guastalla, were also ceded to him. These territories united, form a flourishing little state. The duke's court is said to be one of the politest in Italy, being formed entirely on the French model; the revenues amount to near 100,000*l.* per annum.

TUSCANY

IS a sovereign duchy, having Romagna, the Bolognese, the Modenese, and the Parmesan, on the N. the Mediterranean Sea on the S. Urbino, the Perugino, the Orvietano, St. Peter's Patrimony, and Castro, on the E. and Lucca, Genoa, and the Tuscan Sea, on the W. It is about 150 miles long, and 100 broad. Its revenues are upwards of 500,000*l.* and it can bring 30,000 troops into the field. Its capital city, Florence, is the second in Italy, for the many superb monuments of architecture, sculpture, and painting, it contains. It has been distinguished by the spirit of commerce, as well as by that of the fine arts. The chief trade consists in wine, oil, fruits, and great quantities of silk, with other productions of the country. The duchy of Tuscany, known anciently by the names of Umbria, Tyrrhenia, and Etruria, fell under the dominion of the Romans about 455 years before Christ. The Ostrogoths possessed it in the fifth century; and then the

Lombards, who were expelled by Charlemagne in 800: after which it became subject to the German emperors, who appointed the governor, till the pope encouraged these governors to render themselves independent, and accept of his protection against the emperor. There were two potent factions in Tuscany at this time, 1240, which divided the whole empire, and occasioned a very long and civil war, both in Italy and Germany; these factions went by the names of the Guelphs and Gibellines; the first appearing in the interest of the Pope, and the other in that of the emperor. During their contentions, the cities of Florence, Pisa, Sienna, and several others, withdrew themselves from the dominion of both the powers above-mentioned, and established that kind of government they thought most suitable to them; when John de Medicis, a popular nobleman, insinuated himself so strongly into the favour of the Florentines, that they invested him with the sovereign power. Pope Pius V. conferred the title of Grand Duke on Cosmo de Medicis in 1560, and the dukedom continued in this family till the death of Gaston de Medicis, the last duke, without issue, 1737: when it was transferred to the duke of Lorrain, by consent of the Emperor Charles VI. in lieu of the duchy of Lorrain, which was ceded to Stanislaus by the treaty of peace at the conclusion of the war between the empire on one side, and France and Spain on the other. At the close of the year 1780, the grand duke of Tuscany issued a new code of criminal laws, which were ordered to be observed in all his dominions. It consists of 110 articles; by which capital punishments were abolished, as having been found to leave too slight an impression on the minds of the people for the prevention of crimes, and more visible and permanent sufferings ordained in their stead. Torture, by this code, is prohibited; confiscations are declared to be unjust, as involving the innocent with the guilty; proportionable penalties are inflicted for slight offences; and a more equitable mode of trial established, particularly with regard to evidence.

ECCLESIASTICAL STATE.

THE dominions of the Pope are bounded by Venice on the N. the Gulph of Venice on the N. E. Naples on the S. and

S. E. and Tuscany on the N. W. Its extent from N. to S. is about 240 miles, and from S. W. to N. E. the variations are considerable, being in some places scarce 20 and in others 120 miles broad. From the tyranny of the Papal government, the inhabitants are very slothful, having but little encouragement for the labours of agriculture. The soil is, however, so extremely fertile, that it produces, almost spontaneously, a sufficiency for the subsistence of the inhabitants.

The territories of the Pope are divided into the following parts, viz. Campagna di Roma, St. Peter's Patrimony, Umbria or Spoleto, the Marquisate of Ancona, the duchy of Urbino, Romagna, Bologna, Ferrara, and the republic of St. Marino. The Pope lost great part of his power and influence at the reformation; but still he remains a considerable temporal Prince, and is absolute in his dominions. He holds a consistory of cardinals on ecclesiastical affairs; but they do not intermeddle with his civil government. The cardinals are seventy when their number is complete; they are appointed by the Pope on a vacancy; and he takes care always to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France. The Pope's chief minister is the cardinal patron, usually his nephew, who amasses an immense estate, if the reign be of any long duration. The Campagna di Roma is under the Pope's immediate government. The other provinces of the Ecclesiastical State are governed by legates and vice-legates; and there is a commander in chief of the Pope's forces in every province. The Pope monopolizes all the corn in his territories, and it is purchased of his agents at the price he sets upon it. It is observed, that there is more liberty allowed to people of all religions at Rome, than in any other Roman Catholic country. The Pope's revenues, as a temporal Prince, amount to about a million sterling per annum, raised chiefly by a monopoly of corn, the duties on wine, and other provisions. Almost the only port he has of consequence is that of Civita Vecchia, on the Tuscan Sea, which is strongly fortified, and has lately been made a free port; but the foreign traffic of the Pope's territories is not considerable, any more than his fleet; which only consists of a few galleys. The Pope's ecclesiastical dominion far exceeds his temporal. It is com-

puted that the monks and the regular clergy, which are absolutely at his devotion, do not amount to less than two millions of people, dispersed through every country of the world, to assert his supremacy over princes, and to promote the interest of the church. The revenues these monks draw from the Roman Catholic countries, do not amount to less than 20,000,000*l.* sterling per annum, beside the casual profits arising from offerings, and the people's bounty to the church, who are taught, that their salvation depends on this kind of benevolence. Before the reformation, the Pope had almost all Europe inveigled in spiritual bondage; he excommunicated and dethroned kings at pleasure. It was then he put the princes of Europe upon the foolish attempt of recovering Judea and the holy sepulchre from the Mohammedans. And such as distinguished themselves in this holy war were dignified with the titles of Knights of St. John of Jerusalem! Luther, by bringing about the reformation, gave this spiritual monarchy a signal blow, and delivered the northern princes of Europe from Papal tyranny: but, notwithstanding this, the Pope still continues to be a powerful spiritual monarch. He is styled Holiness; and an ambassador or prince approaching him humbly kisses his toes. His ambassadors are called legates or nuncios. He creates the seventy cardinals, mentioned above, who pretend to be next in dignity to crowned heads. He has still in Europe 3,000,000 parishes and 50,000 convents subject to his jurisdiction. The discouragement of industry and agriculture is interwoven in the constitution of the Papal government, which is vested in proud, lazy ecclesiastics. Their indolence and worthlessness, infect their inferiors, who prefer begging and imposing on strangers, to industry, especially as they must hold their properties by the precarious tenure of the will of their superiors. The inhabitants of many parts of the Ecclesiastical State must perish through their sloth, did not the fertility of their soil almost spontaneously afford them subsistence. Under such circumstances, it cannot be supposed that the commercial exports of the Ecclesiastical State are of great importance.

THE TWO SICILIES.

TO the king of the Two Sicilies belong the island of Sicily, with the kingdom of Naples, now called Sicily; at

also in Tuscany, the coast del Presidii, wherein is Orbitello, a good sea port town and harbour, and the island Elba.

NAPLES,

WHICH is in the S. part of Italy, has the Ecclesiastical State on the N. and N. W. the Mediterranean Sea on the W. the island of Sicily on the S. W. the Mediterranean on the S. and S. E. and the Gulph of Venice on the E. and N. E. It is about 250 miles long, and 70 miles broad. The soil is generally fertile. Mount Vesuvius is situated in this country, about 7 miles from the city of Naples. [See the Geographical Dictionary, article Vesuvius.] The kingdom of Naples, which has undergone many and great changes, was originally peopled from Greece, which is seated but a little to the eastward of it. This, with the rest of Italy, was subdued by the Romans, and on the decline of that empire, in the fifth century, the eastern emperor possessed himself of one part of Naples, and the Goths of the other. The Lombards dispossessed the Goths of their part, and remained masters of it till they were expelled by Charlemagne about the year 800. In the ninth and tenth centuries, the Saracens subdued great part of Naples; but the pope, with the assistance of other Christian powers, drove them out again. Tancred the Norman, and his 12 sons, having had a great share in this service, part of Naples was given them by the Pope. Robert, the son of Tancred, was created duke of Apuli and Calabria, by the German Emperor; and Roger, the son of Robert, was made king of the Two Sicilies, viz. Naples and Sicily. The heirs of Tancred enjoyed the crown till the year 1116, when happening to disoblige the Pope, he introduced the earl of Anjou and the French, whose posterity were kings of Naples and Sicily, till the Spaniards dispossessed them about 1504. The government of the Spaniards was so oppressive, that it gave rise to the famous revolt, headed by a poor fisherman, named Massaniello. His success was so extraordinary, that he obliged the Spaniards to abolish many oppressive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before these could be completely established, he grew delirious, and was shot at the head of his party. Naples continued to be governed by Spanish viceroys, till the beginning of the present century; when the Spaniards were driven

thence by the Imperialists in 1707; and Naples was confirmed to the Emperor Charles VI. by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1723. The French, Spaniards, and Sardinians, entering into a war with the Emperor in 1734, reduced Naples, and made Don Carlos, the king of Spain's son, king of that city. He was confirmed in the possession of the kingdom by the Emperor at the subsequent treaty, and assumed the title of King of the Two Sicilies, i. e. Naples and Sicily. Don Carlos, upon the death of his brother, king of Spain, on the 10th of August, 1789, succeeded to the throne of that kingdom, appointing his third son Ferdinand his successor to that of Sicily. The land forces of the king of the Two Sicilies, amount to about 30,000 men; his revenues to about 800,000*l.* per annum; and his subjects to little more than 2,000,000.

SICILY.

THIS is a large triangular island of the Mediterranean Sea. It is separated from the kingdom of Naples by a narrow strait, called the Faro di Messina. Sicily is divided into 3 provinces, viz. Val di Mazara on the W. Val di Demona on the E. and Val di Noto on the S. E. This island is situated in a warm climate; but the air is healthful, being refreshed by sea breezes. Both hills and vallies are exceedingly fruitful, no country producing more corn, wine, oil, and silk, in proportion to its dimensions. It was once the granary of ancient Rome for corn; and still continues to supply Naples and other parts with that necessary article. The most noted mountain in this island is that of Atna, now called Mount Cibello, a terrible volcano, situated in the province of Val di Demona. This mountain is 50 miles in circumference, and at the top there is a basin of burning sulphur 6 miles round, whence sometimes issue rivers of melted minerals that run down into the sea. The hill is so high, that round the basin there is a circle of snow great part of the year. Before any considerable eruption there is generally an earthquake. The port-town of Catania was overturned by an earthquake in 1693, and 18,000 people perished in it. Syracuse, once the greatest city of the island, has been so often overthrown by these earthquakes, that very little of it remains at present. In the beginning of 1783 there happened an eruption of Mount Atna, so dreadful, that history no where furnishes us with its parallel. For a

particular account of this tremendous earthquake see the Dictionary, article Calabria.

CORSICA.

AN Island of the Mediterranean Sea, now annexed to the crown of Great Britain, well known for the noble efforts of its Inhabitants, in the cause of liberty against the Genoese, and afterwards the French. It contains about 2500 square miles and has many good harbours. It is for the most part mountainous, yet the plains and valleys yield considerable quantities of corn, wine and other fruits, olive oil, and honey in abundance. Here is also a considerable breed of horses and other cattle. The Corsicans are extremely temperate and are said to resemble the Scotch Highlanders.—For a farther account see Geographical Dictionary.

GENOA.

THE republic of Genoa is vastly degenerated from its ancient power and opulence, though the spirit of trade still continues among its nobility and citizens. The chief manufactures are velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues, and paper. The city of Genoa, which abounds in superb edifices, contains about 150,000 inhabitants, its maritime power is dwindled to about six galleys, and 600 marines. The soil of its territory is poor; the government is anti-democratical, the legislative power being vested in a council of 400 noblemen and rich citizens. Their president is called Doge. He is elected every two years. The revenues of Genoa are about 200,000*l.* sterling per annum, with which they defray the charge of the government, keep up 3000 men, and maintain six galleys. The coast of Genoa extends about 150 miles along the Mediterranean sea, but the republic is not above 20 miles wide.

VENICE.

THE republic of Venice has the Alps on the N. the Mantuan and the Patriarchate on the S. the Gulph of Venice on the E. and the Milanese on the W. It contains the following subdivisions, viz. Venice Proper, Paduan, Veronese, Bresciano, Cremaico, Bergamasco, Vicentino, Rovigno, Trevigiano, Bel-

Iunese, Friuli, Udenese, and Istria. Venice is one of the most celebrated republics in the world, both on account of its singular constitution and former power. It is composed of several fine provinces on the continent of Italy, some islands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The chief manufacture carried on by this republic is that of plate-glass at the island of Murano, a mile distant from Venice. All Europe was formerly supplied with looking-glasses from this place, and although this branch of commerce be greatly diminished at present, it is still considerable. It is singular, that the plates here are made by blowing, instead of being cast. Venice is a level country and a fruitful soil, producing corn, wine, rich pasture, great quantities of silk, and plenty of all kinds of cattle; the flesh of their hogs is in most esteem; and their sheep afford fine wool. The sovereign power is lodged in the doge and nobility, though the doge has very little power. The constitution of the republic is that of an absolute aristocracy. The supreme cabinet council of the state is called the seigniory, which was originally composed of the doge and his counsellors only, but has been gradually increased to the number of 26 members. After this, in turbulent times, and to restrain the power of the doges, the council of ten was instituted, which in fact consists of 17 members; for beside the ten noblemen chosen annually, the doge presides, and six counsellors of the seigniory assist at the deliberations. This council is supreme in all state crimes. They proceed upon anonymous letters, and information, to receive which there are two figures of gaping lions placed under the porticoes of the ducal palace. It is the duty of three chiefs, chosen every month by lot from this court, to open all these letters, report the contents, and assemble the members when they think proper. They have the power of seizing accused persons, examining them in prison, and taking their answers in writing, with the evidence against them, which being laid before the court, those chiefs appear as prosecutors. Beside this, there is another tribunal, that of the state inquisitors, created in 1501, which is still more despotic and brief in its manner of proceeding. It consists of three members taken from the council of ten. These three persons have the power of deciding, without appeal, on the life of every citizen belonging to the Venetian State; the highest of the nobility, even the doge himself, not excepted. They keep the keys of

the boxes into which the anonymous informations are thrown. They have the right of employing spies, and issuing orders to seize all persons whose words or actions they think reprehensible, and afterwards trying them at pleasure. If they are unanimous, they may order the prisoner to be executed in public or private, without further ceremony. The state inquisitors have keys to every apartment in the ducal palace; they continue in office only one year; but are not responsible afterwards for their conduct while they were in authority. From this sketch of the constitution of this republic, so much extolled for its wisdom, and to the mysterious proceedings of which its grandeur and long existence is ascribed, we may perceive, that the doge has at present scarce any share in the power, and that his office is little more than a nominal dignity. The inquisitors of state are therefore very necessary at Venice to restrain the power of the nobility. They constitute a kind of oligarchy; but the persons chosen to exercise this supreme office, are senators advanced in years, and of tried integrity. If the grand council of the state should be dissatisfied with their administration, they are liable, upon every Sunday, to be deprived of their high office; and this done by appointing them governors to some village, or little castle: a species of ostracism among the Venetians, very severe and humiliating. The number of inhabitants is computed at 1,200,000. This is the most ancient republic in Europe, being upwards of 1200 years standing. The yearly revenues are 3,000,000*l.* sterling. The standing army about 20,000 men. The Venetians have been always reckoned among the greatest trading people in the world. The bank at Venice is esteemed one of the most considerable in Europe. The Venetians, though fallen from their ancient grandeur and importance, have still considerable manufactures in silk, scarlet cloth, gold and silver stuffs; and, above all, fine looking glasses. They also make all kinds of toys in glass, with which they supply the rest of Europe. They keep up a small fleet for curbing the insolence of the piratical states of Barbary.

LUCCA AND ST. MARINO.

THE other two republics in Italy, viz. Lucca in Tuscany on the west coast, and St. Marino, almost directly east from it,

and situated on the snowy mountains, are small and inconsiderable. The last is much admired by Mr. Addison, for the unshaken resolution of the inhabitants to maintain their liberty though surrounded by the Pope's dominions.

The inhabitants of Lucca are the most industrious of all the Italians. They have so much improved their country, which lies in a delightful plain on the Tuscan sea, being about 25 miles long, and 20 broad, that though the inhabitants do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 40,000*l*. The people in the town of Lucca deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruit, especially olives: their republic is under the protection of the house of Austria.

The remaining dominions in Italy are small duchies or principalities, subject to dukes or princes of their own names; these are the Duchy of Modena, governed by its own Duke, the head of the house of Este, from whom the royal family of England is descended. This duchy is fruitful, and under the protection of Austria. The other three small principalities are those of Massa, Piombino, and Monaco.

MALTA.

THE island of Malta, anciently Melita, is about 20 miles long, and 12 broad. The air is clear and healthful, but excessively hot. It is all a white soft rock, covered with good vegetable earth. It produces great quantities of cotton, indigo, oranges, lemons, olives, figs, and other fruits, with great plenty of pulse, peas, beans, roots, herbs, and other garden-stuff; but the Maltese have very little corn or wine, with which they are supplied chiefly from Sicily; nor have they any wood, except fruit-trees, on the island. The town of Malta, or Valetta, is magnificently built, strongly fortified, and has an excellent harbour. Charles V. emperor of Germany, and King of Spain, gave it to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem in 1530, whose predecessors distinguished themselves in the defence of the Holy Land, and in protecting the pilgrims who resorted thither. When the Christians were driven out of the Holy Land by the Saracens, these knights retired to Cyprus. They afterwards took the island of Rhodes from the Turks, and defended it against all their power for 200 years, and then, surrendering it upon honour-

able terms, retired to Malta. When Solymán, the Turkish emperor, invaded Malta, he was obliged to abandon the island, after he had lost 20,000 men before the walls of the city. The knights consist of 7 several Roman Catholic nations: they are all ancient noble families. The grand Crosses, as they are called, are the heads of each nation, and are styled Grand Priors. Each of them has his convent of knights, and they have estates, or commanderies, in the respective nations to which they belong. The priors elect a grand master, who is the chief commander in the island. They have a squadron of men of war, and land forces; and are engaged in perpetual war against the Turks, Algerines, and other Mohammedan powers. The knights make vows of celibacy and chastity; but they observe the first much more strictly than the last. This place is mentioned by St. Luke, Acts xxviii. where he says, after speaking of Paul's shipwreck, "when they were escaped, then they knew that the island was called Melita."

SWITZERLAND

IS situated betwixt 45 and 48 degrees North latitude, and betwixt 6 and 11 degrees East longitude, being 260 miles in length, and 100 miles in breadth. It is bounded on the N. by Alsace and Swabia; on the E. by the lakes of Constance, Tyrol, and Trent; on the S. by Italy; and on the W. by France. Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons, thus:

	Miles long.	Miles broad.	
Bern	111	87	} Calvinists.
Zurich	34	33	
Schaffhausen	23	9	
Basil	21	18	
Lucern	35	33	} Papists.
Underwald	23	16	
Uri	48	21	
Switz	27	23	
Fribourg	24	21	
Zug	18	10	
Solothurn	31	24	
Appenzel	23	21	} Calvinists and Papists.
Glaris	24	18	

The following places are subject to the Switzers, viz.

	Miles long.	Miles broad.	
Baden	26	12	Calvinists and Papists.
Bremgarten			
Mellingen			
Rhintail	20	6	
Thurgaw	18	11	
Lugano	52	50	
Locarno			
Mendris			
Magia			

The allies of the Swiss or Switzers, are neighbouring States that have entered into an alliance with the cantons for their mutual defence. Among which are, 1. The republic of the Grisons, whose capital is Corie. The Grisons, who are partly Protestant and partly Popish, besides their own country, have also under their subjection the neighbouring territories of Chiavenna, Valteline, and Bormio. 2. The republic and abbey of St. Gall, with their county of Tockenburgh on the east of Zurich and Appenzel, who are likewise a mixture of Protestants and Papists. 3. The republic of Vallais, toward Italy, whose capital is Sion, and the inhabitants all Roman Catholics. 4. The county of Neuchatel, on the west of Solothurn, a sort of republic, though the King of Prussia be styled its Sovereign. The inhabitants are all Protestants. 5. The republic of Geneva, in which Geneva is the capital, situated on the lake of that name; a large, rich, and populous city, having a famous university, and two academies. The people are all Calvinists. This republic declared themselves Protestants in 1535, and were admitted into the Swiss alliance in 1546. By the machinations of designing men, the pure democratical government of Geneva became altogether aristocratical and tyrannical; but the people, unable to bear the oppressive yoke of their rulers, shook off their fetters in 1794, and are once again a free nation. They have since entered into a league with France. 6. The Protestant city of Mulhausen in Alsace; to which may be added the cities Bienna and Poggent in the canton of Basil.

Switzerland lies upon the Alps, the highest mountains in Europe; some whereof are covered with snow or ice all the year; others are clothed with trees; and the cattle graze on their towering summits, even above the clouds. The principal rivers are, the Rhodé, which rises in the Alps; the Rhone, which also has its source here, and takes its course through the lake of Geneva into France. The smaller rivers are the Aar, Ruis, Inn, Thur, and Ogla.

It is not easy to give a description of the government of all these particular states, some of which are monarchical, others aristocratical, and others governed by the people. The Bishop of Basle, and Abbot of St. Gall are sovereigns. Every canton is absolute in its domestic jurisdiction; but, when any controversy arises that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which sits at Baden, where, each canton having a vote, every question is decided by the majority. The cantons of Bern, Zurich, and Lucern are aristocratical; those of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are purely democratical.

The 13 cantons are computed to contain 9,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave and industrious people, and, like the ancient Romans, equally inured to agriculture and arms. Linen, dimity, lace, stockings, handkerchiefs, and gloves, have been long manufactured in Switzerland; and the inhabitants are now beginning, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, to fabricate silk and velvets. The revenues of the canton of Bern are said to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and those of Zurich to 150,000. The revenues of the other cantons are far less considerable; but whatever is saved, after defraying the necessary expences of government, is laid up as a common stock; an example worthy of imitation. The revenues arise, 1. from the produce of the demesne lands. 2. The tenths of the produce of all the lands in the country. 3. Customs and duties on merchandize.

The military strength of Switzerland consists in a large body of militia furnished from the several cantons, according to the population and abilities of each. At Bern every man is a soldier from 16 to 60 years of age. Some of the citizens are always regimented; the body of officers is formed of the choicest troops, both as to stature and age. These are the sol-

diers that mount guard. The citizens enlisted furnish their arms at their own expence; and dress in the uniform, which is always grey. The dragoons also bring their own horses. Beside their hay, the state supplies them with hatchets, kettles, tents, and every camp necessary. Though every soldier has his own arms, yet the arsenals of the state are well supplied with them; that of Bern in particular, which is immense, and kept up with great care, is stored with a numerous and formidable artillery. All this militia is quickly assembled, in case of an alarm, by means of signals fixed in the different bailiwicks upon the most elevated spots, which are always guarded by a few soldiers. These signals consist of piles of dry wood, to kindle a fire in the night, or forage to raise a smoke in the day-time; and immediately upon their being given, all the troops march. By this means the Swiss can summon an army of 100,000 men in a few days; and in the space of a month an army of 300,000 regular and well-disciplined troops will be ready to take the field.

Though the Swiss form but one political government, they differ in point of religion, as the reader will have perceived from the above table. Zuinglius and Calvin were the great promoters of the reformation in this country. They differed from one another in some speculative points; and both of them deserve to be ranked among the most learned men which have flourished in Switzerland. In the present age the Swiss write well both in French and German, as the works of Rousseau, Gœtner, and Haller, sufficiently prove. The University of Basil, and the Colleges of Bern, Lausanne, and Geneva, are the most distinguished.

The Helvetians, or Swiss, were brought under the dominion of the Romans by Julius Cæsar, who added their country to the province of Gaul. They were afterwards part of the kingdom of Burgundy; then subject to France, and next to the German empire, under which they were cruelly oppressed, notwithstanding their petitions. About the year 1300, the emperor Albert appointed them an Austrian governor, one Guelser, who, in the wantonness of tyranny, ordered the natives to reverence his hat set upon a pole; which being with a proper spirit refused by William Tell, a celebrated marksman with a cross-bow, he was sentenced to be hanged, if he did not, at a certain distance, shoot an apple from the head of his own son;

Tell hit the apple with one of two short arrowa, or bolts, which he had provided; and, being asked what the other was intended for, he answered, "for the tyrant's heart, if I had killed my son." He was ordered to prison, but escaped, and with some others, brought about a revolution, which produced the several independant states of the Helvetic nation; and at the treaty of Westphalia, 1648, they were acknowledged free and independent, as the United Provinces were at the same treaty. In 1712, a war commenced between the Protestant and Catholic Cantons, wherein the latter were unsuccessful, losing Baden, and other territories. In this war, the canton of Bern alone brought 40,000 men into the field. These cantons were much more considerable, before they were disunited by their differences concerning religion.

NETHERLANDS.

THE Netherlands are a large country, containing 17 provinces, (seven of which are united, and form only one sovereignty,) which obtained the appellation of Netherlands, Pais Bas, or Low Countries, from their situation with respect to Germany. They have the German Sea on the N. Germany on the E. France and Lorrain on the S. and France and the British Sea on the W. being nearly 300 miles long, and 200 broad. The Netherlands are now considered by geographers under two principal heads, viz. the United Provinces, and the Austrian and French Netherlands, which method we shall likewise adopt, assigning the various provinces to their respective owners, as they stood before the commencement of the present unfortunate war, though the success of the French arms has made them masters of nearly the whole of them. And as the ten provinces have been made the chief seat of war, we shall begin with the

AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

THE Austrian Netherlands are situated between 49 and 51 degrees of N. latitude; and between 2 and 7 degrees of E.



longitude, being 200 miles long, and 130 miles broad. They are bounded on the N. by the United Netherlands; on the E. by Germany; on the S. by Lorrain, Champaign, and Picardy; and on the W. by the English Channel. The following are the names of the ten Netherlandish provinces:

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
1. Brabant,	Brussels; Austrian and Dutch.
2. Antwerp,	Antwerp; Austrian.
3. Malines,	Mechlin; Austrian.
4. Limburg,	Limburg; Austrian and Dutch.
5. Luxemburg,	Luxemburg; Austrian and French.
6. Namur,	Namur; Austrian.
7. Hainault,	Mons; Austrian and French.
8. Cambresis,	Cambray; French.
9. Artois,	Arras; French.
10. Flanders,	{ Ghent; Dutch, Austrian, and French.

Though these ten provinces go under the name of the Austrian and French Netherlands, yet they do not all belong to the house of Austria or France, but partly also to the Dutch, as in the following description:

1. Brabant belongs partly to the Dutch, and partly to the House of Austria. The chief towns in Dutch Brabant are, Bois-le-duc, Bréda, Bergen-op-zoom, Maastricht, Grave, Lille, Steenberghe. The towns of note in Austrian Brabant are, Brussels, Vilvorden, Nivelles, Louvain, Ramilies, Tirlemont.

2. Antwerp, though small in its territories, and surrounded by Brabant, is a distinct province, and subject to Austria. The town of Antwerp was once the richest trading city in the world; but in their struggle for liberty, was plundered for three days together, in the year 1576, by the soldiers of the duke of Alva. During which troubles the merchants removed to other places, and the trade drew off, chiefly to Amsterdam, where it still flourishes; and Antwerp is famous now only for its woollen manufactures.

3. Malines, or lordship of Mechlin, though of small extent, and surrounded by Brabant, makes a separate province,

and is subject to Austria. The capital, Mechlin, or Malines, is a large fine city, famous for the lace which goes by that name.

4. In the province of Limburg, the city of Limburg is subject to Austria; but the other parts belong to the Dutch; in which the chief towns are, Dalem, Valkenburg, and Wych.

5. In the province of Luxemburg, the cities of Luxemburg and Bastagne are subject to Austria; but the other parts of that province belong to France; in which the chief towns are, Thionville, Montmedi, and Damvilliers.

6. The province of Namur is subject to Austria: the only towns of note are, Namur and Charleroy, changed afterwards by the French, to Charles sur Sambre.

7. In the province of Hainault the places subject to Austria are, Mons, Aeth, Enguien. The other parts belong to France; in which are Valenciennes, Bouchain, Condé, Landrecy, Charlemont, and Givet.

8. The province of Cambresis is wholly subject to France. The towns of note are, Cambray and Vecœur.

9. The province of Artois is likewise entirely subject to France. The chief towns are, Arras, St. Omer, Aire, St. Venant, Beibune, and Tetrochen.

10. The province of Flanders is Dutch, Austrian, and French. In Dutch Flanders the chief towns are, Sluys, Axel, Hulst. In Austrian Flanders are, Ghent, Bruges, Ostend, Nieuport, Oudenard, Dendermond, Courtray, Dixmude, Ypres, Tournay, Furnes, and Menin. In French Flanders are, Lille, Dunkirk, Douay, Mardyke, St. Amand, Gravelines, and Mont Cassel.

Thus have we shewn to whom the various parts of the ten provinces of the Netherlands belonged before the commencement of the present war upon the Continent, between France and the Combined Powers; and how they may hereafter be circumstanced, on account of the different successes of the contending parties, it is impossible to foresee.

The air upon the coast of Flanders is reckoned somewhat unhealthy; but in the interior parts of the country, it is purer and more serene, and the seasons are more settled than in England. The soil is rich in corn and fruits. There is abundance of pasture; and flax is here cultivated in great perfection. Mines of iron, copper, lead, and brimstone,

are found in Luxemburg, Limburg, and Liege, as are some marble quarries. In the province of Namur, there are coal pits, with great plenty of fossil nitre. The Netherlands were formerly, by the culture, industry, and commerce of the inhabitants, the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe.

Flanders is a flat country; scarcely a hill appearing in any part of it. Brabant and the rest of the provinces consist of little hills and vallies, woods, inclosed grounds, and campaign fields.

The chief rivers are the Maese, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Senne, Ruppel, Scheldt, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent, and Ostend.

The Flemings (for so the inhabitants of the Netherlands are called) are deemed a heavy blunt people, with manners more honest than delicate. At present they are not distinguished in war, though they formerly fought bravely for their liberties. The country is extremely populous, containing a million and a half of inhabitants, though it has been frequently made the seat of war, by which vast numbers must have been destroyed, and the increase of population consequently hindered. The order of Jesuits has produced most of the learned men in this country. The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school a-part, at the head of which is Rubens and Vandyke.

Their manufactures consist of fine lawns, cambric, lace, and tapestry, in which, notwithstanding the boasted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled, particularly in the cambrics, from Cambray the chief place of its manufacture. The revenues arise from the demesne lands and customs; but so much is the trade of the Austrian Flanders now reduced, that they are said hardly to defray the expences of the government. The French Netherlands bring in a considerable revenue to the crown.

The religion of the ten provinces, except that part of Brabant and Flanders subject to the Dutch, is Popery. They have one archbishop, seven bishops, and three Universities, viz. Louvain, Douay, and St. Omer. The inhabitants are Dutch, French, and Flemings. The Flemish language is a dialect of the German, French, and Dutch.

UNITED PROVINCES.

THE Seven United Provinces are situated between 51 and 54 degrees North latitude, and between 3 and 7 degrees East longitude, being 150 miles in length, and nearly as much in breadth, and bounded on the W. and N. by the German Sea; on the E. by Westphalia; and on the S. by Flanders, Brabant, and the duchy of Cleves. The names of the provinces are,

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
1. Holland,.....	Amsterdam.
2. Zealand,.....	Middelburg.
3. Friesland,.....	Lewarden.
4. Groningen,.....	Groningen.
5. Overijssel,.....	Deventer.
6. Guelderland,.....	Nimeguen.
7. Utrecht,.....	Utrecht.

1. The province of Holland is divided into South Holland, North Holland, and the Isles. In South Holland the chief towns are, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Delft, the Hague, Ryfwick, Haarlem, Leyden, Dort, Williamstadt, Naerden, Goezum, Heusden. In North Holland the chief towns are, Saardam, Edam, Hoorn, Enchuyden, Alkmaer, Monckdam, Purmerent.

<i>The Isles are,</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Voorn, containing	Briel, Helvoetsluys.
Heemond,.....	No town.
Goree,.....	Goree.
Overflake,.....	Somerdyke.
Texel,.....	Burg.
Vilhe,.....	Two villages.
Schelling,.....	Five villages.

2. The province of Zealand consists of eight islands, namely, Walcheren, Schowen, South Beveland, North Beveland, Duyveland, Tolen, Walferdyck, and St. Philip. In Walcheren are, Middelburg, Campvere, and Flushing, rich trading cities; and these are the the only towns of note in the province.



3. In Friesland the towns of note are, Lewarden, Dockum, Franker, Harlingen, Sloat; to which add the Isle Ameland.

4. In Groningen, the principal towns are, Groningen, Winschoten, and Dam.

5. In Overijssel, the chief towns are, Deventer, Zwoil, Coverden, Otmarfen, and Campen.

6. In Guelderland the most considerable towns are, Nims-guen, Skenkenlehaas, Bommel, Arnheim, Loo, (a palace of the prince of Orange,) Harderwick, Zutphen, Doeburg, Groil, Venlo; to which add Ruremond, subject to Austria, and Guelder, to the king of Prussia.

7. In Utrecht, the chief towns are, Utrecht, Amersfort, Montfort, and Duesterdwyck.

The United Netherlands, or Low Countries, called also Holland, from the name of the largest province, and the people Hollanders or Dutch, consist of flat low lands, without any mountain of note. The province of Holland is divided from Friesland by the Zuyder Sea, and to the North of Leyden is a remarkable lake called Harlem Meer. The country is fenced against inundations of the sea, and land-floods, by dikes seventeen ells thick.

The rivers are, the Rhine; which, on entering this country, divides into three branches, called the Waal, the Lech, and the Yssel; of which, the Waal and the Lech join the Maas, and fall into the sea, opposite to England; but the Yssel runs North, and falls into the Zuyder Sea. The Scheldt also forms two branches, called the Eastern and Western Scheldt. The Vecht runs through the province of Overijssel, and falls into the Zuyder Sea. Besides which there are numberless canals.

The air in Holland is thick and foggy, till purified by the frost in winter, when the East wind usually sets in for about 4 months; then the harbours of the Dutch are frozen up, which is a circumstance disadvantageous to their foreign traffic, but very necessary for their health. The winter is much colder than with us, who lie under the same parallel of latitude, yet the summers are hotter. The moisture of the air corrodes metals to rust, and wood to mould, more than in any other country; which is the reason of their perpetual rubbing and scouring, and of the brightness and cleanliness in their houses, so much taken notice of by travellers. The neighbouring sea, salt-marshes, and bogs, occasion this country to be very

unhealthful in spring and autumn. The country produces nothing but cattle, butter, cheese, fish, and wild fowl: but trade, industry, frugality, and manufactures, supply all wants. The Dutch export woollen and silk goods, East and West India wares; for which they import corn and victuals of all sorts. In Asia they have settlements at Malabar, Cochin, Malacca, Ceylon, Java, and the Molucca or Spice Islands: in Africa, at Guinea, and the Cape of Good Hope: in America, at Surinam, Curassou, Bonaville, and Essequibo. They have a herring fishery on the coast of Scotland, which they carry on to the detriment of the native proprietors. They excel in numberless branches of manufacture, such as their pottery, tobacco-pipes, delft-ware, finely refined salt. They are famous for their oil mills, starch manufactures, fine linen and table damasks, saw mills for timber, their vast woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures; the great quantity of their coin and specie, preserved in the bank of Amsterdam; their East India trade, and their general industry and frugality. The Dutch have no timber growing, and yet planks and materials for building may be bought here at a lower price than any where; they have no other firing but turf, which they make up into a kind of composition, by mixing it with the coals they receive from England; and this is the ordinary fuel with which their houses are heated. It is greatly doubted, however, whether their commerce, manufactures, navigation, and fishery, be in the same flourishing condition in which they were at the beginning of this century; and whether the riches and luxury of individuals have not damped the general industry of the inhabitants.

As to the customs of the United Provinces, they are generally the same through all of them. Frugality prevails among all ranks. Every man spends less than his income, be that what it will; all appetites and passions run cooler here than in any other country, avarice excepted; quarrels are very rare, revenge seldom heard of, and jealousy scarce ever known. Smoking of tobacco is a custom that prevails universally, not only among the lower class, but also among the tradesmen and people of a middle station. Bowls are the ordinary diversion of the common people; and billiards, chess, and tennis, the amusement of the better sort. Both men and women are remarkable for their dexterity in skating;

and, in winter time, many of them are seen going about their several occupations from one place to another upon the ice; some with baskets or bundles upon their heads, or pails in their hands.

This land consists of as many different republics as there are provinces in it, all independent of each other, but united for their common defence. They were once subject to Spain, but being oppressed by Spanish tyranny, they shook off that yoke, and formed the famous union of Utrecht in the year 1579. The government of the United Provinces is not easily defined or understood. They subsist in a common confederacy; yet each province has an internal government and constitution independent of the rest: this government is called the States of the Province, and the delegates from them form the States-General, in whom the sovereignty of the whole confederacy is vested. Though a province may send one more or delegates, yet it has no more than one voice in every resolution; and before that resolution can have the force of a law, it must be approved by every province, and even by every city in that province; but, in times of great danger and emergency, this formalism has been omitted. The residence of the States-General is at the Hague, where they consult about affairs of state, declare war, and make peace, form alliances, and give audience to foreign ministers. At the head of this council is the Stadtholder, which office is now hereditary in the person of William V. prince of Orange and Nassau, who is also Captain-General and Admiral of the Seven United Provinces. The States-General are addressed by the title of High Mightinesses.

The republic is very populous, consisting of at least 5,600,000 inhabitants. Their revenues in time of peace are 1,500,000*l.* and in time of war is often increased to 4,000,000*l.* The land-forces amount to 40,000 men; of which the half is garrisoned commonly in the barrier-towns subject to Austria; namely, Namur, Tournay, Ypres, Menin, Furnes, Dendermonde, and Runkmond. Their fleet consists of forty ships of the line; and it is said, that they have so much timber and naval stores, that they could build a man of war every week.

Their religion is Calvinist; but all religious sects are here tolerated; and the Roman Catholics, next to the Presbyterians, are most numerous. The Dutch have Universities at

Leyden, Utrecht, Franker, Groningen, and Harderwick. Their language is a mixt corrupted German.

Concerning the history of the Netherlands in general, we must observe, that upon the decline of the Roman empire, the Goths, and other northern people, possessed themselves of these provinces first, as they passed through them in their way to France and Spain; and here they erected several small governments, which were a kind of limited monarchies, the nobility and clergy forming a grand council under the prince, who was styled duke, marquis, viscount, &c. These provinces were first united in the House of Burgundy, and afterwards in the House of Austria by marriage, conquest, or compact. Charles V. emperor of Germany, and king of Spain, about the year 1529, constituted them one of the ten circles of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. This prince was the first who began to encroach upon their liberties, by introducing foreign forces, and putting foreigners into places of trust and profit in the administration. His son, Philip II. proceeded to deprive the States of the several provinces, of their share in the government; and, endeavouring to render himself arbitrary, occasioned a general insurrection. The counts Hoorn and Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it, and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the same time in the Netherlands, his disciples joined the malecontents: upon which king Philip attempted to introduce a kind of inquisition, in order to suppress them. The counts Hoorn and Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange retired into Holland, and with the assistance of England and France preserved that, with some of the adjacent provinces, which entered into a treaty, for their mutual defence at Utrecht, in the year 1579. They have ever since been styled, The United Provinces; but the ten provinces, last described, were reduced to the obedience of Spain by the duke of Alva and other Spanish generals: their ancient privileges were, however, in a great measure, restored; every province was allowed its great council, or parliament, the concurrence of which was required to the making of laws, and the raising of money for the government, though these assemblies were too often obliged to follow the dictates of the court. The provinces which have since been under the dominion of France, are of course subject to the



same kind of government as that kingdom. The Spaniards remained possessed of the other ten provinces, till the duke of Marlborough, general of the Allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies in 1706. After this, Brussels, the capital, and great part of these provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. (afterwards emperor of Germany) their sovereign; and his daughter, the empress-queen, remained possessed of them till the war of 1741, when the French made an entire conquest of them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; but they were restored by the peace of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, the French retaining only Artois, Cambresis, part of Hainault, and part of Luxemburg.

GERMANY.

GERMANY is situated between 45 and 55 degrees North latitude, and between 5 and 19 degrees East longitude, being 600 miles in length, and 500 miles in breadth. It is bounded on the N. by the German Sea, Denmark, and the Baltic; on the E. by Poland, Bohemia, and Hungary; on the S. by Switzerland, and the Alps, which divide it from Italy; and on the W. by France and the Netherlands.

The emperor Maximilian, predecessor to Charles V. divided Germany into ten great circles; and the division was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy or the 17 provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we confine ourselves to nine of these divisions which follow:

<i>Circles.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
1. Upper Saxony,	Berlin.
2. Lower Saxony,	Hamburg.
3. Westphalia,	Munster.
4. Upper Rhine,	Frankfort.
5. Lower Rhine,	Heidelberg.
6. Franconia,	Nuremberg.
7. Austria,	Vienna.
8. Bavaria,	Munich.
9. Suabia,	Augsburg.

1. UPPER SAXONY.

THE circle of Upper Saxony comprehends, 1. Pomerania. 2. The electorate of Brandenburg. 3. The electorate of Saxony. 4. Thuringia. 1. Pomerania, which is about 250 miles long and 75 broad, is subject, partly to Prussia, and partly to Sweden, their territories being separated by the river Pene. In Prussian Pomerania the chief towns are, Stein, Anklam, Stargart, Camin, Colberg, Rugenwald, Stolpe, Lawenburg, Butow, and the island Ufedom. In Swedish Pomerania the chief towns are, Stralsund, Grispwald, Guttrow, Walgast, and the island Rugen, in which is Bergen. 2. The electorate of Brandenburg is subject to its own elector, the king of Prussia. The chief towns are, Brandenburg, Frankfort on the Oder, Spandaw, Oranienburg, Potsdam, Stendel, Saltzwedel, Tangermunde, Periberg, Havelberg, Prenslow, Templin, Gamzow, Custrin, Sonneburg, Soldin, and Berlin, which lies on the river Spree, and contains about 130,000 inhabitants. 3. The electorate of Saxony is subject to its own elector, and comprehends the duchy of Saxony, the margravate of Lusatia, and the marquissate of Misnia. In the duchy of Saxony is the city of Wittenburg, famous for being the place where Luther preached his first sermon against the pope. In the margravate of Lusatia, the towns of note are Ranzow and Gorkitz. In the marquissate of Misnia the chief towns are, Meissen, Konigstein, Muehlburg, Leipzig, where are kept the greatest fairs in Europe, and Dresden the electoral residence. The revenue of the elector is said to amount to 1,350,000*l*. 4. The Landgravate of Thuringia is divided among many sovereigns, as follow: 1. The city Erfurt, the capital of the whole country, is subject to the elector of Mentz. 2. There are several duchies subject to so many dukes of the same name, viz. Saxe Meiningen, Saxe Zeitz, Saxe Altenburg, Saxe Weimar, Saxe Gotha, Saxe Kihnach, Saxe Saalfeld, and Saxe Naumberg. The capitals of these duchies are of the same name, viz. Meiningen, Zeitz, Altenburg, &c. 3. The duchy of Halle, is subject to the king of Prussia. 4. The province of Voigtland, with its capital, Plawen, and the duchy of Meriberg, are subject to the elector of Saxony. 5. There are several counties subject to so many

counts of the same name, viz. Schwartzburg, Belchingin, Mansfield, Stolberg, and Hohenstein. 6. The principality of Anhalt is divided among several petty princes; the chief towns are, Dessau, Zerbst, Bernberg, and Kothén. 7. The bishopric of Saxe Halle is subject to its own bishop.

2. LOWER SAXONY.

THE circle of Lower Saxony comprehends, 1. The duchy of Holstein. 2. The duchy of Lawenburg. 3. The duchy of Brunfwick. 4. The electorate of Hanover. 5. The duchy of Lunenburg. 6. The duchies of Bremen and Verden. 7. The duchy of Mecklenberg. 8. The bishopric of Hildesheim. 9. The duchies of Magdeburg and Halberstadt. 1. The duchy of Holstein is subject, partly to Denmark, partly to the Czarina of Russia, and part of it consists of imperial cities. The chief towns subject to Denmark are, Rensburg, Mieldorp, Glückstadt, Segeberg, Rantrow, and the isle of Fömeren. The chief towns subject to the Czarina are Kiel, Lunden, Hyde, Trittow, Darmstadt, and Ploen. The imperial cities are, Lübeck and Hamburg. These two cities are also hanse-towns. 2. The duchy of Lawenburg is subject to Hanover; the chief towns are, Lawenburg, Ratzburg, and New Wittenberg. 3. The duchy of Brunfwick, now a principality, is divided into Brunfwick Proper, and the duchy of Wolfenbuttle, both being subject to the prince of Brunfwick; to whom also belong the counties of Rheinfein and Blackenburg. The capitals of all these are of the same name. The elector of Hanover has the title of duke of Brunfwick, but without any property in that duchy. 4. The electorate of Hanover comprehends the duchy of Calenberg, the duchy of Grubbenhagen, and the city of Göttingen. The towns of note in Calenberg are Hanover, Herrenhausen, and Hamelen. Hanover, the capital, stands on the river Leina, contains the electoral palace, and about 2,500 houses. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about 750,000 inhabitants, who live in 38 cities, and 60 market towns, beside villages. In Grubbenhagen are, Grubbenhagen, Eimberg, Osterode, and Hertzberg. The city of Göttingen is a strong place, where an university was erected by George II. 5. The duchy of Lunenburg, now subject to Hanover, is divided into Lunenburg Proper, and the duchy of Zell. The capitals are of the

same names. 6. The two duchies of Bremen and Verden, whose capitals are of the same name, were ceded to the elector of Hanover, now king of Great Britain, by treaty, signed at Stockholm, July 28, 1729. Bremen is an imperial city, and a hanse-town. 7. The duchy of Mecklenburg is now divided into two smaller duchies subject to different sovereigns, viz. the duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin, and the duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz. From the latter, the king of Great Britain had his royal consort queen Charlotte in September 1761. The towns of note are, Schwerin, Strelitz, Wismar, Gustrow, Rostock, and Stargard. 8. The bishopric of Hildesheim, whose capital is of the same name, and an imperial city, is subject to the elector of Cologne. 9. The duchies of Magdeburg and Halberstadt, whose capitals are of the same name, are subject to the king of Prussia.

3. WESTPHALIA.

THE circle of Westphalia may be divided into three parts, viz. 1. The northern division. 2. The middle division. 3. The western division. 1. The northern division comprehends, the county of Embden or East Friesland, whose capital is Embden, an imperial city, subject to the king of Prussia. The county of Oldenburg, and province of Delmonhurst, with capitals of the same name, subject to Denmark. The provinces of Hoya and Diepholt, with capitals of the same name, subject to Hanover. 2. The middle division comprehends, the bishoprics of Munster, Paderborn, and Osnabrue, whose capital is of the same name, subject to the elector of Cologne. The counties of Lippe, Schawmburg, subject to count de Lippe; the capital Biekeburg; Lippe Detmold, subject to its own count, the capital Lemgow; and Pyrmont, subject to its own count, the capital Pyrmont. The duchy of Minden and county of Ravensburg, with capitals of the same name, subject to the king of Prussia. The duchy of Westphalia, whose capital is Aurenburg, subject to the elector of Cologne. The counties of Tecklenburg, Ritberg, and Schawenburg, with capitals of the same name, subject to their respective counts. 3. The western division comprehends, 1. The duchy of Cleves, whose capital is Cleves, subject to the king of Prussia. The duchy of Berg, whose capital is Dusseldorp; and the duchy of Juliers, whose chief towns are Juliers and

Aix la Chapelle. Both these duchies are subject to the elector Palatine. The county of Mark, whose capital is Ham, subject to the king of Prussia. The bishopric of Liege, with a capital of the same name, subject to its own bishop. And, the counties of Bentheim, and Steinfurt, with capitals of the same name, subject to their respective counts.

4. UPPER RHINE.

THE circle of the Upper Rhine, which crosses the circle of the Lower Rhine, and extends from Lorrain to Thuringia, comprehends, 1. The Landgravate of Hesse. 2. Several counties in the Wetteravia. 3. A few states that lie more scattered. 1. The Landgravate of Hesse is divided into four small landgravates subject to so many landgraves of the house of Hesse, viz. Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Marpurg, Hesse-Darmstadt, and Hesse-Rhinefeld; the capitals are of the same name, viz. Cassel, Marburg, Darmstadt, Rhinefeld. To Hesse-Cassel belong also Homberg, Catzenelbogen, Hanau, and Kirchfeld. 2. The counties in Wetteravia are subject to so many counts of the house of Nassau. The counties are, Nassau-Dillenberg, Nassau-Diets, Nassau-Hadamar, Nassau-Kerberg, Nassau-Siegen, Nassau-Idstein, Nassau-Weilberg, Nassau-Wilsheden, Nassau-Biehlstein, Nassau-Otweiler, Nassau-Ullingen. The capitals are, Dillenburg, Diets, &c. all of the same name: to these may be added the counties of Waldeck, Solms, Bysemburg, and some others, all subject to their own counts. 3. The states that lie more scattered are, the territory of Frankfort, a sovereign state whose capital is Frankfort on the Maine, an imperial city. The county of Bipach, subject to a count of that name. The bishopric of Spire, a sovereign state, whose capital is Spire on the Rhine, an imperial city. The duchy of Deuxponts or Zwebruggen, i. e. two bridges, subject to the duke of Deuxponts, whose capital is Deuxponts in the Palatinate. The abbey of Fuld, subject to an abbot of that name.

5. LOWER RHINE.

THE circle of the Lower Rhine, called also the Electoral Circle, comprehends, 1. Four electorates, viz. Palatine, Co-

logne, Mentz, and Triers. 2. The bishopric of Worms. 3. The duchy of Simmeren. 4. Several counties. 1. The four electorates, excepting the first, are also archbishoprics, Of which in order. 1. The Palatinate lies on both sides of the river Rhine, being subject to the Elector Palatine; the chief towns are Heidelberg, Philipsburg, Mannheim, and Frankendal. 2. The electorate and archbishopric of Cologne is subject to its own elector, a considerable prince, and who maintains about 6000 troops. The chief towns are, Cologne, Bonn, Keipen, and Grimburg. 3. The electorate and archbishopric of Mentz is likewise subject to its own elector, who has some territories scattered in Franconia, Saxony, and Thuringia; but his revenue is said not to exceed 20,000l. Sterling; and he can bring about 6000 men into the field. This archbishop, however, is the first elector, and presides in the diet of the empire. The capital is Mentz, on the confluence of the Maine and Rhine. The other towns of note are, Aschaffenburg, Erengeu, and Stenheim. The electorate and archbishopric of Triers, or Treves, is also subject to its own elector. The chief towns are, Triers, Coblenz, and Saarburg. 2. The bishopric of Worms is a sovereign state; the capital is Worms, an imperial city. 3. The duchy of Simmeren is subject to its own duke, and the capital Simmeren. 4. The counties are, Rhinegravelstein, subject to its own count; Meurs, subject to the king of Prussia; Valdens, subject to the elector palatine; Leyminger, subject to its own count: The capitals of all these are of the same name. To these add the county of Spanheim, whose capital is Creutznach.

6. FRANCONIA.

THE circle of Franconia, from which the French originally came, comprehends, 1. Three bishoprics. 2. Several states of different titles. 3. Several counties. 1. The three bishoprics are, Wurzburg, Bamberg, and Aichstat, subject to their respective bishops, with capitals of the same name. 2. The states are, 1. The marquisates of Cullenbach and Onspach, subject to their respective margraves, with capitals of the same name. 2. The principality of Henneburg. 3. The duchies of Coberg and Hildburghausen, subject to their respective dukes. 4. The burgraviate of Nuremberg, an independent

state, whose capital is Nuremberg an imperial city. Here, in the church of the Holy Ghost, are kept the ensigns of the empire, viz. the crown, sceptre, globe, sword, tunic, &c. used at the emperor's coronation. 5. The territory of the great master of the Teutonic order, the capital whereof is Memmingen. 6. The counties are, Reineck, Bareith, Papenheim, Wertheim, Cassel, Schwartzsburg, and Holsch, with capitals of the same name.

7. AUSTRIA.

THE circle of Austria comprehends, 1. The archduchy of Austria. 2. Four duchies. 3. The county of Tirol. 4. The bishoprics of Brixen and Trent. 1. The archduchy of Austria lies on both sides of the Danube; and is divided into Upper and Lower. In Upper Austria, Linz on the banks of the Danube is the chief town. In Lower Austria, the capital is Vienna, a strong cit., on the south side of the Danube. 2. The four duchies are, 1. Stiria, whose capital is Gratz. To which may be added the county of Glibey, whose capital is of the same name. 2. Carinthia; in which the towns of note are, Clagenfurt, Gurck, and Lavamaad. 3. Carniola; in which the chief towns are, Laiback, Zernitz, Trielle, and St. Veits. 4. Gorizia, whose capital is Goritz. 3. The county of Tirol is a hilly country, and abounds with mines of iron and quicksilver; the capital is Inspruck. 4. The bishoprics of Brixen and Trent have capitals of the same name. Trent is famous for the council held there, which began in 1545, and was finished in 1563.

8. BAVARIA.

THE circle of Bavaria comprehends, 1. The electorate. 2. Two bishoprics. 3. The duchy of Neuburg. 4. The archbishopric of Salzburg. 1. The electorate, subject to its own elector, consists of two parts, viz. the duchy and the palatinate. In the duchy, the chief towns are, Munich, the residence of the elector, who can raise 30,000 men. The other towns are, Landshut, Ingolstadt, Donauwert, and Ratibon, an imperial city, where the diet of the empire, ever since the year 694, has been held. In the palatinate, the towns of note are,

Amberg and Sulzbach. The last of which, with some territory, is subject to the elector palatine. 2. The two bishoprics are those of Freisingen and Passau, subject to their respective bishops. Their capitals are of the same name. 3. The duchy of Newburg, with a capital of that name, is subject to the elector palatine. 4. The archbishopric of Salzburg is subject to its own archbishop. Salzburg, the capital, is a large populous city.

9. SUABIA.

THE circle of Suabia comprehends, 1. The secular dominions. 2. The ecclesiastical states. 3. The sovereign states. 4. The territories subject to the house of Austria. 1. The secular dominions in this circle may be reduced to five heads, viz. 1. The duchy of Wurtemberg, subject to the duke of Wurtemberg-Stuttgart. The chief towns are, Stuttgart, Tübingen, and Hailbronn. 2. The marquises of Baden-Baden and Baden-Dourlach, subject to their respective margraves, with towns of the same name. 3. The principalities of Mindelheim, Fursenburg, and Hohenzollern, subject to their respective princes, with towns of the same name. 4. The counties of Oetting, Koenigsack, and Hohenrichburg; the capitals of the former two being of the same name, and that of the last Gemund. 5. The baronies of Waldburg and Limpurg, with towns of the same name. 2. The ecclesiastical states may be reduced to three classes, viz. 1. The bishopric of Augsburg, subject to its own bishop. The capital is Augsburg, an imperial city; the other towns of note are, Hochstet and Blenheim, on or near the Danube. 2. The bishopric of Constance, subject to its own bishop, under the house of Austria; the capital is Constance, on the lake of that name. 3. The abbeys of Kempten, Buchau, and Lindau, with capitals of the same name, all imperial cities. 3. The most considerable of the sovereign states is the territory of Ulm, whose capital is Ulm, an imperial city on the Danube. The sovereign states of less note are, Nordlingen, Memmingen, Rotwell, Hall, Offenburg, and some others, with capitals of the same name, all imperial cities. 4. The territories subject to the house of Austria are, 1. The towns of the Black Forest, viz. Rhinefeld, Lauffenburg, Seckingen, and Waldshut. 2. The mar-

2. The territory of Burgaw. 3. The territory of Brisgaw, on the Rhine; in which the chief towns are Friburg and Brisac, strong fortifications. 4. The territory of Ottomaw. 5. The counties of Hohenberg, Montfort, Bruggen, and Valdkirch. 6. The city of Colmar, famous for the martyrdom of John Huss, and Jerome of Prague.

The emperors of Germany, having had occasion from time to time for supplies of money to carry on their wars, or for other purposes, borrowed large sums from the rich trading cities of the empire; which they repaid, not in specie or kind, but in grants and privileges, empowering them to make laws for themselves, constitute courts of justice, coin money, allowing them seats in the diet of the empire; and making them in all respects free and independent, except only that they acknowledged the emperor as their supreme lord, and contribute their share for the common defence of their country. A community thus endowed, with the territory thereto belonging, is called a sovereign state, and the town is called an imperial city; the number of them is about fifty-two.

The hanse-towns, so called from Hanse, an alliance, were mostly sea-port towns, about eighty in number, the inhabitants of which, for the more effectual promotion of trade and commerce, entered into an alliance or confederacy. They were divided into four classes; the Vandal, the Westphalian, the Saxon, and the Prussian. The capital of the Vandal was Lubec; of the Westphalian, Cologne; of the Saxon, Brunswick; and of the Prussian, Dantrick. At Lubec, the first hanse-town, was the chief directorship; where was kept the general cash; and matters of importance, even of war and peace, were deliberated there. The alliance of the hanse-towns continued upwards of 300 years, and arrived to that pitch of power that the northern princes stood in awe of them; but now, as so many nations have applied to trade, the grandeur of the hanse-towns has dwindled almost to nothing; so that there remains at present only a shadow thereof in the three principal cities, viz. Lubec, Hamburg, and Bremen, which are still called Hanse-towns.

Germany is in general a plain level country, without any mountains of note. The rivers are, the Danube, which, after a course of about a thousand miles, falls into the Euxine or Black Sea. The rivers which fall into the Danube on the

South side, are, the Iller, Lech, Isar, Inn, Enns, Drave, Save, and Morava. The rivers which fall into the Danube on the North side, are, the Regen, Nab, Theyde, Alana, and Renth. The Danube has several falls, or cataracts, which interrupt the navigation to the Black Sea. 2. The Rhine; the rivers that fall into which are, the Neckar, Maine, Elod, Rhen, and Lope. 3. The Elbe; the rivers that fall into which are, the Muldaw, Sala, Havel, Sprée, and Elmenau. 4. The Oder. 5. The Pene. 6. The Weiser, which receives the Aller. 7. The Ems. 8. The Moselle, which receives the Saar.

The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts of country, differs exceedingly, not only on account of the situation, North, East, South, and West, but according to the improvement of the soil, which has a vast effect on the climate. The most mild and settled weather is found in the middle of the country at an equal distance from the sea and the Alps. The soil of Germany is far from being improved to the utmost by culture; in the North it is barren and sandy; but in the middle and South it is in many places surprisingly fertile. Agriculture has of late years made considerable progress. Germany abounds in metals and minerals. Bohemia and many places in the circle of Austria, contain mines of silver, quicksilver, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, nitre, and vitriol; salt-petre, salt-mines, and salt-pits are found in Bavaria, Silesia, and the Lower Saxony; where are also found carbonates, amethysts, jasper, agate, alabaster, several sorts of pearl, turquoise stones, and rubies. In Bavaria and Tirol, are quarries of curious marble, slate, chalk, ocre, lead, allum, and bitumen; besides other fossils.

Germany has vast advantages in commerce from its situation in the heart of Europe, and perforated as it were with great rivers. Its native materials for commerce, besides the mines and minerals already mentioned, are hemp, flax, wax, anise, cummin, tobacco, saffron, madder, muffs, fine fruits. It exports to other countries, corn, tobacco, horses, lean cattle, butter, cheese, wax, honey, wines, linen, and woollen-yarn, ribbons, silk and cotton stuffs, tannery wares in wood, metal, and ivory, goat-skins, wool, timber, (both for ship building and houses,) cannon and bullets, bombs and bomb-shells, iron plates, stoves, tinned plates and steel work, copper, brass, porcelaine or china ware, the finest in Europe, and of which there are large manufactures in Berlin, Dresden, and Vienna.

The emperor is a limited monarch with respect to the empire, but absolute in his hereditary dominions. He is addressed by the title of Sacred imperial majesty, always august. When the imperial throne happens to be vacant, a new emperor is chosen by the nine electors, and the meeting or diet for this purpose is held at Ratibon. But it is usual, in the emperor's life-time, to chuse a king of the Romans; who upon the emperor's death, succeeds him of course, without any further election. In Germany, every petty sovereign, of which there are upwards of 300, is absolute and despotic within his own territories. The emperor's revenues from the empire are very small; but then the princes of the empire furnish their contingent of troops in time of war, and pay them. Germany is very populous, and could arm 400,000 men or more; but the forces being raised by so many different princes, and of jarring interests, the army of the empire seldom amounts to 100,000. The empire has no fleet. The number of inhabitants is supposed to be about 20,000,000. The princes who elect the emperor, are nine in number, three ecclesiastical and six temporal. They have each a particular office in the imperial court, and follow in their order. The archbishop of Mentz, high chancellor of the empire in Germany. The archbishop of Treves, high chancellor in France. The archbishop of Cologne, the same in Italy. The elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer. The elector of Bavaria, who is grand server, or officer who serves out the feasts. The elector of Saxony, who is grand marshal of the empire. The elector of Brandenburg, (now king of Prussia,) who is great chamberlain. The elector Palatine who is great steward, and the elector of Hanover, (king of Great Britain,) who claims the post of arch-treasurer.

The empire is pretty equally divided between Papists and Protestants. Austria and Bavaria are mostly Papists; the two Saxonies are mostly Lutherans; Franconia is Calvinist; Suabia, Westphalia, the Upper and Lower Rhine are a mixture of Papists and Protestants. They have five archbishoprics, and about twenty bishoprics. The universities are at Vienna, Mentz, Cologne, Triers, Heidelberg, Leipzig, Erfurt, Friburg, Ingolstadt, Tubingen, Rostoc, Wittemburg, Francfort, Gripswald, Dellinghen, Jena, Lewenghen, Helmstat, Sigen, Paderborn, Altorf, Gieslein, Kiel, Gratz, and Gottingen.

The language spoken in Germany is that called High Dutch; but the dialects thereof are so many, and so different, that the people of one place scarce understand those of another.

In the early centuries after the birth of Christ, Germany was divided into several petty states independent of each other, and having no common supreme head. After the dissolution of the Western Roman empire, seven principal nations arose: the Suabians, Alemans, Franks, Frisians, Saxons, Thuringians, and Bavarians. Towards the beginning of the ninth century, Germany was united into one kingdom, as part of the French monarchy under Charlemagne, who revived the title of Roman emperor, and conferred it on himself and family. The posterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire till the year 887, when the German states deposed Charles the Fat, and elected Arnulph, natural son of Carlman, king of Bavaria, for their emperor. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their arms or influence, afterwards ascended the throne of Germany. The most considerable of these, till the Austrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houses of Saxony, Franconia, and Suabia. The reigns of these emperors were remarkable only for the perpetual contests subsisting between them and the Popes, and for some wars they carried on against the Turks. In the year 1440, Frederic III. duke of Austria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity, though elective, continued afterwards in the male line of that family for three hundred years. Maximilian, Frederic's son, who was chosen king of the Romans in his father's life-time, succeeded to the empire in 1493. He married the heiress of Charles duke of Burgundy, by which union Burgundy and the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands were annexed to the house of Austria. Charles V. grandson of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, in right of his mother Joanna, was elected emperor in 1519. In this emperor's reign, the reformation gave rise to many wars and civil dissensions between the Protestants and Roman Catholics. He was successful in many battles; but at length perceiving his cause to be on the decline, he abdicated his throne, and resigned great part of his possessions to his son Philip II. and procured his brother Ferdinand to be elected emperor in 1558. These wars continued with some inter-

missions, nearly till 1648, when a general peace was concluded at Westphalia, by which the Protestant religion was firmly established in Germany.

Ferdinand was succeeded in 1658, by his son Leopold, during whose reign, Alsace and many frontier places were taken from the empire by the French. He died in 1689, and was succeeded by his son Joseph, who likewise died in 1711, without leaving any male issue, and was succeeded by his brother Charles VI. This prince, having no sons, settled in 1722, his hereditary dominions on his eldest daughter, the archduchess Maria Theresa, by consent of the diet of the empire. This act obtained the name of the Pragmatic Sanction, and was guaranteed by Great Britain, France, the States General, and most of the powers of Europe. He died Oct. 28, 1740, having previously given his daughter Maria Theresa in marriage to the duke of Lorrain, and she ascended the Hungarian and Bohemian thrones, but, not without great difficulty, and the loss of some of her dominions, notwithstanding the faith of several nations was pledged for the performance of the Pragmatic Sanction! The imperial throne was, after having been long vacant, filled by the elector of Bavaria, by the title of Charles VII. in January 1742. At length a period was put to the troubles of the empire in 1748, by the peace of Aix la Chapelle. In 1765, the husband to the empress queen died, and was succeeded in the empire by their son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in the preceding year. In 1780 died the empress queen. His imperial majesty, about the close of the year 1786, forbade any priest to insert, in future, in any prayer or other church book, the grant of indulgences applicable to the delivery of souls from purgatory. Other indulgences he also forbade to be made public, unless the approbation of the bishop of the diocese should be first obtained, who should certify that the papal brief, granting such indulgence or pardon, had been examined and acknowledged as legal. The emperor Joseph died in 1790, and was succeeded by his brother Leopold II. who, dying in 1792, was succeeded by his son Francis II. the present emperor.

We must not, however, neglect to mention, that the king of the French declared war against the king of Hungary, in the summer of 1792, in consequence of which hostilities commenced

between the empire of Germany and the French nation. The events of the war are still fresh in the memories of every person; and as our limits will not suffer us to enter into a minute detail of the various battles which have been fought, and the different sieges carried on by the contending armies, we shall content ourselves with observing, that the emperor of Germany has lost many districts on the frontiers of his empire, and that from the last accounts which arrived from the continent it appears, that the emperor is inclined to consent to a negotiation for peace, and to acknowledge the French Republic.

AUSTRIAN DOMINIONS.

THE Austrian dominions out of Germany, besides the Netherlands, are, 1. Bohemia. 2. Hungary. 3. Transylvania. 4. Slavonia. 5. Croatia.

1. BOHEMIA.

BOHEMIA is situated between 48 and 52 degrees North latitude, and between 12 and 19 degrees East longitude; being 300 miles long, and 250 miles broad. This country in its greatest extent, is bounded on the N. by Saxony and Brandenburg; on the E. by Poland and Hungary; on the S. by Austria; and on the W. by Bavaria. Bohemia is divided into three parts, viz. 1. Bohemia Proper, or the kingdom of Bohemia. 2. Silesia. 3. Moravia.—1. The kingdom of Bohemia is divided into eighteen circles; the capitals whereof are, Prague, a very large city, Caurzim, Sedlezany, Beraun, Raconick, Slany, Buntzler, Litomeritz, Satz, Ellenbogen, Egra, Pilsen, Pileck, Bechin, Czaflaw, Chrudun, Koningsgratz, and Glatz, with a county of the same name subject to the king of Prussia. 2. Silesia, mostly subject to the king of Prussia, is divided into Upper and Lower. The Upper Silesia contains seven duchies; whose capitals are, Munsterberg, Nielle, Jagen-dorff, Oppelen, Ratibor; as also Trepaw and Teschen, subject to Austria. The Lower Silesia contains ten duchies: whose capitals are, Breslau, Lignitz, Jauer, Schweidnitz, Brieg, Oelfe, Wolaw, Glogaw, Sagan, and Crossen. 3. Moravia, entirely subject to Austria, is divided into six circles; whose

capitals are, Olmutz, Brin, Iglá, Zanun, Hardisk, and Pre-ráw.

Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia, are all mountainous countries. The chief rivers are, the Elbe, Oder, Muldaw, Eger, Moraw, Iglá, and Teyá. The kingdom of Bohemia is generally described as part of Germany; but it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, neither is it subject to any of its laws. The air is not very healthful; but the soil produces corn, wine, hops, flax, hemp, wool, timber, and fruits; they have a good breed of horses, and plenty of wild fowl. No country in Europe has richer mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, and salt-petre. Their chief manufacture is linen, which they export by the Elbe.

Bohemia was anciently an elective kingdom, and prince Palatine was some time king there; he married the princess Elizabeth, daughter of James I. king of England, who was the mother of the princess Sophia of Hanover. It is now an absolute monarchy, subject to the house of Austria, and the emperor is its sovereign. The ancient forms of the Bohemian constitution still subsist; the states continue to be composed of the clergy, nobility, and representatives of the towns, who assemble when taxes are to be levied. The revenue amounts to about 600,000*l.* a year. The inhabitants were computed above an hundred years ago to be no fewer than three millions; but since that time they have decreased. The established religion is Popery; but Protestantism is tolerated. They have one archbishopric, two bishoprics, and one university at Prague. The proper language of this country is a dialect of the Slavonian, though the German or High Dutch is pretty generally spoken.

The Bohemians are said to be descended from the Boii, a people of Gaul, who retired into this kingdom, when the Romans, under Julius Cæsar, made a conquest of that country. They were a considerable time governed by dukes: Wratislaw, in the year 1086, was the first king of Bohemia; but this dignity died with him. It was renewed to Wladislaw II. in 1162, after whose death it ceased again, and Bohemia continued a duchy till the year 1199, when the emperor Philip, and in 1203 Otto IV., raised it to a kingdom. After this period, the kings of Bohemia were sometimes chosen by the

states, and at other times imposed by the emperors of Germany; till, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, the emperor Sigismund strove to unite the kingdom to the empire. Under his reign those religious disputes arose, which brought John Hus in 1415, and, in the next year, Jerome of Prague, to the stake. After this, the throne was allotted alternately to the kings of Poland or Hungary, till about the middle of the fifteenth century, when the emperor Frederic III. was chosen king by a depuration of the states. The emperors continued in possession of the throne till the beginning of the seventeenth century, when, on account of the religious contests still prevailing, the emperor Ferdinand II. was opposed by the Bohemians, who chose the elector Palatine Frederic for their king. Ferdinand, in the year 1720, routed the army of his rival Frederic at the White Mountain near Prague, after which the kingdom of Bohemia became hereditary in the house of Austria, and, in a short time, the religion of the Church of Rome was established there. The emperors of Germany have therefore been kings of Bohemia ever since, till the male line of the house of Austria became extinct in the person of Charles VI. The elector of Bavaria then laid claim to the throne, and, supported by the French, caused himself to be proclaimed king in 1741. But the emperor's daughter, Maria Theresa, then queen of Hungary, at length succeeded, in virtue of the Pragmatic Sanction, and was crowned king of Bohemia at Prague in 1743, for the Bohemians never admit the title of queen, and at the meeting of the states, where she was chosen, they all exclaimed, "Moriemur pro rege nostro, Maria Theresia!" "We will die for our king, Maria Theresa."

2. HUNGARY.

THE kingdom of Hungary is situated between 45 and 49 degrees North latitude, and between 17 and 23 degrees East longitude. It is 300 miles long, and 200 broad. It is bounded on the N. by Poland; on the E. by Transylvania and Walachia; on the S. by Sclavonia; and on the W. by Austria and Moravia. Hungary is divided into two parts, viz. Upper and Lower. 1. Upper Hungary lies North of the

Danube; the chief towns are, Presburg, Newhausel, Leopoldstad, Chremnitz, Esperies, Caschaw, Tockay, Zatmar, Ung-huar, Mongats, Great Waradin, Segedin, Agria, and Pest. 2. Lower Hungary lies on the South of the Danube; the chief towns are, Euda, Gran, Comora, Raab, Altenburg, Weissenburg, Kanisba, and the Five Churches.

The chief mountains are, the Carpathian hills, which divide Hungary from Poland. The only great river is the Danube, with the rivers that run into it. There are several lakes; the most extensive of which are, the Platten Sea, and Newidler Sea. The air is unhealthy; but the soil is fruitful, and produces plenty of corn, rich wines, and cattle. The country abounds with deer, game, fish, and wild-fowl. In the Carpathian mountains, are mines of silver, copper, iron, and salt. Their baths and mineral waters are esteemed the best in Europe.

Upper and Lower Hungary are supposed together to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks, and other strangers settled in their country. The chief exports consist in metals, drugs, and salt.

The emperor can bring into the field 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but seldom draws out of it above 20,000. They are generally light horse, and well known by the name of Hussars. Their expedition and alertness has been found so serviceable in war, that the greatest powers in Europe have troops that go by the same name.

The established religion is Popery; but the Protestants are also tolerated; of which there are great numbers and various sects; such as Hussites, Lutherans, &c. so called from their founders, John Huss, and Martin Luther. There are 3 archbishoprics, and 5 bishoprics, but no university. The Hungarian language is said to have some affinity with the Hebrew; and the common people speak a sort of barbarous Latin.

Julius Caesar was the first Roman general that gained any ground in this country; others afterwards advanced farther, till Tiberius subdued the whole. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, when the barbarous nations overran and divided it among themselves, the Huns, a people of Scythia,

made incursions into this country in the fourth century, and gave their name to it. It was then called Pannonia, and had been near four hundred years under the dominion of the Romans. Hungary, after this, was subject to several successive irruptions, by different sets of barbarians, the effects of whose ferocity were severely felt by the kingdoms of Germany and Italy: till in the latter part of the tenth century, when their prince Geysa embraced Christianity, their manners gradually took a more civilized turn. His son Stephen became in 997 the first native king of Hungary, who completed the establishment of the Christian religion, and annexed Transylvania to his dominions. After Stephen, there followed a succession of twenty kings, natives of the country, of whom the last was Andrew III. who died in 1301. At this period Hungary was governed by a series of twelve foreign princes, under whom the kingdom was much enlarged, till Lewis II. the last of them, in 1526, fell in an unsuccessful action against the Turks near Mohatz. Upon the extinction of this race of monarchs, the kingdom devolved to the house of Austria, in 1527, in the person of the arch-duke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. and it has continued ever since in that family. The dominion of Hungary was afterwards disputed between the emperors of Germany and Turkey, for near two hundred years; in which contest the former were often victorious: during this period the kingdom was also desolated with several intestine wars, arising from religious feuds. In the year 1722, in a diet held at Presburg, Hungary, from being an elective monarchy, was established into an hereditary one; the succession of which was secured to Charles VI. and to the house of Austria, so that even the females should succeed in default of male issue. Accordingly, on the death of Charles VI. his daughter Maria Theresa ascended the throne in 1741.

3. TRANSYLVANIA.

TRANSYLVANIA is situated between 45 and 48 degrees North latitude, and between 22 and 25 degrees East longitude. It is 162 miles long, and 150 broad. Transylvania is bounded on the N. by Poland; on the E. by Moldavia; on the S. by Wallachia; and on the W. by Hungary.

This country was for many years the seat of war, occasioned by the pretensions of different princes; but was at last confirmed to the house of Austria in 1699. The chief towns are, Hermanstadt, Saltzenberg, Cronstat, Bessricia, Clausenberg, Weisenburg, and Deva.

Transylvania is very mountainous, having the Carpathian Hills on the North, Poland and the Irongate Mountains on the East and South, which are very high. The frontiers towards Turkey are covered with woods; and hence it got the name of Transylvania. It has no rivers but what fall into the Danube. The air is warm but not so unhealthy as in Hungary; the soil is fruitful; their mines, and the sands of their rivers, afford gold, silver, iron, and salt, some of which are exported to Hungary. The established religion is Popery; but Protestantism is tolerated; of which persuasion there are great numbers. They have one bishopric, viz. that of Hermanstadt, and no university. Their language is the Slavonian.

Transylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms, before they were subjected to that empire. Upon the decline of the latter, it was overrun by the Goths, who were expelled by the Huns. Stephen I. king of Hungary, subdued Transylvania, and introduced the Christian religion there, in 1004. From that time Transylvania was a province of Hungary, and governed by an Hungarian viceroy, called Waywode, in which state it continued till the death of Lewis II. in 1526. After this, Transylvania became the seat of war for many years, the Austrians and Turks contending for the dominion of it, till, at the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, it was confirmed to the house of Austria by the Turks. It is at present inhabited by three different people, that have little relation to each other, viz. 1. Saxons: 2. Huns; and, 3. Cingars. The Saxons have near two-thirds of the country; the posterity of the Huns are situated on the North-East; and the Cingars, who are gypsies, live in tents, and encamp all over the country; these chiefly manage the hardware manufactures. The government of Transylvania is totally different from that of Austria, being a kind of aristocracy, in the possession and privileges of which their sovereigns have thought proper not to interrupt them. The seat of government is at Hermanstadt.

4. SCLAVONIA.

SCLAVONIA is situated between 45 and 47 degrees North latitude, and between 16 and 22 degrees East longitude. It is 300 miles long, and 75 broad; having the Drave on the N. the Danube on the E. the Save on the S. and Stiria on the W.

Sclavonia is divided into six counties; the chief towns are, Posega, Walpo, Esseck, Zagra, Peterwaradin, Salankamen, Carlowitz, Walcowar, Gradiska, and Ratzen. This is a level country, well watered by the Danube, Drave, and Save, and exceedingly fertile. The Venetians and Hungarians possessed it for a long time alternately. The Turks subdued it in 1540, and kept it till 1687; but ever since it has been subject to the house of Austria. The established religion is Popery; but there are here a great many of the Greek church, and also Jews. The bishoprics are those of Posega and Zagra. Their language is one of the four original languages of Europe, and is spoken by the Poles, Russians, Hungarians, and Turks.

5. CROATIA.

CROATIA is situated between 44 and 47 degrees North latitude, and between 15 and 17 degrees East longitude, being 180 miles long, and 70 miles broad. It is bounded on the N. by the Save; on the E. by the Pohnia; on the S. by Morlachia; and on the W. by Carniola. Transylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, and the other countries in this neighbourhood, have different names, and contain inhabitants of different manners, religion, and language, because it was here that liberty made its last stand against the Roman arms, and the remains of various nations flocked into these different quarters to defend their rights and privileges. The thickness of woods, the depth and rapidity of rivers, and the strength of the country, favoured their resistance, and the inhabitants still aim at preserving their independence, and cherish that government which leaves them most at liberty. This country was conquered from the Turks by the house of Austria; the towns of note are, Carlstat, Sisek, and Cassanovits. The air, the soil,

the language, and religion, are much the same here, as in Slavonia.

The house of Austria is absolute over all these hereditary dominions; in which the number of subjects is computed at 9,000,000. The revenues in time of peace are reckoned at 1,500,000*l.* sterling, and in time of war, are according to the demands of the court. The present emperor can raise in Austria and these hereditary dominions, exclusive of the empire, an army of 200,000 men; but he has no fleet. The other Austrian dominions were taken notice of in describing the Netherlands and Italy.

The forces which several princes of the empire are able to maintain and pay, are estimated in the following list, beginning with the Ecclesiastical princes.

The elector of Mentz may maintain.....	6000
The elector of Triers or Treves.....	6000
The elector of Cologne.....	6000
The bishop of Munster.....	8000
The bishop of Liege.....	8000
The archbishop of Salzburg.....	8000
The bishop of Wurtzburg.....	2000
The bishop of Bamberg.....	5000
The bishop of Paderborn.....	3000
The bishop of Osnaburg.....	2500
The abbot of Fulda.....	6000
The other bishoprics of the empire.....	6000
The abbeys and provostships of the empire....	8000

Total of the Ecclesiastical princes74500

The emperor for Hungary.....	30000
For Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia.....	30000
For Austria and other dominions.....	30000
The king of Prussia.....	40000
The elector of Saxony.....	25000
The elector Palatine.....	15000
The duke of Wirtemberg.....	15000
The landgrave of Hesse Cassel.....	15000
The prince of Baden.....	10000

284500

Brought over.....	284500
The elector of Hanover	30000
The duke of Holstein	12000
The duke of Mecklenburg	15000
The princes of Anhalt	6000
The prince of Lawenburg	6000
The elector of Bavaria	30000
The dukes of Saxony	10000
The princes of Nassau	10000
The other princes and imperial towns	50000
The Secular princes	379000
The Ecclesiastical princes	74500
Total.....	453500

POLAND.

POLAND is situated between 46 and 57 degrees North latitude, and between 16 and 34 degrees East longitude, being 700 miles long, and 680 broad. It is bounded on the N. by the Baltic Sea and Livonia; on the E. by Russia; on the S. by Turkey and Hungary; and on the W. by Moravia, Silesia, Brandenburg, and Pomerania. Poland is divided into several provinces, thus:

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
1. Great Poland,.....	Posnia.
2. Little Poland,.....	Cracow.
3. Polish Prussia,.....	Dantzick.
4. Ducal Prussia,.....	Konigsburg.
5. Samogitia,.....	Rosienne.
6. Coorland,.....	Mittaw.
7. Lithuania,.....	Wilna.
8. Warsawia,.....	Warsaw.
9. Polachia,.....	Bielsk.
10. Podlesia,.....	Breslil.
11. Red Russia,.....	Lemberg.
12. Podolia,.....	Caminnic.
13. Volhinia,.....	Lucko.