



Bodleian Libraries

UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD

This book is part of the collection held by the Bodleian Libraries and scanned by Google, Inc. for the Google Books Library Project.

For more information see:

<http://www.bodleian.ox.ac.uk/dbooks>



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 2.0 UK: England & Wales (CC BY-NC-SA 2.0) licence.

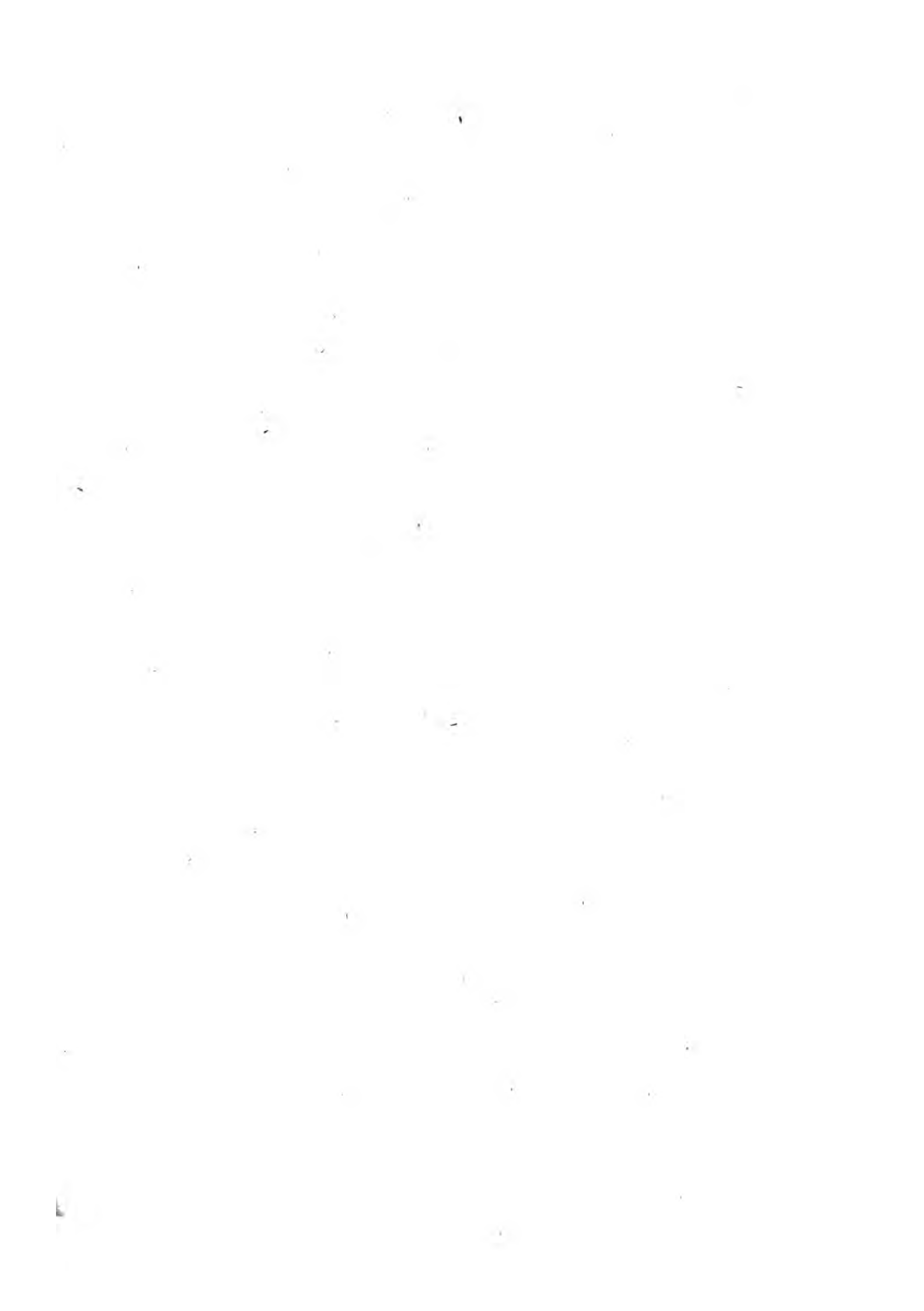


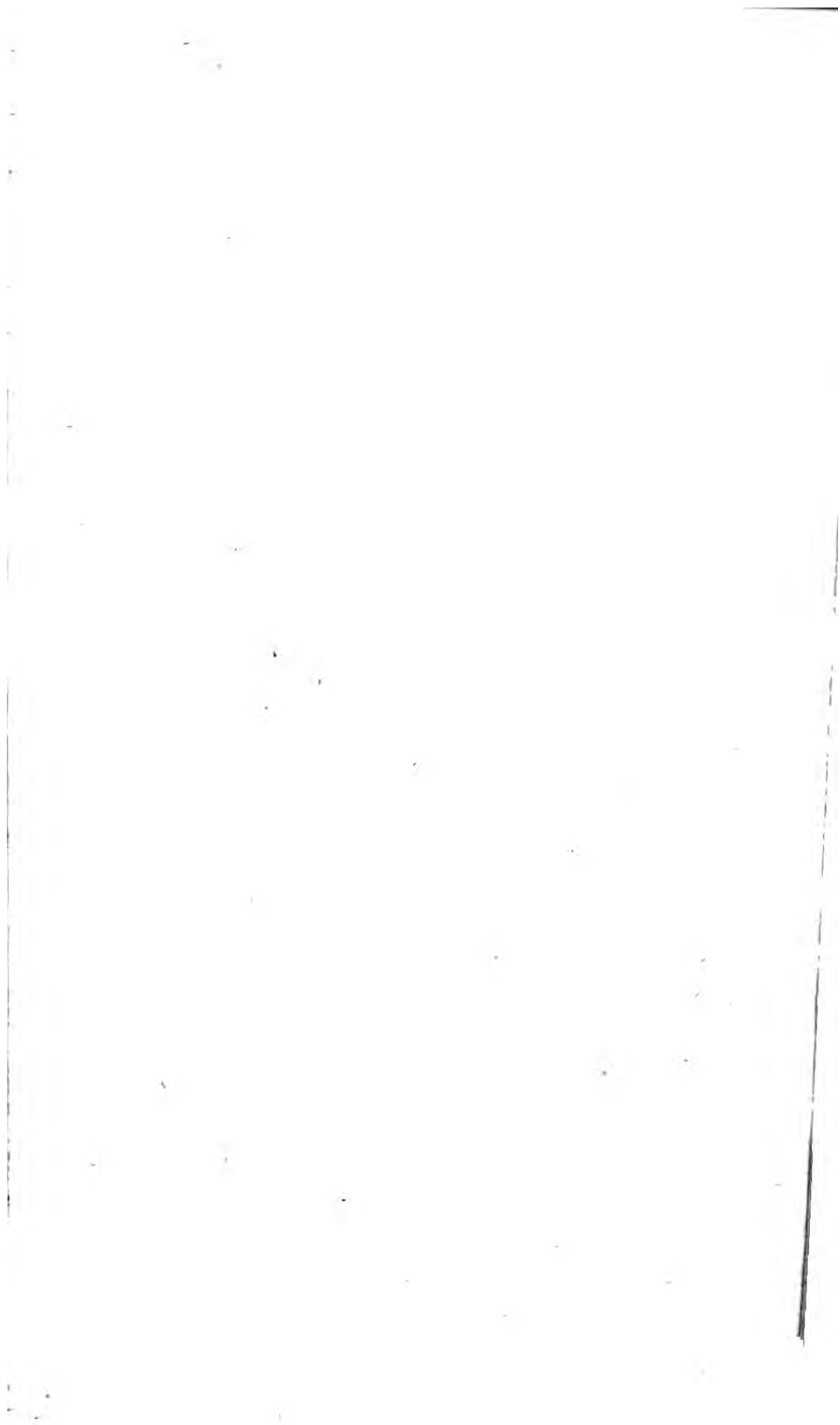


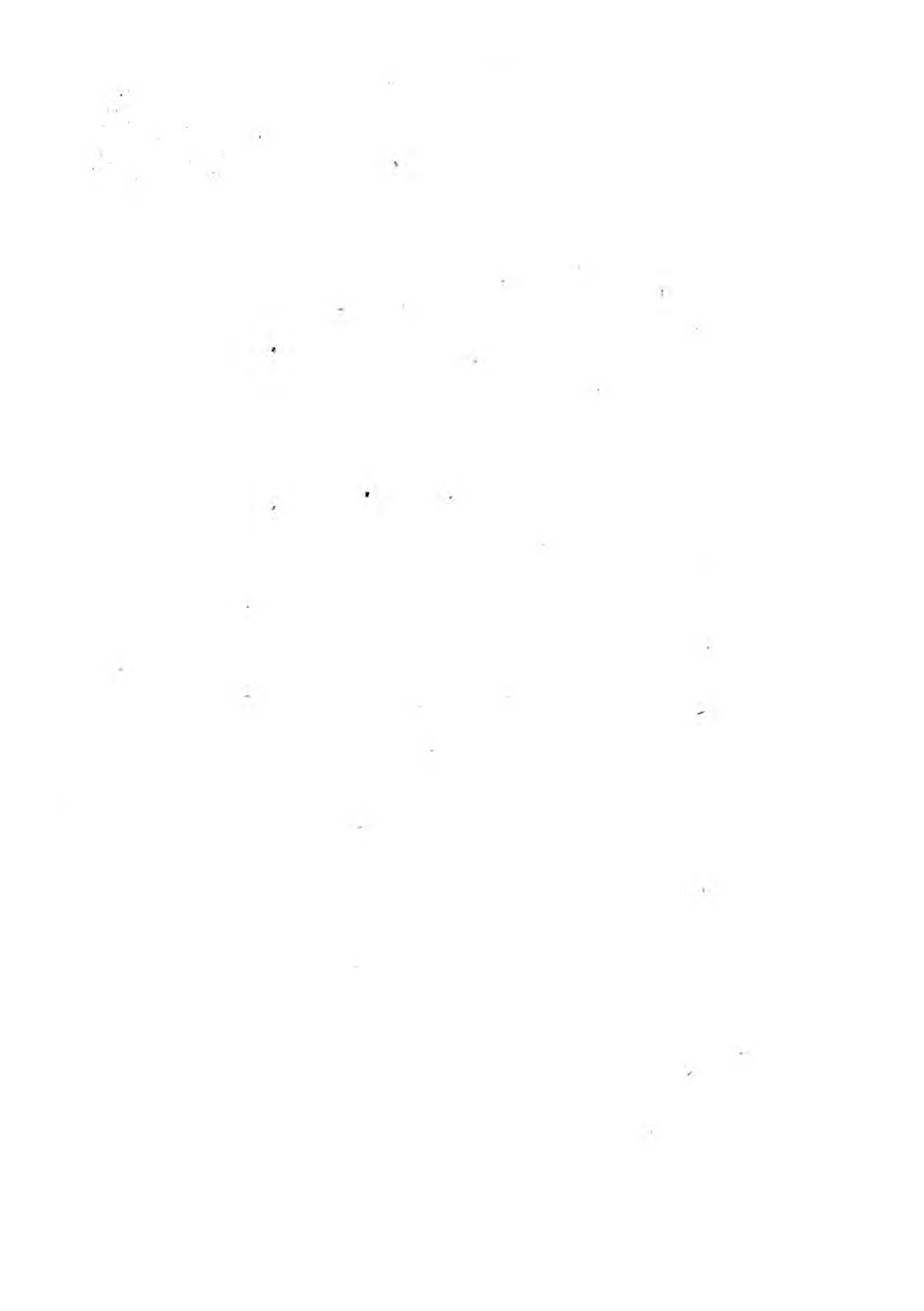
600003451J

27. 101.









AN *v. S.H. 1820.*



INTRODUCTION

TO

MODERN GEOGRAPHY:

WITH

AN APPENDIX,

CONTAINING

AN OUTLINE OF ASTRONOMY,

AND THE

USE OF THE GLOBES.

~~~~~  
**BY JAMES THOMSON, A.M.**

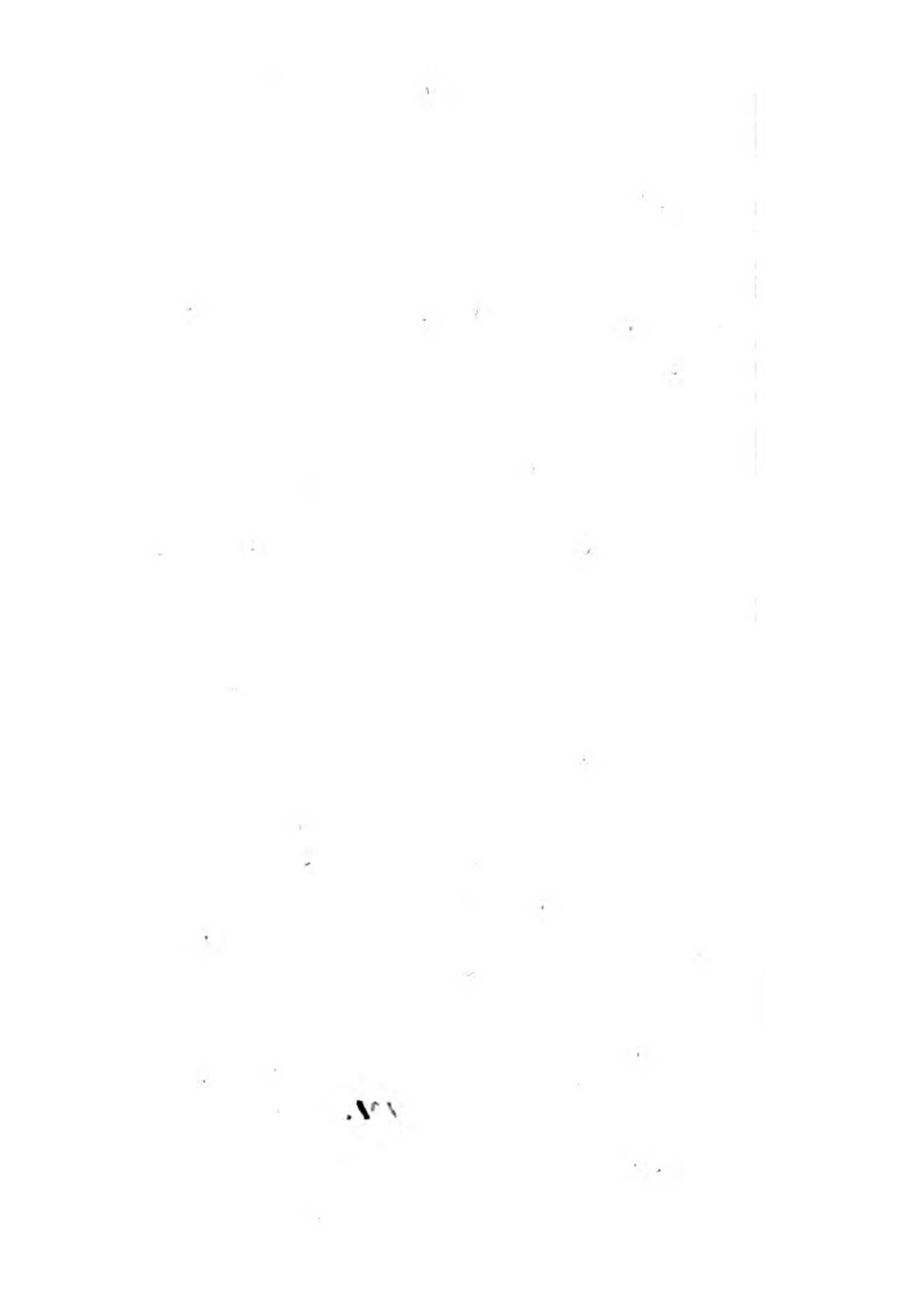
Professor of Mathematics in the Belfast Institution.  
~~~~~

BELFAST:

Printed and Published by
SIMMS AND M'INTYRE, DONEGALL-STREET.

1827. 101.

Price 3/6 bound.



IN the following publication, the materials have been drawn from the latest and most authentic sources; and it has been the object of the author to convey the information in a plain, familiar style, and to make such a selection as may interest and instruct the pupil.

The accounts of the several countries consist, in general, of two parts: The first, and perhaps the more important, intended to be studied in connexion with maps, and to make the pupil acquainted with the relative positions of places; and the second containing an outline of the natural and political geography of each country. These are distinguished by different kinds of type; so that, if the teacher wish, he may readily confine the attention of the pupil to the first part, and leave the other to form a second course at a subsequent period. With the first seven pages, the learner should be made accurately acquainted at the commencement; and the interesting and important subjects, treated of in the Appendix, should be studied as soon as the age of the pupil, or other circumstances, may render it advisable. It may also be advantageous, to enliven the study of the other parts, by joining with them a considerable portion of the lighter and more entertaining matter contained in the notes.

College, Belfast, May 26, 1827.

Works by the same Author.

ELEMENTS OF PLANE AND SPHERICAL TRIGONOMETRY, with the **FIRST PRINCIPLES** of **ANALYTIC GEOMETRY**; being the Substance of the first part of the Senior Course of Mathematics, taught in the Belfast Institution.

A New Edition of this Work will be published in a short time, with the remaining part of the Course, consisting principally of the Elements of the Differential and Integral Calculus.

A TREATISE ON ARITHMETIC, in Theory and Practice; with an **APPENDIX**, containing an Introduction to Mensuration. Fourth Edition. Stereotyped. Price 3/6 bd.

“ This work ought to be ranked with the very best of the class to which it belongs.”
London Literary Gazette.

“ The several rules are arranged in the most natural succession, and their illustrations reduced to their most simple and instructive form.”—*London Monthly Review.*

A KEY to the last-mentioned Work, containing the Method of Working the various Exercises and Questions. Price 5/ bound.

CONTENTS.

	Page		Page
Introduction	1	Ceylon	146
Of the Natural Divisions of the Earth's Surface	5	Chin-India	148
General View of the EARTH	6	Tibet	150
EUROPE	8	China	152
The British Isles	13	Chinese Tartary	158
England	ib.	Independent Tartary	159
Scotland	23	Empire of Japan	160
Ireland	30	General View of AFRICA	162
France	36	Egypt	164
Spain	45	Nubia	169
Portugal	50	Abyssinia	ib.
Netherlands	52	Barbary	171
Germany	57	Barca	173
Austrian Empire	60	Tripoli	174
Kingdom of Prussia	62	Tunis	ib.
Bavaria	65	Algiers	ib.
Hanover	ib.	Morocco	175
Wirttemberg	66	Belad-el-djerid	176
Saxony	ib.	Sahara	ib.
Minor German States	68	Guinea and Congo	177
Switzerland	69	District of the Cape of Good Hope	180
Italy	73	Eastern Africa	181
Kingdom of Sardinia	78	Interior of Africa	ib.
Lombardy and Venice	79	African Islands	182
Tuscany	80	General view of NORTH AMERICA	183
State of the Church	ib.	SOUTH AMERICA	185
Kingdom of Naples	81	United States	188
Minor Italian States	84	British Possessions	193
Turkey in Europe	85	Mexico, or New Spain	198
Russia	96	New Granada, Caraccas, and Quito	201
Sweden	106	Peru	203
Norway	111	Chil�	204
Denmark	113	Buenos Ayres	205
Lapland	119	Brazil	206
General View of ASIA	121	Guiana	208
Asiatic Russia	124	Patagonia	209
Turkey	125	West Indies	ib.
Arabia	128	American Indians	213
Persia	132	General View of OCEANICA	215
Afghanistan	135	North-west Oceanica	216
India	136	South-west Oceanica	218
		Polynesia, or Eastern Oceanica	219

APPENDIX.

	Page		Page
Figure of the Earth	221	Uranus	242
General View of the SOLAR SYSTEM	224	The Moon	243
The Sun	230	Satellites of Jupiter, &c.	246
Mercury	233	Comets	247
Venus	234	Fixed Stars	ib.
The Earth	ib.	Universal Attraction	250
Mars	239	The Tides	252
Vesta, Juno, Ceres, and Pallas	ib.	Table of the Solar System	255
Jupiter	240	Use of the Globes	256
Saturn	241	Lengths of Degrees at different Parallels	270

GEOGRAPHY.*

INTRODUCTION.

THE figure of the earth is nearly that of a globe or sphere.†

In Geography and Astronomy, certain circles are supposed to be described on the sphere. Of these, any one whose plane passes through the centre, and which therefore divides the sphere into equal parts, or hemispheres, is called a *great circle*. All others are called *small* or *less circles*.

If the circumference of a circle be divided into 360 equal parts, each of them is called a *degree*. Each degree is subdivided into 60 equal parts, called *minutes*; and each minute into 60 equal parts, called

* *Geography* is a description of the earth; and is distinguished by different names, according to the nature of the subjects considered. *Mathematical Geography* treats of the figure and magnitude of the earth, of the latitudes and longitudes of places; and of globes, maps, and other artificial contrivances and instruments for illustration. This part of Geography is connected, in a considerable degree, with astronomy, especially when it is made to comprehend the consideration of the earth as a planet. *Physical Geography* treats of the materials of which the earth is composed; of the forms of the various parts of its surface; of the atmosphere; of climate; of the various productions, animal and vegetable, found on its surface; and of other particulars respecting its natural condition. *Political Geography* treats of laws, modes of government, religion, learning, customs, and other subjects arising from the agency of man considered as a moral and political being. Other names which are sometimes given to particular parts of Geography, such as *Ancient*, *Modern*, *Descriptive*, *Maritime*, &c. are easily understood from the terms.

† A *globe* or *sphere* is a body of such a figure, that all points of the surface are equally distant from a point within it called the *centre*.

seconds.* Degrees, minutes, and seconds, are denoted by the characters, °, ', ". Thus, 23° 27' 54" means 23 degrees, 27 minutes, 54 seconds.

The earth performs a revolution round the sun in a year, moving in a path which is called its *orbit*.

While moving round the sun, the earth, each day, revolves on a line passing through its centre, and called its *axis*.

The points in which the axis cuts the surface, are called the *poles* of the earth: one of them the *north pole*; the other, the *south pole*.

A great circle which has all points of its circumference equally distant from the poles, is called the *equator*. This circle divides the earth into the northern and southern hemispheres.

A semicircle which extends from one pole to the other, and through any particular place, is called the *meridian* of that place.†

The *latitude* of a place on the earth's surface, is its distance from the equator, measured in degrees on its meridian. Latitude is of two kinds, *north* and *south*, according to the situation of the place in respect to the equator.‡

* A fourth part of the circumference is called a *quadrant*: a quadrant, therefore, contains 90°. It is evident that the magnitudes of degrees, minutes, and seconds, will depend on the magnitude of the circle of whose circumference they are parts. Thus, if the circumference be 360 yards, each degree will evidently be a yard: while, if the former be 180 miles, the latter will be half a mile. The average length of a degree on the earth's surface, is about $69\frac{1}{10}$ miles.

† The remaining part of the entire circle is sometimes called the *anti-meridian*. Some writers call the *entire circle* the meridian.

‡ The less the latitude of any place is, the greater, in general, is the heat of its climate. This, however, is much modified by the elevation of the place above the level of the sea, the heat being less as the place is more elevated. The temperature is also influenced by contiguity to heated plains of sand, or to frozen regions; and places that are near the sea, enjoy a more equable temperature, than places more remote. It has been generally thought also, that the heat is considerably greater in the northern hemisphere, than in the corresponding latitudes in the southern. The difference, however, if there be any, is probably much less than is generally supposed.

The *longitude* of a place is the distance in degrees on the equator between its meridian, and another called the *first meridian*.* Longitude is of two kinds, *east* and *west*, according to the situation of the place in respect to the first meridian.

The meridian assumed as the *first meridian*, is usually that of some noted place. That which is now employed by British geographers, is the meridian of the Royal Observatory of Greenwich, near London.

Small circles, whose circumferences are every where equally distant from the equator, are called *parallels of latitude*.

The *tropics* are parallels of latitude, each $23^{\circ} 28'$ distant from the equator. The one which is north of the equator, is called the *tropic of Cancer*; the other, the *tropic of Capricorn*.

The *polar circles* are parallels of latitude, each distant $23^{\circ} 28'$ from one of the poles. That which is next the north pole, is called the *arctic circle*; the other, the *antarctic circle*.

The spaces between the polar circles and the poles, are called the *frigid zones*; the space between the tropics, the *torrid zone*; and the two remaining portions of the surface, the *temperate zones*.†

* The longitude of a place may also be defined to be the angle of inclination of the planes of its meridian and the first meridian; and this angle is measured either by the part of the equator, or of a parallel of latitude, intercepted between those meridians. Latitude and longitude serve to determine the positions of places.

† If the surface of the earth be divided into 100 equal parts, the torrid zone will contain about 40 of these parts, each of the temperate about 26, and each of the frigid about 4. In places of the ordinary level, the heat in the torrid zone, and the cold in the frigid, are in general great; while, in the temperate zone, both are commonly moderate: and hence the origin of their names. The zones are also distinguished for the different appearances exhibited by the sun in his apparent daily motion. Thus, in every part of the torrid zone, he appears part of the year north and part south of the zenith at noon; and is consequently vertical, or exactly over head at any particular place, twice a year, once in passing northward, and again in passing southward: while, to the inhabitants of the northern temperate and

The *artificial terrestrial globe* is a globe representing the earth, with its divisions, and the principal circles already described. It revolves in a brazen ring, called the *universal* or *brazen meridian*. Latitude is marked on this ring, and longitude on the equator.

A *map* is a representation of the whole earth, or of a part of it, on a flat surface. The top of a map is the north, the bottom the south, the right hand side the east, and the left the west. In a common map of the world, longitude is marked on the equator, and latitude on the circles that contain the two hemispheres. In maps of particular countries, longitude is generally marked at the top and bottom, and latitude at the sides.*

northern frigid zones, he appears always south of the zenith at noon, and to those of the other two zones, always north of it. In each of the frigid zones also, he continues above the horizon from day to day during part of the year, without ever descending so low as to set; and, at the opposite season, he continues for a like period invisible, never ascending so high as to rise. Hence, the inhabitants of the frigid zones have been called *periscii*, because, during the period of continual sunshine, their shadows move round them: the inhabitants of either temperate zone have been called *heteroscii*, because their shadows at noon fall always in the same direction: and the inhabitants of the torrid zone have been called *amphiscii*, because their shadows at noon fall sometimes northward, and sometimes southward. These latter have also been called *ascii*, when the sun is vertical; as at that time a perpendicular line has no shadow. All these terms are compounded of the Greek word for a *shadow*, with other words prefixed; but they are now scarcely ever employed.

* It is evident that no map can be a correct representation of a sphere. The smaller the country is, however, the less will be the error. A map of a particular country may be regarded as a part cut out of a map of the world. In a map of the world, the earth is supposed to be divided into two hemispheres, which are then placed on the same plane, with their edges in contact; and the pupil will have a familiar idea of the nature of the map, by conceiving the hemispheres to be compressed or flattened, so as to coincide with the plane. He may also assist his conception of a map of the world, by supposing the hemispheres to be placed with their backs in contact, and to be inflated so as to form the surface of a globe.

OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH'S SURFACE.

THE surface of the earth consists of land and water; rather more than two thirds being water, and rather less than one third land.

The various parts of the land are distinguished by different names, according to their extent or form. The principal of these are *continents*, *islands*, *peninsulas*, *promontories* or *capes*, and *isthmuses*.

The water, by a like distribution, consists chiefly of *oceans*, *seas*, *lakes*, *gulfs*, *bays*, and *straits*.

A *continent* is a tract of land, of large extent. An *island* is a smaller tract, entirely surrounded by water.

A *peninsula* is a portion of land nearly surrounded by water. If such a portion extend but a little way into the sea, it is called a *cape* or *promontory*, or simply a *point* or *head*.

An *isthmus* is a narrow neck of land, connecting two larger portions.

An *ocean* is an expanse of water, of large extent. A *sea* is a like portion, but smaller. The term *sea* is also frequently applied to the entire body of water connected with the earth.

A *lake* is a portion of water entirely surrounded by land.

A *gulf* is a portion of water nearly surrounded by land. A *bay* is a like portion, but smaller. If a gulf be very large, it is often called a *mediterranean* or *inland sea*.

A *strait* is a narrow portion of water, communicating at its ends with two seas, or two parts of the same sea. A *channel* is a like portion, but larger.*

* The terms *road*, *port*, *haven*, *harbour*, and *creek*, are also applied to small portions of the sea. A *road* affords anchorage at a short distance from land, with shelter from certain winds. A *port*, *haven*, or

GENERAL VIEW OF THE EARTH.

THE land on the earth's surface may be divided into five great parts; *Europe, Asia, Africa, America, and Oceanica*. The first three of these are connected together, and constitute what is called the *Old or Eastern Continent*: the fourth is composed of two great divisions, North and South America, and is called the *Western or New Continent*: and the fifth consists of a large island, called *New Holland*; and the numerous smaller islands situated in the great ocean between America, Asia, and Africa.*

There are five oceans: the Pacific, between Asia and America; the Atlantic, between Europe and Africa on the east, and America on the west; the Indian Ocean, between Asia, Africa, and New Holland;

harbour, is a place where ships may lie in permanent security; and a *creek* is of the same kind, but smaller. When the mouth of a river widens, so as to admit the sea to a considerable distance into the land, it is called an *estuary* or *frith*.

It will be perceived, that several of the portions of land and water, above described, resemble each other. Thus, the continent, island, peninsula, and isthmus, correspond respectively to the ocean, lake, gulf, and strait.

It may also be remarked, that the terms above explained do not admit of being strictly defined; and their significations are often subject to much uncertainty, depending on the indefinite terms *large, small, narrow, &c.* Thus, there is no fixed limit to determine what is to be called a strait and what a channel, or what a channel and what a sea. *Bay* and *gulf* also are constantly confounded. It has been proposed to limit the signification of the term *peninsula*, by excluding from that denomination any projecting portion of land which is attached to the mainland by a greater extent of line than one fourth of its circumference. The term *continent* was originally applied to those parts of the land round which it was supposed to be impossible for a ship to sail.

* The division here adopted is that of Malte Brun. Some think that New Holland, from its great magnitude, might be considered a third continent.

and the Northern and Southern Oceans, near the north and south poles.*

From the oceans, various seas extend into the land. The principal of these are the Mediterranean and Baltic; from the Atlantic, on the east side; and the Gulf of Mexico and Hudson's Bay, on the west: the White Sea, from the Northern Ocean: the Gulf of California, from the Pacific, on the east side; and the Sea of Okotsk, on the west: and the Red Sea and Persian Gulf, from the Indian Ocean.

The islands on the globe are extremely numerous. Some of these stand single, and remote from any other land; but they are much more commonly collected into groups. When the islands composing such collections are very numerous, the groups, or the seas in which they are found, are often called *archipelagoes*.† The principal groups are the East Indian islands, or the Indian Archipelago, between New Holland and Asia; the West Indian islands, or the Columbian Archipelago, between North and South America; the British Isles, west of Europe; the Society Isles, the Friendly Isles, the Sandwich Isles, and many others, in the Pacific.‡

* There is, in strictness, but one sea on the globe, as the oceans are all connected together; and by this fluid the continents, as well as the islands, are surrounded. The limits of the oceans, where they are connected together, are arbitrary; no precise boundary being pointed out by nature. In this uncertainty, we may perhaps assume, as the limit of the Southern Ocean, a circle passing through Cape Horn, the Cape of Good Hope, and Van Diemen's Land; while the Northern or Arctic Ocean may be considered as lying north of Europe, Asia, and America, and as joining the Pacific at Behring's Strait, and the Atlantic in a line drawn from the north of Lapland to Hudson's Strait. Pinkerton assumes the polar circles as the boundaries of these oceans; but this is unnatural.

† So called from the Archipelago, a part of the sea between Europe and Asia, which abounds in islands.

‡ It will be seen, by inspecting a terrestrial globe, or a map of the world, that far the greater portion of the land is in the northern hemisphere; none of much consequence or extent being south of the equator, except New Holland, and parts of South America and Africa. Much the greater portion of the land also lies east of the meridian of Greenwich.

SOUTHERN.

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF CITIES.
Portugal	Lisbon
Spain	Madrid
France	Paris
Italy	Rome, Naples
Turkey	Constantinople

MIDDLE.

England	London
Scotland	Edinburgh
Ireland	Dublin
Netherlands	Amsterdam
Germany, comprehending the kingdoms of Bavaria, Ha- nover, Saxony, Wurtem- berg, &c.	} Dresden, Hamburg, Munich, &c.
Prussia	
Switzerland	Bern
Austria	Vienna

NORTHERN.

Denmark	Copenhagen
Norway	Bergen
Sweden	Stockholm
Russia	St. Petersburg, Moscow
Lapland	Tornea, Vardehuus

Islands.—The principal islands of Europe, besides Great Britain and Ireland, are Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, Candia, Majorca, Minorca, Iviça or Iviza, and Malta, in the Mediterranean; Negropont, and many others, in the Archipelago; Zealand and Funen, at the entrance of the Baltic; Gothland, and many others, in the same sea; Iceland and Spitzbergen, in the Northern Ocean; and the Azores, in the Atlantic, 700 or 800 miles west of Portugal.

Peninsulas and Isthmuses.—The chief peninsulas are Spain and Portugal, Italy, the Morea, the Crimea or Crim, and Jutland. Sweden and Norway also form

large peninsula.* Two of these are joined to the inland by isthmuses: the Morea, by the Isthmus of Corinth; and Crimea, by the Isthmus of Perekop.

Capes.—Some of the principal capes are the North Cape, in Lapland; the Naze, south of Norway; Cape Finisterre, in Spain; Cape St. Vincent, in Portugal; Cape Spartivento, in Italy; and Cape Matapan, in the Peloponnesus.

Mountains.—The principal mountains are the Alps, which extend round the north and west of Italy, from the Gulf of Venice to the Mediterranean; the Pyrenees, between France and Spain; the Dovre Fjeld, and the Scandes mountains, between Sweden and Norway; the Carpathian, north and north-east of Hungary; the Caucasus, north-east of Europe; and the Apennines, which run through the middle of Italy. Besides these, there are Mount Etna in Sicily, and Mount Vesuvius in Naples, which are volcanoes, or burning mountains.

Rivers.—The chief rivers are the Volga, which flows through the Russian dominions, out of Europe,

a remarkable fact, that all the principal peninsulas in the north and southward, except Jutland in Europe, and Yucatan in America, and these two are low, and are composed of sand and other loose matter.

The Alps are the highest mountains in Europe. Two of their highest, Mont Blanc and Mont Rosa, are elevated about 15,000 feet, or nearly three miles above the level of the sea. The heights of the highest of the Pyrenees, and of Mount Etna, are 11,000 feet, and that of Vesuvius about 3600 feet.

To form the best conception of the heights of mountains, comparing them with the height of some mountain or hill which you are acquainted with. Thus, the height of Devils, near Belfast, is 1540 feet, it will appear that ten such mountains, piled one upon another, would very little exceed the height of Mont Blanc.

Mount Vesuvius has been known to be a volcano for nearly 3000 years, and many eruptions have been so much longer. The first eruption of Vesuvius, on record, happened in the seventy-ninth year of the Christian era; and since that time, there have been about thirty eruptions. The first eruption was accompanied by an earthquake, and the destruction of Herculaneum, Pompeii, and other towns. Herculaneum and Pompeii, after being thus buried for more than 1600 years, were discovered during the last century; and their ruins have

into the Caspian Sea in Asia; the Danube, or Donau, which, after passing through part of Germany, and through the Austrian and Turkish territories, falls into the Black Sea; the Rhine, which flows through Switzerland, Germany, and the Netherlands, into the German Sea; the Don, which flows through Russia into the Sea of Azov; the Dnieper, which passes through the same country, and falls into the Black Sea; the Rhone, Loire, and Seine, in France; the Tagus, Guadiana, and Ebro, in Spain; the Elbe and Oder in Germany, and the Po in Italy.*

Lakes.—The principal lakes are those of Ladoga and Onega in Russia; Wenern, Wetteren, and Melern, in Sweden; and Geneva and Constance, at the south-western and north-eastern extremities of Switzerland.†

exhibited curious and valuable remains of antiquity, such as buildings, statues, paintings, ornamental and useful furniture, and manuscripts.

Mount Heckla in Iceland was formerly a volcano, but has been quiet for more than sixty years. In 1783, however, an eruption, of the most terrific nature, took place from the mountains called Skapta Jokul. The whole island, indeed, appears to be of a volcanic nature and origin; and any part of it may perhaps have been, or may yet be, the seat of a volcano.

* The most elevated part of a country may be known by its giving origin to rivers flowing in different directions. Hence, Switzerland will be seen to be the highest part of Europe, as in it the Rhine and Rhone, and the Inn, a principal branch of the Danube, have their sources.

As rivers derive their waters from the countries through which they pass, the longer the course of any river is, or rather, the greater the portion of country is that is drained by the river and its branches, the larger it may be expected to be; and hence we have the means of judging, with considerable accuracy, of the comparative magnitudes of rivers. Our conclusions in this respect, however, will be modified in some degree by the nature of the country; a river which flows through a dry and parched region, being necessarily smaller than one of the same length, or which drains an equal space, in a country in which there is more rain, or less evaporation.

† Lakes may be regarded as portions of water, filling the bottoms of valleys, which are lower than any part of the surrounding country. In consequence of the greater inequalities of surface, lakes are generally more numerous in mountainous than in flat countries: and hence there are few lakes in England and France; and many in Scotland, Switzerland, and Sweden.

Europe, though much smaller than Asia, Africa, or America, is by far the most important division of the earth. In civilization, arts, science, literature, manufactures, commerce, and power, it stands unrivalled. Christianity is established over it all, except Turkey, where the religion of the state is Mahometanism; and even there, more than half the people are of the Greek Church, which is also the religion of Russia. In the south, except in Turkey, the Roman Catholic religion prevails; in the north, the Protestant, except in Russia; and in the middle, there is a mixture of both. The entire population is supposed to be about 200 millions. In much of Europe, also, a far greater degree of civil liberty is enjoyed by the people, than in most of the other parts of the world; the governments of several of the most important states being limited monarchies.

THE BRITISH ISLES.

The British Isles are Great Britain and Ireland, with several smaller situated near them; and they constitute the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Great Britain is divided into two parts: the southern called England, and the northern Scotland.

Situation and Boundaries.—These islands are situated west of the middle, or main body of Europe. Great Britain is bounded on the east by the German Sea; on the south, by the English Channel; on the north, by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the west, by the same ocean at the north and south; and by St. George's Channel, the Irish Sea, and the North Channel, at the intermediate parts. These three last form the eastern boundary of Ireland, which is bounded on all the other sides by the Atlantic Ocean.

ENGLAND.*

Divisions.—England consists of two parts, England Proper and Wales, the former of which is much larger

* England is situated between the parallels of 50° and 56° north, and between 2 degrees of east and 6 of west longitude. The length from the northern extremity to Portland Bill, the most southern point of Dorsetshire, is about 360 miles; and the breadth from the east of Suffolk to the west of South Wales, is above 200 miles. It is separated from Scotland, by the river Liddel, the Cheviot Hills, and the Tweed.

than the latter. England Proper is divided into 40 counties or shires, and Wales into 12; which, with their chief towns, are as follows:

SIX NORTHERN.

COUNTIES OR SHIRES.	CHIEF TOWNS.*
Northumberland ..	<i>NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE</i> , Berwick, <i>Alnwick</i> , Morpeth
Cumberland	<i>CARLISLE</i> , Whitehaven, Wigton, Kes- wick, Workington
Durham	<i>Durham</i> , SUNDERLAND, DARLINGTON, Barnardcastle
Westmoreland	<i>Appleby</i> , KENDAL, Kirkby-Lonsdale, Burton
Lancashire	<i>Lancaster</i> , MANCHESTER, LIVERPOOL, Preston, Bolton, Blackburn, Wigan, Warrington
Yorkshire	<i>York</i> , LEEDS, SHEFFIELD, Hull or Kingston-upon-Hull, Whitby, Brad- ford, Huddersfield, Halifax, Doncas- ter, Scarborough, Harrogate

FOUR NEXT WALES.

Cheshire	<i>Chester</i> , STOCKPORT, Macclesfield
Shropshire	<i>SHREWSBURY</i> , Wellington, Ellesmere
Herefordshire	<i>HEREFORD</i> , Leominster
Monmouthshire ..	<i>MONMOUTH</i> , Abergavenny, Chepstow

TWELVE MIDLAND.

Nottinghamshire ..	<i>NOTTINGHAM</i> , Newark-on-Trent, Mans- field
Derbyshire	<i>DERBY</i> , Chesterfield
Staffordshire	<i>Stafford</i> , WOLVERHAMPTON, Newcas- tle-under-Lyne, Litchfield, Burton- on-Trent

* The assize towns are in Italics, and the largest towns in capitals. In some counties, assizes are held in one town at one season, and in another at another season; and in some, they are held in different towns at the same time. In a first course of geography, the teacher may perhaps consider it sufficient, for the pupil to point out on his map, one or two of the towns, here given, in each county.

COUNTIES.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Leicestershire	LEICESTER, Hinckley, Ashby-de-la Zouch, Melton Mowbray
Rutlandshire	OAKHAM
Northamptonshire	NORTHAMPTON, Wellingborough, Peterborough
Warwickshire	Warwick, BIRMINGHAM, Coventry
Worcestershire	WORCESTER, Dudley, Kidderminster
Gloucestershire ..	Gloucester, BRISTOL, CHELTENHAM
Oxfordshire	OXFORD, Henley, Woodstock
Buckinghamshire ..	AYLESBURY, Buckingham, Marlow, Eton
Hedfordshire.....	Bedford, BIGGLESWADE, Dunstable

EIGHT EASTERN.

Lincolnshire	Lincoln, BOSTON, Gainsborough, Stamford
Huntingdonshire ..	Huntingdon, ST. IVES
Cambridgeshire ..	CAMBRIDGE, Wisbeach, Ely, Newmarket
Norfolk	NORWICH, Yarmouth, Lynn, Thetford
Suffolk	Bury St. Edmunds, IPSWICH, Woodbridge
Essex	Chelmsford, COLCHESTER, Harwich
Hertfordshire	HERTFORD, St. Albans
Middlesex	LONDON, Brentford, Enfield, Uxbridge, Staines, Chelsea

THREE SOUTH-EASTERN.

Surrey	Kingston, Guilford, Croydon, SOUTHWARK, Epsom
.....	Maidstone, GREENWICH, Woolwich, Rochester and Chatham, Deptford, Canterbury, Dover, Margate, Tunbridge
.....	Lewes, Horsham, BRIGHTON, Chichester, Hastings

FOUR SOUTHERN.

Berkshire	READING, Abingdon, Windsor
Wiltshire	SALISBURY, New Sarum, Bradford, Trowbridge
Hampshire	Winchester, PORTSMOUTH, Southampton, Gosport
Dorsetshire	Dorchester, POOL, Bridport, Weymouth

THREE SOUTH-WESTERN.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Devonshire	<i>Exeter</i> , PLYMOUTH, Axminster, Crediton
Cornwall	<i>Launceston</i> , <i>Bodmin</i> , REDRUTH, Penzance
Somersetshire	<i>Taunton</i> , <i>Bridgewater</i> , <i>Wells</i> , BATH, Frome

SIX IN NORTH WALES.

Flintshire	<i>Mold</i> , HOLYWELL, St. Asaph, Flint
Denbighshire	<i>Ruthin</i> , WREXHAM, Denbigh
Caernarvonshire	CAERNARVON, Bangor, Conway
Anglesea	HOLYHEAD, <i>Beaumaris</i>
Merionethshire	DOLGELLY, <i>Bala</i>
Montgomeryshire	WELCH-POOL

SIX IN SOUTH WALES.

Radnorshire	RADNOR, <i>Presteigne</i>
Cardiganshire	<i>Cardigan</i> , ABERYSTWITH
Pembrokeshire	HAVERFORD WEST, <i>Pembroke</i>
Caermarthenshire	CAERMARTHEN
Brecknockshire	BRECKNOCK or BRECON
Glamorganshire	CAERDIFF, Swansea, Llandaff

Islands.—The principal islands near the coast of England, are the Isle of Wight, south of Hampshire; the Isle of Anglesea, in North Wales; the Scilly Isles, south-west of Cornwall; and Sheppey Isle, in Kent. The Isle of Man lies in the Irish Sea, at nearly equal distances from England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales; and contains the towns of Ramsay, Douglas, Castletown, and Peel. The islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark, near the north-west coast of France, also belong to England. The capitals of the first three are St. Pierre, St. Helier, and St. Anne.*

* Other islands are Holy Isle or Lindisfarne, and Coquet Isle, off Northumberland; and Lundy Isle, in Bristol Channel. The Isle of Wight is remarkably fertile, producing, it is said, as much grain in one year as would serve the inhabitants for ten. South of Cornwall, and at the distance of $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles, are the Eddystone rocks, which are

Seaports.—The principal seaports are London, Liverpool, Bristol, Chester, Hull, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Sunderland, Shields, Lynn, Yarmouth, Harwich, Chatham, Dover, Portsmouth, Plymouth, Falmouth, Swansea, Milford, and Holyhead.

Capes.—Flamborough Head, Spurn Head, North Foreland, South Foreland, Beachy Head, Start Point, Lizard Point, Land's End, St. David's Head, St. Bee's Head, &c.

Mountains, and Face of the Country.—The principal mountains are the Cheviot Hills, on the borders of Scotland; Skiddaw and Crossfell in Cumberland; the Peak in Derbyshire; and Snowdon, and many others, in Wales. The country, however, except Wales and Cornwall, is in general free from mountains; and the eastern counties, from the Humber to the Thames, are generally flat, and in some parts marshy.

Lakes.—The most remarkable lakes are those of Cumberland and Westmoreland.*

Rivers.—The chief rivers are the Thames, which passes Oxford, Windsor, and London, and falls into the German Sea; the Severn, which falls into Bristol Channel; the Humber, north of Lincolnshire, and

remarkable for their lighthouse. They are exposed to the uncontrolled fury of the Atlantic; and were formerly fatal to shipping, in numerous instances. To obviate this, the erection of a lighthouse, the principal rock, was finished in the year 1700, by Mr. Henry Stanley, of such strength, as he conceived, that he declared it was most ardent desire to be in it during the most tremendous storm. Fortunately, about three years after, he obtained his wish, and was killed in its ruins. After six years, another of wood was erected, which was destroyed by fire in 1755. In 1759, a third was finished by Mr. Beaton, the celebrated architect, which seems likely to resist all the fury of the elements, and to be capable of being destroyed only by earthquake. It is nearly 80 feet high, and is composed of stone bedded together by a strong cement, and grooved into the rock in such a manner, that its parts adhere to one another and to the rock, perhaps more firmly than the parts of the rock itself.

These are much visited, on account of their beautiful and romantic scenery. The principal of them are those of Coniston, Ulster, Windermere or Winandermere, and Derwent Water.

composed of the Northern Ouse, Trent, and other rivers; the Mersey, which falls into the Irish Sea at Liverpool; the Tyne, north, and the Tees, south of Durham; and the Southern Ouse, and other rivers, which flow into the Wash, south-east of Lincolnshire.*

Cities and Towns.—The capital is London, which has a population of a million and a quarter; and, in respect to commerce and wealth, surpasses every city in the world. Other places of importance are Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, Bristol, Leeds, Plymouth, and Norwich, the population of each of which exceeds 50,000.†

Climate, Soil, &c.—The climate of England, though somewhat moist and variable, is good; not being subject to great heat in summer, nor to great cold in winter.‡ There are a few rude and barren districts: but most of the country is very fine, and its fertility great; and, in general, it is in a high state of cultivation, and is much ornamented with wood.

Animals and Minerals.—The horse in England is equal or superior to that of any other country, the finest species having been introduced from various places, to improve the breed. There are also excellent breeds of black cattle and sheep. The principal minerals are tin, iron, lead, and coals, which are found

* Other rivers are the Avons, one of which passes Stratford in Warwickshire, the town where Shakespeare was born; another, Bath; and a third, Salisbury: the Welland, Witham, and Nen, which fall into the Wash, the Medway in Kent, the Dee which passes Chester, the Eden which passes Carlisle, the Teify in South Wales, and many others. Besides the rivers, there are great numbers of canals, which contribute much to the wealth and prosperity of the country.

† In 1821, the population of Manchester was 134,000; of Liverpool, 119,000; of Birmingham, 107,000; of Bristol, 88,000; and of Leeds, 84,000. Liverpool ranks next to London for foreign trade.

‡ In islands, the temperature is less variable than on continents; because, in passing over the sea around them, hot winds are cooled and cold winds warmed, the air always tending to assume the temperature of the bodies with which it is in contact. Extensive tracts of land, on the contrary, present sometimes large surfaces of snow, and sometimes large spaces of burning sand or parched country; and these impart their temperature to the wind, and by this medium to the adjoining countries. It is farther to be observed, that land changes its temperature much more than large masses of water.

in great abundance, and contribute much to the wealth of the country.*

Population.—According to the census of 1821, the population of England was above eleven millions and a quarter, and that of Wales nearly three quarters of a million.†

Army and Navy.—The army of the United Kingdom amounted, in 1812, to about 320,000, including nearly 100,000 embodied militia. Besides these, the volunteers, local militia, and yeomanry, amounted to more than 360,000. The British fleet is by far the most powerful that has ever existed at any period of the world. In 1812, the seamen and marines employed in it amounted to 180,000.‡

Government.—The government is a limited monarchy, consisting of the king and parliament.||

* In a work like the present, it would be vain to attempt even an enumeration of the animals, minerals, or other productions, of any particular country. Hence, nothing of this kind will be mentioned, except what is of an important or peculiar nature. In some of the luxuriant pastures of England, oxen attain an enormous magnitude; some of them having been known to weigh a ton and a quarter, and in some instances, it is said, considerably more. Race-horses have also been produced of almost inconceivable swiftness. The horse called Childers, carrying 9 stone 2 pounds, ran 4 miles in 6 minutes and 48 seconds, or at the rate of above 35 miles an hour. The tin mines of Cornwall have been celebrated since the earliest times, and produce great quantities of excellent tin. The chief iron mines are those of Colebrookdale in Shropshire, Dean Forest in Gloucestershire, and Ulverston in Lancashire. Coal, which is of such vital importance to the manufactures of the country, is produced in vast quantities at Newcastle-on-Tyne, and other places in the north of the kingdom, and likewise in many places in the central and northern districts. England abounds in mineral waters, the principal of which are those of Bath, Bristol, Cheltenham, Tunbridge, Buxton, Harrogate, and Scarborough.

† Accurately, England 11,261,437, and Wales 717,438; total, 11,978,875, or twelve millions nearly. In 1801 the population of both was 9,168,000, and in 1811 it was 10,487,600.

‡ During the late war, the navy sometimes consisted of more than 1000 vessels, of which upwards of 250 were ships of the line, that is, ships of more than 50 guns; upwards of 30 were fifty-gun ships and nearly 200 were frigates. The superiority of England at sea, arises, in a great degree, from the extent of its commerce, as the merchant vessels always furnish an ample supply of experienced seamen for the navy.

|| There are two houses of parliament; the house of lords or peers, and the house of commons. The members of the former are the dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons of England, or of the United Kingdom; also, the archbishops and bishops of England and

Manufactures, &c.—The manufactures of England are the most flourishing and extensive in the world. Some of the principal are those of cotton goods, the centre of which is Manchester; of woollens, the centre of which is Leeds; of hardware, the chief seats of which are Birmingham and Sheffield; and of pottery, which is principally established in Staffordshire. The tin mines of Cornwall give employment to 100,000 men;

Wales. It contains also 16 peers for Scotland, and 32 for Ireland. As the king has the power of creating new peers, the number of members may vary: it is now about 380. The house of commons consists of 658 members. Of these, 489 are for England, 24 for Wales, 45 for Scotland, and 100 for Ireland.

Each branch of the legislature has its peculiar powers and privileges. The king has power to make war or peace; to enter into alliances and treaties; to raise soldiers, and impress seamen; to assemble, adjourn, prorogue, or dissolve parliament, whenever he thinks proper; and to give his assent to acts of parliament, without which they are not valid. He appoints all magistrates, all officers of state, and of the army and navy; as also all the superior, and many of the inferior clergy. His person is accounted sacred; and even to imagine or intend his death, is a capital crime. The succession to the crown is hereditary, but may be limited or changed by parliament. The king is bound, by the coronation oath, to govern according to the laws and customs of the realm; to maintain the Protestant religion, as established by law; and to preserve to the bishops, clergy, and churches, their rights and privileges.

Peers cannot be arrested, except for treason, and some other high crimes; and they can be tried only by a jury of peers, who give their verdict, not upon oath, but upon their honour. Peers can also vote by proxy, which the commons cannot.

The commons enjoy freedom of speech, and cannot be questioned without the house for any thing said within it. Their own persons also, and those of their servants, are free from arrest in civil causes, while on their journey to parliament or from it, and during their attendance there. They can also impeach any of the king's ministers, and order him to be tried by the peers. With them, also, all bills for levying money off the nation must originate; and they allow the peers to make no change on such bills.

A proposed law or act, or, as it is called, a *bill*, must be submitted to the consideration of the members, or, as it is termed, *read*, three times in one house of parliament; and, if on each reading it be agreed to by a majority of the members, it is submitted to the other house. If, on being three times read in this house, it pass in like manner, it requires only the assent of the king to make it a part of the law of the land. The royal assent is now scarcely ever withheld, though, in theory, it may. It may also be observed, that if, at any reading, a majority of either house vote against a bill, it then falls to the ground. It may be introduced, however, during some following session; but every thing must recommence from the beginning.

and many are employed in different parts of the kingdom in collieries, and in iron, lead, and other mines.

Commerce.—The commerce of England exceeds that of any other country in ancient or modern times, extending to every part of the earth that presents an inducement, particularly to the United States of America, the East and West Indies, and almost every country of Europe.*

Universities, &c.—There are two universities in England; one in Oxford, and one in Cambridge. Other seminaries are the Royal Military Academy, at Woolwich; the Royal Military College, at Sandhurst in Berkshire; the Naval College, at Portsmouth; and the East India College, at Hertford.† Education is much attended to among the higher and middle classes; and the country contains a great number of learned men, and excellent writers on almost every subject.

Religion.—The religion established by law is the Protestant, under the episcopal form, or that in which the affairs of the church are managed by archbishops and bishops. There are two archbishops, those of Canterbury and York; and in the province of the former there are twenty-one bishops, and in that of the latter four.‡ From the established religion, there are many Dissenters, of various sects, which are all tolerated.

* The commerce of England first began to flourish, in any considerable degree, in the reign of James I. It was checked, however, by the turbulent times that succeeded, but revived and increased greatly during the reign of Charles II.; and since that time it has continued gradually to advance to its present astonishing extent.

† There are also the great Schools of Westminster, St. Paul's, Eton, Winchester, and Harrow. These are of long standing, and of great celebrity as seminaries for classical education. The number of distinguished men produced in England, in modern times, is extremely great. Her men of science, taste, and literature; her poets, statesmen, orators, warriors, and lawyers, have been very numerous, and many of them have not been surpassed in ancient or modern times. Some of the most eminent are Newton, Shakespeare, Milton, Pope, Addison, Johnson, Lord Chatham, the Duke of Marlborough, Blackstone, &c.

‡ The bishoprics in the province of Canterbury, are those of (1) London, (2) Winchester, (3) Litchfield and Coventry, (4) Lincoln, (5) Ely, (6) Salisbury, (7) Exeter, (8) Bath and Wells, (9) Chichester, (10) Norwich, (11) Worcester, (12) Hereford, (13) Rochester, (14) Oxford, (15) Peterborough, (16) Gloucester, (17) Bristol, (18) Landaff, (19) St. David's, (20) St. Asaph, (21) Bangor; and those in the province of York are those of (22) Durham, (23) Carlisle, (24) Chester, (25) Sodor and Man [in the Isle of Man. The bishop of this diocese is the only one that has not a seat in parliament.]

Character.—England having been long a civilized country, the people are accustomed to habits of good order and industry. They have also perhaps higher ideas of comfort, in their mode of life, than the inhabitants of any other country; and are tenacious, in a high degree, of their civil rights.

Curiosities.—The principal curiosities are Stonehenge* in Wiltshire, the Peak in Derbyshire, and the lakes and scenery of Cumberland.

Historical Sketch.—The Romans, under Julius Cæsar, invaded Britain 55 years before Christ. Having afterwards conquered it, they at length relinquished it in the year 448. After this, it was invaded by bands of the Saxons, a people who inhabited the north of Germany. By these adventurers, England was conquered, and was divided into seven small kingdoms, called the Saxon Heptarchy. These were all united into one kingdom about the year 827. The next invaders were the Danes, who, after various struggles, were at length so successful that the throne was filled by some of their princes. The Saxon monarchy was again restored however, and continued till 1066, when William, duke of Normandy, afterwards called William the Conqueror, gained the battle of Hastings, and by it obtained the throne. The most remarkable events in English history, that have since taken place, are the annexing of Ireland to England, in the reign of Henry II.; the granting of the Magna Charta by John, in the year 1215; the successful invasions of France by Edward III. and Henry V.; the wars between the princes of the houses of York and Lancaster, which distracted the kingdom in the fifteenth century; the introduction of the Reformation, in the reign of Henry VIII.; the union of the crowns of England and Scotland, under one sovereign, James I.; the beheading of his son, Charles I. in 1649, and

The other dignitaries of the church are deans, prebendaries, and archdeacons; and the inferior clergy are rectors, vicars, and curates. The archbishops and bishops, and many of the other clergy, are appointed by the king. The chief classes of Dissenters are Baptists, Independents, Methodists, and Roman Catholics.

* Stonehenge is a remarkable remnant of antiquity, the original use of which is unknown. It consists principally of two concentric circles of huge upright stones, which support as many others of great magnitude. The diameter of the greater circle is about 108 feet, and that of the interior about 90 feet; and within them are two elliptical figures of similar formation, the one within the other. Some of the upright stones are 22 feet high, and support stones 8 feet high. About 140 of these great stones still remain, standing or fallen; but many of them have been removed.

establishment of the Commonwealth; the Restoration of the monarchy, under Charles II. in 1660; the Revolution, in which James II. lost the crown, and was succeeded by his daughter Mary, and her husband William III.; and the accession of George I. elector of Hanover, the first of the present royal family.*

SCOTLAND.†

Divisions, &c.—Scotland is divided into thirty-three counties or shires, which, with their principal towns, are as follows:

The English language owes its copiousness, and other excellencies to a great degree, to the events mentioned above, particularly to the conquests of the country by the Saxons and Normans, deriving from the former its connexion with the northern languages of Europe, and from the latter most of the numerous words which it contains of that origin.

The Kings of England, since the Norman Conquest, with the times at which they began to reign.

1066	} 11th century.	Henry VIII. 1509	} 16th century.
1087		Edward VI. 1547	
1100		Mary I. 1553	
1135	Elizabeth 1558		
1154	} 12th century.	James I. 1603	} 17th century.
1189		Charles I. 1625	
1199		Charles II. 1649	
1216	} 13th century.	James II. 1685	
1272		William III. and Mary II. 1688	
1307	} 14th century.	Anne 1702	} 18th century.
1326		George I. 1714	
1377		George II. 1727	
1399	George III. 1760		
1413	} 15th century.	GEORGE IV. 1820	19th century.
1422			
1461			
1483			
1485			

The island of Scotland is situated between the parallels of 54° 36' north; and between 1° 44' east, and 2° 36' west longitude; its greatest length and breadth are about 280 and 150 miles; and it contains about 19 millions of English acres, or nearly 30,000

SEVEN NORTHERN AND NORTH-WESTERN.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Orkney	Kirkwall, Lerwick
Sutherland.....	Dornoch
Caithness	Wick, Thurso
Ross.....	Dingwall, Tain
Cromarty	Cromarty
Inverness.....	Inverness, Fort George, Fort Augustus, Fort William, Culloden
Argyle.....	Inverary, Campbeltown

NINE SOUTH-WESTERN.

Dumbarton ..	Dumbarton
Stirling	Stirling, Falkirk
Bute	Rothsay
Renfrew.....	Renfrew, Paisley, Greenock, Port Glasgow
Lanark.....	Glasgow, Lanark, Hamilton.
Ayr	Ayr, Kilmarnock, Irvine
Wigton	Wigton, Stranraer, Portpatrick
Kircudbright	Kircudbright, Castle Douglas
Dumfries	Dumfries, Annan, Moffat

SEVEN SOUTH-EASTERN.

Roxburgh	Jedburgh, Kelso, Hawick, Melrose
Peebles	Peebles
Selkirk	Selkirk, Galashiels
Berwick.....	Greenlaw, Dunse, Coldstream*
Linlithgow.....	Linlithgow, Bo'ness or Borrowstoness, Queensferry
Edinburgh	EDINBURGH, Leith, Musselburgh
Haddington ..	Haddington, Dunbar, North Berwick.

TEN EASTERN.

Clackmannan	Clackmannan, Alloa
Kinross	Kinross
Fife	St. Andrew's, Cupar, Dunfermline, Kir- kaldy
Perth.....	Perth, Dunkeld, Dumblane, Scone

* The town of Berwick was formerly one of the four principal boroughs of Scotland; but it has long been annexed to England, with a small district extending three or four miles north of the Tweed.

COUNTIES.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Angus	Montrose, Dundee, Forfar
Kincardine.....	Bervie, Stonehaven
Aberdeen	New Aberdeen, Old Aberdeen, Peterhead
Banff	Banff
Murray	Elgin, Forres
Nairn	Nairn

Islands.—The islands of Scotland, which are extremely numerous, are comprehended chiefly in three groups: the Western Isles, or Hebrides, or Hebudes, to the west; the Orkney Isles, to the north; and the Shetland or Zetland Isles, in the same direction, but more remote. The two latter groups form the shire of Orkney. The chief of the Hebrides are Lewis and Harris (which are joined by an isthmus), North Uist, South Uist, Skye, Mull, Islay, Jura, Iona or Icolm-ill; and, in the Frith of Clyde, Arran and Bute. The largest of the Orkneys are Pomona or Mainland, Hoy, and Sanda; and of the Shetland Isles, Mainland, Yell, and Unst.

Seaports.—The principal ports, and places of resort for shipping, are Glasgow, Greenock, Port-Glasgow, Gairloch, Lamlash, Loch Ryan, and Campbelltown, on the Frith of Clyde; Musselburgh, Leith, Kinghorn, and Gairloch, on the Frith of Forth; on the rest of the eastern coast, Dunbar, Dundee, Perth, Aberbrothick or Aberbroath, Montrose, Aberdeen, Inverness, and Dornoch; on the northern coast, Thurso; and on the western, Portpatrick.

Capes.—Cape Wrath, Dunnet Head, Duncansby Head, Kinnaird's Head, Buchan Ness, Fife Ness, Galloway Head, Burrow Head, Mull of Galloway, Mull of Cantire, Ardnamurchan Point, &c.

Mountains.—The surface of Scotland is extremely diversified, and two thirds of it are mountainous. The Campian chain, extending from Dumbarton nearly to Aberdeen, forms the south-eastern boundary of the Highlands. Ben Nevis, near Fort William, is higher than any other mountain in Great Britain or Ireland.

Of the other mountains, some of the most remarkable are Cairngorm, Ben Lawers, Schihallion, Ben Lomond, and Ben Ledi.*

Lakes.—Scotland abounds in lakes, or lochs as they are generally termed there. The most remarkable are Lomond, Katrine, Achray, and Venachor, at the south of the Highlands, celebrated for the beauty of their scenery; Awe in Argyleshire, Tay and Earn in Perthshire, Ness and Lochy in Inverness-shire, and Levin in Kinross-shire. Besides these *freshwater* lakes, there are numerous *inlets of the sea*, many of which are also called *lochs*. Such are Lochs Fyne, Long, Goil, and Gare, off the Frith of Clyde; Tarbet, Etive, Linnhe, and others, in the Western Highlands; and Beaully, off Murray Frith.

Rivers.—The Tay in Perthshire; the Forth, which flows into the German Sea, through the Frith of Forth; the Spey, which empties itself into the German Sea, between Murray and Banff; the Clyde, which passes Hamilton, Glasgow, and Greenock; the Tweed, which forms part of the boundary of England; and the Dee and Don, which respectively pass New and Old Aberdeen.

Towns.—The principal cities and towns are Edinburgh, Glasgow, Paisley, Aberdeen, Dundee, Greenock, and Perth.†

* The Highlands consist of Sutherland, Caithness, Ross, Inverness, Argyle, and the western part of Perthshire. The height of Ben Nevis is 4350 feet, of Cairngorm 4060 feet, of Ben Lawers 4015 feet, of Schihallion 3564 feet, of Ben Lomond 3262 feet, of Ben Ledi 3009 feet, of the Paps of Jura 2476 feet; of Ailsa, in the Frith of Clyde, 940 feet; and of Arthur's Seat, near Edinburgh, 814 feet.

† In 1821 the population of these towns was as follows: Edinburgh, 138,235 (of which Leith contained 26,000); Glasgow, 147,043 (including 51,919 belonging to the Barony parish, much of which is in the country); Paisley, 47,003; Aberdeen, New, 26,484; Old, 1483, or with the parish of Old Machar in which it stands, 18,312; Dundee, burgh and parish, 30,575; Greenock, 22,088.

The new part of Edinburgh is extremely beautiful. The old town is of a singular and striking appearance, being built on very uneven ground, and having houses of great height, some of them from ten to fourteen stories. Glasgow, the most populous town in Scotland, is handsome and well built, and has an extensive commerce. Paisley

Climate and Soil.—The climate of Scotland is colder than that of England; and the mountainous districts are barren: but much of the east coast, and of the country between the Friths of Clyde and Forth, is fertile.

Natural Productions, &c.—The principal crops which are cultivated are those of oats, wheat, barley, and potatoes; and the chief minerals are iron, lead, coal, granite, and other kinds of stone, of a valuable or precious nature.

Population.—In 1821, the population of Scotland was nearly 2,100,000.

Agriculture, Manufactures, &c.—In the more fertile districts, agriculture is in a very advanced state. One of the principal manufactures is that of cotton goods, which extends for a considerable space round Glasgow. Linen is also manufactured in some parts; and there are extensive iron-works.

Universities, Learning, &c.—In Scotland there are five universities; namely, those of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Old Aberdeen, New Aberdeen, and St. Andrew's. Each parish has a school, established by law, for teaching the primary branches of education. Hence, the number of learned men is great; and the working classes are perhaps better informed than those of any other country.*

Religion.—The established religion is Calvinism, under the Presbyterian form of church government. There is also a considerable number of Dissenters.†

is the first manufacturing town in Scotland, particularly in silk and cotton goods, the annual value of which is thought to be nearly a million sterling. Greenock has an extensive commerce, depending chiefly on Glasgow.

* Instruction is obtained, in the parish schools, on very moderate terms; as the masters have free houses and gardens, and small salaries, exclusive of the fees of their pupils. These schools are therefore of the highest value to the country, as they bring education within the reach of all the inhabitants, and thus tend to render them an intelligent, orderly people. Besides the parish schools, there are many seminaries belonging to private individuals, where such appear to be required, or where encouragement is given for establishing them. The universities produce so many men of liberal education, beyond the number required at home, that learned Scotchmen are found in almost every part of the world, filling the situations of clergymen, physicians, teachers, editors, and several others. Of the numerous men of learning and distinction produced in Scotland, it may suffice to mention Buchanan, Napier, the Gregorys, Maclaurin, Dr. Simson, Reid, Smith, Dugald Stewart, Smollet, Hume, Robertson, Burns, and Munro.

† In the presbyterian form of church government, the affairs of the church are managed by the clergy at large, and by persons called elders, appointed by the laity from among themselves: and there are different courts of lower or higher powers, such as the session or

Character.—The Scotch are in general an industrious, steady, and prudent people; religious and moral in their habits, and strongly attached to their native country.

Language.—The Highlanders generally speak the Gaelic, a language which is nearly the same as the ancient Irish and Welch; but the majority of them understand English. In the Lowlands, English is universally understood and spoken; but a dialect is used, particularly by the working classes, which differs from it in a considerable degree.*

Curiosities.—Some of the chief natural curiosities, are the basaltic columns and the cave of Fingal, in the island of Staffa; the Fall of Fyers, near Loch Ness; and the Falls of Clyde, near Lanark. There are many remains of antiquity, such as those of the great Roman wall, built by Antoninus Pius, between the Friths of Clyde and Forth; Roman and Danish camps; and Roman ways.†

Inland Navigation.—The principal canals are the Caledonian Canal, extending from Inverness to Fort William; and the Great Canal, joining the Friths of Forth and Clyde.‡

committee of a congregation; a presbytery, composed of ministers and elders from several congregations; a synod, composed of several presbyteries; and, in Scotland, a supreme court, called the General Assembly, composed of deputies from all the presbyteries in the kingdom. The number of synods in Scotland is 15, which are composed of 78 presbyteries; and the number of parish ministers is 937. Of the Dissenters in Scotland, those called Seceders are the most numerous body, their ministers amounting to above 300. Another body, called the Synod of Relief, consists of nearly 80 ministers; and the Reformed Synod, vulgarly called Cameronians or Covenanters, is composed of about 20 ministers. These three bodies subscribe the same doctrines as the members of the Established Church, and have the same forms of church government; but dissent principally because the established clergy are appointed by patrons, and not chosen by the people. There are also 6 bishops and 60 chapels belonging to the episcopal church in Scotland; but the number of people in their communion is small. Besides these bodies, there are Roman Catholics, Independents, and other sects; but their numbers are not considerable.

* Specimens of this dialect will be found in the writings of Ramsay and Burns, and in the Waverley Novels.

† The columns in Staffa resemble those of the Giant's Causeway in Ireland. The cave of Fingal is one of the most remarkable in the world, and is of great magnitude; being 250 feet long, from 20 to more than 50 feet broad, and from 70 to nearly 120 feet high. Staffa lies about 15 miles west of Mull. At the Fall of Fyers, the water descends at a single bound, through the height of more than 200 feet.

‡ The distance from Fort William to Inverness is 59 miles; and the Caledonian Canal is carried through Loch Lochy, Loch Oich,

Representation in Parliament.—By the act of Union, the peers of Scotland elect, at the commencement of each parliament, 16 of their own number to represent them in the house of lords; in the house of commons, there are 45 members for Scotland; of whom 15 represent the counties, and 15 the royal burghs.*

Historical Sketch.—The early history of Scotland is very uncertain. Of well-authenticated events, some of the most important are those which took place in the wars with England, in the reigns of Edward I. Edward II. and Edward III.; and in which Bruce and Wallace were peculiarly distinguished. In 1542, Mary, celebrated for her beauty and misfortunes, succeeded to the throne on the death of her father, James V. a few hours after her birth. During her minority, under the regency of her mother, Mary of Guise, the Reformation made much progress in Scotland. She was at length deposed by her subjects; and her son, James VI. while an infant, made king in her stead. After an unsuccessful attempt to recover the throne, she took refuge in England under the protection of queen Elizabeth, by whom she was kept as a prisoner for nineteen years, and was at length released in 1587. At the death of Elizabeth in 1603, James succeeded to the throne of England, in virtue of his descent

Loch Ness, which occupies 37 miles, and leave only 22 miles to be required to be cut. The canal will admit a 32 gun frigate; its depth being 20 feet, and its width at top 100 feet, and at bottom 50 feet. The rise on the eastern side is 94 feet, and on the western 90 feet. It has for some time been open for vessels, though not yet finished. The work has been carried on by parliament grants; and the entire cost will exceed a million sterling.

The Great Canal was commenced in 1768, under the inspection of James Oglethorpe, and finished in 1790. It cost upwards of £200,000, the greater part of which was raised by subscription. Its general depth is 8 feet, and its general width at the surface 56 feet. It has been productive of great advantage to the part of Scotland through which it passes.

Besides these canals, there are the Union Canal, extending from the Great Canal to Edinburgh; the Monkland Canal, which joins the Great Canal near Glasgow; the Ardrossan Canal, which is partly cut and is to extend from Ardrossan to Glasgow; and the Crinan Canal, which is 9 miles in length, and crosses the peninsula of Mull.

The right of voting for members of parliament is confined to a small number of the people; the thirty county members being elected by 2988 individuals, and the fifteen for the burghs by 1287. The number of the royal burghs is 66, and there is consequently only one member elected for several of them; except in the case of Edinburgh, which elects one for itself. The peers of Scotland are 80 in number.

from Henry VII. Since that time, the two kingdoms have continued under the same sovereign; and the principal events have been the unsuccessful attempts of the Stuart family, in the seventeenth century, to establish episcopacy; the union of the parliaments of England and Scotland, in 1707; and the rebellions in Scotland, in 1715 and 1745, with a view to restore the Stuart family to the throne.

IRELAND.*

Divisions.—Ireland is divided into the four provinces of Ulster, Leinster, Munster, and Connaught, which contain thirty-two counties. These, with their principal towns, are as follows:

ULSTER, NORTH, NINE COUNTIES.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Donegal	BALLYSHANNON, Letterkenny, Raphoe, <i>Lifford</i>
Londonderry	LONDONDERRY, Coleraine, Magherafelt, Newtonlimavady
Antrim	BELFAST, Lisburn, <i>Carrickfergus</i> , Ballymena, Larne, Antrim, Ballycastle
Tyrone	STRABANE, Dungannon, <i>Omagh</i> , Newtonstuart
Down.....	NEWRY, <i>Downpatrick</i> , Newtonards, Bangor, Donaghadee, Dromore, Bannbridge
Fermanagh	ENNISKILLEN
Cavan	CAVAN, Cootehill, Belturbet, Kingscourt
Monaghan	MONAGHAN, Clones, Carrickmacross, Ballybay
Armagh	ARMAGH, Lurgan

* Ireland is situated between the parallels of $51^{\circ} 23'$ and $55^{\circ} 23'$ north, and between $5^{\circ} 20'$ and $10^{\circ} 20'$ west longitude. Its length between the extreme north-eastern and south-western points, is about 300 miles; and its breadth from Hoath Head to Urris Head in Mayo, about 170 miles. Its content is about 19,500,000 acres, or upwards of 30,000 square miles.

LEINSTER, EAST, TWELVE COUNTIES.

COUNTIES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Longford	<i>LONGFORD</i> , Granard
West Meath	<i>Mullingar</i> , <i>ATHLONE</i> ,* Kilbeggan, Castlepollard
East Meath	<i>KELLS</i> , <i>Navan</i> , <i>Trim</i>
Louth	<i>DROGHEDA</i> , Dundalk, Ardee, Carlingford
King's County ..	<i>TULLAMORE</i> , Birr or Parsonstown, Bannagher, <i>Philipstown</i>
Queen's County	<i>MARYBOROUGH</i> , Mountrath, Mountmellick
Kildare	<i>ATHY</i> , <i>Naas</i> , Kildare, Maynooth
Dublin	<i>DUBLIN</i> , Balbriggan, Skerries, Swords
Vicklow	<i>Wicklow</i> , <i>ARKLOW</i> , Bray
Wicklenny	<i>KILKENNY</i> , Thomastown
Carlow	<i>CARLOW</i> , Tullow
Wexford	<i>WEXFORD</i> , Enniscorthy, New Ross

MUNSTER, SOUTH, SIX COUNTIES.

Clare	<i>ENNIS</i> , Kilrush, Killaloe
Limerick	<i>LIMERICK</i> , Rathkeale, Newcastle
Tipperary	<i>CLONMELL</i> , Carrick-on-Suir, Thurles, Cashel, Roscrea, Tipperary
Kerry	<i>TRALEE</i> , Killarney, Dingle
Cork	<i>CORK</i> , Bandon, Youghall, Kinsale, Fermoy, Cove
Waterford	<i>WATERFORD</i> , Dungarvan, Lismore, Tallow

CONNAUGHT, WEST, FIVE COUNTIES.

Sligo	<i>CASTLEBAR</i> , Ballina, Westport, Ballinrobe
Donegal	<i>SLIGO</i>
Monaghan	<i>CARRICK-ON-SHANNON</i> , Manorhamilton
Galway	<i>GALWAY</i> , Loughrea, Tuam, Gort
Roscommon	<i>ATHLONE</i> , Boyle, <i>Roscommon</i>

Athlone contains about 9000 inhabitants, and rather more than of it is in county **Roscommon**.

Bays and Seaports.—Carrickfergus, Belfast, Bangor, Donaghadee, Newry, Dundalk, Drogheda, Dublin, Wicklow, Wexford, Waterford, Youghal, Cork, Kinsale, Bantry, Dingle, Limerick, Galway, Sligo, Donegal, Killybegs, Lough Swilly, Londonderry, Coleraine, &c.

Capes.—Bengore Head, Fair Head, Hoath Head, Wicklow Head, Carnsore Point, Cape Clear, Mizen Head, Kerry Point or Cape Lean, Loop Head, Slyne Head, Achill Head, Urris Head, Malin Head, &c.

Face of the Country, &c.—The principal mountains are Magillicuddy's Reeks and Mangerton in Kerry, Croagh Patrick in Mayo, the Mourne Mountains in Down, the Wicklow Mountains, &c. For the greater part of the country, however, is free from mountains, and fit for cultivation.*

Lakes.—The principal lakes, or, as they are generally termed in Ireland, loughs, are Neagh and Erne in Ulster; Allen, Ree, and Derg, on the line of the Shannon; Corrib in Galway; another, Lough Derg, near Lough Erne; and the lakes of Killarney in Kerry, celebrated for the great beauty of their scenery.†

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the Shannon, which flows into the Atlantic by Limerick; the Barrow, Nore, and Suir, which unite, and fall into Waterford haven; the Bann, which flows through Lough Neagh; the Boyne, which passes Drogheda; the Black-

* The highest point in Ireland is the summit of Magillicuddy's Reeks, the height of which above the level of the sea is 3610 feet. The height of Slieve Donard, the highest of the Mourne Mountains, is 2654 feet. The heights of Devis and the Cave Hill, in the neighbourhood of Belfast, are 1542 and 1150 feet respectively. Another feature of Ireland is its extensive bogs, which occupy nearly three millions of acres of its surface. These are principally situated in a belt formed by lines drawn from Wicklow Head to Galway, and from Hoath Head to Sligo.

† Lough Neagh is the largest lake in the United Kingdom, being about 22 miles long and 12 broad, and having a surface of more than 95,000 acres, or nearly 150 square miles. Petrified wood is often found in this lake, and the surrounding country.

water, which falls into Youghall harbour; the Liffey, which flows through Dublin; the Slaney, which falls into Wexford harbour; the Foyle, which passes Londonderry; the Lagan, which falls into the sea at Belfast; the Lee, which passes Cork; &c.*

Chief Towns.—The principal cities and towns are Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Belfast, Waterford, Drogheda, and Londonderry.†

Climate and Soil.—The climate of Ireland is mild, but variable, and is more moist than that of Britain. The soil is in general rich and fertile, and the pastures excellent.‡

Produce.—Much of the country being used for pasturage, vast quantities of cattle and butter are produced, and also large quantities of pork. Much grain and potatoes are also produced; and, by better cultivation, the quantity might be greatly increased. Iron is found in many districts; also marble and limestone.||

* The Shannon has a course of more than 170 miles, and is perhaps larger than any river in Britain. It is navigable for vessels of considerable burden to Limerick, which is upwards of 50 miles from the sea. The Boyne is remarkable for the victory gained on its banks near Drogheda, in 1690, by William III. over James II.

† In point of size, Dublin is the second city in the United Kingdom; having, in 1821, a population of 227,335. It is finely situated, and is remarkable for the beauty of its public buildings. Cork has a population of 100,658; and has an immense trade in the export of provisions, no fewer, it is supposed, than 100,000 head of cattle being annually slaughtered and salted between the months of August and January. Limerick has a population of 59,045, and its chief trade is in provisions. The population of Belfast, in 1821, was upwards of 37,000; and, if to this the population of the suburb of Ballymacarrett were added, the amount would exceed 40,000. The town has since rapidly increased, and the population at present is probably from 45,000 to 50,000. It has an extensive trade in linen, provisions, American produce, &c.; and is a well-built, flourishing town. Waterford has a population of 28,679, and is much engaged in the provision trade. The population of Kilkenny in 1821 was 23,230, of Drogheda 18,118, and of Derry 16,971.

‡ The moistness of the climate is thought to arise from the vapour which is carried, by the prevailing westerly winds, from the Atlantic. The rain and dew, which are thus produced, prevent the ground from being parched in such a degree as it frequently is in England; and produce those excellent pastures, and that perpetual verdure, for which Ireland is so remarkable.

|| Gold has been found, in considerable quantities, in county Wicklow; silver in Antrim, Tipperary, and Sligo; and copper in Kerry and Wicklow. Coal has been found in several places; but

Population.—By the census of 1821, the population was nearly seven millions.*

Manufactures and Commerce.—The principal and most valuable manufacture of Ireland is linen, the chief seat of which is in the north. Considerable quantities of cotton are manufactured, particularly about Belfast; and beautiful silk goods are manufactured in Dublin. These articles, with provisions of various kinds, form the principal exports; and most of the direct commerce of the country is with Great Britain and America.

Colleges, Learning, &c.—The only university in Ireland is Trinity College, Dublin; but there are colleges in Maynooth, Belfast, and Carlow. Education has been greatly neglected, particularly among the lower classes: it is now beginning, however, to be much more attended to.†

Religion.—The established religion in Ireland is the same as in England, and the churches of the two countries are united. In Ireland there are four archbishops, those of Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam; and eighteen bishops. The great majority of the people, however, are Roman Catholics; and there are many others who are not connected with the Established Church, particularly Presbyterians.‡

not in such quantity or kind, as yet, as to be of much advantage to the country at large. Marble is found principally in Kilkenny and Galway.

* According to the returns, 6,846,949.

† Trinity College, founded in the reign of Elizabeth, is the most flourishing and extensive seminary in Ireland. Maynooth is supported by a parliamentary grant; and has for its object the education of clergymen for the Roman Catholic church. Carlow has the same object. The Institution of Belfast was established by public subscription; and affords extensive courses of lectures on Latin, Greek, Hebrew, Logic and Belles Lettres, Moral Philosophy and Metaphysics, Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, Theology, Anatomy, and other subjects. This seminary is open to persons of all religious denominations, and is adopted in particular by the Presbyterians of Ireland as a place of education for their clergy. It has also a series of schools for the primary branches of education, and for languages, ancient and modern. It was opened for teaching in 1814.

Notwithstanding the disadvantages under which the inhabitants of Ireland have long laboured, in respect to education, and to opportunities for calling their abilities into exertion, many of them have attained high distinction for talents and learning. Of these it may be sufficient to mention Usher, Boyle, Ware, Farquhar, Swift, Steele, Hutcheson, Berkeley, Goldsmith, Burke, Sheridan, Curran, and Grattan.

‡ The Presbyterians are chiefly seated in Ulster; and most of them are descended from Scotch settlers, who emigrated to Ireland in the

Character, &c.—The lower Irish are considered a lively, shrewd people, and warm in their attachments and antipathies. In many instances however, particularly in the south and west of the kingdom, they commit acts of turbulence and cruelty, arising from bad education and bad habits. These, it is to be hoped, will gradually yield to the active means, now employed by different parties, for the improvement of the population.*

Curiosities.—The most remarkable natural curiosity is the Giant's Causeway, at the northern extremity of County Antrim. Curious round towers, of great antiquity, are found in many parts of the kingdom, the uses of which are unknown.

Inland Navigation.—The principal canals are the Royal and Grand Canals, proceeding in different directions from Dublin to the Shannon; and the canals from Lough Neagh to Belfast and Newry.

Representation in Parliament.—By the act of Union, the temporal peers of Ireland† elect 28 of their own number for life, to represent them in the house of lords; in which also one of the archbishops, and three of the bishops, have seats by annual rotation. In the house of commons, there are 100 Irish members; two for each of the thirty-two counties, two for the city of Dublin, one for Trinity College, two for the city of Cork, and one for each of thirty-one cities and boroughs.

Historical Sketch.—In the reign of Henry II. Ireland was annexed to the English crown. James I. introduced colonies from England and Scotland, caused justice to be regularly ad-

reigns of James I. Charles I. and Charles II. They are divided into different parties, as in Scotland. Their numbers are supposed to be about equal to those of the established church, and the number of their congregations is between three and four hundred.

The bishoprics in the established church are as follows: Under the archbishop of Armagh, the primate of the kingdom, (1) Meath, (2) Clogher, (3) Down and Connor, (4) Derry, (5) Raphoe, (6) Kilmore and Ardagh, (7) Dromore and Clonmacnoise; under the archbishop of Dublin, (8) Kildare, (9) Leighlin and Ferns, (10) Ossory; under the archbishop of Cashel, (11) Limerick, Ardfert, and Aghadoe, (12) Waterford and Lismore, (13) Cork and Ross, (14) Cloyne, (15) Killaloe and Kilfenora; and under the archbishop of Tuam, (16) Elphin, (17) Clonfert and Kilmacduagh, (18) Killala and Achonry. The Roman Catholics have, in their church, about the same number of dignitaries, under the same titles.

* The ancient Irish language, which is considered the best preserved dialect of the Celtic, is very generally spoken by the Roman Catholics, who are descended from the original inhabitants of the country; and many of whom, in the remoter districts, are unacquainted with English.

† The temporal peers of Ireland are nearly 220 in number.

ministered, and promoted civilization and general improvement. In 1641, in the reign of Charles I. the Catholics, in a rebellion, were guilty of great atrocities against the Protestants; but were reduced to subjection by Cromwell. At the Revolution in 1688, the Catholics supported James II. in opposition to his successor, William III.; but were again reduced to subjection. In 1782 the British parliament surrendered their claim to controul or modify the decisions of the parliament of Ireland. In 1798 there was another rebellion, which was soon suppressed; and, at the beginning of the present century, the Union of Great Britain and Ireland took place, from which time Ireland has ceased to have a separate legislature.

FRANCE.

Boundaries.—France is bounded on the south by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenees; on the west, by the Bay of Biscay; on the north-west, by the English Channel; on the north-east, by the Netherlands; and on the east, by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy.*

Divisions.—France was formerly divided into large parts, called provinces; but, in 1790, it was divided into smaller portions, called departments.† These divisions are as follows:

* The inland boundary of France, except where it is formed by the Pyrenees, has been subject to great variations, according to the fortune of war. At present, it commences seven or eight miles east of Dunkirk, and passes between Lille and Tournay, and between Valenciennes and Mons. It then crosses the Meuse, a little north of Givet; and, turning first southward and then eastward, it passes a little north of Sedan, crosses the Moselle at Sierck, and reaches the Rhine about the forty-ninth degree of latitude. The boundary then coincides with the Rhine as far as the vicinity of Basil; after which it passes south-westerly, between lake Neufchatel and Mount Jura, and a little west of Geneva; then, following the course of the Rhone for about 50 miles, and crossing the Isere, it reaches the Mediterranean at the mouth of the Var.

France is situated between the parallels of $42^{\circ} 22'$ and $51^{\circ} 2'$ north, and between $4^{\circ} 49'$ west, and $8^{\circ} 15'$ east longitude; and its length and breadth are each nearly 600 miles. Its surface is supposed to be about 200,000 square miles.

† The departments are named chiefly from rivers and mountains. It is proper to retain the ancient divisions, from the frequent references to them, particularly in history.

PROVINCES.	DEPARTMENTS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Bretagne, or Brit- tany	Ille and Villaine ..	Rennes
	North Coast	St. Brieux
	Morbihan	Vannes
	Finisterre	Quimper
	Lower Loire	NANTES
Normandy	Lower Seine	ROUEN
	Calvados	Caen
	The Channel	Coutances
	Orne	Alençon
	Eure	Evreux
Picardy	Somme	Amiens
French Flanders ..	North	LILLE, Douay
Artois	Strait of Calais ..	Arras
Anjou	Mayenne & Loire	Angers
Maine	Sarthe	Le Mans
	Mayenne	Laval
Isle of France	Seine	PARIS
	Seine and Oise ..	VERSAILLES
	Oise	Beauvais
	Aisne	Laon
	Seine and Marne	Melun
Aunis, and part of Saintonge	Lower Charente	Saintes
Poitou	Vendée	Fontenay le Comte
	Two Sevres	Niort
	Vienne	Poitiers
Touraine	Indre and Loir ..	Tours
Orleanois	Loiret	Orleans
	Eure and Loir	Chartres
	Loire and Cher ..	Blois
Champagne	Marne	Châlons, Rheims
	Ardennes	Mézière
	Aube	Troyes
	Upper Marne	Chaumont
Lorraine	Meuse	Bar sur Ornain
	Moselle	Metz
	Meurthe	Nancy
	Vosges	Epinal

PROVINCES.	DEPARTMENTS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Alsace	Upper Rhine	Colmar
	Lower Rhine	Strasbourg
Rest of Saintonge, with Angoumois	Charente.....	Angouleme
Marche	Upper Vienne.....	Limoges
	Creuse	Gueret
Berry	Indre	Chateauroux
	Cher	Bourges
Nivernois	Nièvre	Nevers
Bourgogne, or Burgundy	Yonne	Auxerre
	Côte d'Or	Dijon
	Saône and Loire	Maçon
	Ain.....	Bourg
Franche Comté	Upper Saône	Vesoul
	Doubs	Besançon
	Jura	Lons le Saunier
Limousin	Correze	Tulle
Bourbonnois.....	Allier	Moulins
Auvergne	Puy de Dôme.....	Clermont
	Cantal	St. Flour
Lyonnois	Rhône	LYONS or LYON
	Loire	Monbrison
Guienne and Gas- cogne or Gas- cony	Dordogne	Perigueux
	Gironde	BOURDEAUX
	Lot and Garonne ..	Agen
	Lot	Cahors
	Aveiron	Rhodez
	Gers	Auch
	Landes	Mont de Marsan
	Upper Pyrénées ..	Tarbe
County of Foix.....	Arriege	Tarascon, Foix
Béarn	Lower Pyrénées ..	Pau, Bayonne
Languedoc	Upper Garonne	TOULOUSE
	Aude	Carcassone
	Tarn	Alby, Castres
	Gard	Nismes
	Lozere	Mende
	Ardèche	Privas
	Upper Loire	Le Puy
	Herault	Montpellier

PROVINCES.	DEPARTMENTS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Dauphiné	{ Upper Alps	Gap
	{ Drôme	Valence
	{ Isère	Grenoble
Rousillon	East Pyrenees	Perpignan
County of Venaissin	Vaucluse	Avignon
Provence	{ Mouths of the Rhone	AIX, MARSEILLE
	{ Lower Alps	Digne
	{ Var	TOULON

Islands.—The principal islands belonging to France, are Ouessant or Ushant, Belleisle, Noirmoutier, Re, and Oleron, off the western coast; and the d'Hieres, near Toulon.

Seaports and Bays.—Dunkirk, Calais, Boulogne, Dieppe, Havre de Grace, Cherbourg, St. Malo, on the English Channel; Brest on the Atlantic; L'Orient, Quiberon, Nantes, Rochelle, Rochefort, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, on the Bay of Biscay; and Marseille, Toulon, Arles, on the Mediterranean.

Mountains.—France is in general a level country, particularly the northern and western parts. The chief mountains, besides the Alps and Pyrenees, are the Cevennes, west of the Rhone; the Vosges, near the Rhine; and Mount Jura, near Switzerland.*

Rivers.—The Loire, which flows through the middle, and the Garonne through the south of France, into the Bay of Biscay; the Rhone, a rapid river, which flows through the Lake of Geneva, and then northward into the Mediterranean; the Seine, which

The top of Mont Perdu, the highest of the Pyrenees, is upwards 1,000 feet above the level of the sea. The highest summits of the mountains are covered with perpetual snow; and sea-shells have been found near their tops. The Pyrenees have glaciers and *lavanges*, or *lavanges*, like those of the Alps, which will be mentioned after. The length of the chain of the Pyrenees is 212 miles. The highest of the Cevennes is little more than 6000 feet high; and the summits of Jura, or the Vosges, have so great a height, that one eighth of the surface of France is covered with forests.

flows north-westerly by Paris, and falls into the English Channel; and the Somme, which falls into the same sea, north-east of the Seine.*

Canals.—The principal canals are, that of Languedoc, which opens a passage from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic; that of Burgundy, which joins the Loire and the Saone; and those of Briare and Orleans, which unite the Loire and Seine.†

Towns.—The principal cities and towns are PARIS, Lyons, Marseille, Bordeaux, Toulon, Rouen, Toulouse, Nantes, Lille or Lisle, and Versailles.‡

* The Garonne and Dordogne unite near Bordeaux; and, from thence to the sea, their united stream is called the Gironde. The Loire receives in its course the Sarthe, Loir, one of the Sevres, the Creuse, Indre, Cher, and Allier. The Garonne receives the Gers, Lot, and Tarn; the Rhone is increased by the Saône, Isere, Drome, Ain, Ardeche, and Durance; and the Seine receives the Oise, Eure, and Yonne. The valleys, which are watered by some of the French rivers, particularly the Loire, Seine, and Rhone, are extremely rich and beautiful. France has no lakes of importance.

† The canal of Languedoc, one of the great works of the reign of Louis XIV. is 150 miles long, 6 feet deep, and 60 broad. It was finished in 1681; and had employed 12,000 men, for fifteen years, in its construction. It cost £1,200,000; and the annual expense of keeping it in repair is £12,000.

‡ The population of none of these is under 50,000. That of Paris was 715,000 in 1817, and is now perhaps 800,000. Before the Revolution, Lyons contained 150,000 inhabitants, a number which was reduced to 75,000 by the ruin to which the city was then subjected. It has been fast recovering however, and in 1820 it contained 120,000 inhabitants. The population of Bordeaux nearly equals, and that of Marseille exceeds 100,000. Paris is remarkable for the beauty and splendour of its public buildings, several of which exceed the finest in London. Some of the principal are the palaces of the Tuileries and Luxembourg; the Louvre, which is used as a repository for objects of taste and art; and the church of Notre Dame. The houses in Paris are built of freestone, taken from beneath the city. The subterranean excavations, thus formed, are used as catacombs, or repositories for the dead. Several of the streets are magnificent; but, in general, they are not furnished with sidepaths for foot-passengers.

Other considerable towns are Rouen, Nantes, Strasbourg, and Orleans. The last of these is a very ancient town; deriving its name from the Roman emperor Aurelian, by whom it was founded, or rather restored. The steeple of the cathedral of Strasbourg rises to the great height of 574 feet. The clock of this cathedral is extremely

Climate and Soil.—The climate of much of France, especially the middle and south, is considered fine, and very favourable to health. The heat in summer, and the cold in winter, however, are in most places greater than in the British islands. Many parts are fertile; but in general the system of agriculture is not good.*

Produce, Animals, and Minerals.—Different kinds of grain, and excellent wines, are some of the most important productions of the country. Besides horses, black cattle, and sheep, there are wolves, bears, wild boars, and serpents of various kinds. France is rich in minerals, particularly lead, coal, and iron.

Population, Army and Navy.—The population is supposed to be nearly 30 millions, and the standing army is about 150,000. The navy, compared with that of Britain, is inconsiderable.†

Government.—At the restoration of the Bourbon family, in 1814, a new system of government was established, which nearly resembles the government of Britain, in its general outline and character.‡

curious, showing the motions of the earth and planets, and the increase and decrease of the moon: the day of the month is pointed out by a statue: each hour is announced by a golden cock, and struck on the bell by one angel, while another turns an hour-glass as soon as the clock has finished striking: the quarters are also struck, the first by a child with an apple, the second by a youth with an arrow, the third by a man with a tip-staff, and the fourth by an old man with a cane.

* In the western parts, near the Bay of Biscay, the climate is very moist. In the department of Finisterre, there is almost a perpetual mist; and at Brest and Morlaix, it rains almost incessantly. In all the countries south of the Loire, there are often most destructive storms of hail and rain. These, it is computed, annually damage a tenth part of the produce of the south of France; and a single storm of this kind has been known to sweep across an entire zone of the kingdom, and to do injury to the amount of some millions. In France the harvest usually begins, in the north, about the 20th or 25th of July; and in the south, about the end of June.

† In 1794, during the revolutionary war, the French army consisted of 1,400,000 men; and in 1812, in the zenith of Napoleon's power, there was a standing army of 1,200,000;—amounts, perhaps, unequalled in ancient or modern times. At the period of the Revolution, the French fleet consisted of 73 men of war and 67 frigates, besides smaller vessels; and many millions were expended on it during the war. It was nearly annihilated, however, by Britain; the loss, from the commencement of the war till the peace of Paris in 1814, having been 97 men of war, 219 frigates, and many other vessels.

‡ There are, as in Britain, two houses of legislature; the chamber of peers, and the chamber of deputies; the former corresponding to the house of lords, and the latter to the house of commons. No law

Manufactures and Commerce.—The chief manufactures of France are woollens, silks, linens, laces, hardware, cotton goods, and porcelain. Before the Revolution, the commerce of France was very extensive. During that period, however, it was nearly annihilated; but it is now beginning to recover.

Learning, &c.—France has produced many men of great talents and learning. The instruction of the peasantry, which was never well attended to, was almost entirely neglected during the revolutionary wars; and, in consequence of this, nearly two thirds of the population can neither read nor write. During the ascendancy of Napoleon, the mathematical sciences were cultivated with the utmost care, and with extraordinary success.*

can be made without the concurrence of the king and both houses. The king proposes the law; but the houses have the privilege of intreating the king to propose it, and to suggest to him the points which they think it should contain. If both houses agree, the proposition is laid before the king. He may reject it, however, and in that case it cannot be again proposed during the same session.

The peers are appointed by the king, either for life, or their dignity is made hereditary, and their number is unlimited. They have a deliberative voice at thirty. The princes of the blood are peers by birth; but have seats in the chamber, only in virtue of an order from the king, each session. No deputy is admitted under forty, nor unless he pay direct taxes to the amount of 1000 livres; and no person under thirty can vote for deputies, nor unless he pay 300 livres in direct taxes. The deliberations of the peers are secret; those of the deputies public: the latter, however, may render theirs private, on the demand of five members. Judges in the courts of law are appointed by the king; and he can pardon offences, and commute punishments. Trials are conducted by juries.

* Before the Revolution, there were 30 universities in France; one of the principal of which, particularly in theology, was the Sorbonne, in Paris. These were overturned at the Revolution; and, after some time, a new system of education was planned, and partly carried into effect. This system was admirably fitted for the promotion of science, particularly in its application to engineering, and every thing connected with military tactics; but was little calculated for the advancement of general literature. At present there are 26 universities, or, as they are called, academies. There are also 36 *lycées*, or royal colleges; 6 *facultés*, and 41 schools of theology; and, of late, many schools have been established on the systems of Lancaster and Bell. Of the distinguished men produced in France, may be mentioned Calvin, Sully, Des Cartes, Pascal, Massillon, Fenelon, Poussin, Voltaire, and Laplace; also, Corneille, Racine, Moliere, Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Saurin, Fermat, Clairault, D'Alembert, Rollin, Buffon, and many others.

Religion.—The religion of the state is by law the Roman Catholic; and the great majority of the people are of that religion; according to the constitution agreed to by Louis XVIII. After the restoration, other sects are tolerated, and all Frenchmen equally admissible to civil and military employments.*
Character, &c.—The French are in general sprightly, and fond of amusement; ingenious and polite; and strongly influenced by a love of distinction and glory.†

Since the period of the Reformation, France has always contained a considerable number of Protestants. These have, at different times, suffered severe persecutions from the Catholics. At the massacre of St. Bartholomew's day, on the 24th of April, 1572, ninety thousand Protestants were sacrificed in France, in the most insidious and cruel manner. After various struggles, the famous edict of Nantes was issued, in 1593, by Henry IV. in favour of the Protestants, which granted them liberty of conscience and civil rights. After various violations of this edict, it was formally revoked, in 1685, by Louis XIV. This event gave rise to an active and severe persecution, in which great numbers lost their lives; and above 500,000 of the most industrious and valuable inhabitants were driven into exile, to the great injury of France, and to the great advantage of Britain and other countries in which they settled, and where they introduced and established several manufactures before unknown. Since that time Protestants have been often exposed to severe treatment; but are, in principle, tolerated and protected under the new constitution. The present number is about two millions. The number of Catholic bishops is 18, and of bishops 74. Since the Revolution, these have no seat or voice in the house of peers. The nomination of all bishops, whether Catholic or Protestant, belongs to the crown. After the commencement of the Revolution, amid the frenzy and anarchy of the time, the Christian religion was formally abolished, and all the revenue and property of the church seized by the government. The priests were subjected to a severe persecution; in the space of between 1792 and 1795, nearly 3000 were put to death, and 100,000 were obliged to save themselves by flight. These proceedings were followed up by the consecration of *Reason*, as an object of worship; and a festival in honour of her was celebrated in the capital of Paris. For some years, one impiety succeeded another; till, in 1799, Napoleon re-established the Roman Catholic religion, and toleration for others; and in that state, matters continue to be at

presently religious and moral feelings and principles of the people are greatly affected by the irreligion and general laxity of the times since the Revolution; and the effects, thus produced, may be expected to continue, particularly on a people naturally and habitually lively. The sanguinary scenes of the Revolution were unable to check the natural love of amusement. At that time, 24 theatres were open in every night, and were numerous attended; and persons of

Curiosities, &c.—In Foix there is a natural cavern capable of containing 2000 men. The cascade of Gavarnée, in the Pyrenees, is said to be 1266 feet in height. The fountain of Vaucluse, celebrated by Petrarch, presents, in its ordinary state, a great many little streams issuing from the bottom of a rock 600 feet high; but, in spring, it becomes a vast cascade, from the melting of the snows.

Historical Sketch.—France was subdued, about 60 years before Christ, by the Romans under Julius Cæsar, and long continued to be a province of the empire. In 481 Clovis laid the foundation of the French monarchy, and in 496 introduced Christianity. In 768 Charles, son of Pepin, became king; and, from his success in war, was called Charlemagne, or Charles the Great. He greatly extended his dominions, and founded the German empire, which was soon separated from France. In 987 Hugh Capet supplanted the reigning family, and made himself king. Among the succeeding events in French history, may be mentioned the wars with Edward III. and Henry V. of England, which were so disastrous to France, that, in the former war, John, the French monarch, was made prisoner; and, in the latter, on the death of Henry V. his son Henry VI. was crowned king of France. The English, however, soon lost all they had acquired, and Charles VII. recovered the throne of his ancestors. The reign of Henry IV. of Bourbon, called Henry the Great, commenced in 1597, and contributed greatly to the prosperity of the kingdom. He was assassinated in 1608. Louis XIV. began to reign in 1643, at the age of 5 years, and died in 1715. In his reign, France made great advances in literature and science, and assumed a high rank among the nations of Europe. In 1789, the ancient government was overturned by one of the most remarkable revolutions on record. The king, Louis XVI. was beheaded in 1793, and a republic established, which in its turn was subverted; and Napoleon Bonaparte, a Corsican, became the supreme ruler of the nation, under the title of First Consul, in 1799; and then of Emperor,

every time of life, from childhood to old age, spent a great part of their leisure hours, particularly on Sunday, in dancing. To these scenes of pleasure, which were made to usurp such a portion of valuable time, in so unprofitable a manner, and more especially on that day which should be sacred to better objects, may be added gaming, and various kinds of debauchery, which prevailed in Paris to a degree not equalled, perhaps, in any other place; and yet such are the spirit and habits of the people, that one of the most unpopular acts of Louis XVIII. before the return of Bonaparte from Elba, was an attempt to cause the shops and theatres to be closed on Sunday, and the day to be observed with external decency.

in 1804. At length, the ancient royal line was restored in 1814, in the person of Louis XVIII. when Bonaparte was obliged to abdicate the throne, and retire to the island of Elba. Escaping from this retreat in 1815, he made an unsuccessful attempt to recover his former power; and, after the famous battle of Waterloo, he surrendered to the prince regent of England, and was sent a prisoner to St. Helena, where he died in 1821.

SPAIN.

Boundaries.—Spain is bounded on the north by the Bay of Biscay, and the Pyrenees; on the east, by the Mediterranean; on the south, by the Mediterranean, the Strait of Gibraltar, and the Atlantic; and on the west, by the Atlantic and Portugal.*

Divisions.—Spain is divided into 14 provinces; which, with some of their provincial subdivisions, are as follows:

FOUR NORTH.

PROVINCES.	SUBDIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Galicia	Santiago, Lugo
Asturias	{ Oviedo	Oviedo
	{ Santillana	Santillana
Biscay	{ Guipuzcoa	Tolosa, St. Sebastian
	{ Biscay Proper	Bilboa
	{ Alava	Vittoria
Navarra	Pampeluna, Tudela

FOUR EAST.

Arragon	Saragossa, Huesca
Catalonia	Barcelona, Tarragona, Tortosa
Valencia	Valencia, Alicant
Murcia	Murcia, Cartagena

* Spain lies between the parallels of $35^{\circ} 57'$ and $43^{\circ} 41'$ north; and between $3^{\circ} 8'$ east, and $9^{\circ} 18'$ west longitude. Its length, from Cape Creux to Cape Ortegál, is about 640 miles; and its breadth, from the Strait of Gibraltar to Cape de Penas, about 530 miles: and it contains a surface of nearly 230,000 square miles.

TWO SOUTH.

PROVINCES.	SUBDIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Granada		Granada, Malaga
Andalusia	{ Seville	Seville, Cadiz, Gibraltar
	{ Cordova	Cordova
	{ Jaen	Jaen

FOUR MIDLAND.

Leon	{ Salamanca ..	Salamanca, Ciudad Rodrigo
	{ Zamora	Zamora
	{ Palencia	Palencia
	{ Toro	Toro
Old Castile ..	{ Burgos	Burgos
	{ Segovia	Segovia
	{ Soria	Soria
	{ Valladolid ..	Valladolid, Tordesillas
	{ Avila	Avila
New Castile	{ Madrid	MADRID, Escorial
	{ Toledo	Toledo
	{ Cuença	Cuença
	{ La Mancha	Ciudad Real
	{ Guadalaxara	Guadalaxara
	{ Molina	Molina
Estremadura		Badajos, Alcantara

Islands.—Majorca, Minorca, Iviza or Iviça, and Fromentera, in the Mediterranean.*

Seaports and Bays.—Passages, Bilboa, Santander, Ferrol, Corunna (called by English seamen, the Groyn), Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Malaga, Almeria, Cartagena, Alicant, Valencia, Murviedro, † Tortosa, Tarragona, Barcelona, Mataro.

Capes.—Ortegal, Finisterre, Trafalgar, De Gata, De Palo, St. Sebastian.

* These are often called the Balearic Isles. The principal towns are, in Majorca, Palma; in Minorca, Ciudadella and Port Mahon; and the chief town of Iviza is of the same name. The city of Cadiz is also in an island called Leon.

† Murviedro is built on the site of the ancient Saguntum.

Mountains, &c.—The principal mountains of the peninsula of Spain and Portugal, are the Santillanos, or Sierra of Biscay and Asturias, a continuation of the Pyrenees; the Sierra de Estrella, and its continuation, the Castillian Mountains; the Sierra de Toledo; the Sierra Morena; and the Sierra Nevada.*

Rivers.—The Tajo or Tagus, Duero, Guadiana, Guadalquivir, Minho, and Ebro.†

Chief Towns.—Madrid, Barcelona, Seville, Valencia, Granada, Cadiz, Saragossa, Salamanca, and Gibraltar.‡

Climate, Soil, and Produce.—Spain is a warm country; and the soil, in many places, is rich and fertile, producing excellent wheat, barley, and other kinds of grain; besides good fruit, oil, and wine.||

* In the Spanish language, the term *sierra* is used to denote a chain of mountains; because their successive summits present to the eye, at a distance, the appearance of a saw, the name for which, in Spanish, is *sierra*. The mountains of the peninsula consist chiefly of such chains, disposed in nearly parallel directions, and extending from east to west, with a slight inclination to the south-west. Some peaks of the Sierra Nevada, or Snowy Mountains, are higher than any mountains in Europe, except the Alps. Venleta and Mulhacen, in particular, are each nearly 12,000 feet high.

† The Ebro flows south-easterly into the Mediterranean, through the north-east of Spain. The other principal rivers of the peninsula flow in a westerly or south-westerly direction, through the spaces between the chains of mountains, and discharge themselves into the Atlantic. Spain and Portugal have no lakes that merit particular notice.

‡ The population of these towns is supposed to be as follows: Madrid, 200,000; Barcelona, 100,000; Seville, Valencia, and Granada, 80,000 each; Cadiz, 70,000; Saragossa, 50,000; Salamanca, 24,000; Gibraltar, 12,000, exclusive of the garrison.

Madrid, the capital, is a handsome city, with regular streets and many magnificent buildings; and, from its elevated situation, it enjoys pure air.

Gibraltar, one of the strongest fortresses in the world, has belonged to Britain since 1704. Since that time, it has been repeatedly besieged, but never taken. The last siege commenced in 1779, and ended in 1783; and is one of the most remarkable that has ever taken place, both for the magnitude and vigour of the means employed by the Spaniards, for reducing the town; and the courage and ingenuity displayed by the British, in its defence.

|| Spain is not so warm as Italy, and some other countries in the

Animals and Minerals.—Spain is remarkable for its excellent breeds of horses and sheep: and it contains various mines of gold and silver; and of copper, lead, and tin.*

Population.—The population of Spain is very small, compared with the size and fertility of the country, being only eleven or twelve millions.†

same latitudes. This is occasioned, on the coasts, by the influence of the sea; and, in the interior, by the elevation of the country. The Castiles, in particular, consist of a plateau, or elevated plain; the ordinary height of which, above the level of the sea, is nearly 2000 feet. In the south, however, for three months of the summer, the heat is very oppressive, and produces contagious distempers. Of the fruits may be mentioned oranges, lemons, citrons, almonds, raisins, dates, and pomegranates.

* Some of the sheep remain constantly in the same place, and are housed during the winter: these have coarse wool. Others set out in the beginning of autumn, from the cool northern districts near the Bay of Biscay; and, by the middle of winter, have reached the warm southern plains of Andalusia and Estremadura. After remaining there for some time, they return homeward in spring; and thus, at all times, enjoy a mild and nearly uniform temperature. These sheep, which are very small, live always in the open air; and their wool is celebrated for its fineness. It is supposed, that, in the sixteenth century, upwards of seven millions of sheep went on this annual migration; but, since that time, the number has diminished to four or five millions. They constitute, collectively, what is called the *mesta*; and are composed of flocks of 10,000 each, belonging to the nobility, to rich monasteries, and to other persons of power and influence. The flock is subdivided into ten tribes; and each tribe is under the care of five shepherds, and five dogs. The entire flock is under the superintendence of one man; and there is a regular tribunal for managing the affairs of the *mesta*. The system has been long felt to be highly oppressive by those who live in the line of movement, though a trifling compensation is paid to them by the proprietors of the sheep. The power of the nobles and other proprietors, however, have thus far prevented the abolition of the system.

In ancient times, Spain was celebrated for its gold and silver mines, and supplied a great part of what was in use; but, since the discovery of America, they have been neglected, in consequence of the great facility with which the precious metals are procured there.

† The scantiness of the population is supposed to arise from different causes: from contagious fevers, in the southern parts; from the frequency of intestine wars; from emigration to America; from the effect of the *mesta*, in causing so much of the land to be employed in pasturage; from the great number of unmarried ecclesiastics; and from the expulsion of the Jews and Moors. In the time of the Romans, the population is said to have been forty or fifty millions. This statement is probably exaggerated; yet, from the great armies fur-

Army and Navy.—The army, in the time of peace, amounts to about 60,000. The navy was formerly considerable; but it suffered severely during the late war, and is now small.

Government.—Before the late war, Spain was an absolute monarchy. Since that time, it has undergone great changes; and it cannot be regarded as settled at present.

Agriculture, Manufactures, and Commerce.—The agriculture and manufactures of Spain, though the country possesses great natural advantages for both, are far from being in a prosperous state; and its commerce is very limited.

Literature, &c.—Spain has 24 universities; and yet literature, science, and the arts, are in a very low state in the country.*

Religion.—The established, and only tolerated religion in Spain, is the Roman Catholic.†

Character, &c.—The Spaniards are represented as being in general proud and indolent, slow in their movements, solemn in their appearance, and moderate in eating and drinking.—They are excessively fond of bull-fights, which, however, the government has latterly discountenanced.‡

Historical Sketch.—Spain was conquered by the Carthaginians, but taken from them by the Romans. The latter held it till the decline of the Roman empire, when it was seized by the Vandals and other tribes, and divided into several kingdoms. These were all united into one in 584, by Leovigild, a leader of the

ruled by Spain in the Punic wars, the inhabitants must have been numerous. In 1788, the number of the clergy, monks, and nuns, was stated to be 188,625, or one out of every fifty-four of the population.

Of these universities, the chief is Salamanca, which has some 16,000 students. In 1785, however, their number was not more than 2000. The system of education is said to differ little from that of the schools before the revival of literature. The most noted Spanish writer, in modern times, is Cervantes, the author of *Don Quixote*. The Spanish language is principally derived from the Basque, to which it much resembles.

The Inquisition has been long established in Spain; and in no country has its power been exerted so cruelly and so effectually to suppress any deviation from the doctrine and discipline of the Romish Church.

The number of archbishops is 8, and of bishops 46.

The men, especially in the higher classes, were formerly extremely jealous; and kept the females confined in the houses almost like prisoners, scarcely ever allowing them to be seen. Even when they were permitted to go out, they were veiled, and were guarded by maids or governesses, who also attended them in the same manner at home. Since the accession of the Bourbon family, however, there has been a gradual relaxation, and the ladies are now allowed the same freedom as in Britain.

Visigoths, who made himself king. This monarchy continued till 712, when Spain was invaded by the Saracens of Barbary; and it was soon all reduced under their power, except some of the northern districts. The inhabitants of these parts continued long, with various fortune, to make war against the Saracens, or Moors, as they were generally called; and formed some kingdoms, the boundaries of which, by subsequent success, were gradually enlarged. The Moors were finally conquered in 1492, under Ferdinand and Isabella, who, by their marriage, and by the success of their arms, united the kingdom into one monarchy. In their reign, the Inquisition was established, and America discovered. In the reign of Philip III. in the beginning of the seventeenth century, the descendents of the Moors were banished from the kingdom, on the pretext that they were not real Christians. By this means, Spain was deprived of a million of the most intelligent and industrious of her subjects; a loss which is perhaps still felt. On the death of Charles II. in 1701, Philip V. grandson of Louis XIV. of France, ascended the throne, and succeeded with great difficulty in maintaining his claim. This prince was the first of the Bourbon, or present reigning family. In 1808 Bonaparte seized the royal family, and placed his brother Joseph on the throne. By the exertions of the Spaniards however, and more especially by the bravery and efforts of the British under the Duke of Wellington, the French were expelled, and Ferdinand VII. recovered the throne of his ancestors.

PORTUGAL.*

Boundaries.—Portugal is bounded on the north and east by parts of Spain, and on the south and west by the Atlantic.†

* Portugal derives its name from Porto Calle (the port Calle); as Calle, now Oporto, which was of some consequence in the time of the Romans, afterwards in the middle ages, attracted so much attention as to give name to the surrounding district, and at length to the whole kingdom. The name Oporto signifies simply *the port*; and hence is derived the name of *port wine*, as if Porto wine.

† Portugal is situated between 37° and $42^{\circ} 10'$ north latitude, and between $7^{\circ} 20'$ and $9^{\circ} 40'$ west longitude. Its length and breadth are about 360 and 120 miles respectively; and it contains about 37,000 square miles.

Divisions.—Portugal is divided into six provinces, which, with their chief towns, are as follows:

PROVINCES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Entre Douro e Minho	Porto or Oporto, Braga, Viana
Traz-os-Montes	Braganza, Miranda
Beira	Coimbra, Guarda, Almeida
Estremadura	LISBON or LISBOA, Setuval or St. Ubes, Santarem, Cintra
Alentejo	Evora, Elvas
Algarva	Tavira, Lagos, Faro

Islands.—The principal islands are the Azores or Western Islands, which lie in the Atlantic Ocean, at nearly equal distances from Europe, Africa, and America.*

Seaports.—The chief seaports and bays are Oporto, Lisbon, St. Ubes, Faro, Viana, and Tavira.

Capes.—The principal capes are Mondego, Roca or the Rock of Lisbon, St. Vincent, and Santa Maria or St. Mary.

Chief Towns.—Lisbon, Oporto, St. Ubes.†

Population.—The population is supposed to exceed two millions. The army, in time of war, amounts to about 30,000; and the fleet to about twelve or fourteen sail of the line, and as many frigates.

Commerce.—The commerce of Portugal is now inconsiderable, and is chiefly with England and the Portuguese colonies.

Literature, &c.—Though there are several universities, education is much neglected.‡

* The names of these islands are St. Mary, St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Gracioso, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They are situated in nearly 40° of north latitude, and 30° of west longitude; and contain 60,000 or 70,000 inhabitants.

† The population of Lisbon is about 200,000, of Oporto about 60,000, and of St. Ubes 12,000. In 1755, a great part of Lisbon was destroyed by a dreadful earthquake, and about 30,000 of the inhabitants perished. The part of the city since built, is neat and regular; but, in most of the old part, the streets are so narrow and the houses so high, that the sun never shines on the pavement except at noon.

‡ The country produces few authors, because the number of literary men is small; and even those who might be qualified to write well, are deterred by the expense of publication, which they can

Historical Sketch.—Portugal began to be recovered from the Moors in 1050; and in 1254 the kingdom attained its present magnitude, by the conquest of Algarva. In the course of the fifteenth century, the Portuguese made great maritime discoveries; tracing the western coast of Africa, and finally discovering, under the command of Vasco de Gama, in 1497, the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope; an event which produced effects little inferior in importance to those which resulted from the discovery of America. John III. who died in 1557, established the Inquisition. His son, Sebastian, invaded Barbary; but was defeated and slain, with most of his nobility and army; and Philip II. of Spain, husband of Sebastian's sister, made himself master of Portugal. After some unsuccessful attempts, the Spaniards were expelled in 1640; and John, duke of Braganza, was made king. The crown has since continued in his family; but the country has greatly declined in importance. In the invasion of the peninsula by Bonaparte, Portugal shared the same fate with Spain, and had a similar deliverance by the British under Wellington.

NETHERLANDS.

Boundaries.—The Netherlands are bounded on the north and west by the German Sea; on the east, by Germany; and on the south, by France.*

scarcely expect to be repaid, so small is the number of readers. The most distinguished writer produced in the country, is the poet Camoens, author of the *Lusiad*. The Portuguese language, as may be expected, bears a near resemblance to the Spanish. It is very little studied by foreigners.

For information respecting climate and other heads omitted above, the account of Spain, given in the last article, may be consulted, as it will serve equally for Portugal.

* The Netherlands, or Low Countries, now called the United Kingdom of the Netherlands, are so named from the lowness of their situation. The extreme latitudes are $49^{\circ} 28'$ and $53^{\circ} 29'$ north, and the extreme longitudes $2^{\circ} 30'$ and $7^{\circ} 10'$ east. The length of the kingdom, from north to south, is nearly 280 miles; its greatest breadth, about 160 miles; and it contains about 24,000 square miles.

The inland boundary agrees with that of France, already given, as far as the Moselle. It then extends, in an irregular direction, northward; and, crossing the Meuse near Ruremonde, again meets it near Groningen. It then leaves Nimiguen a little to the west, and turns eastward till it nearly reaches the seventh degree of longitude; and extends thence, in an irregular northerly direction to the sea, a little west of the Ems.

NORTHERN.

DIVISIONS.*

CHIEF TOWNS.

Friesland	Leeuwarden, Franeker
Groningen	Groningen
Drenthe	Assen
Overyssel	Deventer, Campen
Holland, North,	AMSTERDAM, Leyden, Rotterdam, Hague, Delft
———— South,	Dort, Haerlem, Hellevoetsluis
Utrecht	Utrecht
Gelderland	Nimiguen, Zutphen, Arnheim
Zeeland	Middelburg, Flushing

MIDDLE.

Antwerp	Antwerp
Brabant	Brussels, Breda
Flanders, West,	Ghent, Bruges, Ostende, Nieuport, Dixmude
———— East,	Ypres, Courtray, Oudenarde, Dendermonde

SOUTHERN.

Hainault	Mons, Fontenoy, Malplaquet, Epghien
Namur	Namur, Charleroi
Liege	Liege
Limburg	Limburg, Maestricht
Luxemburg ..	Luxemburg

Islands.—The principal islands are South Beveland, North Beveland, Walcheren, and several others, at the mouths of the Scheldt, Waal, and other rivers; and the Texel, Ameland, &c. at the entrance of the Zuider Zee.

* The Netherlands, with the part of Germany west of the Rhine, were called Gallia Belgica by the Romans, and were afterwards divided into 17 provinces. These were the same as the divisions here given, with the exception of Liege, which was not a distinct province; and with the addition of Artois, Cambresis, and Zutphen, the last of which, being politically united to Gelderland, was not reckoned a separate province. The provinces of Friesland, Groningen, Overyssel, Holland, Utrecht, Gelderland, and Zeeland, formerly constituted the republic of the Seven United Provinces, the inhabitants of which were called Dutch. The name *Netherlands* was often confined to the remaining ten provinces, and their inhabitants were called Flemings.

Seaports.—The chief ports and places of trade are Amsterdam, Enkhuizen, Campen, Hoorn, Schiedam, Rotterdam, Dort, Hellevoetsluis, Bergen-op-zoom, Flushing, Antwerp, and Ostende.

Rivers.—The chief rivers are the Rhine, the Maes or Meuse, and the Scheldt or Escaut.*

Lake.—The sea of Haerlem is the principal lake.

Chief Towns.—Amsterdam, Brussels, Antwerp, Liege, Ghent, Rotterdam, Leyden, Hague, and Haerlem.†

Face of the Country.—The country is extremely flat, especially Holland and Flanders, containing no mountains, and scarcely any thing that deserves the name of hill. There are great numbers of dikes to prevent inundations, and numerous canals for the conveyance of goods and passengers. The country is finely cultivated, and is full of neat, elegant villas, and comfortable farm-houses and cottages, amid groups of trees.‡

* The Rhine, near Nimiguen, divides into three branches: the Yssel, which flows northward into the Zuider Zee; and the Leck and Waal, which flow westward into the German Sea. The two latter also separate into various other branches, and the Waal unites with the Maes. The Scheldt receives the Lys at Ghent; and the Maes, the Sambre at Namur. The entire tract of country between the Yssel, the Waal, and the sea, may be regarded as the delta of the Rhine; and, as in similar tracts elsewhere, the mouths of the Rhine and the streams which join it, have at different times undergone great changes, some of them being wholly or partially stopped up, others enlarged, and in several instances new channels opened.

† Amsterdam contains about 200,000 inhabitants; Brussels, 80,000; and each of the others, 40,000, or upwards. Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and several other towns, have numerous canals passing through the streets; and, in many instances, with a row of trees on each side. In the sixteenth century, Antwerp was the first commercial city in Europe, and contained a population of more than 200,000. It had generally 2500 vessels lying in its roads, and it was usual for 500 to go and come in a day. By the exertions of the Dutch, however, an article was agreed on in the peace of 1648, prohibiting any large vessel from sailing with a cargo to Antwerp; and the Dutch erected forts to enable them to carry this unjust measure into effect. By this means, the trade was transferred to Amsterdam; and Antwerp rapidly declined, till its population was reduced to 50,000. The navigation of the Scheldt, however, has been open since 1794, when the forts were dismantled by the French; and Antwerp, having now a free trade, has begun to recover, and contains sixty or seventy thousand inhabitants.

‡ None of the Netherlands, except the eastern parts, have any hills; and even there, the eminences are of the most trifling kind. Hence

Climate.—The climate in the south is mild; but in the north it is moist, with much cold and frost in winter.* The country is in general fertile; but even naturally barren districts are rendered productive by the great industry of the people, and the excellence of their system of agriculture.

Produce.—Besides grain of various kinds, great quantities of wax, madder, and butter, are produced.

Population, Army, &c.—The population is above 5,000,000, and the standing army about 50,000. The navy consists of 12 ships of the line, and above 20 frigates.

Government.—The new constitution, which was agreed on in 1795, considerably resembles that of Britain; but gives the king more power.†

Commerce and Manufactures.—This country was long famous for its trade with every part of the world. Its commerce was

country, though finely cultivated, and beautified by art, is too formal in appearance, and wants all the grander features of nature. There are some large forests in Flanders, Luxemburg, and others in the south.

In Holland, the canals are as numerous as the roads, and are supplied with boats drawn by horses, which have fixed hours of departing and arriving; and are used, almost universally, for travelling. The canals communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers; and thus, productions of every kind can be transported, at moderate expense, through the Netherlands and a great part of Germany.

The dikes are generally 30 feet high, and 70 feet broad at the top. They are formed of clay, fenced on the land side with wood, and next the sea with mats of rushes or flags, or with seaweed, which last is found to be the best protection for dikes against the waves. In some parts, the men employed to take care of the dikes cover them, in the times of storms, with sails. It often happens, however, that all precautions fail in preventing inundations, and some of these are attended with dreadful consequences. In 1568, most of the islands of Zeeland, a great part of the coast of Holland, and almost all Friesland, were laid under water; 72 villages were inundated; and, in Friesland alone, above 20,000 people were drowned.

In Holland and the other northern provinces, north-easterly winds prevail during the winter; and, blowing from the frozen sea off the north, occasion so much cold, that the canals, rivers, and the Zee, are generally frozen over. At these times, the inhabitants have recourse to skating, not merely as an amusement, but as a mode of travelling; and the country girls proceed in this way to carrying baskets of eggs or other articles on their heads.

The house of peers consists of between 40 and 60 members, who are hereditary, but are chosen for life by the king. The other house consists of 110 members, of whom about a third are annually

and the public enactments are made in an assembly, called the Federative Diet.*

Historical Sketch.—A large portion of Germany was conquered, though with much difficulty, by the Romans. After the fall of their empire, nothing of much consequence occurred till the time of Charlemagne, who was crowned emperor of Germany in the year 800, having united the entire country under his own sway. Several of his successors had violent, and generally unsuccessful struggles with the Popes for political power. In 1519, Charles V. was elected sovereign, and became the most powerful and distinguished of all the emperors. The Reformation was commenced in 1517, by Luther, a native of Saxony, and continued to be propagated extensively during the reign of Charles. In the year 1740, Charles VI. died, leaving no male issue; and the right of his daughter, Maria Theresa to the crown, was disputed in a war in which most of the powers of Europe were involved. This war terminated in 1748, in the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, when the husband of Maria Theresa was acknowledged emperor, under the title of Francis I. In 1806, Francis II. after the almost total conquest of his dominions by Bonaparte, was obliged to exchange the title of emperor of Germany, for that of emperor of Austria, which is still retained.

AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.†

Divisions.—The Austrian Empire consists of parts of Germany, Poland, and Italy, with Hungary, and

* In the Federative Diet there are seventeen votes; of which, Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, Wirtemberg, Baden, Electoral Hesse, the Grand Duchy of Hesse, Denmark (for Holstein), and the Netherlands (for Luxemburg), have each one vote; while the remaining six votes are divided among the minor states, two or more of these appointing a representative to support their interest, and vote in their behalf. At the meetings of the diet, Austria presides; but has no farther power, except a simple vote. When fundamental laws are to be made or altered, the diet resolves itself into a general assembly, in which Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, and Wirtemberg, have each four votes; Baden, Electoral Hesse, the Grand Duchy of Hesse, Holstein, and Luxemburg, three each; Brunswick, Mecklenburg, Schwerin, and Nassau, two each; and several minor states, one each; making in all, 69 votes. By a special article, also, Catholics and Protestants are to be on an equal footing in all the states. This new system was established in 1814, and confirmed in 1815; and may be regarded as a substitute for the old system, which was overturned by the French in 1806.

† The boundaries of this extensive empire, may be traced on a

some places of minor consequence. These, with their chief towns, are as follows:

IN GERMANY.

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Archduchy of Austria ..	Vienna or Wien, Linz
Stiria	Gratz
Carinthia	Villach, Clagenfurt
Tyrol	Inspruck, Trent
Carniola	Laybach, Trieste
Saltzburg	Saltzburg
Bohemia	Prague
Moravia	Brunn, Olmutz
Austrian Silesia	Troppau

IN POLAND.

Galitzia *	Lemberg or Leopol, Jaroslav
Bukovina	Suxawa

IN ITALY.

Kingdom of Lombardy and Venice	Milan, Venice, Brescia, Pavia, Mantua, Verona, Vicenza
---	---

HUNGARIAN STATES.

Hungary	Presburg, Buda, Pesth
Slavonia	Posega, Gradiska
Croatia	Agram, Carlstadt
Transylvania	Hermanstadt
Dalmatia	Sebenico, Zara

Seaports.—Trieste and Venice, on the Gulf of Venice.

Mountains.—The principal mountains are the Erzgebirge, Sudetic, and Carpathian or Crapak, to the north and east; and the Brenner Mountains, or Alps of Tyrol, in the circle of Austria.

map by means of the divisions here given. The entire content has been computed to be about 240,000 square miles; of which the German dominions constitute about 70,000, the Hungarian about 110,000, the Polish above 30,000, and the Italian nearly 20,000.

* Galitzia or Galicia, and Bukovina, formed a part of the kingdom of Poland, till the partition of that country in 1773, between Russia, Austria, and Prussia. They now belong to Austria, and their population is supposed to be about three millions and a half.

Rivers.—The Danube, Elbe, &c.: also the Po and Adige, in Italy: and the Save, Drave, and Inn, which flow into the Danube, on the southern side; and the Teisse, or Tisza, or Theis, on the opposite side.

Towns.—The principal cities and towns are Vienna, Venice, Milan, Prague, Brescia, Gratz, Pavia, Presburg, and Buda.*

Climate.—In the mountainous districts, the winter is cold and stormy; but, in the low parts of the country, particularly about the Danube, the heat in summer is very great.

Population and Army.—The population is computed to be 29 or 30 millions. The army, in time of war, has sometimes amounted to 500,000; while the peace establishment is supposed to be nearly 300,000.

Manufactures.—There are manufactures of woollens, linens, silks, and various other articles. In these, however, this country is far behind England and France.

Religion.—The established religion is the Roman Catholic; but, since the time of Joseph II. all others are tolerated, and their members are free from restrictions on account of their religious belief.

KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA.†

PROVINCES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Eastern Prussia	Konigsberg
Western Prussia	Dantzic
Posen	Posen
Pomerania	Stettin, Stralsund
Silesia	Breslau

* The population of Vienna is very differently stated; some writers making it 300,000, and some little more than 200,000. The populations of Venice and Milan are each about 150,000, of Prague 80,000, Brescia 48,000, Gratz 35,000, Pavia 30,000, Presburg 27,000, and Buda 21,000. Trent is celebrated as being the place where the last general council of the Roman Catholic Church was held, soon after the commencement of the Reformation.

† The boundaries of this kingdom are very irregular, and could not be given in small compass. To assist in determining their general outline, however, it may be proper to state, that the Prussian territories extend from the Niemen or Memel on the east, to the Yssel on the west; and that the inland boundary passes near Grodno, Warsaw, Cracow, Glatz, Leipzig, Erfurt, Cassel, Coblentz, Treves, and Aix-la-Chapelle. The extent is thought to exceed 100,000 square miles. Some parts are detached from the rest, as Neufchatel.

PROVINCES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Brandenburg	BERLIN, Potsdam, Frankfort-on-the-Oder, Brandenburg
Dutchy of Saxony	Magdeburg, Erfurt
Westphalia	Munster
Juliers, Cleves, & Berg	Cologne, Dusseldorp
Lower Rhine	Aix-la-Chapelle, Coblantz, Treves
District of Neufchatel	Neufchatel

Seaports.—Memel, Dantzic, Konigsberg, Elbing, Stettin, Magdeburg, Colberg.

Face of the Country.—Prussia has no mountains, except about its boundaries; and the country is in general extremely flat. Seventeen millions of acres are computed to be covered with forests.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers are the Elbe, Oder, and Vistula; and there are numerous shallow lakes, in consequence of the water becoming stagnant from the flatness of the country.

Chief Towns.—Berlin, the capital, has a population of about 160,000. Other considerable towns are Breslau, Konigsberg, Dantzic, and Cologne.*

Climate, Soil, &c.—Much of the country is rather cold and moist, from the forests and undrained marshes. Silesia, Posen, and the countries about the Rhine, are fertile, particularly in grain. There are few minerals, except amber, which is found on the sea-shore, and in coal mines.

Population and Army.—The population is about eleven millions; and the army, in time of peace, is at present about 160,000.

Manufactures and Commerce.—The chief manufactures are those of linen † and broad cloth. The commerce is considerable; and much linen, timber, and corn, are exported.

Literature.—The literature of Prussia is in so advanced a state, as perhaps not to be surpassed by that of any other country.

* The respective populations of these are about 63,000, 55,000, 45,000, and 39,000. To these may be added Magdeburg, Aix-la-Chapelle, Halle, Stettin, and Posen, none of which has a population of less than 20,000. The number of towns that contain 10,000 inhabitants or upwards is twenty-six.

† Linen is the staple manufacture, and the Prussian damask is preferred to any other. The commerce is greatly injured by restrictive laws and duties on various articles.

greatly injured, however, by the wars which followed the French Revolution; but is now gradually recovering. The manufactures of earthenware in the north, and of fine linens in the south, have long been celebrated.*

Literature.—The northern or Seven United Provinces have produced many men of great learning, particularly in the ancient languages; while the other provinces have been chiefly distinguished for painting and polite literature.†

Religion.—The prevailing religion in the seven northern provinces is Calvinism; and, in the rest of the kingdom, Roman Catholic. Persons of other denominations, however, are not only tolerated, but are eligible to all employments in the state.‡

Character, &c.—The Dutch are remarkable for industry and love of gain. The Flemings possess the same qualities, but in a less degree. Both are greatly distinguished for their habits of order, neatness, and cleanliness.||

* A well-known species of earthenware derives its name from the town of Delft, where it was originally made; and *cambric* is so called from Cambray, the centre of the district, in the south of the Netherlands, in which it was so generally manufactured, and so successfully, as not to be equalled in any other country.

† In the southern provinces, the principal seminaries are the universities of Douay, St. Omers, Louvain, Tournay, and Liege. In the northern or Dutch provinces, besides an Arminian college in Amsterdam, there are the universities of Leyden, Utrecht, Franeker, Harderwyk, and Groningen. These latter seminaries have produced a much greater number of distinguished men than the former. Of the eminent men of these provinces, it may be sufficient to mention Erasmus, Scaliger, Huyghens, Leuwenhoek, Boerhaave, Grotius, Rubens, Vandyke, and Rembrandt. It is to be regretted, that the universities in the Netherlands have greatly declined in character, and have not kept pace with the modern advances of science.

‡ The church government among the Calvinists, resembles that of the church of Scotland; and there are 9 synods, and 1570 ministers. In the Catholic provinces, there are 3 archbishops and 9 bishops. The number of Protestants is thought to be about two thirds of that of the Catholics. The Arminians or Remonstrants have 84 congregations; and there are Lutherans, Baptists, Jews, &c. The clergy are all paid by the state, and receive annual salaries, which are of different amounts, between £70 and £200. The entire sum thus paid annually for the support of religion, is about £270,000. The religion of the court is Calvinism.

|| The Dutch universally smoke tobacco, and are considered silent and unsocial. From the dampness of the climate, which causes metals to rust, and wood to mould, the Dutch have found it necessary to pay great attention to the washing and scouring of their furniture and other articles; and hence they have derived those habits of cleanliness for which they are so remarkable.

Historical Sketch.—After the fall of the Roman empire, the Netherlands were seized by the Goths and other northern hordes, who divided them into several petty states. After various changes, the whole country became united under the house of Burgundy, in 1433. By the marriage of Mary of Burgundy with the emperor Maximilian, it was joined to the German empire. It then passed into the possession of Spain; and, after forming a part of the vast dominions of the emperor Charles V. it became subject to his son, Philip II. This prince persecuted the Reformers, and thus excited a rebellion, which terminated in the formation of the Seven United Provinces into a separate state, the independence of which was finally acknowledged in 1648. The other ten provinces remained in the possession of Spain, till the war of the duke of Marlborough; after which they were yielded up by Spain, partly to the emperor of Germany, partly to the Dutch, and partly to the French. In the late revolutionary war, the whole country was conquered by France; and, after various arrangements, was annexed to that country by Bonaparte. On his fall, however, all the provinces were formed into a kingdom for the Prince of Orange, under the title of the Kingdom of the United Netherlands.

GERMANY.*

Divisions.—Germany was formerly divided into large portions, called *circles*: three northern, Westphalia, Lower Saxony, and Upper Saxony; three in the middle, Lower Rhine, Upper Rhine, and Franconia; and three southern, Swabia, Bavaria, and Austria. The following are the principal divisions, as settled by the Congress of Vienna in 1815:

* Germany lies between 45° and 55° of north latitude, and between about 6° and 20° of east longitude. Its length and breadth are each above 600 miles; and its content is about 250,000 square miles. In treating of the geography of this interesting portion of Europe, it will be proper, first, to give a general view of the country at large, and then to consider some of the more important divisions separately. The boundaries will be known from those of the particular states to be described hereafter.

Population and Government.—The population is a million and a quarter; and the government has been lately changed, so as to resemble that of England.

State of Education.—The only university is that of **Gottin-**gen, which is very flourishing.* There are many academies; and, in all the villages, there are elementary schools.

Religion.—The established religion is Lutheranism; but Calvinists, Roman Catholics, and all others, are now free from penalties or privations, on account of their religious belief.

* *Historical Sketch.*—In 1692 Hanover was made an electorate; and in 1714 the second elector, George Lewis, was made king of England, in virtue of his descent by his mother from James I. of that country. Since that time, Hanover has continued subject to the king of England; and in 1815 it was elevated to the rank of a kingdom, under his present majesty, then prince regent.

KINGDOM OF WIRTEMBERG.

Situation, Soil, &c.—Wurtemberg, which was made a kingdom by Bonaparte in 1806, lies west of Bavaria, and north of Switzerland. It is one of the finest and most fertile parts of Germany; producing grain, fruit, and rich wines, in great abundance.

Chief Towns and Population.—The chief towns are **STUTGARD**, Hailbron, and Hall;† and the population of the kingdom is rather above a million.

Religion and Literature.—The established religion is Lutheranism, without any distinction of rank among the clergy. The only university is that of Tubingen.

KINGDOM OF SAXONY.

Situation, Soil, &c.—The kingdom of Saxony is situated between the Prussian dominions and Bohe-

* This university, which was founded by George II. of England, in 1734, has 42 professors; and the number of students in 1816 was 1152, about two thirds of whom were foreigners. The library is one of the most valuable in Europe. Of the eminent men connected with this seminary, may be mentioned Mosheim, Michaelis, Haller, John Mathew Gesner, and Tobias Mayer.

† The population of Stuttgart is nearly 20,000, and of Hailbron and Hall about 7000 each.

nia.* The climate is excellent; and the soil very fertile, except on the frontiers of Bohemia. The mines are also very valuable, particularly for silver, tin, copper, iron, and lead.

Chief Towns.—DRESDEN, Leipzig, Freyberg, Chemnitz.†

Population and Religion.—The population is about one million; and the inhabitants are for the most part Lutherans, though for more than a hundred years the reigning princes have been Roman Catholics.

Literature.—Science and literature have long been cultivated, with peculiar care, in Saxony; and there the German language is spoken in the greatest purity. The only university, in the present Saxon dominions, is that of Leipzig; but there are many schools and academies.

Historical Sketch.—The inhabitants of Saxony are of the same stock as the tribes who established the heptarchy in England. After a long contest, the country was conquered by Charlemagne, and the inhabitants embraced the Roman Catholic faith. At the commencement of the Reformation, in the sixteenth century, Frederick, elector of Saxony, was the friend and protector of Luther; and his subjects became Protestants. In 1697 Frederick Augustus abjured the Protestant religion, with a view, it is said, to obtain the throne of Poland; and all the sovereigns, since that time, have continued to be Roman Catholics. Saxony was entirely conquered by Frederick the Great of Prussia;

* The boundary passes near Leipzig, Weissenberg, and Gorlitz, on the north and east; and near Plauen and Hof, on the west. Much of the best part of the Saxon territories was given to Prussia by the congress of Vienna in 1815.

† Prior to 1813, Dresden was one of the finest cities in Germany; containing many beautiful public buildings, and a population, according to some writers, of more than 100,000, while others state it at 50,000. In that year, it was taken by the allies from the French, after a long blockade, and several destructive bombardments, the effects of which will long be felt. Leipzig has a population of nearly 40,000. It is one of the principal trading towns of Germany; and is remarkable for its three great fairs, which are held at the beginning of the year, at Easter, and at Michaelmas, and continue a fortnight each. These are attended by more than 800 merchants from almost every country of Europe, and even by some from Asia, as also by nearly 300 booksellers; and articles of almost every kind are exposed to sale. Printing is carried on here so extensively, that about 10,000 volumes are published every year. Freyberg and Chemnitz have each about 10,000 inhabitants.

but was restored at the peace of 1763. During the late wars, the elector was dignified with the title of king by Bonaparte, in 1806; and his dominions were enlarged by the addition of parts of the Prussian territories. In 1815, however, he was punished for his opposition to the Allied Powers, by the loss of a great part of his kingdom, which was then reduced to its present dimensions.

MINOR GERMAN STATES.

The GRAND DUTCHY OF BADEN is situated between Wirtemberg and the Rhine. It has a population of nearly a million; and the principal towns are CARLSRUHE, Manheim, Heidelberg, and Freyburg.

The GRAND DUTCHY OF HESSE CASSEL has a population of about 350,000; and the chief towns are CASSEL, Hanau, and Marpurg.

HESSE DARMSTADT has a population of upwards of half a million; and contains the towns of Mentz, DARMSTADT, and Worms.

The DUTCHY OF MECKLENBURG SCHWERIN contains about 300,000 inhabitants; and that of MECKLENBURG STRELITZ, about 70,000. The former contains the towns of SCHWERIN, Gustrow, and Wismar; and the latter, that of STRELITZ.

The DUTCHY OF BRUNSWICK WOLFENBUTTLE has a population of 300,000; and the principal towns are BRUNSWICK, Wolfenbuttle, and Helmstadt.

Besides these, there are the GRAND DUTCHY OF HOLSTEIN OLDENBURG; the PRINCIPALITIES OF ANHALT, SAXE GOTHA, SAXE WEIMAR, and several others of small extent and consequence.

There are four free cities: Frankfort on the Mayne, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubeck. These are cities of extensive commerce, and are independent of the surrounding states, each of them having a separate government of its own, of a republican form.*

* Hamburg has a population of about 110,000, or, with the territory that belongs to it, upwards of 130,000; while the others, with their respective territories, have each a population of nearly 50,000. These cities are the only remnants of the famous Hanseatic league, which commenced about the twelfth century, and comprehended 72 cities formed into a corporation for mutual defence against the feudal tyranny and anarchy of the times. This league was so powerful, about the beginning of the fifteenth century, as to be able to influence,

SWITZERLAND.*

Situation and Divisions.—Switzerland is situated between France, Germany, and Italy. It consists of 21 cantons; which, with their chief towns, are as follows:

CANTONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Basil	BASIL or BALE
Soleure	Soleure
Lucerne	Lucerne
Zug	Zug
Zurich	Zurich
Schaffhausen	Schaffhausen
Appenzell	Herisau, Appenzell
Friburg	Friburg
Berne	BERNE
Underwalden	Stantz, Sarnen
Schweitz	Schweitz
Uri	Altorf
Glarus	Glarus
Aargau	Aarau
Thurgau	Frauenfeld
St. Gall	St. Gallen or St. Gall
Pays de Vaud or Waadt ..	Lausanne
Geneva	GENEVA
Vallais or Wallis	Sion or Sitten
Tessino	Lugano
Grisons or Grey League	Coire or Chur †

in a considerable degree, the management of the affairs of Europe. By this means, it excited the jealousy of the continental princes, who gradually induced their subjects to withdraw from it; and, in consequence of this, its power and influence soon declined.

* The latitude of the middle of Switzerland is about $46^{\circ} 45'$ north, and its longitude about 8° east; and the surface of the country occupies a space of nearly 15,000 square miles.

† Before the French Revolution, there were only the first thirteen cantons above mentioned. The others, which have since been added, were formed out of the former allies and subjects of Switzerland. Neufchatel now belongs to Prussia.

Face of the Country, &c.—Switzerland is the highest and most mountainous country in Europe, and is celebrated for its bold and sublime scenery. The principal mountains are the Alps, which occupy the greater part of the south and east of the country.*

* In the south of Switzerland are Mont Blanc, Mont Rosa, Mont Cervin, and several others of the highest summits of the Alps. Among the wonderful and striking features of these mountains, may be mentioned the glaciers, avalanches, and waterfalls.

The glaciers are great fields or valleys of ice, filling the spaces between the summits of the mountains. One of the most remarkable of these, though not the largest, is that which gives origin to the Rhone. This is near the middle of Switzerland; and consists of two parts, one of which is three miles long and one broad, and the other is considerably larger. The appearance which these present to the traveller, is of the most beautiful description. They are surrounded, on almost every side, by the most rugged mountains; and the rays of the sun cause the ice to glisten like crystal, while blue tints of inexpressible beauty are reflected from its surface. Some of the glaciers present deep fissures, and great inequalities, as if the surface of a sea had been frozen when agitated by a tempest. The fissures are occasioned by the partial melting of the ice beneath; and their formation, when the ice is rent by its own weight, is attended with a noise like thunder. The glaciers continually exist; gaining, from snow and congelation, in winter, what they lose in being melted by the heat of the earth, and of the summer sun.

Avalanches are great masses of snow, which roll down from the higher parts of the mountains; and, increasing in magnitude as they descend, overwhelm houses, cattle, or whatever lies in their course. These also frequently carry fragments of the mountains along with them; and from this cause, as well as from the descent of pieces of rock on other occasions, the glaciers and the bottoms of the valleys are strewn with masses of stone of every dimension. Sometimes also still larger portions of mountains yield to the gradual effects of time, and roll down with inconceivable force, carrying inevitable destruction in the line of their descent. In this way, the village of Pleurs, near Chiavenna, with its inhabitants, was overwhelmed, so that not a vestige of it remained.

The traveller among the Alps is presented with every variety of waterfall, from the small cascade to the tremendous cataract; the Reuss, the Rhone, and other rivers, sometimes rolling smoothly along through winding valleys, sometimes bounding from rock to rock with stunning noise, and sometimes pouring their waters in one large jet over lofty precipices. One of the most remarkable waterfalls in the world is that of Staubach, where a torrent discharges its waters perpendicularly from the vast height of 930 feet. The greater part of

Lakes.—The lakes are numerous; and the principal are those of Geneva, Constance, Neufchatel, Lucerne, and Zurich.*

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the Rhine, Reuss, and Aar, which have a northerly direction, and unite; the Rhone, which flows westward; the Tessino and Adda, which flow southward into Italy; and the Inn, which has a north-easterly course, and joins the Danube in Germany.

Towns.—The chief towns are Geneva, Basil or Bâle, BERNE, Zurich, Lausanne, and Friburg.†

Climate, Soil, &c.—In the elevated parts of the country, the climate is cold; and the tops of Mont Blanc, and the other high mountains, are always covered with snow. In the low valleys, however, the heat in summer is great. Much of the country

the water forming this cascade, falls clear of the rocks in its descent, and is resolved into fine spray before it reaches the ground; while the rest dashes against a projecting rock, and is driven off with great violence. Staubach is near Lauterbrunnen, in Berne.

* The surfaces of the lakes of Geneva and Constance, are elevated 1100 or 1200 feet above the level of the sea. The length and breadth of the former are 40 miles and 9 miles, and those of the latter 45 miles and 15 miles, respectively. The lakes of Switzerland are all deeper in summer than in winter, in consequence of the melting of the snows. In the Lake of Geneva, a difference of five or six feet is produced by this means. The greatest ascertained depth of this lake, is 950 feet; while the Lake of Constance has, near Mersbourg, the vast depth of 350 fathoms. This lake is navigated by vessels of 100 tons. The Lake of Geneva is extremely beautiful. Its form is that of a crescent; and its shores present every variety of scenery, from the softest to the most rugged and sublime; exhibiting, in some parts, wooded valleys or sloping fields, ornamented with neat villages, and well-cultivated grounds; and, in other directions, lofty mountains, some nearer and others more remote, and displaying numberless forms and various shades of colour. Its waters are transparent, and, from the reflection of the sky, are of a beautiful blue colour, except where it receives the turbid waters of the Rhone. These enter it with great rapidity, and discolour it for upwards of half a league; but the earthy particles are gradually deposited, and the Rhone issues from its other extremity with pure, transparent waters.

† The population of Geneva is about 23,000; of Basil, 15,000; of Berne, 14,000; and of the other towns above mentioned, from 6000 to 10,000.

is altogether barren; but there are many valleys* in which the soil is extremely rich and fertile.†

Population, &c.—The population is supposed to be nearly two millions. The number of soldiers is great, in proportion to the population; and these are often hired out to other nations, particularly as guards, on account of their fidelity, and other good properties.

Government.—Each canton has a separate government, and distinct laws. There is also a diet, composed of members from all the inferior governments, which has the power of directing the general affairs of the whole state.‡

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Switzerland are very limited. The principal are those of cotton goods, linen, and silk; and 250,000 watches are annually sent abroad for sale.

Literature, &c.—There are universities at Geneva and Basil; and colleges at Berne, Zurich, Lausanne, and Lucerne; and the people of all ranks are well educated and intelligent, according to their situation in life.||

Religion.—In some of the provinces, the Protestant religion

* One of the most beautiful of these is the Vale of Chamouni, at the base of Mont Blanc, on its northern side. In this interesting valley, almost surrounded with towering mountains, the traveller is presented at once with the representation of the beauty and luxuriance of a southern climate, and the bleakness, sterility, and snow of a polar landscape. The Vallais also, or Valley of the Rhone, situated between the Helvetian and Pennine Alps, is remarkably fine and beautiful; presenting luxuriant meadows and fields of grain, with rich pastures, comfortable houses, and neat villages. These and numberless other attractions, render Switzerland the constant resort of travellers from every civilized country of the world.

† So great is the industry of the people, that, where it is at all possible, the sides of the mountains are cultivated almost to the glaciers. The wealth of the country consists, in a great degree, in its cattle. Poverty, however, is very general; and causes great numbers to emigrate to the United States, to Canada, and to Brazil.

‡ Hence it appears, that Switzerland, considered as a whole, is a republic. Of the cantons, some are purely democratic, the government being vested in the people, or their deputies; others are oligarchies or aristocracies, the supreme authority belonging to a small number of the principal persons; and some are petty monarchies without the name, the supreme power being vested in an individual.

|| Switzerland, in proportion to its population, has produced a great number of learned and eminent men. Some of the most distinguished of these are Zuinglius, Conrad and Solomon Gesner, Turretine, the Bernoullis, Euler, Zimmerman, Haller, Rousseau, and Lavater.

is established; and in others, the Roman Catholic. In Glarus and Appenzel, there is a mixture of both.*

Character, &c.—The Swiss are sober, well conducted, and of great simplicity in their dress and manners.† In general, they are robust and healthy; but in some places, particularly in the Vallais, many individuals have a swelling in the neck, which is called a *goitre*.

Historical Sketch.—Switzerland was conquered by the Romans under Julius Cæsar; and continued to be a Roman province, till the dismemberment of the empire in the fifth century. It was then overrun by the Alemanni, who exterminated a great part of the ancient inhabitants. After various political changes, the country at length became subject to the house of Austria; and was governed by viceroys, who oppressed the people for their own aggrandizement. Under the regency of one of the worst of these, named Gesler, the country was freed from the Austrian domination, by the celebrated William Tell, in the year 1307. From that period, it continued independent, and enjoyed peace and prosperity, till it was subdued by Napoleon Bonaparte. After his final overthrow, however, it was restored to its ancient condition; and in this state, it continues at present.

ITALY.

Boundaries.—Italy is bounded on the west and north by the Alps, which separate it from France, Switzerland, and Austria; on the north-east, by the Gulf of Venice, or the Adriatic Sea; and on the south-east and south-west, by the Mediterranean.‡

* The Roman Catholic cantons are Lucerne, Uri, Schweiz, Unterwalden, Zug, Friburg, and Soleure; and these have one archbishop, and six bishops. The Protestant cantons are Zurich, Berne, Geneva, and Schaffhausen. To the Roman Catholic districts may be added the Vallais; and to the Protestant, the greater part of the Grisons. Among the Protestants, the form of church government is Presbyterian, and the prevailing doctrines are Calvinistic. Of late, however, Arianism and Socinianism have begun to prevail in a considerable degree, particularly about Geneva.

† The dress of the inhabitants is, in general, very simple and graceful; and there is less difference between the higher and lower classes, in respect to dress, houses, and manner of life, in this country, than in any other in Europe. The hour for dinner is generally twelve o'clock, and the hours for the other meals are early in proportion.

‡ The extreme latitudes of Italy are about 38° and $46\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ north; and its extreme longitudes, about 6° and 19° east. Its length, from

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
I. Kingdom of Sardinia:	
1. Piedmont and Nice	Turin, Vercelli, Nice
2. Dutchy of Montferrat	Montferrat
3. Part of Milan	Novara
4. Genoa	Genoa, Savona
5. Savoy	Chamberry, Annecy
6. Island of Sardinia	Cagliari, Sassari
II. Kingdom of Lombardy and Venice:	
1. Province of Milan	Milan, Pavia, Mantua, Cre- mona
2. Province of Venice	Venice, Brescia, Verona, Padua
III. Dutchy of Parma, Pla- centia, and Guastella }	Parma, Placentia, Guastella
IV. States of Modena:	
1. Modena, Mirando- la, and Reggio }	Modena, Reggio
2. Dutchy of Massa } and Carrara }	Massa, Carrara
V. Lucca	Lucca
VI. Tuscany	Florence, Leghorn, Sienna, Pisa
VII. State of the Church	ROME, Bologna, Ferrara
VIII. Republic of St. Marino ..	St. Marino
IX. Kingdom of Naples:	
1. Naples	NAPLES, Bari, Brindisi, Rheggio
2. Sicily	Palermo, Catania, Messina

Islands.—Besides Sicily and Sardinia already mentioned, there are Corsica, Elba, the Lipari Isles, Malta,

north-west to south-east, is about 700 miles: its breadth at Naples is nearly 100 miles; at Rome, about 110 miles; from Venice to Genoa, nearly 200 miles; and farther north, it exceeds 300 miles. The surface is above 90,000 square miles.

and several other islands of small consequence. The chief towns of Corsica are Bastia, Ajaccio, and Bonifacio; and the capital of Malta is Valetta.*

Seaports.—Nice, St. Remo, Genoa, Leghorn, Civita Vecchia, Naples, Salerno, Taranto, Brindisi (anciently Brundisium), Bari, Manfredonia, Loretto, Ancona, Pessaro, Rimini, and Venice; also, in Sicily, Palermo, Messina, Catania, Syracuse, Girgenti, and Trapani.

Face of the Country, &c.—The surface of Italy is extremely varied. The Apennines extend from one extremity of the peninsula to the other, and spread over half the country. Between them and the Alps, there is the great plain of Lombardy, which is so flat, that for 200 miles there is not a rising ground.†

* Corsica belongs to France; and its population is supposed to be 170,000. It has mountains from 7000 to 9000 feet high. It is now perhaps chiefly celebrated for having given birth to Napoleon Bonaparte. Elba is situated ten miles from the shore of Tuscany. It recently acquired distinction, from having been erected into a principality for Bonaparte and his heirs, after his first abdication of the throne of France, and for having been his residence during a short period. It now belongs to Tuscany. Malta formerly belonged to the knights of Malta; but was taken by the French, under Bonaparte, in 1798. It was afterwards taken by the British, after two years' blockade; and to them it now belongs. It was originally little else than a barren mass of freestone; but quantities of soil have been imported from Sicily and Italy, so as to render it fertile in a considerable degree. It contains nearly 100,000 inhabitants, which is a vast population for so small an island. It is chiefly valuable for its excellent harbours, and for the great strength of its fortifications. The Lipari Islands will be mentioned hereafter, in the account of Naples.

† The Alps, through their whole course, present a continued series of precipices towards Italy. Their sides, however, to a considerable height, are in many places clothed with luxuriant woods, and rich vegetation. The Apennines are of various heights, from 4000 to nearly 8000 feet; and are not rocky, except in a few instances near their summits. Their lower parts are almost every where covered with fruit-trees, under the shade of which, crops of grain are brought to maturity. Higher up, there are forests of sweet chesnuts, which yield subsistence to a numerous population, at the height of some thousand feet above the sea; and the summits, in general, supply pastures for numerous flocks. Hence, while many of the lower parts of Italy are almost uninhabited, these elevated regions are extremely populous,

Lakes.—The chief lakes are those of Maggiore, Lugano, Como, and Garda, in the north, remarkable for their beautiful scenery.

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the Po, which passes Turin, and flows eastward into the Gulf of Venice; the Adige, which falls into the same gulf, north of the mouths of the Po; the Arno, which passes Florence, and flows into the Mediterranean; and the Tiber or Tevere, which passes Rome, and falls into the same sea. The Po receives the Tanaro, Tessino, Adda, and many others.*

Climate.—The climate of Italy is in general very fine, and the sky delightfully clear. The heat, however, is in many places very oppressive in summer; and at that season, what is called the *malaria*, a species of noxious air or vapour, causes fevers, which carry off great numbers of the inhabitants.†

Soil and Produce.—Italy produces, in great abundance and excellence, grain and fruit of almost every kind that is to be found in the rest of Europe.

Population.—The population of Italy, including Sicily and Sardinia, is nearly twenty millions.

and abound in towns and villages. For the sake of health, these are generally erected on eminences, and not in valleys, where the air is not so good; and thus, in connexion with the forests, give a picturesque and beautiful appearance to the mountains.

* The Po, and the other rivers which flow through the great plain of Lombardy, carry down from the mountains vast quantities of sand and earth, which gradually raise their channels above the level of the adjacent country, and lay the inhabitants under the necessity of forming large and expensive embankments to protect their grounds. The Po, in particular, has not only raised its bed many feet, since the days of the ancient Romans; but has made such depositions at its mouth, that it has extended the coast more than twenty miles into the Adriatic, beyond its position at that time.

† This terrible scourge of so fine a country, prevails chiefly in the low grounds, between the Apennines and the Mediterranean; and it has in late times, perhaps from want of proper draining, extended its ravages over many places that were formerly healthy and populous, and reduced them to deserts. On this account, the whole plain of Tuscany between the mountains and the sea, is neglected; as also the Campagna of Rome, and many other places. It is also felt, in some degree, at Naples, Ferrara, Pavia, and the north of the lake of Como; and Rome itself is beginning to suffer from its effects, so that the wealthy inhabitants annually retire to the higher parts of the country during the hot season.

Literature, &c.—After the dark ages in Europe, the Italians were among the first, in modern times, that made any considerable advances in learning. Since that period, the country has produced men of eminence in almost every department of literature, science, and art; and in painting, the Italian artists have been peculiarly distinguished.*

Religion.—The religion of Italy is the Roman Catholic, which derives its name from Rome; where the pope, the head of the Roman Catholic church, resides.

Government.—In all the states of Italy, except St. Marino, which is a republic, the government is absolute, and very little liberty is enjoyed by the people.

Character, &c.—The Italians, in general, possess fine natural taste, particularly in poetry and music; and they are polite, charitable, and contented.†

Curiosities.—The principal curiosities are the remains of buildings, roads, and other works of the ancient Romans.

Historical Sketch.—Rome owed its origin to the erection of a number of mud cabins by banditti, under a leader called Romulus, about 750 years before Christ. Above 200 years after, the government ceased to be a monarchy, and became a republic; and the territories of the state were gradually increased, till they comprehended all Italy. In three successive wars against Carthage, the Romans were successful; after the last of which,

* Of distinguished Italians, it may suffice to mention Dante, Tasso, Ariosto, Petrarch; Torricelli, Galileo; Raphael, Titian, Michael Angelo, Carraccio, and Corregio. There are thirteen universities, among which are those of Rome, Florence, Padua, Bologna, Pavia, Naples, &c. Convents, however, are the principal places for education.

† The character of the people of Italy appears to be much better and more amiable than it is generally represented. The practice of assassination, once so prevalent and so much encouraged by the higher classes, seems happily to have yielded to better ideas and feelings. Delicacy and refinement of taste, in respect to painting, music, poetry, and architecture, is more general than in any other country, and exists even among the tradesmen and peasantry in a very considerable degree; and hence, about the houses and grounds, even of the humblest classes, there is an air of neatness that is universally pleasing. In some places, however, particularly between Rome and Naples, there are numerous bands of robbers, who commit great depredations, and frequently murder travellers. These are so powerful, that the civil authority has not thus far been able, or has not ventured, to put them down; and they are so bold, that, when they capture a prisoner of consequence, they intimate to his friends, that, if a specified ransom be lodged in a certain place, he will be liberated; but if not, that he will be put to death; and their demands are generally complied with.

Carthage was totally destroyed, 147 years before Christ, and 117 years after the commencement of the first. These are the celebrated Punic wars, which are among the most remarkable on record. From this time, the Romans extended their conquests over every country in Europe, Asia, and Africa, that seemed worthy of their notice. The republican form of government was overturned by Julius Cæsar; and, from that time, it became a monarchy under emperors. Constantine the Great partially removed the seat of government to Constantinople, about the year 330 of the Christian era; and, soon after, the Roman territories were divided into two empires—the western, the capital of which was Rome; and the eastern, the capital of which was Constantinople. From this time, the western began gradually to decline; and was at length overturned in 476, by numerous hordes of Goths and other Barbarians, from the northern parts of Europe. Since that time, Italy has been subject to so many revolutions and changes, and has been divided into so many parts of varying magnitude, that it would be impossible to give an outline of its history in small compass.

KINGDOM OF SARDINIA.*

Situation.—The continental part of the kingdom of Sardinia occupies the north-western part of Italy, as far as the Tessino; and a line drawn from it to the Mediterranean, a little east of Spezia.

Chief Towns.—TURIN, GENOA, Cagliari, Vercelli, Alessandria.†

* After the foregoing general account of Italy, it may be proper to give some particulars of its more important parts.

† Turin contains about 100,000 inhabitants, Genoa 80,000, Cagliari 25,000, Vercelli 20,000, and Alessandria 12,000. Genoa was an independent state, till the period of the French Revolution. After that event, it was conquered by France; but, in the territorial arrangements of Europe by the congress of Vienna, it was annexed to Sardinia. It had formerly considerable foreign possessions, and great commerce; and it made a conspicuous figure in the affairs of Europe, particularly during the crusades, and in its wars with Pisa and Venice. The discovery of America, however, and of the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, turned commerce into new channels, and greatly injured Genoa, and the other trading cities of Italy, which have in consequence lost much of their wealth and influence. The splendour of the public buildings, and of many of the private palaces in Genoa, is perhaps not surpassed in the world. Several of them

Climate, &c.—The climate of Piedmont is mild and delightful. Savoy, from its situation, is colder, and is rather barren. Piedmont is extremely rich and fertile; producing grain, cattle, fruits, and vast quantities of silk.

Population.—The population of the kingdom of Sardinia is about four millions, of which the island of Sardinia contains rather above half a million.

Historical Sketch.—The title of the sovereigns of this country was duke of Savoy till 1720, when the title of king of Sardinia was given to Victor Amadeus, for the services which he had rendered to the emperor of Germany, in the great war with France, about the succession to the crown of Spain. In the war that followed the French Revolution, the king was stripped of all his Italian territories. These were restored, however, by the congress of Vienna, and increased by the addition of Genoa.

KINGDOM OF LOMBARDY AND VENICE.

Situation.—This kingdom, which belongs to the emperor of Austria, comprehends that part of Italy which lies north of the Po, and east of the Tessino.

Chief Towns.—MILAN, VENICE, PAVIA, MANTUA, and VERONA.*

Climate, Soil, &c.—The climate is fine, and the soil uncommonly fertile. In the great plain of Lombardy, by proper culture, three crops of different kinds are produced in the year

are built entirely of marble, and the others are ornamented with marble portals and columns. The interior of these buildings is also equally magnificent; and they are decorated with tapestries, paintings, and statues. The general effect, however, is much injured by the narrowness and darkness of the streets.

* For the population of the principal of these, see page 62. Venice, like Genoa, was formerly an independent state, with still more extensive foreign possessions. It had also great commerce and influence; but it has gradually declined from the same causes that have operated against Genoa; and, after having been conquered by the French in the late war, it was ceded, in 1797, by Bonaparte, to the emperor of Austria, to whom it still belongs. The city is built on 72 small islands, which are connected by 500 bridges. Of these, the Rialto is the most beautiful, and is entirely composed of marble. It contains also many other magnificent public and private edifices. Milan is one of the finest and most splendid cities in Italy, containing a great number of large and beautiful buildings. It is very ancient, and has been forty times taken by enemies.

The pastures, which occupy above two thirds of the country, are peculiarly rich, and produce the celebrated Parmesan cheese.

Population.—The population of this kingdom is about four millions.

TUSCANY.

Situation, &c.—This state, the sovereign of which is styled the Grand Duke of Tuscany, is situated along the coast of the Mediterranean, west of the State of the Church. Its principal divisions are Florence, Pisanò, and Sienna; and it has a population of about 1,300,000.

Towns.—The principal towns are FLORENCE or FIRENZA, Leghorn or Livorno, Pisa, and Sienna.*

STATE OF THE CHURCH.

Situation, &c.—The State of the Church, or the Ecclesiastical State, belongs to the pope. It extends from the Mediterranean to the Gulf of Venice; and lies between Tuscany, Modena, and the Po, on one side, and the kingdom of Naples on the other.

Divisions.—The principal divisions are the Campagna di Roma, the Patrimony of St. Peter, Urbino, Romagna Pontificia, Bolognese, and Ferrarese.

Chief Towns.—ROME, Viterbo, Bologna or Bononia, Ravenna, Ferrara, and Loretto.†

* The population of Florence is about 80,000, of Leghorn 50,000, of Pisa 30,000, and of Sienna 20,000. Florence is very beautiful, having splendid buildings, and its streets being always kept remarkably clean. The Medicean gallery, in this city, contains one of the finest collections of paintings and statues in the world. The cathedral is also large and beautiful; and there are many other magnificent edifices, both public and private. Pisa had once a population of 150,000; and, like Genoa and Venice, had foreign territories and great power, particularly at sea. At the same period, Sienna was also independent, and had a population of 100,000. In Tuscany, the Italian language is spoken in its greatest purity.

† Rome, once the mistress and wonder of the world, still contains, even in its present reduced state, many fine buildings, and other ob-

Climate, &c.—The climate is not so fine as in the parts of Italy already described. The Campagna di Roma is so infested by the *malaria*, that most of it, though extremely fertile, is uninhabited.

Population.—The population is upwards of two millions.

KINGDOM OF NAPLES.

Situation, &c.—Naples is bounded on the north-west by the State of the Church, and on the other sides by the sea. The adjoining island of Sicily belongs also to the king of Naples; and he is sometimes styled the king of the Two Sicilies.

jects, to interest and attract the traveller. The church of St. Peter is the largest and most magnificent edifice ever erected, either in ancient or modern times, for the purposes of religion. Its length is 730 feet, its breadth 520, and its height 450. Its erection occupied 111 years, under eleven successive popes, and it cost the enormous sum of about £12,000,000 sterling. The pope's palace, called the Vatican, is of immense size; containing, it is said, 12,500 apartments. The city contains also about 300 other churches, and the remains of 19 pagan temples, theatres, and amphitheatres; besides aqueducts, obelisks, and other splendid monuments of the grandeur of Pagan Rome. The magnitude, wealth, and magnificence of the ancient city, indeed, can scarcely be conceived. In the days of Valerian, about the middle of the third century, it was fifty miles in circumference, and had a population, according to some, of several millions; but, after all reasonable deductions, of at least a million and a half. It contained 700 temples, theatres, 2 amphitheatres, and 7 circuses. The largest circus had seats for 300,000 spectators, and the Flavian amphitheatre was capable of containing more than 100,000 persons. Between the years 408 and 552, however, during the decline of the Roman power, the city was taken and plundered ten times, immense numbers of its inhabitants were destroyed by famine and the sword, and much of it was burned. In subsequent times, it once more attracted notice as the seat of the popes, who were the heads of the Christian religion as professed in Italy and the west of Europe, and who claimed the power of deposing kings, and giving away kingdoms. By this means, it became enriched by revenues from various quarters, and held a conspicuous station for many centuries. The power of the popes was much abridged, however, by the Reformation, and other causes; and Rome has made no approach, in modern times, to its ancient greatness. At present, its population is supposed to be about 130,000; and it is likely to diminish from the effects of the *malaria*, which is said to be gradually driving the inhabitants from the lower parts of the city.

Bologna has a population of about 65,000. It has a very ancient university, which was formerly the most famous in Europe.

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Terra di Lavoro ..	NAPLES
Principato Citerior	Salerno
Principato Ulterior	Benevento
Abruzzo	Aquila, Chieti
Molisa	Isernia
Capitanato	Manfredonia
Terra di Bari	Bari
Terra di Otranto ..	Otranto
Calabria	Cosenza, Rheggio, Cirenza
Sicily	PALERMO, Catania, Messina, Syracuse

Face of the Country, &c.—The chain of the Apennines extends through Sicily to its extremity at Cape Spartivento. The most remarkable mountains, however, are the volcanoes of Mount Vesuvius, six miles from Naples, and Mount Etna or Gibello in Sicily.*

* To these volcanoes may be added that of Stromboli, one of the Lipari islands, which also belong to Naples, and which all seem to be of volcanic origin. Stromboli presents a continual eruption of flame, and has on this account been called the Light-house of the Mediterranean; while Vulcano, another of the same group, is perpetually throwing out large volumes of smoke. Some particulars respecting Etna have already been given in page 11; and some farther information may be introduced here.

Mount Etna, or *Ætna*, has been divided by travellers into three regions; the cultivated, the woody, and the desert. The whole sloping ascent is stated at 30 miles, of which the cultivated region occupies a zone of 15 miles in breadth, all around the base of the mountain. The surface of this region is supposed to be 1500 or 2000 square miles; and to contain 77 towns and villages, with 100,000 inhabitants. It is very warm, and uncommonly fertile. Its surface is diversified all around by great numbers of conical hills, formed by eruptions of lava through the places where they stand. To this region succeeds the woody, which is seven or eight miles broad, and has a surface of 300 square miles. This region is of moderate heat; and is covered with vast numbers of fine trees, particularly chesnuts, oaks, beeches, and hawthorns. There is one chesnut tree in particular, the girt of which is 204 feet at the ground: there are also several others of the same species 70 or 80 feet round; and some of the oaks are 40 feet in circumference. The remaining part of the mountain is the desert region. This is covered with perpetual snow, and is in general nearly flat, except where the lofty summit of the mountain rises from its centre. The cold is extreme, and its effects are rendered greater by piercing winds. The snow found here is exported in large quantities to Italy

Chief Towns.—NAPLES, PALERMO, Catania, Messina, and Bari.*

Population.—The population is supposed to be nearly seven millions, of which a million and three quarters belong to Sicily.†

and Malta, for cooling liquors, and other purposes; and produces a considerable revenue to the bishop. The crater, or opening in the summit of the mountain, resembles a funnel or inverted cone, nearly three miles in circumference, and of vast depth. This is continually smoking; and loud noises, like the firing of artillery, are heard within. Before eruptions, the noises increase, and smoke issues forth in immense quantities. This smoke is highly electrical, and flashes of lightning dart from one part of it to another. It is often carried by the wind to great distances, sometimes 50 or 100 miles, and is very heavy. It is also hot, and full of pestilential vapour, which frequently kills men and animals, blasts trees, and sets fire to houses. At the same time, showers of ashes are often thrown from the crater; earthquakes are produced; and red hot stones, frequently of vast size, are thrown to the height, it is said, on some occasions, of 6000 or 7000 feet. After these convulsions have continued for three or four months, the lava begins to issue from the top of the mountain, or from some opening that it has burst in the side. The mountain then becomes comparatively quiet; and the lava, a stream of melted minerals, rolls down towards the plains, overwhelming and destroying every thing in its course. The eruptions, however, are extremely varied in their phenomena and effects; sometimes consisting of fluid lava, sometimes of great showers of sand or ashes, and sometimes even of prodigious torrents of boiling water. Great injury is often done by the overwhelming of towns, farm houses, and cultivated grounds. In 1669, the habitations of 27,000 persons were destroyed, and the greater part of the town of Catania was overwhelmed. This town had previously been subjected to still greater calamity in 1169, when 15,000 individuals lost their lives. The entire number of eruptions on record is above thirty, and there may have been several others.

* The population of Naples is about 400,000, of Palermo 130,000, Catania and Messina 45,000 each, and Bari 30,000. Naples is far the largest city in Italy; and, though it has nothing to equal some of the splendid architectural ornaments of Rome, it is better built as a whole, and contains better private houses. The bay is celebrated for its great beauty, and the fine appearance of the country around it. The cities of Naples and Sicily often suffer dreadfully from earthquakes. In 1693, Catania was almost totally destroyed in this way, and 18,000 of its inhabitants were swallowed up, or buried in its ruins. In 1783 also, Naples and Sicily were visited by a great earthquake, in which 40,000 persons lost their lives; and the greater part of Messina was laid in ruins.

† There is reason to believe, that in ancient times Sicily contained

Curiosities.—Among the numerous curiosities of this kingdom, besides Etna and Vesuvius, may be mentioned the ruins of **Her- culaneum** and **Pompeii**, and the remains of ancient Roman roads, parts of which remain strong and good, after the lapse of two thousand years.

MINOR ITALIAN STATES.

PARMA, PLACENTIA, and GUASTELLA, form a dutchy, which belongs, since 1814, to Maria Louisa, daughter of Francis, emperor of Austria; and is to descend to her son by Bonaparte, to whom she was married in the days of his power. This state lies south of the Po, and east of the Sardinian territories; and has a population of about 400,000. The chief towns are **PARMA** and **Placentia** or **Piacenza**, the former of which has a population of 40,000, and the latter of 25,000.

MODENA is another dutchy, situated south of the Po, between the dutchy of Parma and the State of the Church. It has also a population of about 400,000. The chief towns are **MODENA**, **Reggio**, and **Mirandola**, the population of none of which much exceeds 20,000.

The **DUTCHY OF LUCCA** lies north-west of Tuscany, along the shore of the Mediterranean. It is a small territory, containing about 130,000 inhabitants. The capital is of the same name, and has a population of about 25,000. **Lucca** was a republic, till it was conquered by France in the late war. By the congress of Vienna, it was converted into a dutchy, and given to the widow of the late duke of Parma.

ST. MARINO is a small republic, about ten miles round. It lies near the Gulf of Venice, and is surrounded by the dominions of the pope. The territory consists of one mountain, and the entire population is about 7000. It has been an independent republic for 1300 years.

five millions of inhabitants; and it was then a place of extreme importance. The present reduced amount of its population, and its degraded state in other respects, are supposed to arise from the oppressed state of the country, which renders the people poor and lazy. By this means, so wretchedly is the island cultivated, that, notwithstanding its extreme fertility, which has been celebrated since the earliest times, and which caused it to be called the granary of ancient Rome, it does not produce sufficient food for even its present population, but is obliged to import corn.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

Boundaries.—Turkey in Europe is bounded on the north by the Austrian and Russian territories; on the west and south-west, by Dalmatia, the Gulf of Venice, and the Mediterranean; and on the east* and south-east, by the Black Sea, the Sea of Marmara, and the Archipelago, with the Straits of Constantinople and the Hellespont.†

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Moldavia ‡	Jassy or Yassy, Galatz
Walachia	Bukarest, Tergovist
Croatia (Turkish)	Bihatsk
Bosnia	Bosna Serai, or Serajevo, Banjaluka
Servia	Belgrade
Bulgaria	Sophia, Silistria, Widin, Nicopoli
Herzegovinia	Mostar
Albania	Durazzo, Avlona or Valona, Suli
Roumelia, N. E. part	CONSTANTINOPLE, Adrianople, Philippopoli or Filibe

* The Prut and Danube now form the north-eastern boundary of Turkey, Bessarabia having been ceded to Russia in 1812.

† European Turkey is situated between 36° and 48° of north latitude, and between 16° and 30° of east longitude. Its length, from Cape Matapan in the Morea, to the north of Moldavia, is about 800 miles; and its greatest breadth, in a perpendicular direction, is above 600. Its content is supposed to be nearly 200,000 square miles.

‡ Moldavia and Walachia have long been rather nominally than really under the Turkish government, the Grand Seignior merely appointing the chief ruler of each, who is called a Hospadar, and who is always a Greek of the noble families that pretend to trace their descent to the Greek emperors. This situation is uniformly obtained by bribery, and is held for only a short time. The people are governed by ancient feudal laws, which are very corruptly administered by their magistrates. The population of Walachia is about a million, and that of Moldavia about half that number.

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Roumelia, S. part	Salonica, Larissa, Janna or Janina or Joannina, Atini or Athens, Livadia, Lepanto
Morea*	Tripolitza, Napoli di Romania, Corinth, Arcadia, Navarino, Modon, Mistra, Patras

Islands.—The principal islands on the west of Turkey are Corfu, Santa Maura or Lefcathia, Theaki, Cefalonia, and Zante. On the south-eastern side, there are vast numbers of islands, most of which are in the Archipelago. The chief of these are Candia, Cyprus, Negropont, Rhodes, Metelin, Scio, Samos, Scarpanto, Cerigo, Milo, Santorini, Naxia, Paros, Antiparos, Patmos, Andro, Skyro, Stalimene or Lemnos, and Samothraki.†

* The northern boundary of Greece properly so called, nearly coincides with a parallel of latitude passing through Salonica. Since the late revolution, Greece has been divided by the Greek government into seven parts: East Hellas, West Hellas, Macedonia, Epirus, Thessaly, the Morea, and Candia, with the other islands. The population of Macedonia is supposed to be 700,000; of the Morea, 450,000; of Epirus, 400,000; of Thessaly, 300,000; and of East and West Hellas, 150,000.

† Of the above-mentioned islands, Corfu, Santa Maura, Theaki, Cefalonia, Zante, and Cerigo, with Paxu, and Antipaxu near Corfu, constitute the new republic of the Ionian Islands. These formerly belonged to Venice, but were taken by the French and Russians in 1800. They were afterwards taken by the British; and, in 1815, they were erected into an independent state, under the protection of Great Britain; and have since enjoyed a degree of peace, prosperity, and happiness, before unknown. A lord high commissioner is appointed by the British government to reside there, with certain powers; and the king of England has the right of occupying the fortresses. The population of this state is about 200,000; of which Corfu and Cefalonia contain about 60,000 each, and Zante about 40,000. They produce olive oil, wine, figs, and other fruits. Theaki is generally supposed to be the ancient Ithaca, which belonged to Ulysses. The town of Zante contains 16,000 inhabitants, and that of Corfu 12,000. Corfu is at present the chief seat of Greek literature; and has a university, which was opened in 1824, and is likely to be of the greatest advantage to Greece at large.

With respect to the other islands above enumerated, it would be improper, in a work like the present, to give any thing except a few

Gulfs.—The principal gulfs are those of Lodrino, Arta, Lepanto, Coron, Colokythia, Napoli, Egina

detached particulars respecting some of the more important and more interesting.

CANDIA, anciently Crete, is 180 miles long and 40 broad. Its population is thought to have been from one to two millions in ancient times; but it is now reduced, under the tyranny of the Turks, to about 350,000. It is a delightful island; having a serene, healthy climate; and producing, in great abundance, all the necessaries, and many of the luxuries of life. The subterranean labyrinth, famous since the earliest times, still remains; and contains such a vast number of mazes, that the person who visits it, is obliged to unwind a line of 400 fathoms, fixed at the entrance, to enable him to find his way out, after having examined its various parts. In ancient times, the island was rich and happy; but has since been successively subjected to the Romans, Saracens, Venetians, and Turks; and from all of them, except the Venetians, it has suffered great desolation and oppression. The tyranny exercised by the Turks, however, on the present inhabitants, is far beyond that of all the others; and is such as effectually to break the spirit and energies of the people, and to reduce them to the condition and character of slaves. The chief town, which is also called Candia, was large and flourishing before the island came under the Ottoman power; but now contains only about 14,000 inhabitants. This town is celebrated for its siege by the Turks, which is one of the most memorable recorded in history. It continued during the long period of twenty-four years, and terminated in 1669 by the capture of the city, after the Venetians had lost 80,000 men in its defence, and the Turks 180,000 before its walls.

Cyprus, and some other islands mentioned above, belong rather to Asia, from their nearness to its shore. They may properly be taken with the others, however, as forming a part of the same group.

CYPRUS is naturally a fine island, about 160 miles long and 70 broad. The southern side is very hot, while the northern is mild. This difference is produced by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle of the island. In modern times, Cyprus has been successively possessed by the Saracens, Venetians, and Turks. The last of these powers conquered it in 1570; and, by their tyranny, they have reduced one of the finest islands of antiquity to a melancholy state of wretchedness. Dr. Clarke forcibly characterizes it thus: "Agriculture neglected—inhabitants oppressed—population destroyed—pestiferous air—contagion—poverty—indolence—desolation." The situation of governor is annually given to the highest bidder; and the person appointed, remunerates himself by exactions from the miserable inhabitants. From these causes, the population is thought to be only about 60,000. The inhabitants are remarkable for beauty of face and figure, particularly the females. The chief town is Nicosia.—NEGROPONT, anciently Eubœa, is the largest island in the Archipelago, and has been joined by a bridge to the mainland.—RHODES was anciently a fine island, of much value and consequence; but has dwin-

(sometimes called Engia), Salonica, Cassandria, Mount Santo or Mount Athos, Contessa, Saros, and Burgas.

dled into insignificance under the chilling influence of Turkish oppression, and has now only about 30,000 inhabitants. The Colossus of Rhodes has been much celebrated. This was a brazen statue of Apollo, nearly 130 feet high. It was erected about 300 years before Christ; and its feet are said to have stood on the moles that formed the entrance of the harbour of Rhodes, the chief town, so that ships sailed between its legs. A winding stair ran inside of it to its summit, whence there was an extensive prospect. After standing between fifty and a hundred years, it was overturned by an earthquake; and, about nine hundred years after, the metal of which it was composed, was sold by the Saracens to a Jewish merchant. Some parts of this account, however, are considered inaccurate, particularly what regards its original position, as, if so placed, it must have fallen into the sea when overturned; and it is rather thought to have stood at some distance from the shore.—METELIN, anciently Lesbos, has a population of about 40,000, composed of Turks and Greeks, in nearly equal numbers. The law of succession to property in this island, in families where there are daughters, is very remarkable. Formerly, all the property of the family fell to the eldest daughter, on her marriage; while the other children, and even the parents, were left in indigence. Lately, however, the patriarch of Constantinople, and the clergy of the island, have got the law so modified, that the eldest daughter gets a third of the property, the second a third of the remainder, the next a like part of what then remains, and so on whatever may be their number.—PAROS, one of the ancient Cyclades, is celebrated for the beauty and fineness of its marble, which has been so much used for statues.—Within a mile of Paros is ANTIPAROS, a small island, 16 miles round, celebrated for its beautiful grotto or cavern. The part of this that has been explored, is nearly 1000 feet long, above 300 feet broad, and at its lowest part more than 250 feet below the surface of the earth. This grotto, though its wonders have perhaps been exaggerated by early travellers, is remarkably beautiful. Columns composed of calcareous matter, formed into numberless minute sparkling crystals, extend from the floor to the roof; and stalactites, or pieces of the same matter, like large icicles, hang suspended from the roof in immense numbers. Both these and the columns are supposed to be formed by water, which has calcareous matter dissolved in it, oozing down from above; and the water being evaporated, incrustations of the matter are gradually formed. Where the water descends more copiously, the stalactites are supposed to fall down by their own weight, and thus gradually to give origin to the columns. Sometimes also the columns seem to have their origin from the drops falling on the floor, and there forming gradual depositions of the lime. The columns, in this progressive state of formation, have often the appearance of trees; and thus, at first sight, seem as if they were petrifications of organized vegetable matter. The floor and sides of the cavern are also said to present beautiful masses of marble of various

Seaports.—The chief ports are Durazzo, Avlona, Prevesa, Messolonghi, Lepanto, Patras, Navarino, Napoli di Romania,* Hydra (on an island), Tricheri, Salonica (anciently Thessalonica), Gallipoli, Constantinople, and Varna.

Peninsulas, &c.—European Turkey contains several peninsulas. The principal is the Morea, which is joined to the mainland by the Isthmus of Corinth.†

Face of the Country.—The Carpathian mountains form part of the boundary. Another chain extends from Dalmatia towards the Sea of Marmara, and gives off a branch called Hæmus, which terminates at the Black Sea. Other branches extend from it, on the

colours, and of such appearance as to seem like trees and rivulets converted into stone.—The island of SCIO has a delightful climate, and possesses great facilities for commerce. Its inhabitants, who were in general Greeks, had in late times improved these advantages, and become so wealthy as to be able to buy off the active interference of the Turks, and virtually to govern the island themselves. A college was also established, which contained six or seven hundred students, and was the chief seat of learning among the Greeks. All the prosperity and happiness of the island, however, are now no more. In 1822, soon after the commencement of the Greek insurrection, it was attacked by the Turks on the slightest pretences, and deeds of cruelty were perpetrated that can scarcely be equalled in the annals of war. Of 130,000 inhabitants, about 25,000 were butchered in the island; and 30,000 women and boys were carried off, and sold as slaves. Of those who escaped immediate death by the sword, some were made prisoners, and executed; some escaped to other islands, destitute of every means of support; others wandered about the country, till most of them died of wounds, famine, exhaustion, or broken hearts; and only a few hundred miserable fugitives remained alive in the island, out of all its former happy population. Lately, however, a pasha has been appointed, whose kindness and humanity had long rendered him a favourite with the Greeks in Asia Minor; and the population had increased so rapidly, by an influx from different quarters, as to amount, in 1825, to 15,000.

* Napoli di Romania and Hydra are at present the principal towns belonging to the Greeks. The island of Spetzia, near Hydra, also belongs to them, and is of some consequence.

† This isthmus is rocky, and is about six miles in breadth. The Morea is said to be so called from its resemblance to a mulberry leaf, which is the signification of its name; and its southern point, Cape Matapan, is so called from a Greek word signifying the forehead.

southern side; and there are many mountains in the Morea, and the rest of Greece.*

Rivers.—The Danube flows upwards of 400 miles through this country; passing Belgrade, Widin, Orea-va, Kirsova or Hirsova, Izmail, and other towns; and falling, by several mouths, into the Black Sea. The Danube receives also the Aluta, Sereth, Prut, &c. on the northern side; and the Save, Morava, and others, on the southern.

Towns.—The principal towns are CONSTANTINOPLE, Adrianople, Sophia, Bukarest, Silistria, Bosna Serai, Salonica, Hydra, Jassy, Belgrade, and Larissa.†

* The habitable districts of Greece consist principally of large distinct valleys, almost surrounded by mountains; and hence Dr. Clarke has compared them to saucers with broken lips, placed on a table. Turkey is of rather a mountainous character, abounding however in delightful plains and valleys. To the north-west of Constantinople, in particular, there is a plain country of great extent; and about the Black Sea, there are many level districts.

† Constantinople is supposed to have 400,000 inhabitants; Adrianople above 100,000; Sophia, 70,000; Bukarest, Silistria, Bosna Serai, and Salonica, each 60,000; Hydra, 40,000; Jassy, 30,000; and Belgrade and Larissa, about 25,000 each. Constantinople, called Stamboul by the Turks, was built by the Roman emperor, Constantine the Great, on the site of the ancient Byzantium. Its situation, both for beauty and for the purposes of commerce, is perhaps not surpassed. The external appearance of the city is remarkably fine. It is built on seven hills, which rise one above another in beautiful succession; while their summits are crowned with innumerable mosques and baths, intermixed with lofty cypresses; and their declivities are covered with terraced streets. The houses also are painted of different colours; and the general magnificence of the effect is increased by the numerous gilded domes, and the beautiful slender minarets, crowned with shining crescents, that every where meet the view. On entering the city, however, the traveller's expectations are altogether disappointed; the streets being in general narrow, badly paved, and dirty in the extreme. Scavengers are unknown; and their office is performed by dogs, vultures, and rain. No dwelling-house is allowed to be more than twenty-six feet high; and hence the streets have a mean appearance. The houses are generally of wood; and, on this account, conflagrations are very frequent; and, from the dryness of the climate, very destructive. So much afraid are the people of such occurrences, that, on retiring to sleep, they put their most valuable effects into a casket, which is placed on a table, that in case of alarm it may be hastily carried off; and, for the same reason, the females sleep with their

Climate, &c.—The climate is in general excellent, and the soil naturally very fertile, except in the mountainous districts. It is badly cultivated however, and the produce is vastly less than it might be under a proper system of agriculture.

Produce.—Rice, wheat, grapes, figs, olives, oranges, and other fruits, are the chief productions of the country; and there are rich pastures, particularly in the north.

Population, Army, &c.—The population is supposed to be about eight millions; but there is no certainty with respect to its amount. The army that can be brought into the field, in the time of war, amounts, both for this country and for Asiatic Turkey, to 150,000 or 200,000 ill-disciplined men. The navy consists of 20 or 30 ships of the line.*

Government.—The sultan, or Grand Seignior, as he is often styled, is an absolute prince; the only restraint on his will being the laws of the Koran, and the fear of exciting rebellion.†

most valuable ornaments on their persons. The burying-grounds of Constantinople are as large as the city itself, two persons never being interred in the same grave. The wealthy Turks, however, wish rather to be buried on the Asiatic side; as they think that Constantinople will one day be taken by the Christians, and they dread the indignity of having their dust trampled on by infidels.

* In 1362, the sultan Amurath established the famous military bands of infantry, called janizaries, composed at first of Christian slaves, educated in Mohammedanism from their infancy. These have been the most formidable part of the army, in foreign warfare; and they have often mutinied, and have sometimes even deposed the emperor. In 1826, the body was dissolved in consequence of a revolt; but it may perhaps be re-established. In former times, the Turkish army far exceeded the amount stated above. In 1774, however, it required considerable efforts to bring 140,000 into the field; and, since that time, the power of the empire has suffered a still farther decline. The janizaries amounted to about 40,000; and they were quartered in Constantinople, and had peculiar privileges. Besides these, there were others over the empire, who got themselves enrolled as janizaries, that they might enjoy the like privileges; so that the entire nominal amount might be about 100,000.

† The power of the emperor is considerably limited by the Koran, and by the recognised commentaries on it by some learned Mohammedans. Still, however, he frequently exercises the most arbitrary and despotic power in depriving of life or office, and in seizing property, unless it belong to the Mohammedan church. Such acts have often excited rebellions, and terminated in the death or dethronement of the sultan; and hence the fear of the revolt of powerful chiefs, forms a strong check on the conduct of the reigning prince. The chief persons under the emperor are the grand vizier, or prime minister; viziers, or pashas, of three tails (that is, having three horses' tails for standard); beglerbegs, or viceroys of several provinces,

Manufactures and Commerce.—The manufactures of Turkey are chiefly those of carpets, silks, and Turkey leather. The commerce of the country consists principally in these articles, and in its produce in the natural state, particularly drugs and fruit.*

Literature.—The chief object of education among the Turks is to become acquainted with the laws and religion of the country, as contained in the Koran, and the comments on it by their more distinguished writers. The youth are also taught to speak their native language with purity and ease; and the country has produced several poets. Among the Greeks, education is as much attended to as can be expected in their present degraded condition; and the greater part of what little learning remains among them, is to be found in the monasteries.

Religion.—The established religion is Mohammedanism; but nearly two thirds of the population are Christians of the Greek church.†

with inferior pashas, or governors of towns or districts, under them; the reis-effendi, or secretary of state; and the agas, or commanders of the forces. The grand vizier, being next in power to the emperor, is often sacrificed to satisfy the people, when they become discontented, even though the fault may not have been his. The divan, or council of state, meets on Sundays and Thursdays in the palace; and is attended by the chief officers above-mentioned, and by several others. The sultan is in an adjoining apartment, to hear what passes; but takes no part in the proceedings. It may be remarked, that the Turkish governors are all absolute in their respective situations; and, in almost all instances, exercise great oppression over those that are subject to their authority, endeavouring to enrich themselves by the severest exactions, as they know the uncertain nature of their situations.

* The British commerce with Turkey is carried on principally by the Levant or Turkey Company, instituted by Elizabeth in 1581. This company is now open to any British subject, on paying £ 20. The principal articles exported are cloth of every kind, colours, lead, pewter, and pepper.

† The Mohammedan or Mahometan religion derives its name from its founder Mohammed, Muhammed, or Mahomet, the celebrated Arabian impostor. The articles of belief in this religion are contained in the Koran, a book left by Mohammed; and the chief of them are, that there is but one God, and that Mohammed is his prophet; that men ought to observe bodily purifications, and pray to God five times each day with their faces turned towards Mecca; that they ought to give alms to the poor, and fast during the month Ramadan; and that they should, if possible, go in pilgrimage to the temple of Mecca. The Mohammedans also believe in predestination, and are allowed to have any number of wives not exceeding four, besides concubines. The descendants of Mohammed himself are permitted to have any number of wives and concubines they may choose; and the Grand

Character.—The Turks, in obedience to the precepts of their religion, are charitable. They are indolent in their habits; and they detest persons of other religions, whom they often treat in the most perfidious and cruel manner. In other respects, their moral conduct is in most instances good. The Greeks, though naturally a fine people, display, in many instances, that meanness and duplicity which are so liable to be produced by such slavery as they have long endured.

Manners, &c.—The Turks spend much of their time in the bagnios or public baths; the men meeting there, in great num-

Seignior has generally from one to two thousand. Friday is set apart for the worship of God, as Sunday is among the Christians. During the fast of Ramadan or Ramezan, every one is obliged to fast from sunrise till sunset; and they are not allowed to wash their mouths, or even their faces, lest they should thus have any refreshment. During the night, the restrictions are removed; when those who are religious eat sparingly, but persons of dissolute character make ample amends for the privations of the day. From the nature of their calendar, which is regulated by the motions of the moon, the month Ramadan, as well as all the others, happens at different seasons of the year; and when it occurs in summer, the people suffer greatly from thirst. This fast is immediately followed by the festival of Bairim, which continues three days, and is a scene of universal revelry and joy. The use of wine is prohibited by the Koran. Numbers of persons, however, indulge freely in the use of it, and of strong liquors, in private; and many produce intoxication by the use of opium.

The religion of the Greek church very much resembles that of the Roman Catholic; and is so called from being that which was established in the Greek or eastern empire, after the time of Constantine the Great. It has, however, far more fasts; their number amounting to more than half the year. These consist of every Wednesday and Friday, of the usual period of lent before Easter, and of many saints' days. In this church, the use of images is strictly prohibited; but pictures are permitted, and receive marks of adoration.

The chief dignitary of the Mohammedan church in Turkey, is called the mufti; and he has a considerable connexion with the politics of the empire. Next to him are the moulahs, or expounders of the Koran; and the officiating clergy are called imaums. There are also four orders of monks, who are called by the general name of dervises. In the Greek church, the form of government is the same as in the church of Rome; with which, however, it is totally unconnected. The chief dignitary is the patriarch of Constantinople; and under him there are metropolitans, archbishops, bishops, and inferior clergy. The patriarch is elected by the neighbouring metropolitans and archbishops; and the appointment is confirmed by the Grand Seignior, to whom the patriarch pays, as tribute, above half his income. In the Greek church, the clergy are allowed to marry before ordination, but the female must not have been married before; and no clergyman is permitted to marry a second time.

bers, at one time, and the women, in their finest dresses, at another. The men shave their heads, but wear long beards; and their clothes are long loose garments, fastened with a girdle. Their head-dress is a white turban, which they constantly wear except when in bed. The Greeks wear turbans of a dark colour, the use of white ones being permitted only to Mohammedans. The Turkish women are much confined, being seldom allowed to leave the harem, or part of the house appropriated to themselves. When they do go out, they are so veiled and muffled, both as to face and figure, that they cannot be known even by members of their own family. The Greek females are exempted, in a great degree, from such restraints. The Turks sit, eat, and sleep on the floor on cushions or sofas, mattresses, and carpets.

Language.—The Turkish language is of Asiatic origin; but the Greeks speak the Romaic or modern Greek, which bears a near resemblance to the classical Greek of ancient times.

Historical Sketch.—Greece was the most celebrated nation of ancient times, for early civilization, and great progress in knowledge. Its successful resistance against the whole power of Persia, in the reigns of Darius and Xerxes, nearly 500 years before Christ, is justly regarded as the most noble struggle for national independence ever displayed. Philip, king of Macedon, and his son, Alexander the Great, reduced all Greece under their power, between 300 and 400 years before Christ; and Alexander totally overturned the Persian empire, that had formerly threatened the very existence of Greece. The Grecian states were afterwards invaded by the Romans, and were finally reduced under their power, about 150 years before Christ. The division of the Roman territories, after the time of Constantine the Great, gave origin to the Eastern or Greek Empire, which, under a succession of monarchs, who were generally weak, and often vicious, continued to drag out, for more than 1000 years, a separate political existence, often in a state of anarchy, and always of misgovernment. Many of its provinces were conquered by the Saracens, in successive wars, from the time of Mohammed, for a long period; and its power was gradually diminishing. In the year 1038, the empire was first attacked by the Turks, a tribe originally from the neighbourhood of Mount Caucasus in Asia, who had been gradually emerging from their primitive obscurity during the mutual dissensions of the Saracens, and had embraced the Mohammedan religion. About 1230, the Turks assumed the name of Othmans or Ottomans, from Othman, their leader and sovereign, under whom they had great success. In 1352, they first crossed the Hellespont, to attack the European territories of the empire; and in 1360, Amurath made Adrianople the capital of his dominions, instead of Bursa

in Asia, which had held that place from the time of Othman. Amurath was succeeded by his son Bajazet. The latter, who was one of the most warlike of the Ottoman princes, made himself master of most of the present Turkish dominions in Europe; and, in 1394, laid siege to Constantinople, which, after various attempts, he was prevented from taking, only by being obliged to go into Asia, to defend his dominions there, against an invasion by the celebrated Tartar conqueror, Timour or Tamerlane. In a tremendous battle which ensued in 1402, on the plains of Angora in Natolia, and in which 340,000 of the combatants are said to have fallen, the Turks were totally defeated, and lost their sovereign, who was made prisoner, and died a few months after.* The Turks soon recovered from the check thus sustained; and in 1453, under Mohammed II. they took Constantinople by storm, after a long siege. The emperor Constantine XV. perished in the final assault; and with him terminated the eastern empire, the last remnant of the ancient Roman power. Mohammed immediately made Constantinople the capital of his dominions, and reduced the Greeks to a state of slavery. He and his successors long carried on wars against the Christian powers, and often with great success. So alarming, indeed, was their progress, that Vienna was twice besieged; first in 1528, when it was relieved by the approach of the emperor Charles V.; and again in 1683, when it was delivered by John Sobieski, king of Poland. From that period, the Ottoman power began to decline; and in subsequent wars, particularly with the Russians, they have lost a considerable part of their former conquests. The modern Greeks have long suffered under the oppression of the Turks, and long wished for deliverance. After some previous attempts, which all miscarried, and the failure of which tended to rivet their chains more closely, an insurrection of the most formidable kind commenced in 1821. The war thus produced has been carried on with various success till the present time, and has presented many dreadful scenes of blood and cruelty. What its issue may be, it is impossible to predict;† but it is greatly to be desired, that it may

* According to some accounts, Bajazet was treated kindly by Tamerlane, and died a natural death; but, according to others, he was shut up in an iron cage, against the bars of which he beat out his brains, through grief and despair. There is reason to believe, however, that his death was accelerated, in one way or other, to remove the apprehensions of his conqueror.

† The Greeks were at first completely successful against the Turks, both by land and sea; and had liberated the Morea, and much of the country north of it. In 1825, however, the Turks procured the assistance of the Egyptians; and the Greeks, in consequence of this, as

terminate in the deliverance of the Greeks from the cruel thralldom in which they have so long been held, and in the addition of another civilized state to Europe, in one of its finest and most interesting countries.

RUSSIA.*

Boundaries.—The European dominions of Russia are bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the east, by Asia; on the south, by the Sea of Azov, the Black Sea, and the Turkish and Austrian territories; and on the west, by Prussia, the Baltic Sea, the Gulf of Bothnia, and the Swedish dominions in Lapland.†

Divisions.—European Russia is divided into the six provinces of East Sea, Great Russia, Little Russia, South or New Russia, West Russia, and Poland, with the Kingdom of Kazan. These, with their subdivisions and principal towns, are as follows:

well as of dissensions among themselves, have lost much of what they had previously gained. The other European powers, chiefly perhaps from their mutual jealousies, have thus far abstained from giving Greece any active assistance. Should they change their determinations in this respect, the Greeks would be immediately free from their present slavery; as the power of Turkey is unable to withstand that of even one of the secondary Christian states.

* The latitude of the most southern point of European Russia, is rather less than 45° north, and that of its most northern point about 70° . Its extreme longitudes are 18° and 60° east. The entire Russian empire is far the greatest in extent that has ever existed in the world; being equal in surface to four times the Roman empire, and one half greater than the present empire of China. Its content has been computed at seven millions and a half of square miles; of which, about one fourth is in Europe, and the rest in Asia. Its power and population, however, though very great, are by no means proportional to its extent.

† The rivers Tornea and Tana form the greater part of the northwestern boundary, since the late cession of Finland and part of Lapland by Sweden.

I. EAST SEA PROVINCE, FIVE GOVERNMENTS.

GOVERNMENTS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Petersburg	PETERSBURG, Cronstadt
Finland	Abo, Uleaborg
Esthonia	Revel
Livonia	Riga
Courland	Mittau

II. GREAT RUSSIA, NINETEEN GOVERNMENTS.

Moscow	Moscow
Smolensko	Smolensko
Pskov or Pleskov	Pleskov
Novgorod	Novgorod
Olonetz	Olonetz
Archangel	Archangel
Vologda	Vologda
Kostroma	Kostroma
Nizney Novgorod	Nizney Novgorod
Vladimir	Vladimir
Toola	Toola
Kalouga	Kalouga
Tver	Tver
Jaroslav	Jaroslav
Koursk	Koursk
Orlov	Orel
Riazane	Riazane
Tambov	Tambov
Voronez	Voronez

III. LITTLE RUSSIA, FOUR GOVERNMENTS.

Kiev	Kiev or Kiov
Ukraine	Charkov
Tschernigov	Tschernigov
Pultava	Pultava

IV. SOUTH OR NEW RUSSIA, FIVE GOVERNMENTS.

Ekaterinoslav	Ekaterinoslav
Kherson or Cherson	Kherson or Cherson, Odessa
Taurida	Kaffa, Simperopol
Bessarabia	Akerman, Izmail
Don Cossacks	Tcherkask

V. WEST RUSSIA, EIGHT GOVERNMENTS.

GOVERNMENTS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Wilna or Vilna	Wilna
Grodno	Grodno
Minsk	Minsk
Vitebsk	Vitebsk .
Mohilev	Mohilev
Volhynia	Berdytzeu
Podolia	Kamenetz
Byalystock	Byalystock

VI. KINGDOM OF POLAND, EIGHT WAYWODESHIPS.

Massovia	Warsaw
Kalitch	Kalitch
Cracow	Kielce
Sandomir	Radom
Lublin	Lublin
Polachia	Siedlec
Augustov	Suwalki
Plock	Plock

VII. KINGDOM OF KAZAN, FIVE GOVERNMENTS.

Kazan	Kazan
Viatka	Viatka
Perm	Perm
Simbirsk	Simbirsk
Pensa	Pensa

Seaports.—Uleaborg, Abo, Vyborg, Petersburg, Cronstadt, Narva, Revel, and Riga, on the Baltic; Archangel, on the White Sea; Odessa, Otchakov, Kherson, Simperopol, Sevastopol, and Kaffa or Theodosia, on the Black Sea; and Taganrog, on the Sea of Azov.

Peninsula, &c.—The only peninsula worthy of notice, is that of the Crimea, or Crim Tartary, which is joined to the mainland by the Isthmus of Perekop. This isthmus is five miles broad.

Face of the Country, &c.—The principal mountains are the Uralian or Poyas, some of whose summits are

four or five thousand feet high. The greater part of Russia, however, is level; and it abounds in extensive plains, called *steppes*.* There are also many forests of vast extent.

Lakes.—The principal lakes are those of Ladoga and Onega, north-east of Petersburg; Tchodskoi, south-west of it; and Imandra and Enare, in Lapland.†

Rivers.—The chief rivers are the Volga, which rises north-west of Moscow, and, after passing Tver and several other towns, and flowing 250 miles through Asia, falls into the Caspian Sea, by seventy mouths, at Astrakhan; the Dnieper, which passes Smolensko, Kiev, Kherson, &c. and falls into the Black Sea; and the Don, which, after passing Kalouga, Tcherkask, &c. falls into the Sea of Azov. Besides these, there are the Petchora, which flows into the Frozen Ocean; the Northern Dvina, which falls into the White Sea at Archangel; and another Dvina, which falls into the Baltic at Riga. The Volga receives the Kama, and many other considerable rivers.‡

Towns.—The chief cities and towns are Petersburg, the present capital; Moscow, the former one; and Warsaw, the former capital of Poland. || None of the other

* Some of these steppes are barren, and nearly desert; but others partly cultivated, and partly covered with a great profusion of grass, and in some places with forests. One of them occupies the great space between the White Sea, the rivers Dvina and Petchora, and a chain of mountains in Vologda. Another comprehends all the north of Russia between the Boug and Don. • Much of the latter is very fertile.

Ladoga is the largest lake in Europe; being 130 miles long, and 20 miles broad. The north-western part of the Russian dominions, particularly Finland, contains lakes almost without number.

The Volga has a course of more than 1700 miles, and is navigable from the Caspian to Tver, a space of more than 1500 miles, having a depth of only about nine inches per mile.

The population of Petersburg is above 300,000, of Moscow nearly the same, and of Warsaw 100,000.

Petersburg, or St. Petersburg, is so called from Peter the Great, to whom it was founded in 1703, and who made it the metropolis of the empire eleven years after. It is built at the mouth of the Neva, on both sides of it, and on islands. The situation is marshy, but

towns has more than 40,000 inhabitants; but Riga, Odessa, Toola, Vilna, Kherson, Kazan, Tver, and Kiev, have each 20,000 or upwards.

Climate.—In the southern parts, the climate is moderate. In the north, the cold is extremely severe in winter; while in sum-

in other respects good. The communication of the parts of the town separated by the river, is effected in summer by bridges of boats, and in winter by the ice, at which time the boats are removed. At the latter season, the Neva is covered with ice, from two to three feet thick, and is crowded by persons engaged in various amusements, such as skating, and descending in sledges along the sloping sides of artificial eminences. These are composed of snow incrustated with ice, and are generally about thirty feet high; and such is the velocity acquired in the descent, that the person is often carried 300 or 400 feet along the level ice, on the bed of the river. In summer, the heat is as great as in the south of France; but, in winter, the cold is intense, so that lives are lost, in many instances, from its severity; and warm clothing is absolutely necessary. From custom, however, the common people, when employed in active bodily labour, seem to feel little inconvenience from its effects; and women are sometimes seen washing in holes made in the ice with hatchets, when the mercury is 60° below the freezing point; and when they are obliged, from time to time, to cut away the ice as it forms anew. The city has spacious streets, and a large proportion of excellent dwelling-houses; but there are few public buildings of a remarkable kind. All the houses lately built, are of brick, and are covered with iron or copper; but many of the older ones are of wood or clay. The oldest, and perhaps the most remarkable erection in the place, is the hut in which Peter the Great dwelt, while superintending the building of the city; and which is very properly covered over with a brick building to preserve it. Its roof was only eight feet high, and it contained but three apartments to accommodate a monarch of such well-merited distinction. The commerce of Petersburg is very extensive. It is carried on chiefly by foreigners, particularly the English, as few of the Russians have capital. Petersburg is well supplied with provisions, in summer, by means of canals, one of which unites the Neva with the Volga, and thus opens a communication with the Caspian Sea. In winter, however, the facilities for the carriage of articles are much greater by means of the snow, the frozen surface of which forms an excellent substitute for roads; and the beef of Archangel is often eaten fresh in Petersburg, at the distance of 500 miles. Moscow, the former capital, was burned during the French invasion in 1812. It has since been rebuilt, for the most part, and is supposed to contain nearly 300,000 inhabitants. About three fourths of the houses are of wood; and, on this account, it is liable to frequent and destructive conflagrations. In this city, there is a bell which weighs 432,000 pounds, and which is the greatest in the world. The Russians are fond of having large bells near their churches, and keep them almost continually chiming.

mer, the heat is often oppressive, from the great length of the day.*

Soil and Produce.—Livonia, Crimea, and the extensive plains of the Dnieper and the Don, are exceedingly fertile; while, in general, the north of the country is in the highest degree bleak and barren: and between these extremes, there is every variety. Of the vegetable productions, which are very numerous, it may suffice to mention barley, and other kinds of grain; timber, hemp, and flax; also, silk and vines, which are produced in the southern provinces.

Animals.—Besides vast numbers of black cattle, horses, sheep, swine, and goats; there are bears, rein-deer, wolves, foxes, &c. The fisheries on the Caspian Sea, the Volga, and other rivers, are very productive and valuable.

Population.—The population of this vast empire is supposed to exceed fifty-five millions; of which nearly fifty-one millions belong to Europe, and the rest to Asia.†

Army and Navy.—In 1820, the army amounted to nearly 900,000. The navy consists of 32 sail of the line and 18 frigates, besides many smaller vessels; and is stationed on the Baltic, the Black Sea, and the Caspian.

Government.—The government is an absolute, hereditary monarchy; the emperor framing all the laws, and being restrained only by the usages of the country, which it would often be dangerous to infringe.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Russia are in a very backward state, but are improving. The principal are those of leather, soap, spirituous liquors, sail-cloth, and cordage.

* At Petersburg, during the greatest cold of winter, the thermometer stands, in different years, from 40° to 60° below the freezing point; the greatest degree of heat in summer varies between 78° and 95°; and the mean of the whole year is about 49°. In the northern half of the Russian dominions, there may be said to be only two seasons, summer and winter, without any of the pleasing mildness of spring or autumn; the termination of the heat of summer being immediately followed by the frost and snow of winter; while these again are as suddenly melted by the returning heat of the sun in April or May; and, after deluging the country with floods, are quickly followed by summer heat, and rapid vegetation.

† Of this great population, the East Sea Province is supposed to contain 3,860,000; Great Russia, 21,330,000; Little Russia, 6,120,000; South or New Russia, 2,550,000; West Russia, 8,480,000; the Kingdom of Poland, 2,730,000; and the Kingdom of Kazan, 5,780,000; also the Kingdom of Astracan, 2,680,000; and the Kingdom of Siberia, 1,960,000. In this estimate, however, there is much uncertainty.

Commerce.—The foreign commerce is considerable, consisting principally in the exporting of corn, hemp, flax, tallow, flax-seed, iron, furs, and timber; and in the importing of cotton and woollen goods, raw silk, cotton wool, tea, sugar, coffee, fruit, and wine.

State of Education.—The education of the people is greatly neglected; and the country contains very few men of learning.*

Religion.—The religion of the state, and of the great mass of the people, is that of the Greek church. There are, however, particularly in the late additions to the empire, considerable numbers of Roman Catholics, Protestants, Mohammedans, and other denominations; and all enjoy equal civil rights.†

* Peter the Great, and his successors, have shown the most laudable desire to civilize and educate their subjects; and have established various schools, and other seminaries, for this purpose. Catherine II. appointed and paid a committee of literary men to enrich the Russian language, and to render knowledge more accessible to her people, by making Russian translations of several of the best classical, English, French, and Italian works on various subjects. In Petersburg, there is a seminary, supported by government, which affords instruction to 540 young men, of high rank, in the elementary branches of education; in the French, English, Dutch, Latin, and Tartar languages; and in fortification, history, drawing, music, &c. It also affords a similar education to 60 young men of humbler origin, who are afterwards to be tutors. There is a similar seminary for instructing 250 young ladies, belonging to noble families, in reading, writing, arithmetic, needlework, history, geography, music, drawing, and modern languages. It also affords education to 240 daughters of commoners, who, instead of history, geography, music, drawing, and languages, are instructed in cookery, washing, and other branches of domestic management. All the exertions of the Russian sovereigns have failed, however, in making much impression on the great mass of the people, who are still, for the most part, extremely ignorant. The parish clergy also are very imperfectly educated; and many of them are said to repeat the service of their church by rote, being unable to read it. Any little learning that belongs to the ecclesiastics, is to be found among the monks.

† The members of the Greek church are supposed to be about 40,000,000; the Roman Catholics, 6,000,000; Lutherans, 2,400,000; Mohammedans, 3,000,000; Jews, 500,000, &c. Belonging to the Greek church, there are about 70,000 places of worship, with about 160,000 clergy. There are also 480 monasteries, containing 7300 monks; and 156 nunneries containing 3000 nuns. The monks do not marry; and out of them, as they are more learned, the dignitaries of the church are chosen. The men are not permitted to become monks till they are thirty, nor the women nuns under fifty. The worship in the Russian churches consists principally in long masses, prayers, and singing in the Slavonian language, which is not understood by

Character, &c.—Notwithstanding all the exertions of the Russian sovereigns, the great mass of the people are but half civilized. They are superstitious, and are in general very fond of spirituous liquors.*

the people. Sermons are scarcely ever preached; but sometimes a lecture is given from some of the fathers. The church is governed by a patriarch, four metropolitans, eleven archbishops, and nineteen bishops. It has been the policy of the Russian sovereigns, for more than a century, to diminish the wealth, and reduce the power of the clergy, which were formerly very great.

* Before the time of Peter the Great, the Russians were almost savages. This distinguished prince endeavoured to introduce among them, the dress and manners of the more polished nations of Europe. In this attempt, he was successful among the higher ranks; but the lower orders, both males and females, still wear long coats made of sheep-skin, with the wool turned toward their bodies. Their houses are in general rudely constructed of planks, fastened at their extremities, the crevices between them being filled with moss, and the roofs covered with shingles. When a person wants a house therefore, he may purchase it in the market, convey it home, and have it erected and fit for use, in a day or two. In the houses of the peasantry, there is generally a brick stove or oven, which occupies about a fourth part of the house. This is flat at top; and on the boards with which it is covered, and on a kind of shelves round the walls, the family sleep without beds. As there is no outlet for the smoke, except the doors and windows, the houses are constantly almost full of it, and the walls are incrustated with soot. When a Russian pays a visit, he first makes the sign of the cross on entering the house, and bows to the picture of some saint, which is so placed as immediately to meet his view; and he is then welcomed by the family. During their long fasts, which occupy nearly two thirds of the year, the only animal food that is allowed to them is fish; the use of flesh, milk, butter, and eggs, being strictly forbidden. In Russia, polygamy is prohibited under pain of death. A widower or widow is permitted to marry again, but it is considered to be rather improper; a third marriage, unless in very peculiar circumstances, is reckoned highly culpable; and a fourth is punishable with death. When a person dies, new shoes are put on the feet of the corpse, and it is put in a coffin made of the hollowed trunk of a tree. The richer sort, if the season permit, keep the body eight or ten days, during which time the priest comes every day to sprinkle it with holy water and incense. At the time of interment, the body is encompassed with priests singing psalms, throwing incense on it to remove evil spirits, and praying for the soul of the deceased. Immediately before the coffin is put into the grave, a slip of paper, signed by the bishop and confessor, is put into the hand of the corpse, recommending the deceased to St. Peter, that he may get a ready admittance into paradise. Prayers are also offered up for the dead, for a considerable time after their decease.

Historical Sketch.—In early times, European Russia was divided into many independent states. The greater number of these were united, in the year 862, under Ruric, who may be regarded as the first emperor of Russia. Volodomir, who ascended the throne in 976, embraced the doctrines of the Greek church, and introduced them among his subjects, who had been previously pagans. This change is said to have taken place, for the purpose of removing an obstacle to his marriage with a daughter of the Greek emperor, Basilius Porphyrogenitus. After this period, the country was long distracted with internal and external wars; and, though frequently successful, and often acquiring new territories, it was sometimes reduced to a state of vassalage to Poland, and sometimes obliged to submit to the yoke of the Tartars. The independence of the empire, however, was completely re-established by Ivan Basilovitch, who died in 1505. About this time, the Russians began to make conquests in Siberia, which, however, was not finally reduced for more than a century. Alexis, who began to reign in 1646, found the nobles possessed of great and dangerous privileges. Taking advantage of their mutual dissensions, he directed them to assemble on a certain day at Moscow, and to lodge all the charters on which their respective claims were founded, in a large wooden building erected for the purpose, that he might consider and settle the differences between them. Instead of doing this, however, he set fire to the building, and thus reduced the nobles to the necessity of accepting such privileges as he chose to grant. Peter I. deservedly called Peter the Great, became emperor in 1682. To this prince, Russia owes the commencement of its present greatness. He introduced discipline into the army, and encouraged arts and manufactures among his subjects.* The example which he set, has been

* This great prince had been brought up in the grossest ignorance; but, on arriving at maturity, he became sensible of his deficiency; and applied himself, with great diligence and success, to literary and scientific pursuits, particularly the study of modern languages, and those branches of mathematics that are useful in navigation and war. In 1697, he sent a hundred young Russians, part into Italy and part into Holland, to learn the art of ship-building; as, at his accession, every ship in the empire was of foreign construction. He sent others into Germany, to serve in the land forces of that empire, and thus to learn the most approved system of military tactics and discipline then in use. He also travelled into England, Holland, and other places, observing and learning whatever he conceived to be useful; and labouring himself, with activity and energy, in ship-yards, rope-yards, saw-mills, paper-mills, wire-manufactories, and other similar establishments. Having thus extended his knowledge, he took with him a great number of artificers, and returned to Russia, where he estab-

since followed by his successors, and the empire has thus gradually risen to its present commanding rank among the nations of the world. Catherine II. in particular, who reigned from 1762 till 1796, contributed greatly to the aggrandizement of Russia, both by salutary internal regulations, and by the success of her arms against the surrounding countries. In her war against the Turks, she shook their empire to its foundation, and increased her dominions by large portions of their territories. She also took the most active part in the dismemberment of Poland,* and was rewarded by the largest share of that unfortunate country.

lished manufactures, extended and encouraged commerce, and patronised the arts and sciences. In 1711, he married Catharine, a female of great beauty and talents, who was born of obscure parents in Livonia, and was married to a dragoon. She was made prisoner on the wedding-day however; and having been seen by Peter, she so captivated him, and so pleased him by her talents, that, ten years after, he made her his wife. By her masculine spirit and sound judgment, she served him essentially in the formation and execution of his great plans; and in 1712, when he was surrounded by the Turks on the banks of the Prut, she saved him from ruin by a bribe opportunely offered to the grand vizier. From these various causes, he made Catharine his successor at his decease in 1725, and she possessed the throne till her death in 1727.

* As the greater part of Poland now belongs to Russia, it may be proper here to give a few particulars respecting that country, though it has now ceased to have a separate political existence.

Poland was of large extent, being bounded on the north by Prussia and the Baltic, on the south by Hungary and Turkey, on the west by Germany and Silesia, and on the east by Russia. It thus extended from the Dnieper to Silesia, and from the Dniester and the Carpathian mountains to Livonia. Its content was nearly 300,000 square miles, and it is supposed to have contained a population of fifteen millions. The country is remarkably flat; and, in the time of rain, the rivers overflow it to a great extent. In consequence of this and of the want of draining, much of it is marshy; and, from the same causes, as well as from the extensive forests, the climate is very moist. The soil is in general uncommonly fertile; but agriculture is badly understood and practised; though, in this respect, there is of late much improvement. Poland held formerly a high rank among the powers of Europe, and had several distinguished monarchs, particularly John Sobieski, who died in 1696. The constitution, however, was extremely bad; the nobles having contrived to engross almost the whole power from the king and people. The laws, which were in themselves very imperfect, and often unjust, were administered in the most corrupt manner. The kings also were elective; and, on this account, intrigues, tumults, and frequently civil wars, were produced over the country, which was thus distracted and weakened at home, and

SWEDEN.

Boundaries.—Sweden, including the part of Lapland that lies north of it, is bounded on the east by the Baltic, the Gulf of Bothnia, and Russian Lapland; on the west, by Norway and the Cattegat; on the

rendered an easy prey to external foes. In 1772, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, taking advantage of a civil war which they secretly fomented, seized, on very slight pretences, and in the most unjust manner, about one fourth of the kingdom, which they divided among themselves. The king, Stanislaus, then began vigorously to improve the remaining part of his kingdom, in various respects. After several fruitless attempts also, a new constitution, of an excellent kind, was framed in 1791, and met the entire approbation of almost all the people. On the application of a few discontented nobles however, Catharine II. of Russia marched forces into the country; and, after the bravest resistance on the part of the Poles, under the celebrated Kosciusko, she finally succeeded, with the assistance of Prussia, in conquering the kingdom, and dethroning Stanislaus. Austria now applied for a share of the spoils; and Russia and Prussia, rather than abide the consequence of a refusal, admitted the claim. The country was then finally dismembered: and, by this partition and the former, Prussia acquired nearly one fifth of the entire country, and about three millions and a half of subjects; Austria, rather more than one fifth, and nearly five millions of subjects; and Russia, nearly three fifths, with a population of nearly seven millions. Austria and Prussia were subsequently deprived of part of their acquisitions by Bonaparte; and out of what they then lost, has been formed what is now called *The Kingdom of Poland*, which is to belong to Russia. This territory is almost a square, 200 miles in each direction, and contains a population of nearly three millions. Its capital is Warsaw, which stands nearly in the centre, and has a population of about 100,000. A constitution, resembling that of 1791, was given to this kingdom by the late emperor Alexander; and the people are now living in tranquillity, and are likely to enjoy prosperity. The established religion is the Roman Catholic; but there is full toleration for all others. The town of Cracow, which at a remote period was the capital of Poland, is now, with a small adjacent territory, an independent city, under the name of *The Bishopric of Cracow*. At this city are the celebrated salt-mines of Wielitska, the greatest in Europe. The entrance to them is a few miles from Cracow; but they extend beneath the city, and the roofs of the vast vaults are supported in some places by timber, and in others by great pillars of the salt itself. They afford constant employment to 700 miners, and have long formed a productive source of revenue to Poland.

by the Baltic; and on the north, by the Frozen Sea.*

Divisions.—Sweden may be divided into three great provinces; South Sweden, Middle Sweden, and North Sweden. These, with their subdivisions, called *laens*, and their chief towns, are as follows:

SOUTH SWEDEN.

LAENS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Östergötland	Gottenburg or Gotheborg
Småland	Menersborg
Västergötland	Mariestadt, Skara
Östergötland	Linköping
Östergötland	Kalmar
Småland	Jonköping
Östergötland	Merioe
Blekinge	Carlskrona
Gottland Island	Wisby
Östergötland	Halmstad
Östergötland	Christianstad
Östergötland	Malmö, Lund or Lunden

MIDDLE SWEDEN.

Östergötland	STOCKHOLM
Östergötland	Upsal or Upsala
Östergötland	Wasteras
Östergötland	Nyköping
Östergötland	Örebro
Östergötland	Carlstad

NORTH SWEDEN.

Östergötland	Storakopparberg, or Falun
Östergötland	Gefleborg or Gefle
Östergötland	Ostersund
Östergötland	Hernosand
Östergötland	Umea
Östergötland	Tornea, Vardehuus

A part of Lapland which is west of the rivers Tornea and Tana, belongs to Sweden. The length of Sweden, including this district, is about 1000 miles, its medium breadth nearly 200,

Islands.—The principal islands are Gothland or Gottland, already mentioned, and Oland.

Seaports.—Gottenburg, Helsingborg, Carlskrona, Kalmar, Norkoping, Stockholm, Gefle, Soderhamn, Hernosand, Umea, &c.

Mountains, &c.—The principal mountains are the great Norwegian chain to the west, some of the summits of which are 6000 or 8000 feet high. The surface of the country has a gradual ascent towards these mountains, and is full of inequalities. Above two thirds of it is covered with immense forests, which produce vast quantities of excellent timber.

Lakes.—The principal lakes are Wenern, Wetteren, and Melern; but, besides these, there are a great many others.

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the Gotha, which flows from Lake Wenern, and passes Gottenburg; the Dahl, which flows through Dalecarlia; and the Umea, which passes the town of the same name. The rivers, however, have short courses, and are therefore small when compared with many of the other rivers of Europe.

Towns.—The chief cities and towns are Stockholm, Gottenburg, and Carlskrona.*

Climate.—The climate, in the south, resembles that of Scotland. In the north, it is considerably colder. Over all the country, the heat of summer, and the cold of winter, are much increased by the great inequality of the days and nights.†

Soil and Produce.—The soil of Sweden is in general bad, and produces too little grain for the inhabitants. Potatoes have

and its surface about 170,000 square miles. Its extreme latitudes are $55\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ and 71° north; and its extreme longitudes, 11° and 31° east. Almost the entire boundary between it and Norway is formed by mountains.

* The population of Stockholm is about 70,000; of Gottenburg, 18,000 or 20,000; and of Carlskrona, about 11,000. None of the other towns has a population of 10,000. Stockholm has several fine buildings, and an excellent secure harbour, capable of containing a thousand vessels.

† Notwithstanding the high latitude of Sweden, the heat in summer is often greater than in the south of England. The cold in winter, however, is often very severe.

lately been introduced, and seem likely to be of great advantage to the country.*

Minerals.—The mines of Sweden are numerous and valuable; producing large quantities of iron, copper, and other minerals.†

Population, Army, and Navy.—The population is about two millions and a half, and the army about 30,000. The navy is now very small; consisting of only six sail of the line, and eight or nine frigates.

Government.—The government is a limited, hereditary monarchy.‡

Manufactures and Commerce.—Sweden has no manufactures, except of articles for home consumption. Its principal exports are timber, pitch, tar, and minerals.

Literature, &c.—The universities are those of Upsal and Lund. There are also many endowed classical schools; and there are parish schools over all the country, in which the Lancasterian system has lately been introduced.||

* Scarcely one twentieth of the country is fit for cultivation, and only about the half of this is cultivated. The produce is in general small, being only about five times the seed sown, even in good years; and it is calculated that the crop fails about once in ten years. The cattle are generally small; but they constitute a great part of the wealth of the inhabitants.

† The annual produce of the mines is about 100,000 tons of iron, 1200 tons of copper, and 1000 lbs. of silver; besides lead, alum, saltpetre, coal, and some gold. The chief copper mines are in Dalecarlia, or Dalarne, as it is also called. That of Falun is said to have been wrought upwards of a thousand years. The depth of this mine to the water in the bottom of it, is 1740 feet. The mines of Dannemora, thirty miles north of Upsal, have been long celebrated for producing large quantities of the best iron. This iron is highly prized in England, and is used in the manufacture of the finest steel. Besides these, there are other iron mines of great extent in Carlstadt and Orebro; and in Smaland, there is a mountain called Taberg, which is 400 feet high, and three miles in circumference, and is one entire mass of rich iron ore. Lapland also abounds in the same mineral; and near Tornea, there is another mountain of iron ore still larger than Taberg.

‡ The legislature consists of four *states* or bodies: viz. 1100 nobles; from 50 to 80 clergy; from 100 to 200 burgesses; and 100 peasants. These deliberate separately; and any proposition agreed to by three of them, becomes a law, on receiving the royal assent. The crown is hereditary in the male descendants of the present king; but, in case of a failure in the male line, the king is to nominate a successor, subject to the approval of the legislature.

|| The university of Upsal has of late been attended by 1200 students annually, and that of Lund or Lunden by half the number. Abo in Finland has a university, which, while that country belonged

Religion.—The established religion is Lutheranism; but all sects are tolerated.*

Character, &c.—The Swedes are in general peaceable, orderly, and industrious. They are tall and robust; and the peasantry are comfortably clad in cloth of their own weaving. The houses are in general formed of wood, the crevices of which are filled with pitch; and they are heated by means of stoves, in which wood is used for fuel.

Historical Sketch.—At an early period, Sweden was engaged in almost perpetual wars with Denmark, with various success. In 1397, Margaret of Denmark, a woman of uncommon talent and spirit, was acknowledged queen not only of Denmark, but also of Sweden and Norway. After her death, incessant commotions took place; and Sweden was sometimes independent, and sometimes in subjection. In 1520, Christian II. of Denmark, having possessed himself of Sweden, massacred most of the nobility, to render himself absolute, and then oppressed the country. Gustavus Vasa, after encountering great dangers and difficulties, succeeded, the same year, in expelling the Danes, at first by the assistance of the miners of Dalecarlia, and afterwards of the country at large; and he was made king by the unanimous voice of the nation. In his reign, the Reformation was introduced in Sweden, and the exercise of the Roman Catholic religion strictly prohibited in 1544. Gustavus Adolphus, the most renowned of the Swedish monarchs, and the most distinguished prince of his time, ascended the throne in 1611. He soon acquired so high a character, that he was placed by the Protestant princes at the head of their confederation against Austria. In all his proceedings, his arms were attended with the most brilliant success; but he was at length killed in 1632, at the battle of Lutzen in Saxony, in the moment of victory. The celebrated Charles XII. ascended the throne in 1697. After the most splendid successes against Peter the Great, he was at length totally defeated at Pultava, in 1709, by the forces of Peter; and nine years after, he was killed at the siege of Fredericshal in Norway, according to some accounts by a cannon shot from the enemy, but according to others by a shot fired by one of his own followers. In 1771, Gustavus III. became king. In 1772, he rendered himself absolute; and in 1792, he was shot at a masquerade by an assassin, named An-

to Sweden, had about as many students as Lund. Sweden has produced many learned men, particularly naturalists and chemists. The most distinguished are Linnæus and Bergman.

* The chief dignitary of the church is the archbishop of Upsal, who is the only archbishop; and there are twelve bishops, and between 2000 and 4000 clergy of different orders.

kerstrom. In 1809, the Russians conquered Finland, one of the most fertile and valuable parts of the Swedish dominions; and a revolution having taken place, in consequence of the ill-concerted and unfortunate measures of the king, Gustavus IV. he was deposed, and his family for ever excluded from the throne. His uncle was made king, under the title of Charles XIII.; and he having no issue, Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's generals, was appointed to succeed him. In 1814, Norway was ceded by Denmark to Sweden; and, on the death of Charles in 1818, he was succeeded by Bernadotte, under the title of Charles XIV. who is the present sovereign, and who seems likely to improve the country, and to secure the crown in his family.

NORWAY.

Situation.—Norway, which now belongs to Sweden, is a long narrow country, between Sweden and the Atlantic Ocean.*

Divisions.—Norway is divided into the following provinces or governments, called *stifts*:

STIFTS.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Aggerhuus or Christiania	Christiania.
Christiansand or Stavenger.....	Christiansand, Stavenger
Bergen	Bergen
Tronyem or Drontheim	Tronyem or Drontheim
Nordland or Norwegian Lapland, Alstahoug	

Islands.—There are great numbers of islands along the west and north-west coast, of which the chief are the Loffoden Isles.† The North Cape also is in the island of Mageroe.

* The length of Norway, and Norwegian or Danish Lapland, from the Naze, or Cape Lindesnæs, to the North Cape, is nearly 1000 miles; and the breadth is in some places more than 200 miles, and in others less than 50. The superficial content is supposed to be about 120,000 square miles. The extreme latitudes are 58° and 71° north; and Norway Proper lies between 5° and 16° east longitude.

† Near the south-western extremity of these, is the remarkable and dangerous whirlpool of Malstrom or Moskoestrom. This is produced by strong currents, which flow first in one direction, and then in the

Seaports.—The principal ports are Christiania, Fredericshal, Christiansand, Bergen, and Tronyem.

Face of the Country.—The country is very mountainous, particularly on the side next Sweden; and the coasts are in general bold and rocky. There are many fine valleys, however; and the scenery is, in many instances, remarkably picturesque and beautiful. Much the greater part of the country is covered with timber.

Lakes, &c.—There are many lakes; and the coast is greatly indented with *fiords*, or inlets of the sea.

Towns.—The chief towns are Bergen, Christiania, Tronyem, and Christiansand.*

Climate.—The climate resembles that of Sweden; but neither the heat of summer, nor the cold of winter, is so great.

Soil, Produce, &c.—Very little of the country is fit for cultivation; but there are some tracts of great fertility. Besides cattle, iron, copper, and other minerals, the country supplies immense quantities of excellent timber, which, with pitch, tar, &c. forms the principal article of commerce.†

opposite, during alternate periods of six hours, and which become stationary at high and low water. In winter, during storms from the west, the most frightful waves are raised, and the noise of the agitation is heard at an immense distance. At these times, it is necessary for vessels to keep at the distance of several miles, lest they should be drawn into the vortex; and frequently whales, bears, and other animals, which approach too near, are drawn in, and destroyed by the irresistible force of the current. At other times, however, the stream is generally navigable; and the common accounts of its terrors seem to be considerably exaggerated.

* The first of these has a population of about 18,000; the second, 10,000; the third, 9000; and the fourth, 5000. The third is commonly, but improperly called Drontheim.

† In Norway, as well as in various other places in high latitudes, vegetation is extremely rapid, on the return of summer. Thus, in several districts, barley is reaped in six or seven weeks after the seed has been sown; and, even to the north of Tronyem, two crops are sometimes produced in the same summer. This is probably occasioned by the ground being acted on by the sudden return of the heat, after having been protected from the cold by the deep covering of the snow during winter, and after it has been thoroughly moistened by the thaw. This opinion seems to be corroborated by the circumstance, that in districts near the sea, where little snow lies during the winter, vegetation is much less rapid; and in other districts, a deficiency in the usual quantity of snow in winter, is followed by bad crops in

Population.—The population of Norway is very small, compared with the extent of the country, being only about a million.

Government.—The government is a limited monarchy; and the king of Sweden appoints a viceroy, who resides in the royal palace in Christiania.*

State of Education.—There is a university at Bergen; and the people have pretty generally the means of acquiring useful instruction.

Religion.—The established religion is Lutheranism; but all sects are tolerated.†

Character, &c.—The Norwegians have long enjoyed civil liberty. Hence their habits and characters are much superior to those of the people in the neighbouring countries.

Historical Sketch.—In 875, the petty principalities of Norway were united into one monarchy, under Harold Harfager; and in 1028, the country was subjected to Denmark, by Canute the Great. The authority of Denmark, however, was not finally established till 1380, when Hager, king of Norway, married Margaret of Denmark. Since that time, the two countries, governed by their respective laws, continued under the same sovereign, till the peace of 1814, when Norway was ceded to Sweden.

DENMARK.

Boundaries.—The principal part of the Danish dominions is bounded on the west by the German Sea; on the north, by the Scager Rack; on the south, by the Elbe; and on the east, by the Cattegat, the Sound, the Baltic, and Mecklenburg.‡

summer, and is considered a misfortune. In some places, too little grain is produced for the inhabitants. In such cases, here, as well as in Sweden and Lapland, fish, or the inner bark of the fir, is reduced to powder; and, being mixed with meal, forms a part of the food of the common people. In seasons of scarcity, also, they eat parts of the rein-deer moss.

* The laws are made by two bodies, called the *storting* or *states*, the members of which are elected by persons appointed by the people at large. These members, as well as all persons holding any office in the government, must be natives of Norway, and members of the Lutheran church.

† There are in Norway and Norwegian Lapland, five bishops, and above 300 inferior clergy.

‡ These territories lie between the parallels of $53^{\circ} 25'$ and $57^{\circ} 45'$ north, and between 8° and $12\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ east longitude. The superficial content is supposed to be 20,000 square miles.

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS
I. Jutland:	
1. Aalborg	Aalborg
2. Viborg	Viborg
3. Aarhus	Aarhus
4. Ripen	Ripen
II. Sleswick	Flensburg, Sleswick, Gottorp
III. Holstein	Altona, Gluckstadt, Kiel
IV. Lauenburg	Lauenburg
V. The Islands:	
1. Zealand	COPENHAGEN, Roskild, Elsineur
2. Funen or Fionen ..	Odensee, Nyborg

Other Islands.—Laaland, Falster, Moen or Mona, Langeland, Femeren, Bornholm, Anholt, and several smaller about the entrance of the Baltic. There are also many small islands near the west coast of Jutland; and Iceland, the Faroe Isles, and Greenland, belong to Denmark.*

* Iceland is a large island, situated between the sixty-third and sixty-seventh parallels of north latitude. So thinly is it peopled, however, that it has scarcely 50,000 inhabitants. The principal place is Reikiavik, the seat of government. Besides its volcanoes (mentioned in page 12) it is remarkable for its hot springs, which are perhaps the most wonderful in the world. These are found in different parts of the island; but the Geysers, which are the most remarkable, are situated about 16 miles north of Skalholt. The greater of them has a basin formed of matter deposited by the boiling fluid. This basin is 56 feet in length, and 46 in breadth; and in the centre of it, there is a pipe or pit 10 feet in diameter. Through this, the hot water rises; and, after filling the basin, it runs over the sides. Dreadful explosions constantly take place, at intervals of some hours. On these occasions, loud reports are heard under the ground, which is felt to tremble beneath the feet. Water then issues from the pit, throwing what is previously in the basin into agitation, and causing it to overflow. Other reports and explosions follow, steam escapes in volumes, and large jets of water are driven out with such force as to ascend to heights varying between 30 and 90 feet. The imprisoned steam having thus escaped, the explosions cease, and the basin and pit are both found empty. More water begins to collect, however; and they are both full, before the commencement of the next explosion. At Tunguhver, in the valley of Reikholt, there are many boiling springs, two of which are very remarkable. These are about a foot asunder; and from one of them a jet issues, for about four minutes, to the height of ten feet,

Straits, &c.—The principal straits are those of the Sound, and the Great and Little Belts. The Gulf of Lymfiord, in the north of Jutland, extends from the

while the water in the other is boiling furiously. After this jet ceases, a larger one issues from the other spring, to the height of three or four feet, and continues about three minutes, while the first spring boils in its turn; and thus they continue to pour forth their columns alternately, by some internal works which it is difficult to explain.

The inhabitants of Iceland are simple in their manners, correct in their conduct, and have much literary and general knowledge; and the country has produced many men of talents and learning.

The Faroe or Ferroe Islands lie about 200 miles north-west of the Shetland Isles. The group consists of about twenty islands, and has a population a little above 5000. There are now no schools; but the children are taught to read by their parents. The islands are mountainous, and are remarkable for the extreme rudeness and boldness of their scenery. The men are uncommonly expert and dexterous in climbing rocks, to catch birds for food. The religion is Lutheranism; and the people are of good moral habits, and amiable dispositions.

Greenland is a large country; extending, so far as it has yet been traced, from $59\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ to 78° of north latitude. A century ago, the population was 20,000; but, by the prevalence of the small-pox and other diseases, it has been reduced to about 7000. The surface of the country is rude and mountainous; and the climate is most inhospitable, the bleak summer lasting only from May till August. During this period, the natives dwell in tents on the sea-side; but, at the approach of winter, the women either repair old huts, or erect new ones. The walls of these are composed of stones, with turf or sod, instead of mortar. The roof, which is flat, and about six feet high, is formed of timber, brought by the waves from some distant shores, and is covered over with shrubs and earth. There is usually a subterranean entrance, 12 or 15 feet long, 2 high, and 2 wide. The house consists of only one room, from 12 to 18 feet long, and from 10 to 12 wide. On one side, there is a kind of stage, a foot and a half high, which extends the whole length of the house; and is used as bench, table, chair, and bedstead. In their habits, the people are dirty in the extreme; and, as the winter advances, their huts become intolerable to any except Greenlanders, from the putrid remains of the animals on which they feed, and from filth of every kind, which they never remove till it becomes troublesome from its bulk. In their persons, cookery, and choice of food, they are equally disgusting. The Danes carry to the country, guns, powder and shot, arrow heads, knives, files, axes, needles, nails, linen, hosiery, cottons, looking-glasses, tobacco, rye, barley, tea, coffee, beer, and various other articles; and receive in return the horns of the sea-unicorn, the skins of seals, of blue and white foxes, of white bears, white hares, rein-deer, and other animals, with feathers and eider down. This last is the

Cattegat, and reaches within a mile or two of the German Sea.*

exquisitely fine down of the breast of the eider duck, which it pulls out for lining to its nest. A pound sterling is paid for a pound weight of the best sort of this down. The horn of the sea-unicorn or narwhal, extends right forward from the point of its upper jaw, to the length of eight or ten feet, and far surpasses ivory in all its properties. The most remarkable animal of Greenland, however, is the common whale. Before the whale-fishery was carried to its present extent, animals of this species were both larger and more numerous than they are at present. Still, however, some are taken which are sixty or seventy feet long. Three hundred and fifty ships—Dutch, English, and Danish—have sometimes been employed in this fishery, and have caught from 1500 to 2000 whales in one summer. When a whale is seen, four or five boats, each with six or eight men, are sent from the vessel. When they are near enough, a person strikes the whale with a harpoon or barbed dart, to which a line of some hundred fathoms is attached. The whale then sinks to a vast depth, carrying the line with him so rapidly, that a person must constantly wet the side of the boat to prevent it from taking fire by the rubbing of the line. The whale soon rises to breathe, and spouts water, with great violence and noise, to the height of some fathoms, from apertures on the top of the head. He is then struck again, and dives in a similar manner; and, after rising a second or third time, he is pierced in the vital parts with spears, till blood, as well as water, is spouted up from the apertures in the head. After this, he is allowed to swim about for some leagues, till he dies from loss of blood and exhaustion. The blubber or fat is then cut out, and boiled to extract the oil; or, if there be not proper conveniencies for this, it is put into barrels, and conveyed home. Each whale generally yields from sixty to a hundred barrels of oil, worth three or four pounds a barrel. Of all the Greenland animals, however, none are so useful to the natives as the seals. Their flesh serves for food; their skins are used for clothing, and in the construction of their boats; their sinews serve for thread and cords; their entrails for sails for boats, and windows for their huts; and of the bones, they make utensils of various kinds.

In connexion with Greenland, may be mentioned the islands of Spitzbergen, which lie east of it; though they are claimed by the Russians. These islands have no fixed inhabitants; but they are visited by parties of Russians, who are attracted by the great number of sea and land animals found in them and on their coasts. They have the most bleak and forbidding appearance imaginable, presenting barren pointed rocks and mountains, several of which are of great height, and are covered with perpetual snow.

* The breadth of the Little Belt, at the narrowest part, is one mile; that of the Sound, four; and that of the Great Belt, ten or twelve. These straits, as well as various parts of the Baltic, are frozen over in severe winters. An occurrence of this kind was turned to great

Seaports.—The chief ports for trade are those of Copenhagen, Altona, Tønder, Flensborg, Aalborg, and Kiel.

Face of the Country, &c.—The country is in general flat, and there are no large rivers or lakes. The canal of Kiel extends from the river Eyder to the Baltic.*

Chief Towns.—Copenhagen and Altona.†

Climate, &c.—The climate is moist, and rather temperate; and the soil is in general fertile, producing good corn and pasture.‡ This country, particularly Holstein, produces great numbers of beautiful, spirited horses, and excellent breeds of horned cattle.

advantage by Charles X. of Sweden, in 1658. This prince was fighting in Poland; and war having been declared against him by Frederick III. of Denmark, he marched with great rapidity through Germany and Sleswick, and arrived at the shore of the Little Belt with an army of 20,000 men. After some hesitation, he ventured across the strait with his army, cannon, and baggage; and, having crossed Funen, he passed successively to the islands of Laaland, Langeland, Falster, and Zealand; thus avoiding that part of the Great Belt where the current and the width of the channel rendered the strength of the ice doubtful. By this means, he arrived at Copenhagen, and obliged the Danes to purchase a peace with the loss of several provinces.

* This canal cost about £ 800,000 sterling. It admits vessels of 120 tons, which are thus free from the delays and dangers that often attend the passage round Jutland; and no fewer than from two to three thousand pass through it annually. The whole length from Tønder, at the mouth of the Eyder, to the Baltic, is 105 miles, of which the canal occupies 22. It was commenced in 1777, and finished in seven years.

† The population of Copenhagen is 90,000 or 100,000; and that of Altona or Altena, 30,000. The other towns are small, the population of none of them exceeding 6000 or 7000. Copenhagen, or Kiøbenhavn, is the best built town in the north of Europe. Most of the houses are of brick, some of them of stone from Germany, and a few of the finest buildings are of Norwegian marble. The erection of wooden houses is prohibited. The harbour is excellent.

‡ There are some districts which are covered with loose sand, to a considerable extent. A ridge of this kind stretches northerly through Jutland, and produces only heath and some useless plants. These sands are often blown in clouds by the winds, and desolate the cultivated grounds in their vicinity. To prevent this, the government encourages the sowing of certain plants with spreading roots and broad leaves, to bind the sand, and break the force of the wind.

Population, &c.—The population of the Danish dominions is supposed to be nearly two millions. The army, in the time of peace, is about 30,000. The navy formerly consisted of more than 20 ships of the line, and about 15 frigates; but it was nearly annihilated during the late war.

Government.—Since 1660, the government has been, in principle, one of the most absolute in the world. In practice, however, it is tempered by various checks, and is far from being despotic.

Manufactures and Commerce.—Scarcely any articles are manufactured, except for home consumption. The commerce of the country is considerable, particularly with England, the Netherlands, France, and the shores of the Mediterranean.

Education.—There are universities in Copenhagen and Kiel. There are also nine seminaries for the education of schoolmasters, and about 3000 village schools.*

Religion.—The established religion is Lutheranism; but there is complete toleration for all other denominations.†

Character, &c.—The Danes are in general tall and robust; with good complexions; and hair of a flaxen, yellow, or red colour. The common people, having but lately become free, want, in general, the bold manly spirit of the Swedes and Norwegians, and are poor and dirty. Since their emancipation at the beginning of the present century, however, they are much improved.

Historical Sketch.—About the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries, the Danes were formidable by their piracies and invasions to several of the surrounding countries, particularly Scotland, Ireland, Germany, and England, the last of which countries was for some time entirely subject to their power. The Protestant religion was established in all the Danish dominions in 1536. In 1660, Frederick III. made Denmark an absolute and hereditary monarchy, instead of a limited and elective one. During the wars of Napoleon, Denmark suffered severely, on two occasions, from the power of Britain: first in 1801, when

* There is also a college, with four professors, in Odensee. The university of Copenhagen has about 700 students; and that of Keil, 200 or 300. Denmark has produced several men of eminence. Of these, it may be sufficient to mention Tycho Brahe, the celebrated astronomer; and Malte Brun, the eminent geographer. The latter died in 1826. Denmark and Norway have the same language. This, as well as the Swedish, is of Gothic origin; and both have a considerable affinity to the German and English.

† The bishops are those of Copenhagen, Funen, Aalborg, Aarhus, and Ripen. The bishops have annual incomes of different amounts, from £400 to £1000; but they have no political power.

most of her fleet was destroyed or captured at Copenhagen by Lord Nelson, and the city was saved only by the submission of the Danish government; and again, in 1807, when Copenhagen surrendered, after a destructive bombardment by the British fleet and army. On this occasion, the Danish fleet, consisting of sixteen ships of the line and fifteen frigates, with other vessels, and a vast quantity of naval stores, was brought to England, after which Copenhagen was evacuated by the British. At the peace of 1814, Denmark was obliged by the Allied Powers to yield up Norway to Sweden; and the island of Heligoland, at the mouth of the Elbe, to England; in consequence of having refused to join with them in the confederation against Bonaparte. In place of this valuable portion of her dominions, Denmark obtained a part of Pomerania, which has since been exchanged with Prussia for Lauenburg, and a pecuniary consideration.

LAPLAND.*

The boundaries of Lapland are not very accurately fixed. It may be regarded, however, as extending from the sixty-fourth degree of north latitude to the Frozen Ocean, and from the Atlantic to the White Sea. The country is divided, by the continuation of the Norwegian chain of mountains, into two parts, which are strikingly different. In that which extends round the Gulf of Bothnia, the heat in summer, and the cold in winter, are both very great; while, in the other part, the influence of the ocean moderates both. In the former, the heat in July is often as great as in France, and the inhabitants are tortured by musquitoes; while in winter, water is often frozen in the vessel, as the person is in the act of drinking it; and even spirits of wine are sometimes converted into ice. In this region, in consequence of the heat of summer, and of the ground being protected by snow in winter, vegetation is extremely rapid in the few fertile spots; corn being often sown in the end of May, and reaped before the beginning of August. About the North Cape, on the contrary, grain does not ripen; because the snow lies less permanently in winter, and the heat is less in summer, though the mean annual temperature is greater than in some of the higher parts of the other region.

* As Lapland, though of small political importance, presents a number of interesting peculiarities, it may be proper to give a few particulars respecting it, considered separately from Sweden and Russia, the countries to which it now belongs.

The inhabitants wear coats which are commonly made of sheepskin, with the wool turned towards the body; and above these, they have outer coats generally made of the skins of rein-deer, with the hairy side out. The fires are placed in the middle of their huts; and the floors are covered with the skins of rein-deer, on which the family sit or recline. A thicker covering of skins is used on the floor of that part of the hut in which they sleep, and they cover themselves with sheepskins to keep off the cold. They live, for the most part, on animal food, and on the milk of the rein-deer made into cheese, or in other states. When their stock of fish, or of the flesh of other animals, fails, they kill a rein-deer, which serves a family of four for a week. The entire population is thought to be about 60,000.

In the parts north of the arctic circle, the sun is constantly visible for a number of days about midsummer, and invisible for nearly an equal period about Christmas. Thus, at the seventieth degree of latitude, he never wholly disappears from the 17th of May till the 28th of July, nor is any part of him seen from the 25th of November till the 17th of January.* During the latter period, however, even at the middle of winter, there is considerable twilight for an hour or two before and after noon; and the moon, the aurora borealis, and the snow, prevent the nights from being dark. During the other period, the sun is seen on the meridian twice each day; once on the southern side, and once on the northern.

In winter, the Laplanders travel in sledges, drawn by rein-deer, on the frozen surface of the snow. These are made of birch; and are so small and light, that they may be easily carried in the arms. With a couple of rein-deer attached to one of these, a Laplander will travel fifty or sixty miles a day, occasionally at the rate of ten miles an hour. In guiding and balancing the vehicle, he shows great dexterity; and in going down hill, if the descent be steep, he ties another rein-deer by the horns to the rear of the sledge, which it pulls back so as to lessen the velocity.

To the Laplander, the rein-deer is invaluable. It constitutes, indeed, almost his entire wealth. Its milk and its flesh afford him excellent food, and its skin clothing. Of the tendons and intestines, he makes thread and cordage; of the horns, glue; and of the bones, spoons. In winter, it draws his sledges over

* The first of these intervals is 72 days, and the second only 53. The difference arises from refraction, which causes the sun to be visible when he is really below the horizon; from considering the position of the sun's upper limb, instead of that of his centre; and from the earth's motion in its orbit, being more rapid in winter than in summer. (For farther illustration, see Note, pages 3 and 4).

frozen lakes, rivers, or snow; and, at other times of the year, it carries his tents and baggage on its back. Of these useful creatures, a wealthy Laplander possesses 1000, or more; a person of the middle class, 500 or 600; and the poorer people, from 50 to 200: and they frequently kill great numbers of wild ones, particularly in autumn. In summer, the rein-deer feed principally on grass; and, in winter, on a peculiar kind of moss or lichen, which they are dexterous in discovering under the snow. They are above four feet high, and three of them are thought to be about equal in weight to a moderate-sized ox.

ASIA.

GENERAL VIEW.

Boundaries, &c.—Asia is the north-eastern part of the old continent, and is larger than Europe or Africa.* It is bounded on the north, by the Northern Ocean; on the east, by the Pacific, and by Bhering's Strait, which separates it from the north-western part of America; on the south, by the Indian Ocean; and on the west by the Arabian Gulf or Red Sea, the Isthmus of Suez, the Mediterranean Sea, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the Sea of Marmara, the Bosphorus, the Black Sea, the Strait of Ienikale, the Sea of Azov, and European Russia.

Seas, Straits, &c.—The other principal seas are the Sea of Okhotsk or Lama, the Sea of Japan, the Yellow Sea, and the Chinese Sea, on the east; and the Bay of Bengal and the Persian Gulf, in the south. Other straits are those of Bab-el-Mandeb and Ormus,

* Asia is situated between the second and seventy-eighth parallels of north latitude, and between 26° of east and 170° of west longitude. Its length, from the Strait of Bhering to that of Bab-el-Mandeb, is about 6700 miles; and its breadth, from the south-east of China to the Ural Mountains, about 3800 miles.

at the entrances of the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf; Palk's Strait, between Ceylon and India; and the Strait of Malacca, south-west of Malaya.

Divisions.—The principal divisions of Asia are Asiatic Russia, in the north; Asiatic Turkey, in the west; Arabia, in the south-west; Persia, Afghanistan, India, Chin-India, and Tibet, in the south; China, in the south-east; the Japan Islands,* on the east; and the various Tartar nations, in the middle.

Peninsulas, &c.—The chief peninsulas are Arabia, Malaya, Corea, and Kamtschatka.† The Isthmus of Suez unites Asia and Africa, and is about sixty miles broad.

Face of the Country, &c.—In the middle of Asia, there is a vast plateau, or elevated tract of country, which consists of mountains and very high plains.‡ The principal mountains are those of Tibet; and the Altay and other mountains, south of Siberia.

* Other islands near Asia, are Ceylon; the Maldives; the Laccadives; the Andaman and Nicobar Isles; the Indian or Eastern Archipelago, which contains Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Celebes, and several smaller; the Philippine Isles, Hainan, Formosa, and others. Several of these have been classed in the newly-established division of Oceania. There are also Bhering's Isle, and the Aleoutschki or Aleutian Islands, east of Kamtschatka.

† The countries east and west of the Bay of Bengal, are often called the Eastern and Western Peninsulas of India. This is improper, however, as there are large portions of their boundaries which are not formed by the sea. The country between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, is a peninsula. This, which is now a part of Asiatic Turkey, was called, in ancient times, Asia Minor.

‡ This tract, the most extensive table-land on the globe, lies between the parallels of 30° and 50°; and occupies the vast space between Siberia on the north, Hindostan and the Burman empire on the south, the Caspian Sea on the west, and China and Corea on the east. Its length probably exceeds 3000 miles; and its general breadth is 1200 or 1400 miles. From it, rivers flow in all directions; and the other countries of Asia slope from its boundaries, on every side. This tract has a remarkable influence on the climate of Asia. From its elevation, it is itself much colder than might be expected in such a latitude. It also interrupts, in a great degree, the atmospheric currents between the polar and the equatorial regions, which would otherwise tend to equalize the temperature; and thus, the heat of India, and the cold of Siberia, are both extremely great.

Lakes.—The most remarkable lakes are the Caspian Sea, the Sea of Aral, Lake Baikal, and the Dead Sea.*

Rivers.—Asia contains many great rivers, the principal of which are the Kian Ku or Yang-Tse-Kiang, and the Hoang Ho, which flow eastward through China; the Lena, Yenisseï or Ieniceï, and the Obi, which flow through Siberia into the Northern Ocean; the Amour or Segalien, which flows eastward into the Sea of Okotsk; the Ganges and the Brahmapootra, which unite and flow into the Bay of Bengal; the Irrawaddy, which falls into the same sea; the Cambodia, or Japanese river, which flows into the Sea of China; the Euphrates, which falls into the Persian Gulf; and the Indus, north-west of India.†

* The Caspian is more than 700 miles long, and contains 120,000 square miles; the Sea of Aral is nearly 300 miles long, and has a surface of above 10,000 square miles; and Lake Baikal is about 350 miles long, and 35 broad. The last is traversed by the river Angara, a branch of the Yenisseï, and is fresh. Neither of the others has any outlet, and they are both salt. The Caspian receives the Volga, the Jaik, the Kur, and many other rivers; the water of which, as well as the rain that falls on its own surface, is carried off by evaporation. By this means also, the level of the surface is so much reduced as to be nearly 200 feet below that of the ocean. Some suppose that this lake was once united with the Black Sea by a strait, which has been stopped up by changes in the surface of the country. It has also been supposed to have been united with the Lake of Aral; but there is an elevated level between them, which renders this unlikely. This lake produces vast quantities of valuable fish. The Dead Sea, or the Lake of Asphaltites, in Palestine, is remarkably clear and transparent; but its water is uncommonly salt and even bitter, so that fishes cannot live in it; and it is between a fourth and a fifth part heavier than pure fresh water. Many fabulous stories have been told about this lake: such as, that birds flying across it, will fall dead into its water, on account of the noxious vapour; and that, on its shores, beautiful apples are found, which consist internally of nothing but ashes. Great quantities of asphaltum, a kind of pitch or bitumen, are found floating on its surface; and hence it gets one of its names.

† These rivers are arranged according to the lengths of their courses, as given by Major Rennell, except the Amour, which he supposed to be greater than the Yenisseï or Obi. The length of the Indus is supposed to be 1000 miles, and that of the Kian Ku about 2300 miles.

ASIATIC RUSSIA.

Boundaries, &c.—This vast country, which is subject to the emperor of Russia, extends from the Ural Mountains to the Pacific, and from the Northern Ocean to Tartary.

Divisions.—This part of the Russian dominions is divided into the kingdoms of Astrakhan and Siberia, which are subdivided as follows:

KINGDOM OF ASTRAKHAN.

GOVERNMENTS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Saratov	Saratov
Astrakhan	Astrakhan
Caucasus*	Teflis, Georgievsk, Derbent, Baku
Orenburg	Orenburg, Ufa

KINGDOM OF SIBERIA.

Tobolsk	Tobolsk, Berezov
Tomsk	Tomsk, Kolyvan
Irkutzk †	Irkutzk, Okotzk, Nertschinsk, Yakutsk

* This government, which is so called from the mountains of the same name, consists principally of districts taken from Persia in 1813; and contains the provinces or governments of Grusia, Avkhiasa, Circassia, Daghestan, and Shirvan. Grusia is the same as Georgia; and is subdivided into Imerittia, Mingrelia, and Gruria. The divisions and boundaries of the Asiatic portion of the Russian dominions and its parts, are not well ascertained or fixed. Even the common limit of Europe and Asia is doubtful. According to the boundary here assumed, however (see page 8), Saratov is partly in Europe, and partly in Asia.

† The peninsula of Kamtschatka has belonged to Russia since 1711. At that time, the population was considerable; but it has since been reduced by the small-pox and other causes, particularly the use of spirituous liquors, which the Russians barter with the people for furs, so that it is supposed to be at present only 7000 or 8000. The cold in winter is severe, and the snow lies generally from October till April or May. In summer, however, the climate is mild and agreeable. The people travel on the snow in sledges, drawn by five or more large dogs; and such are the strength and swiftness of these animals, that they sometimes perform journeys of 60 or 70 miles a day.

Face of the Country.—In the east and south, there are many great mountains; but the country between the Yenisseï and the Uralian Mountains, is a vast plain, with scarcely an eminence. There are also many other steppes or plains of great extent, which are generally barren; and much of the country is covered with wood.

Rivers.—The Volga flows into the Caspian by seventy mouths, at Astrakhan. The Obi receives the Irtysh and Tobol, and flows into the Northern Ocean through the Gulf of Obi. The Yenisseï and Lena fall into the same sea.

Towns.—The principal towns are Astrakhan, Irkutsk, and Tobolsk, each of which contains about 30,000 inhabitants.

Climate and Soil.—The climate is, in general, cold and disagreeable; and the soil poor, not producing, on an average, much above three times the quantity of grain sown. There are some fertile tracts in the south and west, however, particularly about Kolyvan.

Minerals.—The mines of Siberia are very valuable; producing gold, silver, copper, lead, and vast quantities of iron, besides various other minerals.*

Inhabitants.—The inhabitants are generally rude and uncivilized. There are many wandering tribes; such as the Tartars, Monguls, and Tungusians: and the Samoïeds, and others who dwell in the northern parts, resemble the Laplanders in their habits and manner of living.

ASIATIC TURKEY.

Boundaries.—Turkey in Asia, which, with Turkey in Europe, is subject to the Grand Seignior, is bounded on the north by the Black Sea; on the east, by Persia;

* The principal gold and silver mines are those of Kolyvan in the south, and Nertschinsk in the province of Daouria. The iron and copper mines of the Uralian and Altaian mountains, however, are far more valuable. The Russian mines contribute in a considerable degree to the public revenue, many of them belonging to the crown.

on the south, by Arabia; and on the west, by the Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the Sea of Marmara, and the Bosphorus.*

DIVISIONS.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Anatolia or Natolia ..	Smyrna, Kara-Hissa, Kutaia, Kastamouni, Boorsa, Scutari, Satalia, Angora
Caramania	Akschier, Konia or Iconium, Kaisarieh
Itchill	Adana, Tarsus
Roum	Amasia, Tokat
Armenia	Erzeroom, Rizeh, Trebizond
Al-Djesira	Diarbekr, Mosul
Koordistan	Betlis
Syria	Damascus or Damas, Aleppo, Jerusalem, Antioch or Antakia, Tripoli, Acre
Irak Arabi	Bagdad, Basra or Bassora or Bus-sora

Seaports.—The chief ports for trade are Smyrna or Ismir, Scala Nova, Satalia, Tripoli, and Acre, on the Mediterranean; Trebizond and Sinope, on the Black Sea; and Bassora, an Arabian town near the Persian Gulf, nominally subject to Turkey.

Face of the Country, Soil, &c.—The surface of the country is composed of large plains and valleys, intermixed with numerous mountainous districts. Of the plains and valleys, many are naturally fertile and pleasant, in a remarkable degree; but agriculture is in the most wretched state.

Rivers.—Euphrates, Tigris, and Jordan.

Towns.—The largest towns are Aleppo, Damascus, Smyrna, Erzeroom, Bagdad, Kara-Hissa, Akschier,

* The content of this great country is supposed to be more than 400,000 square miles. By the Turks, it is divided into many pashalics, and these again into a great number of subordinate parts. These divisions, however, are seldom referred to in European works; and, from their number and minuteness, they would be unsuitable to a publication like the present.

Cutaia, Kastramouni, Boorsa or Bursa, Mosul, Antiochia, Jerusalem, &c.*

Climate.—The climate has always been considered excellent. At present, there are some unhealthy spots, from want of draining and proper cultivation.

Population.—The amount of the population is very uncertain; but it is supposed to be about ten millions.

Manufactures and Commerce.—The principal manufactures are those of carpets, silk and cotton goods, with Angora stuffs made of the hair of a particular kind of goats found in no other place. These, with rhubarb and other drugs, form the principal exports; and the imports are chiefly the manufactures and produce of England, and other countries of Europe.

Antiquities.—This country, formerly one of the principal seats of civilization and refinement, presents numerous remains of ancient art. Some of the most remarkable are the ruins of Palmyra and Balbec.†

* The population of the Turkish towns, is not well ascertained; and hence the statements of travellers are often extremely different. Thus, according to different writers, the population of Aleppo is of various amounts between 100,000 and 280,000; of Damascus, between 100,000 and 200,000; of Erzeroom, between 80,000 and 250,000; of Angora, between 20,000 and 100,000; and of Bassora, between 50,000 and 80,000. Smyrna is thought to have 120,000 inhabitants. Jerusalem, also, which is one of the smallest mentioned above, has a population of 30,000 or 40,000. This city, once so justly celebrated, now consists of little else than a collection of miserable dwellings, that serve to show the wretchedness of the inhabitants. Bagdad is said to have contained 500,000 inhabitants, before the plague with which it was visited in 1772; and to have lost 400,000 of its inhabitants by that dreadful scourge.

† Palmyra, supposed to be the same as Tadmor, built by Solomon (I Kings, ix.—II Chron. viii.), was situated in the Syrian desert, in 35° north latitude, and about 39° east longitude. It seems to have derived its wealth and greatness from having been the chief seat of the trade of India, and other parts of the east, with Syria, Asia Minor, and other places to the west. In the year 272, it was taken, and its celebrated queen Zenobia made prisoner by the Roman Emperor Aurelian. At this time, it had attained a high rank in literature and the arts; and the celebrated Longinus, one of the most elegant of the Greek writers, was secretary to the queen, and was put to death by the order of Aurelian. The city suffered severely, on this occasion; and, though the Romans afterwards attempted to restore it to its ancient splendour, it continued to languish, till it fell under the power of the Mohammedans, under whom its decay and desolation were completed. At present, it exhibits the most splendid remains of pure and beautiful Grecian architecture any where to be found.

Historical Sketch.—The various states which, in ancient times, occupied this extensive and interesting country, were gradually brought into subjection by the Romans, and afterwards formed a part of the Greek empire. Much of the country was subdued by the Saracens, at an early period after the establishment of Mohammedanism. It was afterwards gradually conquered by the Turks, at different times, between the eleventh and the seventeenth centuries; and, under their tyranny and misgovernment, it has sunk to its present state of degradation.

ARABIA.

Situation.—Arabia is situated between the Arabian and Persian Gulfs, and between the Indian Ocean and Asiatic Turkey.*

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Arabia Petraea	Akaba
Hedjaz	Mecca and Medina, with their ports Jedda and Yambo
Yemen	Sana
Hadramaut	Doan, Kesem
Omân	Muskat or Maskat
Lasha or Hajar	Lasha
Nedjed	Yemama, Kariatain

The remains of the great temple of the sun, in particular, exhibit hundreds of splendid columns of the nicest workmanship, with great elegance and correctness of design. The place is now occupied by about thirty Arab families, who have their wretched huts erected in the ruined court of the temple, among broken columns and mouldering ornaments; and, to complete the dreariness and desolation of the scene, it is encompassed with the sands of the desert, which seem to have been making encroachments around it since the days of its ancient splendour.—Balbec, or Heliopolis, is in Syria, in 34° of north latitude, and is delightfully situated. The present population amounts to one or two thousand, whose wretched huts form a striking contrast with the venerable and splendid remains of the ancient city. Of these remains, which are suffering gradual destruction from the Turks for sake of the iron cramps used in joining the stones, the principal are the ruins of a magnificent temple of the sun, supposed to have been built, in the second century, by the Roman emperor Antoninus Pius.

* It lies between $12\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ and 34° of north latitude, and between $32\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ and 59° of east longitude. Its length is about 1400 miles, and its breadth varies between 600 and 1200 miles.

Face of the Country.—There are several chains of mountains; but vast deserts form the most remarkable feature of the country.*

Climate.—In the low flat parts of the country, the heat is excessive; but in the higher districts, the climate is mild.†

Soil and Produce.—Much of the country is absolutely barren: but Yemen, and some other districts, are remarkably fertile; and produce coffee, grain, drugs, and perfumes.‡

Animals.—The horses, camels, and asses of Arabia, are the best in the world.||

* One of the most remarkable of these deserts is that of Mount Sinai, between the two branches into which the Red Sea is divided at its northern extremity. This is irrecoverably barren, with the exception of a few fertile valleys, which produce grapes, dates, pears, and other excellent fruits. Mount Sinai is an enormous mass of granite rocks, with the Greek convent of St. Catharine at the bottom. North-west of this is the vast Syrian desert; and, though the interior of Arabia is little known, except where it is traversed by the caravans, there is reason to believe, that a large proportion of it consists of deserts. Some of these are sandy, and others stony; but, in most of them, there are *oases*, or fertile tracts, which are fit for cultivation, and often contain forests.

† In some parts, the thermometer often stands in summer at 98°, and hail sometimes falls on the mountains. Over all the country the sky is clear, and scarcely a cloud is to be seen, except during the rainy season, which occurs at different times in the different provinces. The winds that blow over the desert, are dry; and often so hot, that travellers are in danger of suffocation, from their effects. The most dangerous is the famous *samoon* or *samiel*, a whirlwind which prevails about the confines of the great central desert. The approach of it is indicated by an unusual redness in the sky, and the smell of sulphur is felt as it passes. Instant suffocation, followed by immediate putrefaction of the body, are produced by its influence. To avoid these effects, men throw themselves flat on the ground, and the Arabs thrust their noses into the sand, till the pestilential vapour, which moves at some height, has passed.

‡ So much coffee is produced, that 5000 or 6000 tons are annually exported. Gum-arabic, myrrh, and frankincense, though procured from Arabia, are not produced there, but in Africa. The spices and perfumes of Arabia Felix, the south and south-east of the country, have been celebrated since the earliest times. The kind of grain called *durra* or *doura*, which is a sort of coarse millet, constitutes the chief article of food among the inhabitants. This grain is astonishingly productive, yielding in the well-cultivated districts of Yemen, an increase of one hundred and forty fold; and, in some places, even more than two to four hundred.

|| The finest of the Arabian horses are reared by the Bedouins, in the northern desert. They are kept in the same tents with their mas-

Population.—The amount of the population is quite uncertain; but it is thought to amount to ten or twelve millions.

State of Government.—The various parties of **Bedouins**, or wandering Arabs, are each under the direction of a chief, called a *Sheik*, who rules them as a father does his family; and there is one superior sheik in each tribe, who governs the inferior ones with like authority. In Yemen, and the more fertile districts, there are various monarchies of greater or less extent.

Religion.—The religion is Mohammedanism; and there are various sects which are strongly opposed to each other.*

ter, are treated with the same tenderness and familiarity as his children, and are trained to habits of gentleness and attachment. They are taught only to walk or to gallop; and when they feel the touch of the hand or the heel, they dart away like the wind. They are able to bear the greatest fatigue, and will pass whole days without food. If their rider be dismounted, they stop till he recovers his seat; or, if he fall in battle, they remain by his side, and neigh for assistance. They are neither large nor beautiful, and yet they sometimes bring from £100 to £300.—The camel is as valuable to the Arabian, as the rein-deer is to the Laplander. He can perform a journey of several days through parched sandy deserts, without either eating or drinking, and carries at the same time a burden of from 500 to 1000 pounds in weight. The milk of these animals is copious and nourishing; and their flesh, particularly when young, is palatable food. Their dung is used for fuel; and their hair, which is renewed every year, is manufactured by the women into garments and tents. The swiftest have only one bunch on their backs, and are called dromedaries. Some of these will travel more than a hundred miles a day, for several successive days. The camels are peculiarly useful in the trade which is carried on in the interior of Arabia, and which is the most valuable part of the commerce of the country. They carry on their backs both the merchant and his wares, for many hundreds of miles, through the burning deserts, in various routes; and have thus conveyed annually 200,000 people to Mecca, from Syria, Egypt, Yemen, and Lasha, to pay their homage to the Prophet in the temple, and to increase their property by the profits of trade. Besides the animals above mentioned, there are oxen, gazelles, monkeys, hyenas, jackalls, panthers, wild boars, and wolves. There are also countless swarms of locusts, which darken the air as they fly; and wherever they alight, they destroy every vegetable production that comes in their way. Gold is said to have been formerly found in Arabia, in vast quantities; but the various metals are now imported from other countries.

* One of the most remarkable of these sects is that of the Wahabees, established during the latter part of the last century, by Ald-el-Wahab, and his son Mohammed. The doctrines of this sect have been propagated extensively by the sword, in Arabia; and are professed over all the desert, between Syria and the Persian and Arabian Gulfs.

Character.—The Bedouins are robbers by profession; but, less they be resisted, they do not murder travellers, or injure their persons. They are hospitable and generous, but exceedingly vengeful. The inhabitants of the towns and cultivated tracts, have the good and bad properties of the Bedouins in less degree, and they are generally deceitful.*

Historical Sketch.—Little either authentic or important, is known of the history of Arabia, till the days of Mohammed. This extraordinary man, who was born in Mecca in the year 570, propagated a new system of religion, that seemed likely to overturn Christianity itself. Wonderful success, for some years, attended the exertions of the new sects; and they carried their victorious arms into the adjoining parts of Asia, and into Persia and Spain.† While Arabia thus gave a new religion to a portion of the world, however, it came to be comparatively neglected itself; its warriors preferring more favoured climes for the conquests of their empires. In later times, it was held in partial subjection by the Turks, during the sixteenth century; but, at the end of that time, it regained its independence. From that time, till the civil wars arising from the establishment of the sect of the Wahabees, little has occurred that has been of importance, except to the Arabians themselves.

Mecca and Medina have also fallen under the power of the Wahabees; the tombs of many of the early founders of Mohammedanism, which were worshipped by pilgrims, have been destroyed, and the progress of the pilgrims interrupted. Their religion is nearly a system of simplicity, with few external observances. It professes to reform the existing faith, admits the divine origin of the Koran, and that Mohammed was a prophet, but denies that he is to be addressed as an idol. It also relieves its votaries from the necessity of pilgrimages and frequent prayers; but it retains the important political dogma, that those who do not embrace it, are to be exterminated.

Their houses are in general wretched. Even in the principal cities, a great proportion of them are made of mud, and thatched with straw. They are also without windows, and for doors they have grass mats. The people eat very little animal food, and indulge in no pleasures.

In eating, they have neither knives, forks, spoons, nor plates, but use their hands, and all sup out of the same dish.

Mohammedans reckon events in history by the era of the flight of Mohammed, in the year 622, from Mecca to Medina, to escape from his enemies. As they use the lunar year, any year of the Hejira will be reduced to the corresponding one of the Christian era, by multiplying it by the decimal fraction $\frac{1}{692}$, and adding 22 to the product.

The conquerors, as they issued forth from the deserts of Arabia, were called *Saracens*, from the Arabic word which means a desert. For the same reason, the principal desert of Africa is called *Zahara*.

PERSIA.

Boundaries.—Persia is bounded on the west by Asiatic Turkey; on the south-west, by Arabia and the Persian Gulf; on the south, by the Indian Ocean; on the east, by Afghanistan; and on the north, by Tartary, the Caspian Sea, and Asiatic Russia.*

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Erivan, or Persian Armenia ..	Erivan
Adzerbidjan	Tabreez or Tauris, Maragha
Ghilan	Reshd
Mazanderan	Asterabad, Balfrush
Western Khorazan	Meshed
Irak-Adjemi	ISPAHAN,† TEHERAN, Yezd, Hamadan
Persian Koordistan	Senneh
Farsistan	Sheeraz
Kerman	Kerman or Sirdjan
Khusistan	Shuster
Laristan	Lar, Bender Abbas or Gom- beroon

* The precise limits of Persia are not well ascertained; but the principal part of it lies between 25° and 40° of north latitude, and between 45° and 60° of east longitude. The part described in this article, is sometimes called Western Persia, to distinguish it from Afghanistan or Eastern Persia. In addition to the provinces mentioned in the text, Mekkân yields a partial submission to Persia; but has, at the same time, a prince of its own.

† Ispahan became the seat of government in the sixteenth century; and retained that distinction till a few years ago, when Teheran was made the royal residence. Ispahan was formerly a large and fine city; containing, at the lowest computation, 600,000 inhabitants. It was taken and plundered, however, by the Afghans, in 1722; and, in consequence of this and other misfortunes, its population was reduced to about 100,000. It has since increased, and is now supposed to be double that number. Teheran, or Tehran, has 60,000 or 70,000 inhabitants, except when the king retires from it to escape the summer heats; and it is then reduced to about 10,000. Tabreez was, for several centuries, the residence of the Persian kings, and contained a population of half a million. It has suffered severely in war, however; having been taken and sacked eight times, by Turks, Tartars,

Face of the Country.—Persia is very mountainous, and lies high; except near the Caspian Sea, the Persian Gulf, and the Indian Ocean. Nearly a third of the country consists of salt or sandy deserts. One of the most remarkable mountains, is that of Ararat, in the north-west.*

Rivers.—Near the boundaries of Persia, are the Euphrates and Tigris or Hiddekel; also the Kur, and the Aras or Araxes, which unite, and flow eastward into the Caspian. The country, however, has few rivers, and the scarcity of water is greatly felt.

Climate.—Except in the mountainous districts, the heat in summer is very great, particularly in the low grounds near the Caspian Sea and the Indian Ocean. In the high central parts, the winters are very cold, and there are great storms of snow.

Soil and Produce.—Much of the soil is naturally fertile; producing, when properly watered, wheat, rice, and other grain. Scarcely a twentieth of the country is cultivated, however; and the people have little knowledge of agriculture.

Animals.—Besides horses, camels, black cattle, sheep, and other tame animals; there are lions, tigers, bears, wild boars, &c.†

Minerals.—One of the most remarkable of the Persian minerals, is the Tabreez marble, a transparent stone, beautifully

and Persians. In 1727 and 1787 also, it suffered dreadfully from earthquakes; most of its buildings having been levelled with the ground, and 100,000 of its inhabitants having been destroyed. Its present population is about 30,000.

* This is supposed to be the mountain mentioned in Scripture, on which the ark rested after the deluge; and the Garden of Eden is thought to have been a tract of country in the basin or valley of the Euphrates and Tigris. In consequence, however, of the changes in language, and perhaps in the earth itself, it is impossible to arrive at any certain conclusion on the subject. The great salt desert lies between Khorazan and Irak. This large tract is, in many places, covered with a layer of crystallized salt, an inch thick. It contains, also, nitre and other salts; and these and the common salt impregnate the neighbouring rivers and lakes. This and the sandy desert, which lies south-east of it, occupy a space of 140,000 square miles.

† The Persian horses are so strong, and so capable of enduring fatigue, that they have been known to travel nine hundred miles in eleven successive days. The tail of the Persian sheep is large and of a flat shape, and often contains thirty pounds of fat. The silk worm is extensively reared; and the weight of silk, annually produced, is computed at four millions of pounds.

variegated, which is formed by the petrefaction of the water of a spring. There are also mines of iron, copper, and silver.

Population.—The population is thought to be about twelve millions.

Government.—The government is despotic, and the kings are almost always tyrants.*

Literature, &c.—The Persians are unacquainted with the modern discoveries of the Europeans in science. Education, however, is so cheap, and there are so many schools, that the children even of the poorest tradesmen receive the rudiments of instruction.†

Religion.—The religion is Mohammedanism, in its mildest and most rational form.‡

Character, &c.—The Persians who have fixed residences, are lively and polite; but they are generally blamed for falsehood and duplicity. The wandering tribes are sincere and brave, but rude and violent.

Historical Sketch.—The first Persian monarchy was founded by Cyrus, 559 years before Christ; and overturned by Alexander the Great of Macedon, 228 years after. It then continued, for a long period, subject partly to the Greeks, and partly to the Parthians; but, in the year 229 of the Christian era, a second monarchy was founded by Ardisheer or Artaxerxes, a common

* The two prime ministers are the *Vizier Azem*, or Grand Vizier, and the *Ameen a Doulah*, or chief treasurer. These are always men of low origin, and are often disgraced or executed. The king assumes pompous titles, such as “the shadow of the Almighty”—“the glory of the state and of religion;” and all his edicts are signed “by him whom the universe obeys.” The common title of chiefs in Persia, is *Khan* or lord. Another title is *Mirza*, which is given to sons of lords. When applied to persons of the royal blood, it follows the name; but, in other cases, it precedes it.

† There are also *madrassas* or colleges, in which moral philosophy, metaphysics, and theology, are taught. Astronomy is studied according to the Ptolemaic system, with a view to astrology. Persia has produced some excellent poets, particularly Ferdosi, Safi, and Hafiz. In this country, story-telling is a regular, and often a lucrative occupation. The king has always a story-teller in attendance, even when at the head of his army in war, to amuse his leisure hours or beguile his cares with tales and romances; and the same story is never allowed to be told a second time, on pain of punishment.

‡ The Persians are of the Sheah sect, maintaining that Ali should have succeeded to the sovereign power on the death of Mohammed, and rejecting all the doctrines and observances introduced by the caliphs, whom they consider usurpers. They are regarded as heretics by other Mohammedans, and the bitterest enmity exists in each party against the other. The general doctrines are the same; but there are many minute differences.

soldier. About the year 640, Persia was conquered by the Arabians; and the inhabitants were forced to embrace Moham-
 medanism, or fly from the country. In the ninth century, the
 country again became independent. After this, there were va-
 rious changes and revolutions; and, in 1221, it was conquered
 by the celebrated Tartar prince, Zenghiz Khan, who at his
 death assigned it to one of his sons. It was again conquered,
 in 1392, by the famous Timour or Tamerlane, who in one mas-
 sacre, in Ispahan alone, caused 70,000 heads to be cut off. Af-
 ter various changes, one of the most distinguished monarchs,
 Shah Abbas, began to reign in 1585; and, in a reign of 43 years,
 greatly advanced the interests of his kingdom. In 1722, the
 Afghans revolted, and conquered Persia; but they were at length
 overcome and expelled by Nadir Kooli, or Kooli Khan, a person
 of low extraction, who raised himself to the throne. Since that
 time, the nation has been generally in a state of turbulence; and
 its power has been diminished, partly by cessions to Russia, and
 partly by the erection of the kingdom of Afghanistan, a consid-
 erable portion of which formerly belonged to Persia.

AFGHANISTAN.*

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.†
Caubool, or Afghanistan Proper	CAUBOOL, Peshawur
Seistan or Seghistan	Jullalabad
Eastern Khorazan	Herat
Eastern Mokrân	Kidj
Balkh	Balkh
Kandahar	Kandahar
Sindé	Hyderabad, Tatta
Part of Lahore	Lahore
Mooltan	Mooltan

* This country is sometimes called Eastern Persia, sometimes the kingdom of Caubool, and sometimes the kingdom of Candahar. From its unsettled state, its boundaries are uncertain; but the chief part of it may be regarded as extending, at present, from the west of Herat, in east longitude 60°, to the west of Cashmere, in longitude 72° east; and from the mouth of the Indus to the thirty-eighth parallel of north latitude. Cashmere, which formerly belonged to this kingdom, is now independent. Its capital, Cashmere, contains 150,000 or 200,000 inhabitants.

† Of these towns, Kandahar is supposed to contain 150,000 inhabi-
 tants; and Peshawur, Herat, and Caubool, the capital, 100,000 each.

Mountains, &c.—The chief mountains are the Hindoo Coosh, or Indian Caucasus, and the Solimân ridge. The country contains many fine fertile plains and valleys.

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the Indus or Sind, which runs southward into the Indian Ocean; and the Etymander or Heermund, which flows westward into Lake Zerrah in Seistan. There is also the Jihon or Oxus, which rises in the northern part of this kingdom, and then flows through Independent Tartary, into the Sea of Aral.

Climate.—In some places, the heat is great in summer; but in much of the country, the climate is temperate.

Population.—The population is thought to be twelve or fourteen millions.

Government.—The king is absolute; and under him, there are many princes, who are sovereigns of particular provinces, and some of whom yield but a slight degree of subjection.

Religion.—The established religion is the Mohammedan, but others are tolerated; and there are many Hindoos, who are admitted to all offices of trust, without distinction.

Character, &c.—The Afghans, properly so called, resemble the Persians in manners, customs, and character; while the Hindoos resemble their countrymen in India.

Historical Sketch.—About 1722, the Afghans threw off their allegiance to Persia, and reduced most of that kingdom under their power. They were expelled, however, by Kooli Khan from the present kingdom of Persia; but they retained the eastern provinces, and they continue to possess them at present. About 1747, Achmet Shah Abdallah, the founder of the present dynasty, began to reign. He added much to his dominions, by conquests in India; and he penetrated so far into that country, that he six times plundered Delhi. Since 1792, the country has been involved in almost continual civil wars, arising from disputes about the succession to the throne; and, in consequence of this, its power has been declining.

INDIA.

Boundaries.—India, or Hindostan, is bounded on the north and north-east by the Hindoo Coosh and Himalaya Mountains; on the east, by the river Brah-

mapootra; on the west, by the Indus; and on the other sides, by the sea.*

DIVISIONS.†

CHIEF TOWNS.

I. Northern Hindostan:

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Cashmere | Cashmere or Sirinagur |
| 2. Nepaul | Catamandoo, Almora |
| 3. Bootan | Tassasudon |

II. Hindostan Proper:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| 1. Lahore | Lahore, Amretsir. |
| 2. Mooltan and Sindé | Mooltan |
| 3. Ajmeer | Ajmeer |
| 4. Delhi | Delhi |
| 5. Agra | Agra, Farruckabad |
| 6. Allahabad | Allahabad, Benares |
| 7. Bahar | Patna |
| 8. Oude | Lucknow, Fyzabad |
| 9. Bengal | Calcutta, Dacca, Morsheda-
bad, Serampore |
| 10. Malwah | Indore, Oojein |
| 11. Guzerat and Cutch | Surat, Cambay, Brodrah |

III. Decan:

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Aurungabad | Bombay, Aurungabad, Dow-
letabad |
| 2. Kandesh | Boorhanpoor |
| 3. Beder | Ahmedabad |

* This great and important country lies between the eighth and thirty-fifth degrees of north latitude, and between the sixty-eighth and ninety-second of east longitude. Its length, from Cape Comorin to the northern extremity, is nearly 2000 miles; its breadth, 1500; and its superficial content, above a million of square miles.

† Northern Hindostan is a long narrow tract, extending north-westerly from the Brahmapootra to the Indus, between the Himalaya and Seevalic mountains. Hindostan Proper lies north of the river Nerbudda, and a line drawn from its source to the mouths of the Ganges. The Decan is bounded on the south by the rivers Krishna and Malpurba. According to this division, a small part of the province of Bejapoor is in the fourth great division. The country through which the principal branches of the Indus flow, is often called the Punjab; and that between the Jumnah and Ganges, the Doob.

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
4. Hyderabad	Hyderabad, Golconda
5. Nandere	Nandere
6. The Northern Circars, Ganjam, Visagapatam, Masulipatam	
7. Berar	Ellichpoor
8. Gundwana	Nagpoor
9. Orissa	Cuttak, Juggernaut or Pooree
10. Bejapoor	Poona, Bejapoor or Visiapoor, Bijanagur or Bisnagur

IV. South of India:

1. The Carnatic	Madras, Pondicherry, Tanjore
2. Mysore	Seringapatam
3. Canara	Battecola, Barcelore
4. Malabar	Calicut, Tellicherry
5. Baramahal	Kistnagherry
6. Coimbetoor	Coimbetoor
7. Dindigul	Dindigul
8. Cochin	Cochin
9. Travancore	Anjengo, Travancore

Seaports.—Surat, Bombay, Goa, Calicut, Pondicherry, Madras, Calcutta, &c.

Mountains, &c.—The principal mountains are the great Himalaya chain, the highest in the world, on the north-east; and the Gauts, in the south. The sea-coasts are flat; and Hindostan Proper is, in general, level: but a large proportion of the rest of the country, is mountainous.*

* The Himalaya or Himālah mountains, anciently Imaus, are so called from the Sanscrit word *hem*, which signifies snow, their highest summits being always covered with that substance. Several peaks adjoining Nepaul, have been lately measured by British officers, and their heights have been found to be from 22,000 to 27,000 feet. The measurements, however, are subject to some uncertainty. The western Gauts are parallel to the Malabar coast, and the eastern lie near that of Coromandel. The country between them is intersected by numerous other chains extending in different directions; and many parts of it are accessible only by narrow, and often difficult passes or defiles. From this circumstance, these mountains derive their name,

Rivers.—The Ganges and Brahmmapootra rise from nearly the same place in the Himalaya mountains; and, after separating to the distance of nearly 1200 miles, unite and flow into the Bay of Bengal. The Indus lies on the north-west. The Nerbudda runs westerly into the Gulf of Cambay; and the Godoverly and Krishna flow eastward into the Bay of Bengal. Several of the branches of the Ganges and Indus, are considerable rivers; particularly the Jumnah, Goggrah, and Sutlege.*

the term *gaut* signifying a *passage* or *gate*. This country contains also several plains of great magnitude. One of the principal of these is the vast plain of the Ganges, which extends from the Seevalic mountains to the sea, a distance of 800 miles, gradually widening till in Bengal its breadth is 250 miles. Another stretches northerly above 150 miles from Delhi to Sirhind. On the east of the Indus also, there is a great sandy desert, which is 550 miles long, and from 100 to 160 broad; and a salt morass, which is thought to have been formerly covered by the sea, extends several hundred miles from the Gulf of Cutch along the western boundary of Guzerat, and round the north of Cutch.

* The Ganges, the most noted of the Indian rivers, rises in the Himalaya mountains, about the thirty-first parallel, and has a course of 1500 miles. Among the rivers which it receives in passing through the plains, there are eleven, none of which is smaller than the Thames, and some of them equal the Rhine; and it is computed, that it conveys to the sea about 5000 tons of water, each second, at an average. About 200 miles from the sea, the river divides into mouths or branches, which form its Delta (so called from its resemblance to the Greek letter of that name). The southern part of this, called the Sunderbunds, is covered with vast quantities of jungle (a kind of grass eight or ten feet long), and is the haunt of multitudes of tigers. In the rainy season, the Ganges overflows its banks to the width of 100 miles; nothing appearing but trees, and villages erected on artificial eminences. During this season, the river, above the commencement of the Delta, rises thirty-two feet above its natural level. Lower down, however, the rise is less, as the level of the river is influenced by that of the sea. * For 500 miles from the sea, the depth of the water, when the river is lowest, is no where less than thirty feet, and the general breadth of the channel is three quarters of a mile. This river is regarded by the Hindoos as an object of peculiar sanctity and veneration; particularly at Hurdwar, where it first appears in the plains after quitting the mountains; at the places where other large rivers join it; and where, in any of its windings, it runs northward. It is supposed to flow directly from heaven; and its waters are regarded so holy by the Hindoos, that the natives are sworn on

Towns.—India contains a vast number of towns, many of which are very populous. The principal are Calcutta, Benares, Surat, Madras, Patna, Hyderabad, Dacca, Bombay, Delhi, Poona, and Agra.*

them, in the English courts of justice; as Christians are on the Gospels, and Mohammedans on the Koran. They also bathe in its waters, and drink them for the benefit both of the body and soul; and persons on the point of death are often brought to expire with their feet in the river, as it is believed that, by this means, they will secure happiness in a future state. At Hurdwar, pilgrims annually assemble for the purpose of ablution and devotion; and they take advantage of the occasion, for holding a great fair for the buying and selling of merchandise. It is computed, that these causes sometimes bring together no fewer than two millions of people. Great changes are made by the Ganges in the plain country, especially in Bengal; old channels being often filled up by mud, sand, and the falling in of the banks, and new ones being formed. These effects are chiefly produced during the inundation, when the current flows with great force and rapidity. By this means, the banks are undermined, islands and villages are often swept away, and trees are overturned that have stood for a century. To counterbalance, in some degree, these destructive effects, new islands are often formed. If these be able to resist the succeeding inundations, they are soon occupied by persons who have been driven by the river from their former dwellings, and who sometimes quarrel about the possession of what has thus been provided for their accommodation. These islands are often joined to the mainland by the stopping up of channels; and, on this account, their number is less than might be expected. The tide ascends the Ganges with great force and rapidity. In the branch called the Hoogly, it flows to a considerable distance above Calcutta, producing a *bore*, or instantaneous elevation, which passes over a space of seventy miles in rather less than four hours; and sometimes causes, at Calcutta, a rise of five feet in an instant. The Brahmapootra, called also the Sanpoo by the people of Tibet, is thought to have a course of 1650 miles, and to be larger than the Ganges.

* The population of these towns is supposed to be as follows: Calcutta, 500,000; Benares, 600,000; Surat, 600,000; Madras, 300,000; Patna, 300,000; Hyderabad, 200,000; Dacca, 200,000; Bombay, 160,000; Delhi, 150,000 or 200,000; Poona, 150,000; Agra, 60,000. Calcutta is situated on the Hoogly, about 100 miles from the sea. Though it is now so large, and is the capital of the British dominions in India, it was but a village a century ago. About a quarter of a mile below the town, stands Fort William, the erection of which cost the East India Company about two millions sterling. In Calcutta is the famous Black Hole, eighteen feet square, in which, in 1757, Surajah Dowlah, a Hindoo chief, shut up 146 Englishmen in the evening, 123 of whom were found dead in the morning, after dread-

Climate.—The climate of India is in general hot; but in some of the elevated districts, it is temperate. In most of the country, there are only two seasons: the dry, when the ground is parched, and vegetation suspended; and the wet, when rain falls in torrents, and inundates the low grounds.*

ful sufferings from heat and suffocation. The two other seats of the British government in India, are Madras and Bombay. Delhi was formerly the capital of the Mogul's empire, but now belongs to the English. In the seventeenth century, it is said to have contained more than a million and a half of inhabitants. It was taken by Nadir Shah in 1739, who spoiled it of its treasures, valued at more than ten millions sterling. Among these were statues of elephants in chased gold, and a throne of massive gold studded with precious stones. The finest building now remaining is the imperial palace, which is 1000 yards long, and 600 broad, and cost above a million sterling. The apartments of this edifice, are most splendid: even the kitchens are finished like drawing-rooms; and there are stables for 10,000 horses. It formerly contained also the beautiful "peacock throne." This was overshadowed by a palm-tree of gold; and a peacock of gold, standing on one of the large leaves, stretched its wings to cover the person on the throne. The tail and wings glittered with superb emeralds; and the leaves and feathers were so thin and delicate, that they waved and trembled with the slightest wind. The fruit on the palm-tree was partly formed of diamonds, and bore the most exact resemblance to the real fruit. Surat is remarkable for having an hospital for sick, maimed, and aged animals; such as horses, oxen, monkeys, poultry, and even rats, mice, and bugs. In this establishment, they are amply supplied with suitable food, and are carefully attended. Agra was once a large and splendid city, but is now greatly reduced. Still, however, it contains some monuments of its ancient magnificence, particularly the palace of the emperor Akber, which is composed of red granite, with columns of white marble, and is reckoned one of the finest buildings in Asia. The city of Lahore, also, contains another palace of the Mogul sovereigns, which is one of the finest and most splendid in the world. This city, and many others in India, have lost their ancient magnitude and consequence from the many revolutions to which the country has been subjected; and several that were great and noted, at no very remote period, are now in ruins. The rapid decay of the eastern cities, arises in a considerable degree from the circumstance, that in many of them the dwelling-houses are in general composed of mud or other perishable materials.

* The rainy season usually commences in April or May, and continues till September or October; but there are considerable varieties in different places. In the valleys of Cashmere, Nepaul, and other parts, which are situated between high mountains, there are winter and summer, with the intermediate varieties of spring and autumn, as in the more favoured countries of Europe.

Soil, &c.—The plains and valleys of India are not exceeded in fertility by any country in the world. In many places, they contain fine vegetable mould, six feet deep; and yield two harvests in the year. The trees also produce delicious fruits, in the greatest profusion. In the higher regions, however, much of the soil is barren. Among the productions of the country, are timber of various kinds, medicinal plants, cotton, rice, and the finest dye-stuffs.*

Animals.—The principal animals are horses, asses, black cattle, sheep, camels, elephants, rhinoceroses, apes, monkeys, and almost all the ferocious animals, except the lion. The royal tiger of Bengal is of great size and strength, and is one of the most dreadful animals any where to be found.

Mineralogy.—India is extremely rich in minerals; producing gold, silver, copper, iron, &c. besides diamonds, and other precious stones.†

Population.—In 1820, the population of the British territories in India, was estimated at 83 millions; that of the British

* One of the most remarkable productions of India, is the *Banyan* tree, which throws off numerous branches that afterwards take root, and form new trunks. One of these, called the *Cubbeer Burr*, grows in Guzerat, on the bank of the Nerbudda, and is celebrated over all Hindostan. Its age is unknown; but it is supposed to have existed, and to have been at least as large as at present, in the time of Alexander the Great. Much of it has been carried away, at different times, by floods; yet it has still three hundred and fifty large trunks, and more than three thousand smaller ones; and the part of it that remains, measures nearly two thousand feet round the principal stems, and thus covers an area of about seven acres, besides a large additional space over which the projecting branches extend. Beneath its branches there are beautiful walks, and cool retreats from the scorching heat; and there is shelter in its shade for eight or ten thousand people. It has large, soft leaves, of a fine green colour; and produces small figs, which afford nourishment to monkeys, squirrels, peacocks, and various other birds. Multitudes of these animals are constantly in motion among its branches, and enliven the scene. The Hindoos are peculiarly fond of these trees, and almost worship them. The Brahmins spend much of their time under their shade; and there they perform their devotions, when no structure for that purpose is nigh.

† Gold is contained in the sands of various rivers, from which it is separated by washing. The diamonds of India are the finest in the world; and are found in Bengal, Orissa, Berar, the Carnatic, and several other places. Golconda has been long celebrated for these gems, as they were brought to it to be polished and fashioned for sale; but it produces none itself, and perhaps never did.

allies and tributaries, at 40 millions; and that of the independent states, at 11 millions: making a total of 134 millions.*

Laws.—In the presidency of Bengal, the natives are tried according to the Mohammedan law, which was established there before the country became subject to the British. In the presidencies of Madras and Bombay, the Hindoos and Mohammedans are respectively tried by their own laws.†

Manufactures.—The principal manufacture is that of cotton, for which the country has long been celebrated. Silk and woollen goods are also manufactured, besides various articles for the use of the inhabitants.

Commerce.—The principal exports are cotton goods, silk, sugar, rice, precious stones, opium, and spices; and the principal imports are wines, spirits, cutlery, stationery, glass-ware, naval stores, and many other articles. Foreign commerce is chiefly carried on with Britain and America.

Education, &c.—There are schools in almost all the villages, where the children sit in the open air, under the shade of a tree; and are taught reading, writing, and accounts; tracing the characters at first on sand with the forefinger, and after some time on palm-leaves with an iron pen. The Hindoos have been civilized, in a considerable degree, from very early times; and

* The British possessions are divided into the three presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay: the first containing a population of $57\frac{1}{2}$ millions; the second, of 15 millions; and the third, of $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions. The British have also acquired, since 1815, territories containing eight millions. One of the principal of the British allies is the Nizam, whose dominions lie in the centre of the Decan, and consist of Hyderabad, Nandere, and Beder, with most of Berar, and part of Aurungabad and Bejapoor. His subjects amount to ten millions. Other allies are the Rajas of Nagpoor and Mysore, and the king of Oude, who have each about three millions of subjects; the Guicowar, in the north of Guzerat, whose capital is Brodrah, and who has two millions of subjects; and more than twenty petty chiefs, particularly the Rajpoot princes about Ajmeer, and the Seiks in the Punjab and part of Multan and Delhi. The independent parts are the dominions of the Scindiah in Malwah, whose capital is Oojein, and whose subjects amount to four millions; the Rajas of Lahore and Nepaul, whose subjects are about three and two millions respectively; and the Ameers of Sindé, who amount to a million. The Indian dominions of the Afghan empire, also, contain about a million of inhabitants. In 1819, the British army in India amounted to about 30,000 Europeans, and 180,000 sepoy, or native soldiers.

† The British continue the use of the old laws, to secure the confidence of the people. The Hindoo laws chiefly in use are those called the Institutes of Menou, the son of Brahma. The administration of justice has been considerably improved by the British; but it is still far from being perfect.

seem to have had some knowledge of science at a remote period.

Religion.—About a fifth of the inhabitants are Mohammedans; and the rest are, for the most part, of the Hindoo religion.*

State of Society, &c.—The Hindoos are divided into four principal *castes*: 1. The Brahmins, or religious caste; 2. The Kshatriyas, or soldiers, including the princes, and sometimes called the caste of Rajas or Rajepootras; 3. The Vaisyas, or husbandmen; and, 4. The Sudras, or labourers. These castes

* It would be impossible, in a small compass, to give any adequate idea of the complicated and abominable religious system of the Hindoos. In the character of its mythology, and in the objects and modes of its worship, it is more extravagant, cruel, and disgusting, than those of the Greeks, Egyptians, or any of the other nations of antiquity. They believe in three principal deities: Brahma, the creator; Vishnu, the preserver; and Siva, the destroyer; and in many others, particularly a great number of malignant demons. They also worship almost every creature that has life. Some of these, such as the cow, the ox, the ape, the serpent capella, and a bird of prey called garuda, are objects of more particular veneration than others. In the vedas, or sacred books, even their supreme deities are represented as guilty of every species of debauchery, and as debased by all the weakness and evil propensities of men. Their worship, too, consists in many instances of the grossest and most disgusting scenes; and the images that are worshipped are often of the most indecent kind. One of the most deplorable scenes of superstition, is exhibited at Juggernaut in Orissa. Juggernaut is a name of Vishnu; and, from this circumstance, the temple and the town get the same name. On a car, 80 feet high, is placed the image of this deity, and on two similar ones are those of his brother and sister. At the festival of Rutt Jatra, many hundred thousand pilgrims assemble, some of them from very remote parts; and they believe, that if they die any where within ten miles of the temple, they will obtain eternal happiness. The vast cars are dragged along by the multitude with cables; and frequently some of the infatuated devotees throw themselves below the wheels, and are crushed to death. From this cause, as well as from deaths in consequence of fatigue, want, and accidents, all the approaches for forty or fifty miles present multitudes of human bones; the bodies of those that thus perish not being buried, but being left to be devoured by dogs, vultures, and other animals. Other parts of the worship present the most disgusting scenes of debauchery and indecency; and this, and other similar practices, call loudly for exertions on the part of Christians to do away such enormities, and introduce in their stead the pure doctrines and morals of Christianity. The barbarous practice, also, of widows burning themselves on the funeral piles of their husbands, is well known, and still not unfrequently occurs. The inhuman destruction of female infants, even by their mothers, was formerly very common; but it has lately been checked, in a considerable degree, by the interference of the English.

are regulated by their respective laws; and no person is allowed to change from the caste to which he belongs by birth: but, if any one lose his caste from transgressing its rules, he is held in detestation by every Hindoo, and lives ever after in degradation, which extends also to his posterity.*

Character, &c.—The prevailing characteristic of the Hindoos, is indolence. They are moderate in food and clothing, living chiefly on rice and water; and their dress in general consists of a simple piece of linen or cotton cloth. Their houses also are commonly of the slightest and cheapest construction. Princes and wealthy individuals, however, often live in great splendour and luxury.

Curiosities.—At Ellora, near Dowletabad, there is a surprising group of Hindoo temples cut in the rock, and displaying beautiful columns, cornices, and other architectural ornaments. In the island of Elephanta, near Bombay, also, there is a cavern, containing a temple 130 feet long and 123 wide, which is supported by twenty-six massy columns cut out of the solid rock. Similar caverns are found in the island of Salsette, near the same place, and elsewhere. These are all extremely ancient.

Historical Sketch.—Like other countries, India was at an early period divided into many states, which were engaged in continual wars among themselves; but, from religious considerations, neither they nor their descendants ever carried war into the neighbouring countries, though they have been often invaded by external foes. Among their foreign invaders in ancient times, were Sesostris, Darius Hystaspes, and Alexander the Great. The conquests of these princes, however, were only of partial extent and temporary duration. In the year 1000, Mahmood, of Ghiznee or Ghazni, now Afghanistan, subdued most of Hindostan; and, in 1398, Tamerlane overran India in five months, and carried off immense spoil from

* The division into castes, or *tchadi*, is of extreme antiquity, and has been maintained with great strictness. There are, however, mixed castes, arising from intermarriages; and war, and other circumstances, have on some occasions produced encroachments of the castes on one another. Persons of the mixed castes are subjected to great humiliation, and are obliged to keep at a distance from other Hindoos. Still more degraded, however, are the Pariahs, as those are called who have lost their caste. These are held in abhorrence, and treated with the utmost indignity, by all the other castes. They are not allowed to live in a town: their clothes must be those of persons deceased: they must carry out the corpse of any one who dies without kindred: they are employed as common executioners: and the shadow of one of them passing over any article of food, or even water, defiles it. By such treatment, as may naturally be expected, they are rendered disgusting objects, and are sunk into ignorance, and low vices of every kind.

Delhi. It was invaded again in 1526, by Bauber, one of Tamerlane's descendants, who became emperor of most of Hindostan. This prince was the first who was known in Europe by the title of the Great Mogul. His grandson Akber, who reigned from 1555 to 1605, was one of the wisest and most distinguished of the Mogul sovereigns; and he greatly enlarged the empire, and introduced many improvements. His great-grandson Aurengzebe, after dethroning his father, became emperor in 1658, and reigned till his death in 1707. He was a cruel tyrannical prince, and his reign was turbulent. Under his successors, the empire, falling into a state of anarchy, rapidly declined; and suffered severely from the invasions of foreign enemies, particularly the Persians, under Nadir Shah, in 1739; and the Afghans, under Abdalla, about twenty years after. The governors of the different provinces also, taking advantage of the general confusion, rendered themselves independent, and seized such districts as they could. From these various causes, this empire, which in the time of Aurengzebe had a population of more than sixty millions, was so reduced in 1750, as to consist of only the city of Delhi, and a small territory around it; and some time after, even this remnant of the empire sunk under the attacks of different enemies. In the beginning of the present century however, Delhi, as well as Agra, came into the possession of the British; and, from the settled government then established, much improvement has already resulted. It would be impossible, in a sketch like the present, to give even a tolerable outline of the progress of British power in India. It may suffice to say, that the English began to trade with that country in the reign of Elizabeth in 1583, and that the East India Company was established in 1600; that, previously to the reign of George III. the British were gradually extending the limits of their possessions; but that, during his reign, their arms were attended with the most splendid success; and that, by this means, the greater part of India is now reduced under their power.

CEYLON.*

Situation, &c.—The fine island of Ceylon, or Singala, is situated in the Indian Ocean, and is separated from the southern part of India by Palk's Strait, which is thirty miles wide.

* This island may naturally follow India, from its nearness to it, and from its belonging to the king of England, while India belongs

Face of the Country.—The coasts are low and flat; but the interior contains many mountains, some of which are beautiful and verdant, others rocky and peaked.

Towns.—The principal towns are Kandy, Columbo, and Trincomalee.*

Climate.—Winter is unknown; and the change in the degree of heat, during the year, is less than in almost any other place. The winds, or monsoons, blow from the north-east, during our winter; and from the south-west, the rest of the year.

Produce, &c.—Some of the principal productions of this country are cinnamon, cocoa-nuts, sago, rice, oranges, bamboos, sugar-canes, and tobacco. There are great numbers of elephants, and other quadrupeds; and useful and beautiful birds are very numerous. The country is also uncommonly rich in gems, such as rock crystal, amethyst, cat's-eyes, topaz, garnet, &c.; and the coasts furnish large quantities of fine pearls.†

to the East India Company. Its extent is about two thirds of that of Ireland; and the latitude and longitude of its centre, are about 8° north, and 81° east respectively.

* Of these towns, Columbo is the largest, containing 50,000 inhabitants. It is well built, after the European plan; and is chiefly inhabited by English, Dutch, and Portuguese. The harbour of Trincomalee is one of the finest in the world. Kandy was the residence of the king of Ceylon. The houses are of mud, and the town has a mean appearance. It contained many temples; one of which, from having in it a tooth of the god Buddha, was held in peculiar estimation. The apartment which contains this relic, is most splendidly ornamented. The doors have polished brass pannels, and curtains before and behind them. The roof and walls are lined with gold brocade; and scarcely any thing meets the eye but gold, gems, and beautiful fragrant flowers. Among many other ornaments, there is a bird formed entirely of diamonds, rubies, blue sapphires, emeralds, and cat's-eyes, set in gold.

† “In Ceylon, the stones,” it has been said, “are rubies and sapphires; amomum scents the marshes, and cinnamon the forests, and the most common plants furnish precious perfumes. Elephants of the most handsome and valuable kind run in flocks, as the wild boars do in the forests of Europe; while the brilliant peacock and the bird of paradise occupy the place of our rooks and our swallows.” Though this is, in some respects, an exaggerated description, yet Ceylon is unquestionably one of the richest places in the world, in the most valuable productions of nature. The pearl fishery on the coast is much celebrated, and is very valuable. The principal station is on banks off Condatchy, on the western coast. The pearls are found in oysters of a particular kind, which from this circumstance are called

Population.—The population is thought to be less than a million.

Historical Sketch.—The Portuguese discovered Ceylon in 1505, and soon obtained a firm settlement in part of the country. In 1658, the Dutch assisted the natives in expelling the Portuguese, and received in return most of the maritime provinces. In 1796, the Dutch were in their turn expelled by the English, in connexion with the king of Kandy. This prince, who was an inhuman tyrant, provoked a rebellion among his own subjects; and was at length dethroned, in 1815, by the British, who since that time retain possession of the island, and govern it by its ancient laws.

CHIN-INDIA.*

Boundaries.—This large portion of Asia is bounded on the west by Hindostan and the Bay of Bengal;

mother-of-pearl oysters. These are brought up from the bottom by divers. The fishery commences in the month of February, and employs 150 boats with 6000 men, for thirty days. When every thing is ready, the diver grasps his nostrils firmly, and is carried rapidly to the bottom, by means of a stone attached to one of his feet; while, with the other foot, he forces down a basket. The stone is then drawn up, for the use of the next diver, by means of a rope fixed to it; and the person who has descended, collects into the basket, with the utmost despatch, as many oysters as possible. When he can remain no longer under water, he pulls the rope which connects him with the boat, and is immediately drawn up with his basket. Each dip occupies a minute, a minute and a half, or sometimes two minutes; and sometimes five, and sometimes a hundred and fifty oysters are collected at one descent. The diver gets a fourth of all the oysters which he brings up. Each oyster usually contains several pearls; and when a large quantity of these is collected, they are assorted by being passed through sieves with holes of different sizes. In 1798, the clear value of this fishery was £192,000; but, on some occasions, it has not exceeded £30,000.

* This country has been called "India beyond the Ganges," "Exterior India," "Indo-China," and, very improperly, "The Eastern Peninsula of India." Malte Brun rejects these names, and, with more propriety, terms it "Chin-India," as if "Chinese India." Its situation, boundaries, and other particulars respecting it, are very imperfectly known. It is a large portion of country, however; 1200 or 1300 miles long, and 600 or 800 miles broad, exclusive of the peninsula of Malaya.

on the north, by Tibet; on the east, by China, and the Chinese Sea; and on the south, by the Indian Ocean.

DIVISIONS.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Burman Empire Amerapoor, Ava
 Tonquin or Tungquin .. Don-Kin or Tonquin
 Cochin-China Hué or Toan-Hoa
 Kingdom of Siam Siyuthia or Juthya or Siam, Louvok
 Malaya or Malacca .. Malacca *

Climate, Soil, &c.—In some places, the heat is excessive; but in others, moderate. Some parts are scorched and barren: but others, where there is sufficient moisture, are very fertile; producing grain, aromatic, medicinal, and other plants, and fine trees of various kinds.

Animals and Minerals.—The animals are nearly the same as those of India, with the addition of the ourang outang, a large ape, which bears a near resemblance to man. The country is rich in minerals; producing gold, silver, iron, tin, lead, &c.; besides rubies, sapphires, and other precious stones, and marble equal to the finest Italian.

Population.—The amount of the population is uncertain. It is very small, however, compared with the size of the country, not exceeding perhaps eight or ten millions.

Government.—In the Burman empire, the government is in the highest degree despotic;† and Laos, Tonquin, Siam, and the other states, are governed by sovereigns, who in general have like power.

* Other towns are Chittagong or Islamabad, Arracan, Prome, Rangoon, Pegu, Cambodia, &c. There are also other divisions of the country, such as the kingdoms of Cassay, Catchar, Pegu, Laos, Siam, &c.; but they do not require particular notice here. Respecting the mountains and rivers, there is great uncertainty; the interior of the country being almost quite unknown to Europeans. The Irrawaddy is a large river, with many mouths and a delta; and, in the rainy season, it and the other rivers inundate their banks. There are also the Meinam in Siam, and the Cambodia or Japanese river.

† The Burmese emperor, or king of Ava, assumes an extraordinary degree of state, and receives almost a species of adoration from his subjects. When any thing belonging to him is mentioned, the epithet “golden” is attached to it. When he has heard any thing, it is said to have reached “the golden ears;” a person admitted to his presence, is said to have been at “the golden feet;” and the perfume of roses is described as grateful to the “golden nose.” The king of

Religion.—The Burmese worship a deity called Godama, or Sommona-Kodon, and several inferior ones. They believe in the transmigration of souls; and their worship is free from the barbarous practices that stain the religious observances of the Hindoos.

Character, &c.—The people are imperfectly civilized; and, while they are active and sprightly, they are often deceitful, and pay little attention to truth. They seem in general to be of Chinese or Tartar origin, except the Malays, who appear to be a distinct race.

Historical Sketch.—The Burmans were formerly subject to the king of Pegu; but, in the sixteenth century, they established an independent monarchy, which consisted of Ava and Martaban. In 1740, they engaged in a war with the king of Pegu, which terminated in their complete subjugation, in 1752. A Burman named Alompra, however, a man of low extraction, began with only a hundred men; and, by his activity and prudence, in a short time not only made himself master of the former Burman territories, but also overran Pegu, and took the capital. From this period, the Burmese continued to extend their dominions, by successive acquisitions from the king of Siam, and others. In a war of short duration with Britain, which terminated in 1826, they were unsuccessful; and were obliged to yield up Arracan, Tavoy, Mergui, and Tenasserim; and to allow Munnipore, Assam, and some other districts, to be under Rajas appointed by the East India Company. By this means, Britain has acquired a tract of country 300 miles long and 50 broad, lying along the seacoast, south of the delta of the Irrawaddy.

TIBET.

Boundaries.—Tibet or Thibet is bounded on the east by China; on the south, by the Burman empire

Siam, also, shows himself three times a day, for a few seconds, to his great officers, and they instantly prostrate themselves on the ground before him. In the Burman empire, the emperor is first in dignity, the empress third, and a white elephant second. This animal has a regular establishment, with ministers, secretaries, and other officers, and a guard of 1000 men. He sleeps on mattresses covered with silk; the vessel out of which he eats, is of pure gold; and his trappings are of gold, studded with large diamonds, and other precious stones. He is believed, by the Burmese, to contain a human soul; which, after millions of previous transmigrations, is about to be absorbed into the essence of the deity.

and India; on the south-west and west, by India, Afghanistan, and Bukharia; and on the north, by Chinese Tartary.*

Mountains.—The principal mountains are the vast Himalaya chain, on the confines of India. There are also many others; and the country has been called the Switzerland of Asia.

Lakes.—Terkeri, Paltee, &c. The latter is very remarkable; being, it is said, a ring five miles and a half broad, encompassing an island a hundred miles in diameter.

Towns.—The towns are small, and not numerous. The principal are Lassa or Dsassa, Latak, Askardo or Eskerdon, &c.

Climate.—From the elevation of the country, the cold in winter is extremely great; and, except in low valleys, there is little heat in summer.

Soil, &c.—The fertile parts produce wheat, pease, barley, and various fruits. Gold is found in mines, and in the sand of rivers; and tinkal or borax, which is peculiar to the country, is procured in a crystallized state in the north.

Religion and Government.—The Dalaï Lama, or Grand Lama, is worshipped as the deity, by the people of this country, and of a great part of central Asia. He formerly possessed also the supreme civil power in Tibet, which was exercised by a person of his nomination. The chief civil ruler, however, is now appointed by the emperor of China. The laws of Tibet resemble those of Hindostan.†

* The precise boundaries of this large inland country, and its extreme latitudes and longitudes, are unknown. The principal part of it, however, is situated between the latitudes of 26° and 36° north, and between 75° and 100° of east longitude. The divisions are also unknown. The part next Afghanistan and Northern Hindostan, is generally called Little Tibet, and the rest Tibet, or sometimes Great Tibet. The principal town of the former is Askardo or Eskerdon; and of the latter, Lassa.

† Since 1792, when the Chinese sent an army to assist the Grand Lama against the Nepaulese, the country has been under the protection of China, or rather has been subject to its power. The Lama is supposed, by his votaries, never to die; but when his dissolution takes place, they conceive that the divinity merely passes out of one body into another; and, on such occasions, the priests search diligently till they find the new divinity. In 1784, the English ambassador,

CHINA.

Boundaries.—The Chinese empire is bounded on the north by Asiatic Russia; on the west, by Independent Tartary; on the south-west and south, by Tibet, Chin-India, and the Chinese Sea; and on the south-east and east, by the same sea, and other parts of the Pacific Ocean.*

Divisions.—China Proper is divided into fifteen provinces, which, with their chief towns, are as follows:

FOUR NORTHERN.

PROVINCES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Pe-tche-lee	Pekin, Pao-ting-foo
Shan-see	Tai-yuen-foo
Shen-see	Sin-gan-foo
Shan-tong	Tsee-nan-foo

SEVEN IN THE MIDDLE.

Honan	Cai-fong-foo
Kiang-nan	Nankin
Se-tchuen	Tching-too-foo
Koei-tcheoo	Koei-yang-foo
Hooquang	Voo-tchang-foo
Kiang-see	Nan-tchang-foo
Tche-kiang	Hang-tcheoo-foo

Capt. Turner, was introduced to the Lama, who had been then lately found; and was a fine sprightly boy, eighteen months old, attended by his father and mother. The worshippers of the Lama conceive, that a celestial odour exhales from his person; that flowers spring up beneath his feet; and that, in the most parched desert, fountains flow at his command. His palace, which is at Puta-la, or "the holy mountain," seven miles east of Lassa, is uncommonly splendid; containing, it is said, ten thousand apartments, with vast numbers of images of gold and silver, besides many other ornaments.

* This vast empire is computed to contain above five millions of square miles, or considerably more, if Tibet, and some other places under Chinese influence, be included. It has a sea-coast which is nearly four thousand miles in extent. The extreme latitudes are

FOUR SOUTHERN.

PROVINCES.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Yun-nan	Yun-nan-foo
Quang-see	Quei-ling-foo
Quang-tong	Canton, Macao
Fo-kien	Foo-tcheoo-foo

Islands.—The principal islands are Formosa or Tai-oan, and Hai-nan.

Seas.—The Gulf of Pe-tche-lee, the Yellow Sea, the Chinese Sea, and the Gulf of Tonquin.

Seaports.—The chief seaports are Canton, Emouy, and Ning-po.

Face of the Country.—So far as the country is known, there seems to be but a small proportion of it mountainous; and there are some large plains.

Rivers.—The Yang-tse-kiang, Kian-ku, or Blue River, after a long eastward course, falls into the Eastern Sea, at Nankin; and the Hoan-ho, or Yellow River, after a like course, discharges itself into the Yellow Sea, 110 miles north of the same place. The Hoan-kiang falls into the Bay of Canton; and the Pay-ho passes Pekin, and falls into the Gulf of Pe-tche-lee.*

Canals.—China contains a vast number of canals. The principal of these is the Imperial Canal, which, in connexion with rivers, extends from Pekin to Hang-tcheoo-foo, a distance of 900 miles. By means of another canal, the navigation is continued to Canton;

about 20° and 53° north, and the extreme longitudes about 70° and 140° east. China Proper contains about a million of square miles; and lies between 20° and 41° of north latitude, and between 100° and 124° of east longitude.

* The Hoan-ho derives its name from the great quantity of mud suspended in its water, which gives it a yellowish tinge. The same circumstance gives name to the Yellow Sea; as, from the vast quantity of coloured water carried into it by the Hoan-ho, the sea has also a like tinge, to a great extent.

with the exception of one day's journey, in a mountainous district, between Quang-tong and Kiang-see.*

Great Wall.—The vast wall in the north of China, which was erected to prevent the incursions of the Tartars, is about 1500 miles long, from fifteen to thirty feet high; and so broad, that, in many places, six horsemen may ride abreast on its top.†

Towns.—China contains many large cities and towns. The principal are PEKIN, the present capital; and Sin-gan-foo, Nankin, Canton, and Hang-tcheoo-foo.‡

Climate and Soil.—The climate is in most places temperate, but rather warm, particularly towards the south. The soil is in general fertile; and in some places, there is fine vegetable mould, five or six feet deep.

Produce.—China has most of the vegetable productions of Europe, besides several peculiar to itself, particularly tea.¶ The

* The Imperial Canal, the greatest in the world, is 200 feet broad at the surface. In passing through high grounds, its channel is, in several instances, cut to the depth of 60 or 70 feet below the surface. In marshy or low districts, on the contrary, it is often raised 20 feet above the level of the surrounding country by embankments, so that its surface is frequently higher than the walls of the cities which it passes; and it sometimes occasions destructive inundations.

† In the plains, the height is thirty feet; and, in the mountainous districts, fifteen or twenty. It is thought to have been erected between 200 and 300 years before Christ; and is said to have occupied every third man in the empire, for five years, in building it. Some doubt this account, however, and think that it was erected at different and much later periods. The foundation is formed of large square stones laid in mortar, and the rest of it consists of a mound of earth cased on both sides with brick or stone. It is the greatest and most stupendous fabric in the world; and contains materials sufficient to form two walls, each six feet high and two feet thick, round the globe.

‡ The population of the Chinese cities has been excessively exaggerated. Thus, Pekin has been said to contain three millions of inhabitants, while the latest and best writers reduce the amount to 600,000 or 700,000. Sin-gan-foo is next to it in magnitude and importance; and Nankin, Canton, and Hang-tcheoo-foo, have probably a population of about 200,000 each. These cities contain many great and remarkable buildings, such as palaces and pagodas; the latter of which are temples, and other houses of worship. The famous porcelain tower of Nankin, so called from being cased with porcelain, belongs to one of these temples. This is eight stories high, and is ascended by 884 steps.

¶ The tea-shrub grows to the height of six or eight, and sometimes

fruits are of inferior quality, from want of ingrafting, and other proper management.

Animals.—This country has most of the domestic animals known in Europe; but the breeds of them are generally inferior. It has also most of the wild and ferocious animals of other countries, except the lion.

Population, &c.—The population is thought to be about 150 millions; and the army probably amounts to 500,000 or 600,000 ill-disciplined men.*

Government.—The emperor has the most unlimited power over the lives and properties of his subjects. The civil and military affairs are managed by nine classes of persons, called mandarins by the Europeans. These have absolute power over the people whom they govern.†

ten or twelve feet. The leaves are gathered in spring, and are exposed to the steam of hot water. They are then made to assume the shrivelled appearance in which we see them, by being placed on plates of copper, iron, or baked earth, and held over the fire. The black teas are afterwards dried thoroughly by exposure to the sun. The earliest leaves of the spring, and those from the extremities of the branches, are considered the finest. There are many varieties, arising chiefly from being produced in different districts, or preserved in different modes. The tea-shrub is cultivated only in China and Japan. It has been tried in Europe; but thus far the experiments have failed. The sugar-cane is successfully cultivated in this empire, and the bamboo grows in great abundance. This is a kind of reed which reaches the height of 30 or 40 feet, and is of the greatest utility to the Chinese. Its shoots are used as food. Its fibres serve as wicks of candles, or are made into matting and cables. Its trunks are used as water-pipes; and its wood is made into furniture and utensils of every kind, or is bruised, and converted into paper.

* The Chinese are in the habit of giving exaggerated accounts of the power of their empire to foreigners. Thus, in 1795, they represented its population to Lord Macartney as being 333 millions.

† The emperor is almost adored by the people, and offerings are made to his image and throne. He styles himself "the Great Father," "the Son of Heaven," and "the sole Ruler of the world." The people prostrate themselves in his presence; and his nobles kneel when he addresses them, or gives them orders. When he goes abroad, he is attended by 2000 men, carrying chains, axes, and other symbols of power. On these occasions, the people shut themselves in their houses, and close their shops; and, if any one happen to be in the way, he is exposed to instant death, unless he turn his back, or fall flat on his face on the ground. The mandarins are removable at his pleasure; and, on this account, they endeavour to enrich themselves by exactions from the people. To prevent danger from their influence, they are changed every three years from one station to another; and are not permitted to hold any civil office in their native province; and

Manufactures.—The Chinese manufacture silk, cotton, and woollen goods, and many other articles. The only manufacture in which they excel, however, is porcelain; and their superiority in this arises chiefly from the excellence of the materials which they possess for its formation.

Commerce.—The country has a vast inland trade, in consequence of the facilities presented by the numerous canals and navigable rivers. There is sometimes also a considerable overland trade with Russia, by means of caravans. The commerce by sea with Europe and America, is entirely confined to Canton.*

Agriculture.—Agriculture is greatly encouraged by the emperor, and men of influence; yet it is not practised on a great scale, nor are its principles well understood.†

cannot be stationed nearer to it than fifty leagues, till they are sixty years old. They are also prohibited from marrying in the place where they govern, and are subject to several other restrictions. They are almost all taken from the lower ranks of the people, who are pleased to see the avenues to power and wealth thus open to the talents and exertions of their sons; and they obey and honour the mandarins as they would the emperor himself.

* The principal articles which the Europeans and Americans receive in this traffic, are tea and porcelain; and they give in return, broadcloth, cotton goods, spices, watches, mirrors, jewellery, &c. In 1806, the weight of the tea exported amounted to 45 millions of pounds, of which the British took 31 millions. The Chinese have a limited trade, in vessels of their own, with Japan, Manilla, Malaya, and a few neighbouring places. This trade is confined to the ports of Canton, Emouy, and Ning-po. Commerce is considered the least creditable employment in China; the trader being looked upon as the lowest character in the empire, and as one who will cheat whenever he has it in his power. At the same time, as it affords the means of procuring a livelihood, and as the facilities for internal traffic are so great, amazing multitudes are engaged in it; and it has been computed, that the number and tonnage of the vessels thus employed, is equal to that of all the vessels in the rest of the world. This, however, is most probably an exaggeration.

† The Chinese have been compared to gardeners, from cultivating small spots with great care, chiefly with the spade and the hoe; while there are few large farms, and these are badly managed. A fourth part of the country, also, consists of lakes and swamps; the latter of which, from want of enterprise and capital, the Chinese never attempt to cultivate. Husbandmen hold the next rank to the officers of the state, and to men of letters. Every year, on a day about the beginning of March, the emperor repairs in great state to a field appointed for the purpose; and, after he has made a prayer, sacrificed an ox, and performed other ceremonies, in presence of vast numbers, particularly husbandmen, he opens the ground with a plough drawn by

Literature, &c.—There are schools in every city and village in China, and half the people can read and write. The acquisition of this degree of knowledge, requires ten or twelve years, from the difficulty of the language, and the bad system of teaching. The country is almost destitute of science, and has made little progress in literature.*

Religion.—The religion is idolatry, in a vast number of sects; particularly those of Kong-foo-tse or Confucius, the Tao-tse, and Fo. The emperors of the present race, are of the religion of the Dalai Lama.

Character.—The Chinese are submissive, orderly, and polite; but they are cunning and fraudulent, and pay little attention to truth.†

Historical Sketch.—The Chinese make extravagant pretensions respecting the antiquity of their empire, some of their

oxen splendidly ornamented. After he has made several furrows round the field, he gives the plough to the chief mandarins, who do the like in succession. Some time after, when the field has received the necessary preparations, the emperor returns, and sows the first seed of the season, the produce of which is carefully gathered and preserved for the most holy offerings. The like is done, on the same days, by the viceroys and governors over all the empire; and, by this means, the practice of agriculture is countenanced and promoted.

* The Chinese are unable to predict eclipses, and Portuguese are employed to regulate their almanacks. They believe in all the absurdities of astrology; and endeavour, by means of it, to predict future events. They think that the sky is round, and that the earth is a square placed in the middle of it, with the element of water on the north side of it, that of fire on the south, that of wood on the east, and that of metal on the west; and they believe that the stars are all stuck in the sky, at equal distances from the earth. During eclipses, they conceive that the sun or moon is in danger of being devoured by a great dragon: and, on such occasions, people of every kind, from the highest to the lowest, assemble in the towns; offering up prayers for the safety of the luminary, and beating on drums and kettles to frighten away the dragon.

† The Chinese are of a complexion between dark and fair; and they have, in general, small eyes, high cheek bones, pointed chins, flat noses, and large ears. A Chinese female is considered beautiful in proportion to the smallness of her eyes, the protuberance of her lips, the lankness and blackness of her hair, and, above all, the extreme smallness of her feet. To gain this latter qualification, the feet are very tightly bandaged during youth; so that all the toes, except the great one, grow into the sole. By this means, the foot is rendered so small, that its length does not exceed four inches, and its breadth an inch and a half. The ankles, however, become bulky and clumsy; and the females can scarcely walk.

writers tracing their history back through a period of more than 90,000 years before the commencement of the Christian era. From their own histories, however, when carefully considered, the empire does not seem to have been of any considerable magnitude or power earlier than eight centuries before Christ. Since that period, there appear to have been nineteen or twenty dynasties, or lines of sovereigns; and the country has been agitated by numerous wars, and internal commotions; having been sometimes divided between different princes, and having been permanently united in one empire, only since the year 1279 of the Christian era. The first monarch of the present dynasty was Sun-shee or Shee-tsong, a Man-tchoo Tartar, who, in 1644, conquered the empire, and whose descendants still occupy the throne. The sovereigns have of late shown favour to their Tartar countrymen, and thus displeased the Chinese; and for this and other causes, secret societies of a seditious character are extensively spread over the empire, and render another revolution a likely event.

CHINESE TARTARY.

Divisions.—Chinese Tartary consists of two great divisions, Mantchooria and Mongolia, with numerous subdivisions. The principal town of the former is Mookden or Shin-yan; and that of the latter, Zhe-holl. In 1759, Little Bukharia was conquered by the Chinese. Its chief towns are Cashgar and Yarkand.

Face of the Country.—The Man-tchoo territory contains many vast forests, with some deserts; but a large proportion of it is fertile. Mongolia, in its full extent, embraces the vast sandy desert of Cobi or Shamo, 1400 miles in length, and interrupted by only a few oases, or habitable tracts.

Climate, &c.—A great part of this vast region is much colder than might be expected from its latitude. This is particularly the case in Mongolia, which is situated on the high central plateau of Asia. There are many fertile plains and valleys, however, which produce excellent pastures.

Manner of Living, &c.—Among the numerous tribes in this extensive country, there are many varieties in manners and customs. Most of the Mongols live in tents, which, as the pastures fail,

they remove ten or fifteen times a year, going northward in spring and southward in autumn. In these peregrinations, they move with their flocks in regular procession; and the young women, who are placed in the rear, enliven the march by cheerful songs. Their flocks consist of horses, camels, black cattle, sheep, and goats. The people live principally on animal food. They play at draughts; and amuse themselves with archery, wrestling, and above all, horse-races, in which even the young women excel. It will appear, therefore, that they are in a very imperfect state of civilization: at the same time, they have many amiable qualities, and they seem to enjoy a very considerable degree of happiness.

Government, &c.—The khans or chiefs are subject to the emperor of China, and pay an annual tribute. The religion is Lamaism, or that of the Dalai Lama.*

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

Situation.—Independent Tartary, or Tatar, lies between the Caspian Sea and Chinese Tartary, in one direction; and between the Russian dominions on the north, and Persia and Afghanistan on the south.

Divisions.—This country is very little known; but its principal divisions seem to be the following:

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Country of the Kirghees	(No towns)
Turkestan	Tashkent or Tashkund
Khowaresm	Khieva or Khiva
Great Bukharia	SAMARCAND, Bukhaura

Climate.—The climate is, in general, temperate; but the winters are in some parts very severe.

Condition of the People.—All the hordes of the Kirghees, and many others, live in tents, and move about with their cattle like

* The peninsula of Corea is governed by a king, who has absolute authority among his own subjects, but pays an annual tribute to the emperor of China. The capital is King-ki-tao; but very little is known of the country.

the Mongols. A rich Tartar is sometimes known to possess 10,000 horses, 4000 black cattle, and 20,000 sheep, besides camels and goats.

Historical Sketch.—The most remarkable events in the history of this part of Asia, are the subjugation of the surrounding countries, by its hordes, under Zenghis Khan and Tamerlane. The former of these, who was a Mongul, conquered Corea, Cathay, all central Asia, and part of China; but he was stopped in his career by death in 1227, and his vast dominions were divided among his four sons. Tamerlane, or Timour, who was a Tartar of Bukharia, overran Persia and India, and spoiled Delhi of its treasures. He next overthrew the Turks under Bajazet; and, having thus made himself master of all the centre and south of Asia, he conquered Egypt, and carried off the treasures of Cairo. He then made Samarcand his capital; and received homage from the emperor of Constantinople, and the king of Castile in Spain. He died in 1405, while preparing to invade China. The exploits and success of these conquerors have perhaps not been exceeded by any on record; but their tracks, particularly that of Tamerlane, were marked with cruelty and blood.

EMPIRE OF JAPAN.

Situation.—The empire or kingdom of Japan consists of the islands of Nippon, Kiusiu, Sikoff, and many smaller, situated east of Corea, between the Sea of Japan and the Pacific Ocean.*

Face of the Country.—The country is greatly diversified with mountains, hills, and valleys; and the shores are bold and rocky.

* These islands are situated between 31° and $41\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ of north latitude, and between 129° and 142° of east longitude. Nippon is nearly 800 miles long, and has an average breadth of above 100 miles. Kiusiu is above 200 miles long and 100 broad, and Sikoff about 120 miles long and 60 broad. The content of these and the smaller Japanese islands, is above 120,000 square miles. The island of Matsumai or Iesso, north of Nippon, now belongs to Japan; but it is very imperfectly known. Little indeed is known of the empire at large, in consequence of the extreme jealousy of the government in respect to foreigners.

Towns.—The principal towns are IEDO or YEDO, Miaco, Namboo, and Osaka, in Nippon; and Nangasaki and Sanga, in Kiusiu.*

Climate and Soil.—The climate is variable, and rather moist; and there is often great heat in summer, and severe cold in winter. Much of the soil is naturally unproductive; but such is the industry of the people, that every spot which will at all admit of it, is carefully cultivated.†

Produce, &c.—Japan produces tea, and other articles in common with China; and the animals are nearly the same, except sheep, goats, and pigs, scarcely any of which are allowed to be in the country, as they are supposed to be injurious to agriculture, which is encouraged in preference to every other occupation.

Population.—The population is supposed to be fifteen or twenty millions.

Government.—The emperor is an hereditary absolute monarch; and the princes under him are the same in their respective territories.

State of Education, &c.—The schools of Japan are said to be superior to those of any other country in Asia; and the people are more industrious and enterprising than the Chinese.

Religion.—There are different religious sects, some of which resemble those of China, and others those of India. Christians have been held in detestation since about the commencement of the seventeenth century, when the Jesuits were expelled for political reasons, after they had made many converts, a great number of whom were put to death.

* Iedo is said to be sixty miles in circuit; and it contains the emperor's palace, which, with the numerous buildings belonging to it, is said to be no less than fifteen miles round. In these buildings, the various princes of the empire reside, during half the year; and their families, or part of them, are always kept there as hostages for their fidelity. The "Hall of a hundred mats" is 600 feet long and 300 wide. The houses in Japan have neither chairs nor tables, the people sitting on mats; and the emperor himself, when he grants an audience, sits on a carpet. Miaco, according to a census taken in 1674, contained above 400,000 inhabitants. In this city is the palace of the Daïri, or supreme dignitary of the church; who, in the degree of homage and adoration that he receives, is little inferior to the Grand Lama of Tibet.

† Even on the sides of mountains, terraces are formed by means of walls, and are sown with grain and pulse.

AFRICA.

GENERAL VIEW.

Boundaries, &c.—Africa is the south-western part of the old continent. It is joined to Asia by the Isthmus of Suez; and is bounded on the north-east by that isthmus, the Red Sea, and the Strait of Bab-el-mandeb; on the east and south-east, by the Indian Ocean; on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the north, by the Strait of Gibraltar and the Mediterranean Sea.*

Divisions.—The principal divisions of Africa are as follows:

NORTHERN AFRICA.

Egypt, Barbary, and Sahara. Barbary is divided into the states of Barca, Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, Fez, and Morocco.

WESTERN AFRICA.

Guinea and Congo.

SOUTHERN AFRICA.

Countries of the Namaquas and Hottentots, district of the Cape of Good Hope, and Hambrona.

EASTERN AFRICA.

Sabia, Sofala or Botonga, Mocaranga or Monomotapa, Mozambique, Zanguebar, Ajan, Adel, Abyssinia, and Nubia.

CENTRAL AFRICA.

Soudan or Nigritia, comprehending Houssa, Timbuctoo, Bornoo, Darfoor, and several other states, besides many unknown countries south of it.

* This country, which is greater than Europe, and less than Asia, is about 5000 miles in length, from Cape d'Aguillas to the north of Tunis; and about 4700 in breadth, from Cape Verde to Cape Guardafui. It lies between 37° of north and 35° of south latitude, and between 18° of west and 52° of east longitude. From the want of inland seas and gulfs, and from other obstacles to travelling, Africa is less known than any of the other great divisions of the earth.

Islands.—Madagascar, the Comora Isles, Bourbon, Mauritius or the Isle of France, and Socotra, in the Indian Ocean; and the Madeiras, Canaries, Cape Verde Islands, St. Matthew, Ascension, St. Helena, Fernando and St. Thomas, in the Atlantic.

Capes.—The Cape of Good Hope and Cape d'Agulhas at the south, Capes Serra and Bon at the north, Guardafui at the east, and Cape Verde at the west.

Besides these, there are Capes Spartel, Cantin, Agulhas, Blanco, Roxo, Mezurado, Palmas, Three Rivers, Formosa, Lopez Gonzalvo, Ledo, Voltas, and others, on the Atlantic; and Corrientes, Delgado, &c. on the Indian Ocean.

Mountains, &c.—The principal mountains are the Atlas chain, in the north; the mountains of Lupata, in the south-east; and the mountains of Kong and of the Moon, in the middle.* Vast sandy deserts constitute a striking feature of the country. That of Arabia is the greatest in the world.

Lakes.—Dembea, in Abyssinia; the Sea of Soudan, the Congo; and Lake Maravi, near the mountains of Angola.

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the Nile, which flows through Abyssinia, Nubia, and Egypt, into the Mediterranean; the Senegal and Gambia, which fall into the Atlantic, on opposite sides of Cape Verde; the Congo or Barbela, in Congo; the Zambezi or Cuamato, in the south; the mouth of Mozambique; and the Kowara or Niger, in the north of Soudan.†

The Atlas mountains consist of several chains, rising in gradual elevation, like terraces from the sea. These mountains give name to the Atlantic Ocean. The mountains of Lupata are sometimes called the Backbone of the World.

Various attempts have been made to explore the course of the Nile, but they have all failed from the difficulties opposed by climate, and the inhabitants of the states through which it flows. Some suppose that it terminates in an unknown inland lake, such as the Red Sea; but the most probable opinion seems to be, that it discharges itself into the Gulf of Guinea, about Biafra.

EGYPT.

Boundaries.—Egypt is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the east by the Isthmus of Suez and the Red Sea, on the south by Nubia, and on the west by the Libyan Desert.*

DIVISIONS.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Lower Egypt, or Bahari ..	CAIRO,†	Alexandria, Raschid or Rosetta, Damietta, Djizeh
Middle Egypt, or Vostani ..	Medineh, Benisooef	
Upper Egypt, or Said	Djirdjeh, Sioot, Meshieh, Den- derah	

* Egypt lies between the latitudes of $23\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$ and $31\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ north; and its extreme longitudes are about 30° and 35° east. Its length from north to south is upwards of 500 miles. Its breadth is uncertain; but it nowhere exceeds 250 miles, while in most places it is much less.

† The population of Cairo is about 300,000. That of Damietta is differently stated, from 80,000 to 30,000; and that of Alexandria is about 16,000, and of Rosetta about 12,000. Cairo, or Grand Cairo, called by the Arabs Kahira, was founded in the year 970 by the caliph Almanzor. From the Nile, this city has a very fine appearance; nothing being seen except the tops of the citadel, and other large buildings, rising above beautiful trees. On inspection, however, it disappoints the expectations thus formed; mean hovels every where presenting themselves, in narrow, crooked streets, unpaved, and choked with dirt and dust. The houses of the higher classes are two, and sometimes three stories high, and are of stone; but those of the lower orders are of mud or unburnt bricks, and are but one story high. It contains a few handsome public buildings, particularly mosques.—Alexandria, so called from its founder, Alexander the Great, continued to be the metropolis of Egypt, and the principal seat of the arts and sciences, from his time till it was captured by the Saracens in the year 640. It contained the two noblest streets in the world; which, crossing each other perpendicularly, extended through its entire length and breadth, and were each 2000 feet in width. These streets contained the most beautiful and magnificent palaces, temples, and other public buildings, composed of the finest materials, and planned and executed with the greatest elegance and taste. The neighbourhood of the present town, for the extent of two leagues, still presents remains of pilasters, obelisks, and other monuments of its ancient greatness, in such abundance, that the heaps of them are often higher than the houses erected beside them.

ports.—The principal ports are Alexandria, Rosetta, and Damietta, on the Mediterranean; and Suez and Portosifre, on the Red Sea.

cities.—Menzaleh, Mareotis, Boorlos, Etko, &c.

river.—The only river is the Nile, which in Lower Egypt separates into two principal branches. One of them falls into the sea near Rosetta, and the other into the sea near Damietta; and they enclose between them the fertile tract called the Delta.*

climate and Soil.—The climate of Egypt is very hot, particularly during the inundation.† The soil in the Delta and the

The Nile, in ancient times, had seven mouths, some of which have since been choked up. By this means, the Delta is now much smaller than formerly. This river has been celebrated, since the earliest times, for its annual inundations or floods, which lay the whole part of Lower Egypt under water; though in that country, except on the coast of the Mediterranean, there is seldom even a shower. The inundation is occasioned by the great rains which fall between the tropics; and it is on these occasions that the fertility of Egypt, and even the existence of the Nile, depend. The river begins to swell about the middle of August; and at the highest about the middle of September, and is again at its natural level about the winter solstice. At this latter period, the lands are put under culture; and, after the grain is sown, the chief business of the husbandman consists in irrigating the ground with water conveyed in canals, from the time of the inundation. A disastrous result to the inhabitants from the rise of the river being either greater or much less than the average height. In the latter case there is not sufficient water to fertilize the ground, and to leave a necessary quantity in the canals; and in the former, there is often a loss of life and property, by the overwhelming of villages. Many of the villages are not raised even above the level of the ordinary inundation, but depend for safety on fences of earth and reeds, which, when the river rises three or four feet above the usual height, are unable to resist. On such occasions, the boats of the pasha are employed in saving first the corn, which he considers most valuable, and then the people; and individuals often climb palm-trees, or keep themselves afloat on logs of timber, or bundles of reeds, and wait for relief; others endeavour to escape on buffaloes or cows: but many, particularly women, children, and old men, perish.

The following remarks on this subject, are characteristic and beautiful. “The aspect of Egypt undergoes periodical changes with the seasons. In our winter months, when nature is for us dead, she seems to give life into these climates; and the verdure of Egypt’s enamelled plains, is then delightful to the eye. The air is perfumed with the fragrance of the flowers of orange and citron-trees, and numerous shrubs.

valley of the Nile, which are the only parts that are of much value, is uncommonly fertile, consisting of black unctuous mould, deposited from time to time by the river.

Produce, &c.—The vegetable productions of the country are extremely numerous. Some of the principal are rice, wheat, barley, doura, tobacco, flax, sugar-cane, indigo, and cotton, with various kinds of fruit. Besides the common domestic animals, there are crocodiles and hippopotamuses. These, however, are now confined almost entirely to Upper Egypt.

Population.—The amount of the population is uncertain; but it is supposed to be about two millions and a half. Of these, about a quarter of a million are Kopts, who are descended from the ancient inhabitants; and the rest are principally of Arabian origin, with some Turks, Jews, and Greeks.

Government.—Egypt is governed by a pasha, appointed by the Grand Seignior.*

Commerce.—The greater part of the trade of Egypt is carried on by caravans, which travel to Abyssinia, Barbary, Syria, and other places. The present pasha has been endeavouring to increase the commerce with Europe, and has latterly been exporting considerable quantities of cotton.

Learning, &c.—This country was greatly celebrated, in ancient times, for the progress of its inhabitants in the arts and sciences.

The flocks overspreading the plain, add animation to the landscape. Egypt now forms one delightful garden, though somewhat monotonous in its character. On all hands, it presents nothing but a plain, bounded by whitish mountains, and diversified here and there with clumps of palms. In the opposite season, this same country exhibits nothing but a brown soil, either miry, or dry, hard, and dusty; immense fields laid under water, and vast spaces unoccupied and void of culture; plains in which the only objects to be seen are date-trees; camels and buffaloes led by miserable peasants, naked and sunburnt, wrinkled and lean; a scorching sun, a cloudless sky, and constant winds varying in force. It is not, therefore, surprising that travellers have differed in their physical delineations of this country."

* The pasha had formerly only nominal power; the real authority belonging to the Mameluke beys, who ruled the country as they chose, and sometimes even dismissed the pasha. The Mamelukes, who were originally military slaves, purchased by the caliphs to form their body guards, and whose numbers were kept up by new purchases, suffered severely from the late French invasion. After that event, a pasha of determined spirit was appointed, who treacherously put most of the Mameluke chiefs to the sword. The rest of the body fled to Nubia, and were driven from thence to Darfoor; and hence, this body is for ever removed from Egypt. The government is now like that of other Turkish provinces, the pasha usually paying a tribute to the Grand Seignior, but in other respects yielding only a nominal subjection.

There is at present a kind of college in Cairo, in which instructions are delivered on grammar and astrology, and on the doctrines of Mohammedanism, which is the established religion. The country, however, is destitute of any knowledge of real science.

Antiquities.—Egypt displays numerous and striking remains of ancient art and greatness. The principal of these are pyramids, catacombs, sphinxes, obelisks, and the ruins of many beautiful temples, and other buildings.*

* There are numerous pyramids in different places; but the most remarkable are those of Djizeh, near Cairo. These are composed of stone, are erected on square bases, and taper almost to a point. The perpendicular height of the first is 477 feet, and each side of its base is 720 feet. In the second, the like dimensions are 456 and 684 feet. Hence, the first of these vast masses covers the space of nearly twelve acres, and the second nearly ten acres and three quarters. From late examinations of their interior, it seems to be fully established that they were erected as sepulchres for the early kings. They contain within them large apartments, one of which has been found to be 66 feet long and 27 wide. It is remarkable, that in six pyramids which have been opened, the principal passage is directed towards the polestar, having an inclination of 26° to the horizon. It is also remarkable that their faces are turned with precision towards the north, south, east, and west points of the horizon; and hence it appears, that at a very early period, the ancient Egyptians must have made some progress in practical astronomy. Catacombs, or subterranean vaults for the dead, are found in several places; but the most remarkable, are those near the site of Thebes, in Upper Egypt. Some of these are thought to have been formed between three and four thousand years before the present time. They consist of subterranean passages and chambers, cut in the sides of the mountains, at different heights above the adjacent plain. They exhibit numerous hieroglyphics, and are adorned with many paintings, which often display much excellence in their execution, and which still retain their colours fresh and good. Those intended for the remains of the Theban monarchs, were peculiarly spacious and magnificent; and each of them contained a sarcophagus or stone coffin, of great magnitude. One of these coffins that has been examined, consists of a mass of granite sixteen feet long, six broad, and eight high; and has a lid of a single block of stone, adorned with the effigy of a king. The formation of these catacombs, arose from an opinion entertained by the ancient Egyptians, that if the body were preserved from dissolution, it would again, after the lapse of five or six thousand years, be animated by the soul. On this account, also, they embalmed the bodies of the dead in such a manner, that little change was made in the appearance and figure; and many of them remain, even at the present day, in a high state of preservation. These mummies, as they are called, are now procured with considerable difficulty, as the more

Historical Sketch.—The earliest line of kings in Egypt, of which there is any authentic account, is that of the Pharaohs. It is supposed that by them Thebes and Memphis were built, and the pyramids and many of the other stupendous works of the country were erected. This dynasty was overturned by Cambyses, king of Persia, 525 years before Christ; and Egypt continued occasionally subject to the Persians, and occasionally independent, till it submitted to Alexander the Great. After his death, it was seized, 323 years before Christ, by Ptolemy, one of his generals, who was the first of the kings of that name. To this line of sovereigns, it continued subject till the death of the celebrated queen Cleopatra, when it fell under the power of Rome, thirty years before Christ. The next conquerors of Egypt were the Saracens, under the caliph Omar, by whom it was subjected in the year 640. In 1517 it was subdued by the Turks, who extinguished the glory of the country, already obscured by the Saracens. In the recent history of Egypt, the most prominent events are those connected with its invasion by the French, under Bonaparte, in 1798; and its defence by Britain. The result of these extraordinary proceedings, was the overthrow of the French power in the country, in 1801, by the English; and the restoration of the province by the latter to the Turks, to whom it still continues nominally subject.

accessible tombs have long since been deprived of the bodies they contained. The largest of the numberless sphinxes found in Egypt, is near the pyramids of Djizeh. This monstrous production consists of the head of a virgin joined to the body of a quadruped, and is principally formed out of the solid rock. Near Alexandria are the two obelisks called Cleopatra's Needles. These are columns each above seventy feet high, and consisting of a single stone. One of these is still erect; but the other is overturned. Near the same place is the beautiful column called Pompey's Pillar, which is above ninety feet high. Neither the time these were erected, nor their object, is known.—In speaking of the antiquities of Egypt, its two most ancient capitals, Thebes and Memphis, may be mentioned. The site of Thebes is known by the ruins of some of its public edifices, by the catacombs, and by some great statues; but respecting Memphis, as after its decline its principal architectural ornaments were carried to Alexandria, it is only known, that it was situated on the western side of the Nile, near the great pyramids. It was the seat of government during the reigns of the Pharaohs. The greatness of Thebes has doubtless been much overrated. At the same time, the poetic exaggeration, that in time of war it could send forth 200 chariots and 20,000 men from each of its hundred gates, proves, that it must have been a place of extraordinary magnitude and population.

NUBIA.

Boundaries.—The limits of Nubia are uncertain. In its largest extent, however, it lies between Egypt and Abyssinia, in one direction; and between the Red Sea and Bornoo, in the other.*

Divisions and Towns.—The principal divisions are Nubia Proper and Sennaar; and the chief towns are Deir or Dehr, Ibrim, Dongola, Gherri, Harbaghi, and Sennaar.†

Climate.—The heat in Nubia is excessive; and there is a rainy season, which lasts from June till September.‡

Produce, &c.—The most important production is durra, which is the principal article of food. This is brought to maturity by irrigation with water raised by wheels, which are turned by cows. The animals are elephants, rhinoceroses, and most of the others which are found in the rest of Africa.

Population, Government, &c.—The population is extremely small, compared with the extent of territory; and most of the country belongs to the pasha of Egypt, who has lately added much to the part that formerly belonged to the Turks.

Inhabitants.—The inhabitants are all black, or at least of a dark brown. Some of them towards the south, have the features and appearance of negroes; but of the rest, some resemble in figure and features the Arabs, and others the Europeans.

Religion.—The religion is partly Mohammedanism, and partly idolatry.

ABYSSINIA.

Situation.—Abyssinia or Ethiopia, or, as the natives prefer that it should be called, Agazi or Ghez, is

* Taken in this extent, Nubia is about 700 miles long and 500 broad. From the comparatively small importance of this country and several others in Africa, the accounts of them here given will be short.

† Sennaar is said to have formerly contained 100,000 inhabitants.

‡ The greatest heat is between January and April, when the thermometer sometimes stands at 119°; and the burning sands render travelling impracticable, except at night. The high grounds consist of frightful deserts, either of sharp stones or deep sand.

situated south of Nubia, between the seventh and fifteenth degrees of north latitude; but its boundaries are very fluctuating and uncertain.

Towns.—The chief towns are GONDAR,* Axum, Dixan, and Antalé.

Climate.—Abyssinia is in general an elevated country; and hence, except in low valleys, the heat is less than in Nubia and Egypt. The wet season continues from June till September, at which time the rains fall in torrents, and are often accompanied by thunder and dreadful hurricanes.

Produce.—The principal produce is wheat, barley, maize, and various tropical fruits, with numerous perfumes.

Animals.—Besides lions, panthers, and leopards, which are common over most of Africa; there are rhinoceroses, hyenas, hippopotamuses, and crocodiles, with great numbers of black cattle, and other domestic animals.

Government.—The government is a despotic monarchy.

Religion.—The religion is nominally Christianity, but in a most corrupted state; being mixed with many Jewish, Moham-medan, and Pagan absurdities.

Character, &c.—The people are barbarous and depraved in their manners, and disgusting in all their habits.†

Historical Sketch.—One of the earliest events recorded by the Abyssinians in their annals, is the visit of their sovereign, the queen of Sheba or Ethiopia, to Solomon. By him she had a son, from whom the Abyssinians say that their monarchs at the present time are descended. It was overrun by the Egyptians in the reign of Ptolemy Euergetes, and by the Romans in the reign of Augustus. Neither, however, made any permanent settlement in the country. Christianity was introduced from Egypt, in the year 330. Since that time, there have been various wars with the Moors, the kingdom of Adel, and other adjoining states; and there have been many internal commotions and several revolutions. The history of these, however, is of little general importance.

* Gondar, the capital, is said by Bruce to contain 10,000 families, and a hundred Christian churches.

† Bruce's statement, that they eat raw flesh just cut from the living animal, has been controverted. It is certain, however, that they often feed on raw flesh, with recent blood for sauce. In their punishments, they are excessively severe; and prisoners taken in war are treated with the greatest barbarity.

BARBARY.

Situation.—Barbary extends from Egypt to the Atlantic, and from the Mediterranean to Sahara.*

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Barca	Barca
Tripoli	Tripoli
Tunis	Tunis
Algiers	Algiers, Constantine
Fez	Fez
Morocco	Morocco, Mogadore

Climate.—A large proportion of the country, particularly the higher parts and the seacoasts, has a fine, mild, salubrious climate. In the southern parts, however, and in Barca, the heat is often excessive.†

Soil.—Much of the country is remarkably fertile: but some parts, particularly most of Barca, are barren deserts.

Produce.—Some of the chief productions are wheat, barley, Indian corn, rice, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, sugar-cane, and olives.

Animals.—Barbary contains most of the animals found in Africa, except the rhinoceros, the hippopotamus, the zebra, the camelopard, and several kinds of monkeys.‡

* This country lies between 10° of west and 30° of east longitude, and between 28° and 37° of north latitude. Its length is about 2700 miles, and its breadth varies between a little more than 100 and nearly 600 miles.

† The mildness of the climate is produced partly by its vicinity to the sea, and partly by the refreshing breezes from the snowy summits of the Atlas mountains. In the southern provinces, a suffocating wind, called the *shoom* or *sioom*, from Sahara, is often felt for one, two, or even three weeks, about the beginning of September. Such is the effect of this, that the ground is so heated as to render it almost impossible to walk upon it; and the people retire to subterranean apartments or ground stories, sprinkling the floors and walls with water and vinegar, and eating nothing but fruits. Over all Barbary, from March till September, scarcely a cloud is to be seen, and scarcely a shower falls; and, during the rest of the year, there is rarely a day during which the sun is not at least occasionally visible. The plague sometimes produces dreadful effects in various parts of this country.

‡ The camels of Barbary are extremely useful. Of these, the *heirie*, or camel of the desert, is far the most valuable; sometimes sell-

Population.—The amount of the population is unknown; but it is so small, that the country could support four or five times the number. The inhabitants are composed chiefly of Turks, Moors, Arabs, Jews, Negroes, and Berebbers.*

Government, &c.—In all the states of Barbary, the government is of the most despotic kind; justice is badly administered; and punishments are excessively severe.

Religion.—The religion is Mohammedanism, of a less rigid character than in Turkey.

Character, &c.—The inhabitants of this country are represented by European writers as being treacherous, deceitful, and addicted to falsehood; and they are remarkable for their hatred and contempt of Christians, and others who differ from them in religion.

Historical Sketch.—One of the most remarkable events in the ancient history of this part of the world, was the overthrow of Carthage by the Romans, who thus made themselves masters of a great part of the north of Africa, and held it till its invasion by the Vandals in the fifth century. These barbarians succeeded in conquering all the Roman provinces in this coun-

ing for as much as two hundred common camels. An instance is recorded, in which one of these arrived in seven days at Senegal, from Mogadore, a distance, including the windings of the road, of 1000 or 1100 miles; thus travelling, for so long a period, at the rate of 150 miles a day: and, on another occasion, a Moor of Mogadore set out in the morning for Morocco, at the distance of 100 miles, and returned on the same animal in the evening of the same day. The following is the expressive description of the swiftness of this animal, given by the Arabs of Barbary: "When you meet a heirie, and say to the rider, *Salem alik* (peace be with you), he is out of sight before he can return the *alik salem*; for he flies like the wind."

* The Turks, who are the least numerous, are in general an abandoned race, a great part of them being pirates and fugitives from Turkey. At the same time, as they consider themselves masters of the country, they are haughty and overbearing to all others. The Moors and Jews are the descendants of those who were expelled from Spain. The towns and cultivated plains are chiefly occupied by the former. The Arabs are partly the descendants of those who overran the country at the commencement of Mohammedanism, and partly recent settlers from Sahara; and those of both kinds lead a nomade or wandering life, moving from place to place with their tents and cattle. The Jews are subjected to the most severe treatment, though they practise various trades, are the most useful class of the people, and possess the greatest degree of information. They are tolerated in the exercise of their religion; but are not allowed to possess lands, to wear a sword, to ride a horse, or to leave the country without special permission.

try, by the year 455; and thus gave a blow to its ancient prosperity, from the effects of which it has never recovered. About the year 530, these invaders were themselves overcome by the celebrated Belisarius; and the country continued subject to the Greek emperors, till it was overrun by the Saracens, in the latter part of the seventh century. After continuing for some time a part of the great empire of the caliphs, its governors rendered themselves independent, and erected in it several petty states, which were continually changing their limits, in consequence of mutual wars. Early in the sixteenth century, the states of Barbary attracted notice by their piracies against European ships. This annoying practice they have since continued till the present time, as far as circumstances have permitted; making prizes of vessels and their cargoes, and selling the crews and passengers as slaves. On this account, they have more than once subjected themselves to chastisement from the offended nations of Europe. One of the latest events of this kind was the bombardment of Algiers by the British in 1816, when the dey was obliged to yield to the terms dictated by his powerful assailants.

BARCA.*

Situation, &c.—Barca, a part of the ancient Libya, is the most eastern division of Barbary.

Face of the Country, &c.—Much of this country consists of barren sandy deserts. Some parts, however, particularly along the seacoast, are naturally very fertile; but they are now badly cultivated.

Towns.—Barca, Tolometa (anciently, Ptolemais), Audjelah, Derne, and Bengazi.†

Government.—This country is governed by the beys of Derne and Bengazi, who are appointed by the bey of Tripoli.‡

* After the foregoing general remarks, a few particulars may be given respecting the states of Barbary, considered individually.

† This country contains magnificent ruins of the ancient Cyrené; and others supposed to be those of the temple of Jupiter Ammon, which was so difficult of access on account of the sandy tracts by which it was surrounded.

‡ South-west of Barca is Fezzan, a state which is tributary to Tripoli. The chief town is Moorzook; but little is known either of it, or of the country at large.

TRIPOLI.

Situation.—Tripoli lies between Barca and Tunis, extending from the Gulf of Sidra or Syrtis to that of Gabes or Cabes.

Towns.—Tripoli and Lebida.

Political State.—This country, which is of small consequence, is governed by an hereditary bey, who is in more subjection to Turkey than the deys of Tunis and Algiers.

TUNIS.

Situation.—Tunis lies between Tripoli and Algiers, and is bounded on the north and east by the Mediterranean.

Towns.—TUNIS,* Hammamet, Sfares.

Population, &c.—The population is thought to amount to four or five millions. The people are more employed in agriculture, and are less addicted to piracy, than those of the other states; and they are more civilized and courteous.

Political State.—Tunis is governed by an hereditary bey, who scarcely acknowledges the sovereignty of Turkey.

ALGIERS.

Situation.—Algiers lies between Tunis and the empire of Morocco. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean; but its southern boundary is uncertain.†

Towns.—ALGIERS, Constantine, Oran or Warran, Telemesen, Bona,‡ &c.

* Tunis is one of the finest towns in Barbary. Ancient Carthage stood a few miles north-west of the site of this city; and some of its ruins still remain.

† This country comprehends the ancient Numidia, with part of Mauritania.

‡ Algiers, or Alger, properly Al-jezair or Al-jezirah (*the island*, from an island before the city, now joined to it by a mole), is a handsome town, finely situated, and containing from 80,000 to 100,000 inhabitants. Constantine, anciently Cirta, has a population of nearly 100,000, and presents many fine remains of Roman architecture.

ate, &c.—The climate is delightful, except when the sioom from the desert; and a great proportion of the country is lingly fruitful.

ernment.—Since 1710, the dey has been invested with te power, though nominally controlled by a douan or l. He is elected by the soldiers, out of their own body. , the elections often produce bloody contests; and not ten of the deys escapes assassination by some aspirant sovereignty.

EMPIRE OF MOROCCO.

uation, &c.—The empire of Morocco consists of ngdom of Fez or Faz in the north-east, and that orocco or Marocca in the south-west; and is ed between Algiers and the Atlantic.

ons.—The principal towns are MOROCCO, Mequi- Mogadore, Fez, Sallee, Tangier, Mazagan, and

*

&c.—Most of the country is remarkably productive, larly in grain and pasturage.

rnment.—The government of Morocco is, both in prin- nd practice, one of the most despotic in the world; the tes of the emperor being the only laws, and the exercise uthority being limited by no restraints.

nerce.—The commerce, which is very limited, is carried efly by the port of Mogadore, and by means of caravans h Sahara to Timbuctoo.†

rocco, or Merakash, was founded in the year 1052. Its ion has been stated by different writers at 20,000, 270,000, 0,000; and that of Fez at 30,000, 100,000, and 380,000! h estimates here given are evidently absurd exaggerations; as ntry has neither trade, manufactures, nor other resources, to towns of such population. Equal uncertainty prevails re- g the population of the empire, which has been estimated by t travellers at 2,000,000, 6,000,000, and 15,000,000.

ie chief imports at Mogadore are cloths, linens, muslins, tea, ron, hardware, &c.; and the principal articles exported are s, raisins, gums, olive oil, leather, elephants' teeth, drugs, &c. he misgovernment of the country, however, and the difficulty vering debts, the Europeans have little inducement to engage de, which, under proper regulations, might be of great mutual ge. The caravans carry into the interior of Africa, Irish aud a linens, muslins, cloths, tea, sugar, spices, tobacco, &c.; and ack slaves, gold, elephants' teeth, gums, ostrich feathers, and other articles.

ANOTHER portion of the north of Africa, not mentioned in the foregoing sketch, is Belad-el-djerid, or, as it is generally called, Bildulgerid, a name which signifies "the land of dates." Under this name, the Arabs comprehend all the countries situated on the southern declivity of the Atlas mountains. This stripe extends from the Atlantic to Egypt; and comprehends Darah, Tafiilet or Tafielt, Sedjelmessa, Zab, Gadamis, Fezzan, Audjelah, Sivah, and some other districts. Bildulgerid is often limited so as to comprehend only a greater or less part of the extensive region above mentioned.

SAHARA.

Situation, &c.—Sahāra, or Zahāra, is a vast country, reaching, in its entire extent, from the Atlantic to Egypt, and having in some places a breadth of nearly a thousand miles. This name, however, is generally confined to the desert regions west of Fezzan, while other names are given to the eastern parts.

Face of the Country.—A large portion of the surface is covered with loose sands; while in other parts, there are rocky heights and some valleys. In some instances, also, there are large tracts covered with sharp pebbles.*

Climate.—The heat in the desert is often extreme; and the atmosphere, near the horizon, appears glowing with red vapour in all directions, as if it were lighted up by the fires of numerous volcanoes. In some places, there is scarcely any rain; and in others, its effects are slight and transient.

* In these dreary regions, the only vegetable productions commonly to be met with, except in the oases, are thorny shrubs, brambles, nettles, and ferns, which afford support to a few monkeys and gazelles. Other animals are ostriches, numerous flocks of which feed on lizards, snails, and some of the thinly-scattered plants; also, lions, panthers, and serpents, sometimes of enormous magnitude; while ravens, and other birds of prey, dispute with dogs about the dead bodies of men and quadrupeds. A great part of the scanty population are Arab Moors, who are scarcely less savage than the wild beasts of the desert, and are far more to be dreaded by travellers. Caravans, or *akkabals*, traverse the desert in different directions. One of the principal is that which travels annually from Fez to Timbuctoo. This passes through Tatta and Tarassa, and completes the journey in

GUINEA AND CONGO.

Situation, &c.—These large countries reach along the Atlantic, from the river Senegal to the southern extremity of Benguela. Their extent into the interior is uncertain; but it is often very considerable.

Divisions.—The principal divisions of GUINEA are (1.) Senegambia, Senegal, or North Guinea, containing the countries of the Yalofs, Foulahs, &c.; (2.) South Guinea, containing the Grain Coast, Ivory Coast, Gold Coast, country of the Ashantees, &c.; and (3.) East Guinea, or the Slave Coast, comprehending Dahomey, Benin, Biafra, the country of the Calbongos, &c. The principal parts of CONGO, or, as it is sometimes called, LOWER GUINEA, are (1.) Loango, (2.) Congo Proper, (3.) Angola, and (4.) Benguela.

Towns.—There are few towns of importance in these countries. The principal are Jillifrey, Medina, Sierra Leona or Sierra Leone,* Timbo, Dromera, Cape

129 days; 54 of which are employed in travelling about seven hours daily, at the rate of three miles and a half per hour; and 75 in resting at different places. Another caravan takes a more westerly route, and employs five or six months on the journey. The distresses to which travellers through the desert are subjected, from exposure to a burning sun, and from want of water, are often dreadful. The samoom, or sioom, often blows with such a burning influence, as to dry up the water carried by the camels in leathern bottles for the use of the caravan. On these occasions, the camels often die from thirst; and they are sometimes killed by their owners, for sake of the little liquid that may remain in their stomachs. By such means, the travellers are perhaps enabled to make their way to the next fountain; and, if it contain water, their lives are saved. If it be dried up, however, as not unfrequently happens, they all perish by a death of a more dreadful nature than it is possible to conceive. Occurrences of this kind are by no means rare. Such an event took place in 1805, when a caravan, consisting of 2000 men, with 1800 camels, was so circumstanced, and the men and animals all perished without exception.

* Sierra Leona is an English settlement, formed in 1787, by a philanthropic association, called the African Institution, commenced for the express purpose of civilizing the Africans and improving their condition. Great exertions have been made by this laudable society, to counteract the evils of the slave trade, and finally to abolish it; and,

Coast, Abomey, Angra, Montong, Boali, St. Salvador, Bombi, and Benguela. The towns, or rather villages, of the natives consist of mud cabins; and those of the Europeans are forts or factories.

Climate.—On this coast of Africa, the heat is more intense than in any other part of the world.*

Animals, &c.—Almost all the African animals are to be found in Guinea. The vegetable productions also are extremely numerous and varied. Some of the principal are rice, durra, Indian corn, pine-apples, tobacco, aromatic plants, gums, indigo, and various kinds of trees.† The principal mineral is gold, which is found in considerable quantities.

though they have had numerous difficulties to contend with, they have established above 2000 schools, and done much good in other respects.

* The mercury in the thermometer sometimes stands, in the middle of the day, at the extraordinary height of 134° ; and the heat is scarcely supportable. The wind blows almost constantly from the north or north-west, except in the Gulf of Guinea, where the prevailing wind is from the south-west; a circumstance which makes vessels avoid that gulf, from the difficulty of getting out of it, if they venture in. On some parts of the coast, there are tremendous tornadoes or hurricanes. These are whirlwinds which continue only about a quarter of an hour; but, in that short time, tear up trees by the roots, throw down cottages, and sometimes destroy entire villages. They also occur in Sahara, where they raise vast columns of sand, like water-spouts at sea. An easterly wind, called the *harmattan*, is felt about the solstices, which causes the air to be darkened with a dry haze, and the skins of men and animals to become cracked and chopped.

† The most remarkable tree is the vast *baobab*, which, while only 20 or 30 feet high, is sometimes above 100 feet in circumference. As the tree increases in size, its trunk becomes hollow, so as to form a cavity large enough to serve as a temple for the negroes, a hall of assembly for a tribe, or a habitation for several families. It is clothed with beautiful green foliage, which is said to have given name to Cape Verde; and it produces fruit, called monkey's bread, which affords abundant aliment to the negroes. There are also cocoa, palm, and orange trees; as also the valuable butter-tree: and cotton is produced, which even surpasses that of Brazil. The Guinea grass grows to the vast height of ten, twenty, and even thirty feet; covering extensive spaces, where flocks of elephants, boars, and other animals, wander unseen, and where the huge boa serpents lie in wait for their prey. The African elephants are smaller than those of Asia; but they produce better ivory. They are never tamed. Monkeys are very numerous; and there are multitudes of beautiful birds, particularly paroquets. In remote forests also, there are found numberless swarms of termites, a kind of ants, which erect structures in form of pyramids, sixteen feet high, and covering a space of more than a hundred square feet.

Political State.—These countries contain a great number of states, which are in general governed by kings or chiefs, and which differ much in extent and power. Some of the principal are the empire of the Yalofs or Jalofs; the kingdoms of Benin, Dahomey, Warree, Owai, Bambook, Loango, Cacongo, Congo, Angola, &c. Most of the sovereigns are absolute; and the country is almost perpetually in a state of anarchy and internal warfare.

Slave Trade.—For more than three centuries, natives of this part of Africa have been exported in great numbers, as slaves to America and the West Indies. This inhuman traffic has been productive of misery to millions of individuals, thus exiled from their homes and friends; and has been the cause of cruelty, oppression, and wars, by which thousands perish, arising from the means employed to furnish the slaves.*

* This trade was commenced by the Spaniards and Portuguese in 1503; and, holding out strong inducements to mercantile avarice, it was gradually engaged in by the various commercial nations of Europe; and, in late times, by the United States of America. This last power and England abolished it in 1807; and, since that time, the other states engaged in it, have yielded a tardy and reluctant assent to a similar measure. Still, however, a contraband trade is carried on to a great extent; but, it is to be hoped, that the exertions of England will finally succeed in annihilating this unnatural and unchristian commerce. In the practice of this trade, the slaves are brought to the coast of Guinea, for sale to the Europeans, by the natives themselves; who obtain in return, brandy, fire-arms, and various other articles of European manufacture. The persons thus sold are prisoners taken in war, individuals found guilty of crimes, and others whom there may be any pretext for thus disposing of. Hence, it is not unusual for a prince, on the arrival of a slave ship, to set out at night with an armed force, to set fire to a village while the inhabitants are asleep, and to carry them off while they are endeavouring to save themselves from the flames. The same cause also perverts justice; as persons are often condemned on the slightest charges, and false witnesses are frequently procured to charge individuals with witchcraft or some other crime, and the universal punishment is slavery. Even a father or mother will sometimes sell a child for a few bushels of rice; and a son has been known to sell his father. Of the slaves embarked on board the vessels, it has been computed, that seventeen out of the hundred die on the passage, in consequence of diseases arising from so many of them being crowded into the same vessel; and that thirty-three others die in the *seasoning*, the term applied to the training of them to the severe labours which they are destined to undergo: so that about half of those who leave Africa are carried off by a miserable death in a few months; and the wretched and degraded state in which the survivors live, is well known. Such are some of the evils brought by the Europeans on this part of Africa, instead of the improvement and happiness which they might have produced by the introduction of arts, civilization, and the Christian religion.

Religion.—Mohammedanism is professed in the northern parts: but, in the southern regions, the religion is in general fetichism; the people worshipping a bird's feather, a shark's tooth, a tree, a serpent; the horns, hoofs, or other parts of quadrupeds; the beak or claw of a bird, and numerous other objects; any of which is called a fetich. Attempts have been made, by the French and Portuguese, to introduce the Roman Catholic faith in the southern kingdoms, but with no permanent success.

Character, &c.—The inhabitants are very little civilized, and have many bad propensities and practices. Their princes are, in general, proud, cruel, and tyrannical.

DISTRICT OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

Situation, &c.—The principal part of the southern division of Africa, is the district of the Cape of Good Hope. This, which is as large as Great Britain and Ireland, is situated between the Koussie and Fisch rivers; and is bounded on the north by mountains in the latitude of about thirty-two degrees south.

Town.—The only town of any consequence is Cape Town, the capital, which has a population of about twenty thousand.

Climate, Soil, &c.—The climate is remarkably mild and healthful: and much of the soil is very fertile, yielding valuable agricultural productions, with fine pastures; and producing wines, particularly that called Cape Madeira,* and the excellent kind called Constantia.

Population.—The population exceeds 120,000; of whom above a third are free, about a fourth part Hottentots, and the rest slaves.†

* This wine is so named, because the species of vine that produces it was originally brought from Madeira.

† The whites are of Dutch, German, French, or English origin. Those of Dutch descent are the most numerous, in consequence of the colony having till lately belonged to Holland; and hence, the Dutch manners and religion preponderate. The Hottentots, Bushmans, and other tribes dwelling to the north of this district, are represented as excessively disgusting in figure and appearance, particularly the females. They are also extremely dirty in their habits, and are in

EASTERN AFRICA.

THE principal divisions of this part of Africa, which, except Nubia and Abyssinia, is very little known, have been given already. (*See p. 162.*) The coast, between Capes Corrientes and Delgado, is claimed by the Portuguese: the rest is independent. The principal kingdoms are those of Sofala or Botonga, Monomotapa, Magadoxa, and Adel; and there are numerous petty states. Mozambique is governed, in subjection to the Portuguese, by a native prince. The chief towns on the coast, are Sofala, Mozambique, Quiloa, Zanzibar, Melinda, and Magadoxa; and the chief town of Monomotapa is Zimbao. The Portuguese formerly possessed much more of the country than they do at present, but were driven out by the Arabs. Many of the inhabitants profess Mohammedanism, and seem to be of Arabian descent. A great proportion of the country is naturally rich in soil; and gold seems to be abundant in several places. The inhabitants, however, are, for the most part, in a very uncivilized state, and do not avail themselves of the natural advantages of the country.

INTERIOR OF AFRICA.

A LARGE portion of the interior of Africa is known by the general name of Soudan, Nigritia, or Negroland. The interior of Southern Africa is almost entirely unknown. Some of the principal states in Negroland are Karta, Bambarra, Timbuctoo or Tombuctoo, Hoossa or Houssa, Bornoo, and Darfoor; and there are many smaller. Some of the chief towns are Karta, Sego, Walet, Timbuctoo, Hoossa, Bornoo. Of these, Walet, Timbuctoo, Hoossa, and Bornoo, are large and populous. The last, in particular, is larger than Tripoli; and, according to some accounts, it is even more populous than Grand Cairo. In these regions, the climate is in general very hot; but the country is refreshed by copious periodical rains, and much of it is remarkably fertile. The inhabitants are, in many places, considerably more civilized than is generally imagined.

the most uncivilized state. The Bushmans or Boschmans, also, are cowardly, cruel, and murderous, in their dispositions. Many efforts have been made by the Christian missionaries, to reclaim these barbarians; and, in several instances, with much success, and with the prospect of still greater. The Caffres, on the eastern coast, are a much more interesting race, and have shown much willingness to be instructed in Christianity.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

MADAGASCAR is a vast island, 1000 miles long and 250 broad. Its population is, according to some accounts, a million and a half; and according to others, four millions. It is divided into several kingdoms. The principal towns are Bombetoc and Moozangaye, the latter of which contains 30,000 inhabitants. It is a fine, fertile island; and the climate is agreeable, and in general healthful, though hot.

SAINT HELENA, in the Atlantic Ocean, about the sixteenth parallel of south latitude, is a rocky isle, twenty or thirty miles in circuit, and containing about two thousand inhabitants. From its remote situation and its great security, it was selected by the British government as the final place of exile for Bonaparte; and within its narrow limits, he terminated his mortal career, after shaking to its centre a large portion of the civilized world.

The **CAPE VERDE ISLANDS** are a group, ten in number, lying about 400 miles west of the promontory of that name. The largest is San-Iago. They are often subjected to great droughts, which produce famine and distress among the inhabitants. They belong to the Portuguese.

The **CANARY ISLES** are another group, near the coast of Morocco. These, from their mild, agreeable climate, their fine productions, and other advantages, were called by the ancients, the Happy or Fortunate Islands. The most important are Teneriffe, Grand Canary, Ferro or Hierro, Lancerota, and Forteventura. Though sometimes scorched with droughts, the islands of this group yield, in the greatest abundance, the necessaries and luxuries of life. The island of Teneriffe produces Teneriffe wine; and contains the celebrated *Peak*, which is more than 11,000 feet high. These islands belong to Spain, and contain upwards of 200,000 inhabitants.

About 300 miles north of the Canaries, is the fine island of **MADEIRA**, which belongs to Portugal, and which is famous for its wine. The climate is temperate and agreeable, and there is almost perpetual spring. The population is about 100,000; and the principal town is Funchal, which contains about 15,000 inhabitants.

There are many other islands near the coast of Africa but they do not require individual notice.

AMERICA.

GENERAL VIEW.

Situation, &c.—America is situated between the Atlantic Ocean on the east, and the Pacific on the west. It consists of two grand divisions, North and South America, which are joined together by the Isthmus of Panama or Darien.*

NORTH AMERICA.

Divisions.—The principal divisions of North America, are the United States, the British Possessions, and Mexico, with the adjoining countries, which lately belonged to Spain.

Islands.—Besides the West Indian group between North and South America, there are Newfoundland, Cape Breton, St. John's, Anticosti, and others off the eastern coast of North America; and several near the north-western coast.

* Notwithstanding the adventurous voyages of Captain Parry, for the purpose of discovering the northern boundary of America, it is still but partially traced. There can remain scarcely any rational doubt, however, that it is formed by parts of the Northern Ocean, extending, near the seventieth degree of north latitude, from Baffin's Bay to the sea north of Bhering's Strait. The southern boundary of the American Continent is the Strait of Magellan or Magellan, in 53° or 54° of south latitude. The longitudes of the most eastern points of North and South America, are about 55° and 35° west, respectively. The longitude of the coast of North America, at Bhering's Strait, is about 165° west; and that of the most western part of South America, is a little more than 80° . The latitude of the Isthmus at Panama is about 9° north, and its longitude about 79° west. The latitude of the most northern part of South America, at the Carribean Sea, is 12° north; while that of the most southern part of North America, west of the Bay of Panama, is about 7° north.

Seas, &c.—The seas contiguous to North America, are the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, the Gulf of Mexico, and Hudson's and Baffin's Bays. There are also the Gulf of California, the Bays of Honduras and Campechy, the Gulf of St. Lawrence, &c.; also Bhering's Strait, the Strait or Gulf of Florida, the Strait of Belleisle, Hudson's Strait, &c.

Peninsulas.—The peninsulas are those of California, Yucatan, East Florida, Nova Scotia, Labrador, &c.

Mountains.—The principal mountains in North America, are the Rocky Mountains, and the Mexican chain, which extend from the Isthmus of Panama to the sixty-fifth parallel of north latitude; and the Appalachian or Alleghany chain, extending through the United States in a direction nearly parallel to the shore of the Atlantic.*

Lakes.—The chief lakes are the five south-west of Canada. These are Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie, and Ontario.† Besides these, there are Lake Winipic or Ouinipic, Slave Lake, Lake Champlain, and many others.

Rivers.—The largest rivers are the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi. The former flows north-easterly, from Lake Ontario, through the Gulf of St. Lawrence, into the Atlantic. The Mississippi flows southward into the Gulf of Mexico, after receiving in its course the Missouri, the Ohio, the Arkansas, the Red River,

* The Alleghanies are, in general, low; the highest not exceeding 5000 or 6000 feet. The Rocky Mountains have a base, in several places, 300 miles broad; and their loftiest summits, which are covered with perpetual snow, rise in the north to the height of 12,000 feet, and in Mexico to the height of 17,000 or 18,000. These seem obviously to be a continuation of the great chain of the Andes, in South America. The whole chain, therefore, extends 9000 or 10,000 miles, a length which greatly exceeds that of any other chain in the world.

† The largest of these lakes is Lake Superior, which exceeds in extent every other body of fresh water at present known in the world. Its length is about 400 miles, and its breadth about 160. It receives

the Illinois, and several others.* Of these, the Missouri is greater than the Mississippi itself, at the place of their junction. Besides those above mentioned, there are the Rio Bravo del Norte, or North River, flowing south-eastward, through Mexico, into the Gulf of the same name; and many in the United States.

SOUTH AMERICA.

Divisions.—The principal countries of South America, according to the former division, were New Granada, Venezuela or Caraccas, and Quito, in the north; Peru and Chil , in the west; Patagonia, in the south; Paraguay and Brazil, in the east; and Amazonia, ex-

the waters of nearly forty rivers, some of which are of considerable magnitude. It contains several islands; one of which, Isle Royale, is 100 miles long and 40 broad. Its waters are remarkable for their great transparency, so that fish may be seen at a vast depth. It is subject to tremendous storms, and has waves little inferior to those of the ocean. From its northern situation, it is often covered with ice to the extent of 70 miles from the shore. Lake Huron, the second in point of magnitude, is of an irregular form, and is about 250 miles long and 200 broad. Lake Erie or Oswego, and Lake Michigan, are each about 300 miles long; and Lake Ontario or Cataraguy, about 160 miles. Ontario is so deep that, in some places, the bottom has not been found, though it has been sounded with a line of 350 fathoms; and, from this circumstance, as well as from volcanic matter having been observed on its shores, some have supposed it to have been, at one period, the crater of a volcano. Lake Erie contains, towards the west, a number of beautiful islands, which are infested, in a remarkable degree, with reptiles, especially rattlesnakes: and the margin of the lake is, in several places, completely covered for many acres, with the large leaves of the pond lily; on which, in summer, myriads of water-snakes are seen basking in the sun.

* The St. Lawrence is 700 miles in length, if its origin be taken from Lake Ontario; or above 2500 miles, if it be taken from the source of some of the largest of the rivers that fall into Lake Superior. It is 90 miles wide at its mouth; and it there contains the island of Anticosti, which is 120 miles long and 30 broad. It is navigable for ships of the line, nearly 400 miles from its mouth; and for ships of considerable size, as far as Montreal. It is thus justly ranked among the largest rivers in the world. The Mississippi is also a very large river; having a course of about 2500 miles, from the source of the Missouri to the Gulf of Mexico.

tending from the north-east into the interior. By the late changes, it has been divided into the republics of Colombia, Peru, Upper Peru, Chil , and the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata; besides Brazil and Amazonia.

Islands.—Terra del Fuego, the Falkland Isles, Juan Fernandez, &c.

Mountains.—The principal mountains are the great chain of the Andes, which extends, near the shore of the Pacific, from the Strait of Magellan to the Isthmus of Darien; and contains the highest mountains in the world, except some in the Himalaya chain in Asia.* The western region is, in general, a vast plateau, of the ordinary elevation of 12,000 feet; to the east of this, there is an expanse of low, plain country, two or three times broader; and Brazil, on the east of the continent, is another plateau, of less elevation.

* The stupendous chain of the Andes may be regarded as a vast plateau, crowned with other cordill ras or chains; from which, peaks and summits often rise to an extraordinary height. The plateau is narrow towards its southern extremity; but, in Potosi, it has a breadth of 180 miles. Its distance, from the shore of the Pacific, seldom exceeds ten or twelve leagues; and it forms a barrier which causes all the great rivers to flow towards the Atlantic, and thus occasions their great magnitude by lengthening their courses. The highest summits are Chimborazo, Cotopaxi, Pichincha, Antisana, Cayamb , &c.; and, in the entire chain, there are said to be fifteen or sixteen volcanoes, one of the most dreadful of which is Cotopaxi. The height of Chimborazo, which is situated under the equator, has been found by measurement to be about 21,000 feet; and some of the others are nearly as high. So much of the summits of these mountains as exceeds the height of 15,000 or 16,000 feet, is covered with perpetual snow. At these high elevations, there are tremendous storms of snow and wind; and the greatest hardships have been endured by those who visited them. Such persons experienced great difficulty in breathing, from the extreme rarity of the air: and such was the cold, that their feet were swelled so as to render them almost incapable of walking; their hands were covered with chilblains; and their lips and faces were so swelled and chopped, that it was impossible to move a muscle, or even speak, without blood issuing from the skin. They were often enveloped in dense fogs; and the intervals during which these disappeared, only enabled them to ascertain more fully the desolation of the surrounding scene, and to see the clouds beneath them, which were often discharging storms of rain and thunder on the plains that lay thousands of feet below the place where they stood.

Rivers.—The Amazon, the largest river in the world, has an easterly course from the Andes, and falls into the Atlantic, at the equator. The Rio de la Plata, or River of Silver, is composed of the Parana, the Pilcomayo, the Vermejo, and others; and falls into the Atlantic, at Buenos Ayres. The Orinoco, in the north, flows north-easterly into the Atlantic; and the St. Francis flows in the same direction, through Brazil.*

Climate of America.—At the northern and southern extremities of this great division of the globe, the cold is intense. In many of the intermediate parts, particularly in districts that have small elevation, the heat is great. In all America, however, the heat is less than in the old continent, in the same latitude, and at the same elevation; and the climate is in general moist.†

Historical Sketch.—America was discovered, in 1492, by Christopher Columbus or Colon, a native of Genoa, in the service of

* The rivers of America, like its lakes and mountains, are on the grandest scale. The gigantic Amazon, called also the Marañon or Orellana, is composed of a vast number of streams; several of which, in other parts of the earth, would be considered large rivers. The principal of these have their origin in the Andes; and the distance from the Atlantic to the source of the Ucayal, which seems to be the largest, is more than 3000 miles. For 200 or 300 miles from the Atlantic, such is the size of the river, that the banks on both sides can scarcely be seen at the same time, from a vessel in the middle; and, for many hundred miles above this part of its course, the breadth is from half a league to a league. The depth also, for a long space, exceeds 100 fathoms; and, at 1500 miles from its mouth, is nearly 40 fathoms. It and its branches are so well adapted for navigation, that large vessels may ascend nearly to the Andes, the fall being generally little more than six inches in the mile. The tide ascends to the distance of 600 miles from the ocean; and, when it and the river meet, the shock occasioned by the collision, is tremendous; causing the water to rise to an extraordinary height, with loud noise, and inundating the adjoining banks. This conflict is called by the Indians the *pororoca*. The Orinoco, though much inferior in magnitude to the Amazon and La Plata, is so large, that when Columbus saw the volume of water which it poured into the ocean, he immediately concluded that the country which could produce such a river must be a continent.

† Various causes have been assigned for the coldness and humidity of the American climate. The most satisfactory seem to be the narrowness and elevation of the continent about the torrid zone, and its being covered with vast forests; and also its great extent in the frozen regions of the north.

Spain; who thus opened a noble field for European enterprise, and communicated an impulse to the energies of Spain, Portugal, England, and France, which has produced perhaps greater effects on the civil and political state of the world, than any other event that has ever occurred. Soon after the original discovery, Brazil was occupied by the Portuguese, and most of the rest of South America by the Spaniards. In North America, Mexico and some of the neighbouring countries were seized by Spain; while the eastern parts were gradually occupied by Britain. The most prominent events that have occurred in late times, are the formation of the United States into an independent republic, in 1783; and the recent establishment of the late Spanish possessions, in both North and South America, into independent states.

NORTH AMERICA.

UNITED STATES.

Situation, &c.—The territories of the United States extend from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the Gulf of Mexico to the St. Lawrence and to the great lakes of Canada.*

Divisions.—This vast territory is at present divided into the district of Columbia; twenty-four states; three territories, with civil governments, but without the constitution or privileges of states; and three other territories, not yet occupied by a civilized population. These are as follows:

* The northern boundary, which is not exactly settled, is formed by New Brunswick, the St. Lawrence, Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior; and a line extending to the Pacific, and nearly coinciding with the forty-ninth parallel. The coast of the Pacific, between this and the forty second parallel, belongs to the United States. They claim also the coast as far as the sixtieth parallel. This, however, is disputed by Russia. The entire territory is divided, by the Mississippi, into parts which are nearly equal. The greatest length, from east to west, is about 2800 miles; the breadth, from north to south, about 1300; and the content has been estimated at 2,300,000 square miles; an extent equalled by few of the great empires that have ever been established in the world.

DIVISIONS.

CHIEF TOWNS.

I. Federal District of Columbia WASHINGTON

II. New England States:

1. Maine (1820)* Portland
2. New Hampshire Portsmouth
3. Vermont (1791) Montpelier
4. Massachusetts Boston, Salem
5. Rhode Island Providence
6. Connecticut Newhaven

III. Middle States:

1. New York New York, Albany
2. New Jersey Newark, Trenton
3. Pennsylvania Philadelphia, Pittsburg
4. Delaware Wilmington, Dover
5. Maryland Baltimore, Annapolis

IV. Southern States:

1. Virginia Richmond, Norfolk
2. North Carolina Newbern, Edenton, Raleigh
3. South Carolina Charleston
4. Georgia Augusta, Savannah, Louisville
5. Alabama (1819) Mobile
6. Mississippi (1817) Natchez
7. Louisiana (1811) New Orleans

V. Western States:

1. Tennessee (1796) Knoxville, Nashville
2. Kentucky (1792) Lexington
3. Ohio (1802) Cincinnati
4. Indiana (1816) Vincennes
5. Illinois (1818) Kaskaskia
6. Missouri (1820) St. Louis

VI. Territories with Settlements:

1. Florida St. Augustine, Pensacola
2. Michigan Detroit
3. Arkansas Arkopolis

VII. Territories without Settlements:

1. North-west Territory
2. Missouri Territory
3. Western Territory

* The numbers annexed to the names of eleven of the states, denote the years in which they were erected into distinct states. The

Seaports.—The principal ports for trade are New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, New Orleans, Salem, and Charleston.

Rivers.—Missouri, Mississippi, Ohio, Illinois, Tennessee, Alabama, Connecticut, Hudson's River, Delaware, Susquehanna, Patomac, &c.

Towns.—The principal cities and towns are New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Boston, New Orleans, Charleston, Washington, Salem, Albany, Richmond, and Providence.*

Climate.—The climate is variable; sudden changes from heat to cold, and the contrary, being very usual. There are, in general, more dry days than in most of Europe; and yet there is more rain, in consequence of its falling in heavier showers. The high and mountainous districts are favourable to health; but malignant fevers are very prevalent in the low, marshy districts, near the Atlantic. In the northern states, the cold in winter is very severe.

Soil and Produce.—The soil, in its general character, is fertile; producing Indian corn, and other grain, with fine pasturage, over

other thirteen have been distinct since the country declared itself independent, in 1776. By the constitution, any new settlement is entitled to be erected into a separate state, when the population amounts to not less than 60,000.

* According to the census of 1820, the foregoing are the only towns whose population exceeds 10,000. By that census the population of New York was 123,700; of Philadelphia, 114,400; of Baltimore, 62,700; of Boston, 43,300; of New Orleans, 27,200; of Charleston, 24,800; and of Washington, 13,200: but some of them, particularly New Orleans, have increased greatly since that time. New York is a fine, well-built city; and its commerce is so great, that perhaps London and Liverpool are the only places that exceed it in this respect. It has also, by means of the Hudson, and the canals from that river to Lakes Erie and Champlain, advantages for inland trade far surpassing those of any other town in the United States, except New Orleans. Philadelphia is the handsomest and most regularly built town in these states. The houses in it, as well as in New York, are of brick, and are generally three stories high. The principal streets are 100 feet wide, and the rest not less than 50. The city of Washington, the seat of the supreme government, and the nominal capital of the United States, has advanced much more slowly than was expected. It has been commenced on a regular and excellent plan; very little of which, however, is yet completed. The district of Columbia lies between Maryland and Virginia, and is about ten miles square.

most of the country. In the middle states, wheat and tobacco are produced in great abundance; in the southern, cotton and rice; in Louisiana, cotton, rice, and sugar; and in the western states, wheat, Indian corn, cotton, tobacco, and hemp. Much of the country west of the Alleghanies, is remarkably fine and fertile, particularly the vast valleys of the Ohio and Mississippi.

Animals.—Besides many of the common animals, there are bisons (improperly called buffaloes), bears, wolves, ermines, beavers, seals, alligators, rattlesnakes, and other reptiles.*

Population.—By the census of 1820, the population of the United States was 9,650,000, of whom nearly a sixth were slaves.†

Government.—All the states, taken together, form a republic; which is governed by a congress, consisting of a president, a senate, and a house of representatives. Each state has also, for its own internal government, a legislature; which, in most instances, resembles the general congress.‡

* The alligators are from twelve to twenty-four feet in length, and the rattlesnakes from four to six. The lion, leopard, elephant, hippopotamus, rhinoceros, and several other animals of the old continent, do not exist in America. The horse, ass, sheep, goat, hog, and others, were not found originally, but have been introduced from Europe. Nine-tenths of the quadrupeds of the United States produce furs, which are employed for use or ornament. The principal minerals are iron, lead, and coal. The last of these is little used, in consequence of the great abundance of wood.

† The population is increasing with extreme rapidity. In 1790, it was 3,920,000; in 1800, 5,320,000; and in 1810, 7,240,000; at present (1827), it probably exceeds 11,000,000. The slaves are principally in Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Louisiana, and Tennessee. In South Carolina, they form more than half the population. There are none in Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine, Massachusetts, or Ohio. The standing army does not exceed five or six thousand; but the militia, consisting of all the males between eighteen and forty-five, amounts to about a million. The latter have, when on service, the same pay and clothing as the regular army; but they are obliged to serve only six months at once. The navy, though very effective, is small; consisting of only eight or ten ships of the line, and about an equal number of frigates, with smaller vessels.

‡ The senate consists of two members for each state, who are chosen by the respective legislatures of the states to which they belong. These are elected for six years, and one third of them vacate their seats every two years. They must be at least thirty years old; must have been citizens of the United States for at least nine years; and must be resident in the state for which they are chosen. The house of representatives now consists of more than 200 members. Each state elects one representative for every 40,000 inhabitants, exclusive

Manufactures, &c.—Agriculture is the chief employment of the people. Next to this, they succeed best in some of the mechanic arts; such as in cabinet-making, in the construction of mill machinery and wooden bridges, and in the building of ships, particularly steam-vessels. They have an extensive commerce: exporting cotton, tobacco, sugar, grain, and timber; and importing various articles of European manufacture, besides tea, and other productions of the old continent. About half their commerce is with the British dominions.

State of Education.—Laudable and successful efforts have been made to diffuse the elements of instruction among the people at large. There are about thirty universities, the most flourishing of which are those of Harvard in Massachusetts, and Yale in Connecticut, which contain from 300 to 400 students each.*

Religion.—The prevailing religious sects are Baptists, Methodists, Congregationalists, Presbyterians, and Episcopalians, with a few Roman Catholics, and others. These all support their own clergy, as there is no established religion in any of the states.†

of Indians, and of two fifths of the people of colour. The representative must be an inhabitant of the state for which he is elected; must be at least twenty-five years old; and must have been seven years, or longer, a citizen of the United States. Both senators and representatives take an oath to support the constitution; but they may be of any religion. When attending congress, they receive eight dollars per day; and when going to it, or returning from it, they receive the same sum for every twenty miles of their journey. The president and vice-president are elected for periods of four years, by electors appointed by the people in the several states; and both are generally re-elected, so as to serve eight years. They must both be natives of the United States, and not under thirty-five. The president receives a salary of 25,000 dollars, or £ 5500 sterling, per year; and the vice-president a fifth of that sum. If a bill pass both houses, after three readings, as in the British parliament, it becomes a law on being signed by the president. If he disapprove of it, he sends it for re-consideration, with written objections, to the house in which it originated. If it then pass both houses, by a majority of two thirds, it becomes a law; otherwise, it falls to the ground.

* In the northern states, almost every grown person can read and write. The universities, however, are in general far behind those of the British isles; and the country has few men who have made great advances in science or literature.

† There are about 9000 congregations; of which, about 3000 belong to the Baptists, 2000 to the Methodists, 1200 to the Congregationalists, 900 to the Presbyterians, and 600 to the Episcopalians. Maryland is the chief seat of the Roman Catholics.

er, &c.—The inhabitants are independent in spirit, independent and active; but they do not yet equal the more polished nations of Europe, in refinement of taste and manners.

Language.—The English language is universally spoken in the United States; but it is, in some places, corrupted by admixture with others.

Curiosities.—One of the most remarkable curiosities, is the Natural Bridge in Kentucky, 130 miles south-west of Lexington.* This curiosity is a natural bridge over Cedar Creek, in Virginia, which is formed by a rock stretching over a chasm 90 feet wide and above 200 feet deep.

Historical Sketch.—The original United States were colonies established by emigrants, chiefly from the British Isles. They were formed at different times, between 1607 and 1732; and continued in peaceable subjection to Britain till 1776, the consequence of discontents produced by taxes imposed by the British parliament, during the preceding ten or twelve years, they broke out into rebellion, and declared themselves independent. The celebrated General Washington was commander-in-chief; and, after a war of seven years, their independence was acknowledged by Britain, in November, 1782. The present constitution was adopted; and, the succeeding year, Washington was elected the first president of the United States, an office which he held for eight years. The most important event since that period, was a war with Great Britain, which began in 1812, and ended in 1815.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

Colonies.—The British colonies in North America, are Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Hud-

stonishing cavern has been traced to the great extent of ten miles, and consists of various avenues, and several areas covered with vaults or vaults. One of these areas occupies eight acres, and is at least a hundred feet high, without a pillar to support it. The air contains much nitrous matter; and the air in it is pure, and the streams of water sweet and refreshing. There are also many other curious caverns in other parts of the United States, particularly in Virginia; and there are remains of walls and fortifications in many other places to the south-west, which show that, at a former period, the country must have been occupied by people much more advanced in civilization than those found in it by the Euro-

son's Bay; with the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and Prince Edward or St. John's Island.

Situation, &c.—Canada lies north of the St. Lawrence and the great lakes, and extends to about the fifty-first or fifty-second parallel. The eastern part is called Lower, and the western Upper Canada.

New Brunswick is situated between the United States, and the river and gulf of St. Lawrence.

Nova Scotia is a peninsula, lying between the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the Atlantic, and the Bay of Fundy.

The territory of Hudson's Bay extends east, south, and west of the gulf of that name; but its limits are not fixed.*

The islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and Prince Edward, lie on the south-eastern side of the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

CANADA.

Face of the Country, &c.—There are several ridges of mountains, particularly in Lower Canada. The valleys between these are, in general, pleasant and fertile. The part of Upper Canada which lies east and south-east of Lake Huron, is scarcely surpassed in fertility by any district in the world. A large proportion of Canada is covered with immense forests, containing timber of almost every kind, and of the largest dimensions.

Lakes.—In addition to the four great lakes between Canada and the United States, there are vast numbers of others, some of which are of considerable magnitude.

Rivers.—Besides the St. Lawrence, there are the Ottawas or Utawas, the Saguenay, and several smaller.

* The country on the eastern coast of Hudson's Bay, is called East Maine; and that on the west and south-west, New Wales or New South Wales. The large country, between East Maine and the Atlantic, is called Labrador. Sometimes these are all comprehended under the general name of New Britain.

The Ottawas forms a great part of the boundary between Upper and Lower Canada.

Towns.—The principal towns in Lower Canada are QUEBEC, Montreal, and Three Rivers or Trois Rivières; and in Upper Canada, York and Kingston.*

Climate.—The heat in summer, and the cold in winter, are both very great, particularly in Lower Canada.†

Produce, Animals, &c.—The principal productions are tobacco, grain, and timber. Among the animals are the beaver, otter, bear, martin, elk, and wolf, which are valuable for their furs.‡

Population.—The population in 1814 was 335,000, of whom more than two thirds were descendants of the original French settlers. It is now perhaps half a million.

Government.—In each of the two great divisions of Canada, there are a legislative council and a house of assembly, modelled after the British parliament. The acts of these bodies must have the assent of the governor; and the king of England has the right of repealing them any time within two years.||

Commerce.—Canada has a very extensive commerce, chiefly with the British isles.

Education.—Education is very little attended to, particularly among the peasantry.

Religion.—The established religion is that of the Church of England; but most of the people are Roman Catholics.§

* The population of Quebec is, by some accounts, 18,000; and, by others, 22,000; of Montreal, about 15,000; and of the others mentioned above, about 2500 each. Quebec is built on a rock about 350 feet high, and is a place of uncommon strength. Montreal is on an island at the junction of the Ottawas and St. Lawrence.

† The thermometer sometimes rises, in summer, to the height of above 100 degrees; and sinks, in winter, 30 or 40 below zero. There may be said to be only two seasons, summer and winter; the changes being so sudden as to exclude the genial mildness of our spring and autumn.

‡ Curious insects found here are fire-flies; two or three of which, on the hand, will afford light equal to that of a candle.

|| A governor-general is appointed by the British government over the four provinces of Upper Canada, Lower Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick; and, over each province, there is a lieutenant-governor, who, in the absence of the governor-general, has the supreme power.

§ In the established church, there are ten or twelve clergymen, who are under the bishop of Quebec. The Roman Catholic clergy are entitled to tithes and other dues from Roman Catholics, but not from others.

Character, &c.—The descendants of the French settlers are sprightly and polite. The chief peculiarities in manners and customs, are produced by the nature of the climate.*

Curiosities.—The principal curiosities of Canada are the numerous water-falls, particularly those of Niagara, between lakes Erie and Ontario.†

Historical Sketch.—Canada, or New France, as it was sometimes called, was first occupied by the French, who were long engaged in contests with the native Indians. It was conquered by the English, in the reign of Charles I. in 1629, but was restored in 1632. It was again conquered by the English in 1760, and has since continued to be a British colony.

* In winter, the inhabitants wear fur caps, fur coats, and fur gloves; also, worsted stockings, both under their boots and over them. In travelling, they wear also a double coat, muff, and tippet, all of fur; and when their way is off the beaten track, they use snow shoes, of a kind of network fixed in a frame, two feet long, and a foot and a half broad. During this period, the inhabitants, being prevented from following their ordinary occupations, spend the greater part of their time in various amusements, particularly dancing; and this is the season of their principal enjoyment. One advantage, arising from the severity of the climate, is the great facility which it presents for the conveyance of provisions, firewood, and other articles, and their consequent cheapness. By the same means also, fish and other provisions, by being allowed to become frozen, are preserved fresh and good, without salt, for several months. So intense is the cold, that, notwithstanding all the precautions that are taken, the cheeks, noses, chins, or other exposed parts, are often frost-bitten; and, without proper treatment, are lost by a speedy mortification. On these occasions, the individual is ignorant of his danger, as no pain is felt, the state of the part being indicated only by its white colour. The first person he meets, however, on perceiving this change of colour, applies instantly the only remedy, a handful of snow; and by continuing to rub the part with this simple application, he generally succeeds in restoring it to its natural state.

† At these astonishing falls, the St. Lawrence, or, as it is called, the Niagara, is 600 yards broad, and is divided by two islands, into three parts; the largest, or western one of which, descends through the height of 142 feet, and the smallest through that of 163 feet. So loud is the noise, that it is heard at the distance of 15 miles; and the water is broken into vapour, which ascends in such quantity, as to form a cloud that is said to be sometimes visible at the distance of 90 miles. When the sun shines, the numberless drops of the spray exhibit a beautiful rainbow; and the whole scene is one of a degree of grandeur and sublimity that cannot be described. The fall of Montmorency is still higher, being 246 feet. This is on the river Montmorency, almost at its junction with the St. Lawrence, eight miles east of Quebec. It is far inferior to those of Niagara, however, in consequence of the smaller mass of water.

HUDSON'S BAY, &c.

The countries east, west, and south of Hudson's Bay, and extending northward to the arctic seas, are cold and inhospitable in the extreme, and are valuable to Europeans only for the large quantities of furs which they produce. In these regions, the light of the aurora borealis often equals that of the full moon.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

The chief towns of New Brunswick are St. John's, Fredericktown, and St. Ann's, on the river St. John. The population is supposed to be 150,000. The principal exports are timber, fish, and furs; and the commerce is very considerable.

NOVA SCOTIA.

The climate of Nova Scotia, or Acadia, is warm in summer, but cold in winter. In the latter season, the air is excessively foggy. The chief towns are Halifax,* Shelburne, and Annapolis; the first of which has a population of 15,000 or 20,000, and the second 9,000 or 10,000.

NEWFOUNDLAND, PRINCE EDWARD'S, AND
CAPE BRETON ISLANDS.

The population of Newfoundland is 70,000 or 80,000; and the chief towns are St. John's and Placentia. The principal town of Cape Breton Island is Louisburg, and that of Prince Edward's Island is Charlotte's Town. The climate, in these islands, is cold and foggy.† Newfoundland is barren, but is im-

* The Bay of Fundy, on which Halifax is built, is remarkable for its tides, which rise with uncommon rapidity, and reach the height of 50, and sometimes, it is said, of 100 or even 120 feet.—The Bermudas Islands may be mentioned in connexion with Nova Scotia, as they are dependent on that colony. They lie in the Atlantic, east of Carolina. They are barren, and depend on America for provisions. Their wealth consists in cedar-trees, which are made into large skiffs, used in coasting along the shores of the United States and the British American colonies. The air is pure and wholesome, and the population is about 10,000, nearly half of whom are slaves.

† The fogs are thought to arise from the heat of the water in the sea being greater than that of the atmosphere, the water being principally brought by what is called the *gulf stream* from the Gulf of Mexico. The same cause is supposed to occasion the vast collection of fish about the banks.

portant for the cod-fishery on its banks, which is the most valuable in the world. The Great Bank is 330 miles long and 75 wide, and there are others. Above 100,000 men are annually employed in the fishery.

MEXICO OR NEW SPAIN.

Situation.—Mexico or New Spain extends from the Isthmus of Panama to the thirty-eighth degree of north latitude; and from Louisiana to the Pacific Ocean.*

NORTHERN.

DIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.†
New Mexico	Santa Fé
California	Loretto
Sonora	Arispe, Sonora
Durango or New Biscay	Durango
San-Louis Potosi	Loredo

MIDDLE.

Zacatecas	Zacatecas
Guadalaxara	Guadalaxara
Guanaxuato	Guanaxuato
Valladolid	Valladolid
Mexico	MEXICO, Queretaro
Vera Cruz	Vera Cruz
La Puebla	Puebla

SOUTHERN.

Oaxaca or Guaxaca	Oaxaca or Guaxaca
Yucatan or Merida	Merida, Campechy
Guatimala	Guatimala

* The eastern boundary is uncertain, the United States claiming the country as far as the Rio del Norte; while the Spaniards fixed, as boundary, the river Sabine, about 300 miles west of the Mississippi.

† The population of Mexico is about 150,000; of Guanaxuato and Puebla, about 70,000 each; of Queretaro, 30,000 or 40,000; and of Oaxaca, 24,000. Mexico is the most superb city in America; having spacious streets, fine buildings, and an excellent police. It stands in the middle of a fine valley, 70 leagues in circumference, and

Face of the Country.—A great proportion of this country is a vast plateau, of different heights, between 6500 and 8500 feet above the level of the sea. From this plateau, many mountains rise to great elevations, and several of them are volcanoes.*

Lakes and Rivers.—There are several lakes; but there are few rivers and little water, in proportion to the size of the country; and some of the elevated parts are so parched, as to be destitute of vegetation. The chief rivers are the Rio del Norte, and the two Colordos.

Climate.—In the elevated parts of the country, the climate is mild and salubrious; but in some low parts, it is hot and unhealthy.

Soil and Produce.—A large proportion of Mexico is not exceeded in fertility by any country in the world. Among the numerous productions are bananas, maize, wheat, barley, sugar-

was formerly surrounded by the lake Tezcuco, through which it was approached by three causeways, each 20 feet in breadth. The waters of the lake, however, have partly receded of themselves, and have partly been carried off by draining, so that the city is now above two miles from the lake. The floating gardens in this lake, which were first formed by the ancient Mexicans, and many of which are still kept up, are objects of curiosity. They are formed by covering rafts of reeds, rushes, roots, and brushwood, with vegetable mould; and are generally above 300 feet long, and 18 or 20 broad. In many instances, a cottage is built on one of them for an Indian, who has the charge of a group. Some of them are driven about by the winds; while others can be removed to new situations by poles, and can be anchored at pleasure. From their deriving abundant moisture from the lake, they are uncommonly fertile; producing for the city, a large supply of vegetables, such as beans, peas, potatoes, artichokes, and cauliflowers. This city is at the extraordinary height of 7470 feet above the level of the sea. In 1777, the ancient city of Guatimala was destroyed by one of the most tremendous earthquakes on record. In an instant, the city, with its 8000 families, and all its wealth, was swallowed up; while the place where it stood was overwhelmed with torrents of mud and sulphur, and is now a frightful desert. The new city is built at the distance of four leagues from the site of the old.

* This immense plateau extends from the eighteenth to the fortieth degree of north latitude. The ascent to it is very difficult, particularly from the Gulf of Mexico; and this greatly interrupts the communication between the interior and the seacoast. Several of the Mexican mountains are from 13,000 to 18,000 feet high.

canes, mahogany, the best indigo, and cocoa, and various other fruits.*

Animals.—The most useful of the European animals have been introduced into Mexico, and thrive well. Before they became numerous, there was a great want of beasts of burden.

Minerals.—The mines of Mexico are uncommonly valuable; producing annually gold and silver to the amount of four or five millions sterling, and giving employment to 30,000 miners, who are all free and well paid.

Population.—The population is supposed to be eight or nine millions.†

Commerce.—The foreign commerce is chiefly carried on by the ports of Vera Cruz on the Gulf of Mexico, and Acapulco on the Pacific. The exports consist of the precious metals, and various other Mexican productions; and the imports are linen, cottons, woollens, paper, brandy, wine, &c.‡

State of Learning.—The scientific establishments of the city of Mexico, are not equalled by any others in the new continent.

* The banana is highly valuable in this country as an article of food. It is so productive, that a tract planted with it will support twenty-five times as many men, as the same space would if sown with wheat. It is sometimes prepared like the potato, and sometimes dried and pounded into flour. The maize, or Indian corn, is also very productive, yielding at an average 150 grains for one; and, in some very fertile districts, from 300 to 800. The fine red dye, cochineal, which is produced from an insect, is procured in large quantities in Oaxaca. The bays and shores of Honduras and Campechy have been long celebrated for their mahogany and logwood, a great part of which is cut and carried away by the English, who have a colony in the Bay of Honduras.

† The inhabitants here, as in the other Spanish colonies, are of four principal classes; the whites, the Indians, the negroes, and the people of mixed extraction. The whites are either those born in Europe, who consider themselves superior to all others; or those of European extraction, born in Mexico, and called Creoles. The Indians are descended of the ancient Mexicans, and constitute about two fifths of the entire population. The whites amount to about a sixth of the population, and about a fifteenth of these are of European birth. The number of the negroes is very small, not exceeding, it is thought, six thousand.

‡ The commerce is greatly impeded by the badness of the ports in the Gulf of Mexico, which are choked up with sand; by the storms in winter, and the yellow fever in summer, on the coasts of the Pacific; and by the difficulty of conveying goods between the seacoasts and the interior. The trade on the western side, is chiefly carried on by a galleon of 1200 or 1500 tons, which sails annually between Manilla and Acapulco, and back again; and each time carries a cargo worth £300,000 or £400,000.

Such are the botanic garden, the school of mines, the academy of the fine arts, and the university. These institutions produce several men of learning; and Lancasterian schools have lately been established over the country, for the education of the working classes.

Religion.—As in all the Spanish and Portuguese colonies, the religion is the Roman Catholic. The inquisition was formerly established; but it has been abolished since the recent revolution.*

Historical Sketch.—When Mexico was first visited by the Spaniards, early in the sixteenth century, the inhabitants were found to be considerably advanced in civilization. The country was subject to an emperor; and there was a regular government. It was soon reduced under the power of Spain, and has continued in that state, till the recent insurrection of the colonists against the mother country. The result of this revolution has been the formation of Mexico into a republic, independent of Spain. The declaration of independence was made in 1821.

SOUTH AMERICA.

NEW GRANADA, CARACCAS, AND QUITO.

Situation.—New Granada, Caraccas, and Quito, formerly called Terra Firma, and now constituting the republic of Colombia, occupy all the north-western part of South America.

Divisions.—The principal divisions are Darien, Cartagena, Santa Marta, Maracaybo, Caraccas Proper or Venezuela, Santa Fe de Bogota, Spanish Guiana, Popayan, and Quito.

* The Roman Catholic religion is established in great splendour in Mexico. The churches in the capital glitter with gold and silver. The cathedral, in particular, surpasses all the churches in the world, in this respect. The balustrade round the great altar, is composed of massive silver. A lamp of the same metal is of so vast a size, that three men go into it when it is to be cleaned; and is enriched with lion's heads, and other ornaments of pure gold. The statues of the Virgin and the saints are either made of solid silver, or are richly gilded; and they are ornamented with precious stones. The number of the ecclesiastics, of all kinds, is 13,000 or 14,000. The revenue of the archbishop of Mexico, is about £27,000 sterling.

Towns.—The chief towns are Quito, Santa Fe or Santa Fe de Bogota, Caraccas, Popayan, Cumana, Maracaybo, Cartagena, Riobamba, Guayaquil, and Panama.*

Climate.—In some low parts, particularly on the seacoast, the heat is excessive; but in the elevated districts, the climate is temperate, and sometimes even cold.†

Soil, Produce, &c.—Much of the country is very fertile, and the vegetable productions are in general the same as those of other tropical countries. The produce of the gold mines, which are principally in New Granada, is worth about half a million sterling.

Population.—The population is thought to be between three and four millions.

* The population of Quito is 70,000; of Santa Fe and Caraccas, 30,000 or 40,000 each; and that of the other towns above mentioned, from 25,000 to 10,000. Quito is at the extraordinary elevation of more than 9000 feet above the level of the sea. Its situation was formerly delightful; and it enjoyed a perpetual spring, and an almost equable temperature. In 1797, however, there was a tremendous earthquake, which destroyed, in an instant, 40,000 people in the province of Quito: and, since that time, earthquakes have been almost continual; the atmosphere has become lowering and cloudy; and, instead of the former mild temperature, cold has almost uniformly prevailed. The city of Santa Fe is pleasantly situated on a plateau, at the height of 8200 feet. This plateau has been supposed to have been the bottom of a lake, drained at some remote period, by the opening of a passage for the water, through the surrounding rocks, by an earthquake. The water of the river of Bogota, which is of considerable magnitude, rushes through this opening, and forms the water-fall of Tequendama, one of the most splendid in the world, descending at two bounds through the space of 530 feet. The cloud of vapour which is thus raised into the atmosphere, is so great, that, on being precipitated by the cold air, it greatly contributes to the extraordinary fertility of the surrounding parts of the plain of Bogota. The natural bridges of Icononzo are also extremely curious. These are two enormous arches extending over a torrent, with precipitous banks; and one of them is elevated more than 300 feet above the surface of the water.

† There are, in general, only two seasons; the rainy, from November till April, and the dry. In the hot season, the water of the river Magdalena acquires the temperature of a hot bath; and the stones are frequently so warm, that they cannot be touched with the hand. The hot parts are extremely unhealthy, yellow fever carrying off great numbers. This is particularly the case at Cartagena and Guayaquil.

Government.—These countries form a republic since 1819; and the constitution and government resemble those of the United States of North America.

PERU.

Situation, &c.—Peru extends along the coast of the Pacific, from Quito to Chilé. The part called Lower Peru lies between the Andes and the Ocean, and consists chiefly of sandy plains and deserts. Upper Peru lies principally between two great parallel chains of the Andes, and contains many fertile and pleasant valleys.

Towns and Divisions.—The principal towns are LIMA, Cuzco, Truxillo, Tarma, Arequipa, Guanacavelica, and Guamanga. Peru is divided into seven intendencies, of the same names as the towns above mentioned, which are their capitals. To these towns may be added Callao, the port of Lima; also, Caxamarca, Chuquisaca or La Plata, Potosi, and La Paz.*

Climate.—The climate of Lower Peru is cool, in consequence of fogs;† but rain and thunder are almost unknown. The habitable parts of Upper Peru enjoy a temperate, healthy climate.

Produce.—Among the vegetable productions are grain, sugar, palm-trees, and many other articles. The mines are uncommonly valuable, particularly those of gold, silver, copper, and quicksilver.‡

* The population of Lima is stated to be 54,000; and that of Cuzco, the ancient capital of the Incas, 32,000. The silver mines of Potosi were opened in 1545; and the population of the town increased so rapidly, that it amounted to 160,000 in 1611. It has since decreased; however, to 30,000. The district of Potosi, and some others formerly connected with Peru, were annexed to Buenos Ayres, in 1778.

† This coolness is also produced, in part, by a cold current which flows along the coast from the Strait of Magellan. The temperature of the water, in this current, is nine degrees below that of the rest of the ocean. In consequence of the want of rain, the only fertile parts of Lower Peru are those which are watered by rivers or springs, and several of these are delightful.

‡ About the end of the last century, there were wrought in Peru, seventy gold and seven hundred and eighty-four silver mines; the annual produce of which was worth £700,000 sterling.

Population.—The population is supposed to be three or four millions, nearly half of whom are Indians.

Historical Sketch.—Peru was first invaded by the Spaniards under Pizarro, in 1532. At this time, the inhabitants were considerably advanced in civilization, and were governed by sovereigns called incas. The Spaniards, by perfidious and cruel means, made themselves masters of the country. From that period, it continued under the power of Spain till 1819, when the colonists revolted, and formed themselves into an independent republic.

CHILÉ.

Situation, &c.—Chilé or Chili extends from the twenty-fourth to the forty-fifth degree of south latitude. The most important part of it, called Chilé Proper, lies between the Andes and the Pacific; but it also comprehends the provinces of Cuyo and Tucuman.

Islands.—Chiloé and Juan Fernandez.*

Face of the Country.—Several summits of the Andes of Chilé are said to be 20,000 feet high.† In the low parts of the country, however, there are many delightful plains and valleys, adorned with wood, and watered with numerous rivers.

Towns.—The chief towns are SANTIAGO, Concepcion or Penço, Coquimbo, Valparaiso, Copiapo, Quilota, Mendoza, Valdivia, and Tucuman.‡

* On the island of Juan Fernandez, then uninhabited, Alexander Selkirk, a Scottish sailor, lived in a solitary state, nearly four years; having been cruelly put ashore, and abandoned by the captain of the vessel in which he was sailing. This event is said to have furnished Defoe with the groundwork of his celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. Since that time, the Spaniards made a settlement in the island; but they are said to have lately deserted it.—Chiloé is the largest of a group of forty-seven islands.

† One of the highest of these summits is Descabezado, in latitude 35°. The summit of this is very remarkable, presenting a plain of more than six miles square, and having in the middle a very deep lake, supposed to have been the crater of a volcano.

‡ The population of Santiago is stated at upwards of 50,000.

Climate and Soil.—The climate is remarkably mild and salubrious; and the soil is, in many places, very fertile. There is the agreeable vicissitude of spring, summer, autumn, and winter; but their seasons and ours happen at opposite times of the year.

Minerals.—Like the other countries adjoining the Andes, Chilé is rich in mineral wealth, particularly in gold, silver, and copper. The produce of the gold mines has sometimes exceeded a million sterling in a single year.*

Historical Sketch.—Chilé was invaded in 1534 by the Spaniards, who easily formed settlements in several parts of the country. They were bravely opposed, however, by the Araucanians,† who, after perpetual wars during the long period of 109 years, completely succeeded in establishing the independence of their country in 1643. Since that time, there have been other wars; and, on all occasions, their brave exertions have been rewarded by their success in maintaining the liberty of their country. The Spanish colonists have lately renounced their allegiance to the mother country, and have formed themselves into an independent republic.

BUENOS AYRES.

Situation.—Buenos Ayres is a large country, lying between Brazil, Peru, Chilé, Patagonia, and the Atlantic.

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the Rio de la Plata, and its branches.

* It is generally remarked, that, where minerals abound, the soil is unproductive; but Chilé forms an exception, as its mines are extremely valuable, while it produces luxuriant crops and pastures, fine fruits, and forest-trees of the largest kind. It is also the only country in the new continent, in which the culture of the vine has completely succeeded.

† Araucania, one of the finest portions of Chilé, lies between the parallels of $36^{\circ} 44'$ and $39^{\circ} 50'$ south; and extends from the Pacific, 420 miles into the interior. The inhabitants are a highly interesting race. They are brave and magnanimous; and are distinguished, in an extraordinary degree, for their love of liberty and independence. In their wars with the Spaniards, in which even their females took a part, they displayed a degree of perseverance, and a series of heroic deeds, that are perhaps not surpassed in the authentic history of any nation. Besides the Araucanians, the Cuenches and Huilliches, two adjoining tribes, have also maintained their independence, but have not acquired an equal degree of distinction.

Towns.—The chief towns are **BUENOS AYRES**, Monte Video, Maldonado, Assumption, Santa Fé, Corrientes, &c.*

Climate and Soil.—The climate of this country is, in general, mild and healthful; and the soil of a large proportion of it, is exceedingly fertile, but is badly cultivated.

Produce.—Under proper cultivation, this country would yield almost every production of the hot and temperate regions of the earth. A production peculiar to it is the Paraguay tea, which is in universal use over a great part of South America.

Animals.—Oxen and dogs, which were introduced from Europe, have become wild, and are exceedingly numerous. The most remarkable birds are the condor† and ostrich. There is also a species of tiger called the yagouar, and vast numbers of other animals.

Commerce.—The principal exports are hides, provisions, furs, and wool; the returns for which are European manufactures, sugar, brandy, slaves, and many other articles.

Historical Sketch.—The Spaniards began to make settlements in this country in 1635, and gradually succeeded against the vigorous opposition of the natives. In 1816, the colonists threw off their allegiance to Spain; and since that time, the country has continued to be an independent republic.

BRAZIL.

Situation, &c.—The empire of Brazil is a vast country, extending from the equator to about the thirty-third parallel of south latitude, and from the Atlantic two thousand miles into the interior.‡

* The population of Buenos Ayres is stated, at different amounts, between 25,000 and 70,000.

† The condor is three or four feet in length; and the distance between the tips of its wings, when extended, is ten or twelve feet. Its usual residence, except when it descends to the plains for its prey, is on the sides of the Andes, a little below the region of perpetual snow. Two of these birds will kill and devour a heifer; and they are noted for their great strength, and for the extraordinary height to which they soar.

‡ The boundaries of Brazil are not accurately settled, and have been the source of frequent disputes between Spain and Portugal; the latter having been charged with making frequent encroachments, and, in particular, with having appropriated to itself a great part of

Divisions.—The principal divisions are Para, Maranham, Pernambuco, Bahia, Rio Janeiro, San Paulo, Rio Grande, Minas Geraes (or the General Mines), Goias, and Matto Grosso.

Towns.—The chief towns are RIO JANEIRO, San Salvador or Bahia, Pernambuco, Cuyaba, Villa Rica, Para, St. Paul, and Maranham or Maranhao, called also San Luiz.*

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the San Francisco, the Araguay, the Parnaiba, the Xingu, and others.

Climate.—The climate, though warm, is not so hot as in most other places in the same latitudes; and the country is in general healthy.

Soil, &c.—In a great proportion of the country, the soil is uncommonly fertile, yielding many productions of the most valuable kind; while gold and diamonds are found in the greatest abundance.†

Population.—The population is supposed to be nearly four millions; about a million of whom are of European origin, while the rest are negroes, Indians, and persons of mixed extraction.

what was formerly called Amazonia, or the country watered by the Amazon. The interior countries, especially Amazonia, have scarcely any inhabitants except Indians; the Europeans being, in general, confined to the coast.

* The population of Rio Janeiro is stated at 110,000; that of Bahia, at different amounts, from 70,000 to 110,000; Pernambuco and Olinda (which almost form one city), at 65,000; and San Paulo and Maranham, about 30,000 each. Rio Janeiro has one of the finest harbours in the world, and the town contains many good houses. Bahia was formerly the capital of Brazil; and contains some fine buildings, particularly the church of the Jesuits, which is entirely of European marble. This city is built on the excellent harbour called the Bay of All Saints; and hence it gets its name, the Portuguese word *bahia* signifying *bay*.

† Some of the principal productions are tobacco, wood, sugar, cotton, and hides. There are forests of vast extent, producing excellent timber for ship-building and numerous other purposes, as also various dye-woods. So great is the number of cattle, that they are often slaughtered for their hides, while their carcasses are left to be devoured by birds and wild beasts. The gold and diamond mines are found in many parts of the interior, particularly near Rio Janeiro. These are extremely valuable; and are computed to have yielded annually, for sixty years after their discovery, produce worth more than a million and a half sterling.

Historical Sketch.—The Portuguese began to make settlements in Brazil about the year 1500; but, as no precious minerals were found at first, and as the natives made fierce opposition, the country was in a great degree neglected, and the only colonists, for some time, were banished criminals. By its natural fertility, however, and by the exertions of these settlers, it began to prosper, and soon attracted the notice of the French and Dutch, who successively made settlements on the coast. The former were quickly overcome; but the latter had nearly made themselves masters of the entire country. After various struggles, however, they were finally expelled in 1654. In consequence of this, a war, which continued seven years, arose between the Portuguese and the Dutch, the result of which was the confirmation of Brazil to the former, on their paying the Dutch eight millions of florins, or about £750,000 sterling. After this, there were sometimes internal commotions, and sometimes disputes with the Spaniards about the mutual boundaries; but nothing of much interest occurred till the removal of the Portuguese court to Rio Janeiro, on the invasion of Portugal by Bonaparte, where it remained from 1808 till 1821. The most important event, however, in the late history of Brazil, is its erection, in 1825, into a separate and independent empire, under the son of the king of Portugal.

GUIANA.

Divisions, &c.—Besides Spanish Guiana already mentioned, there are British Guiana, Dutch Guiana, and French Guiana, which all lie along the north-east coast of South America.

BRITISH GUIANA consists of the settlements of Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice, which formerly belonged to the Dutch, but were taken from them in 1796. The population consists of about 90,000, nearly a tenth of whom are whites, and the rest negroes.

DUTCH GUIANA now consists of only the fine colony of Surinam, the only town in which is Paramaribo. The population, and its proportions, are nearly the same as in British Guiana. The country, as well as British Guiana, is highly cultivated, and remarkably fertile; and, in both, every thing bears the marks of Dutch industry, neatness, and cleanliness.

The population of FRENCH GUIANA is supposed to be 20,000, about 2000 of whom are whites, and the rest negroes; and besides these, there are Indians. The principal town is Cayenne. This country is naturally fertile, but is badly cultivated.

Climate.—The climate is milder than that of perhaps any other tropical region. Much of the country, however, from its lowness, is moist, and subject to inundations; and hence intermittent fevers are very frequent.

PATAGONIA.

Situation, &c.—A large portion of the southern part of South America, is called Patagonia. This country is little known; but it is, in general, cold and inhospitable. The inhabitants are savages, who are represented by the concurring testimony of most of the voyagers that have visited the country, as being taller than any people in the world, their mean stature being between six and seven feet.

South of this, and separated from it by the Strait of Magellan,* are the island of Terra del Fuego, and others. These contain volcanoes, and are inhabited by tribes of miserable savages. The Falkland Islands lie east of the Strait of Magellan.

WEST INDIES.†

Situation.—The West Indian islands, called also the Columbian Archipelago, extend, in form of an arch, between East Florida and the mouths of the Orinoco.‡

Divisions.—This group consists of Cuba, St. Domingo, Jamaica, Porto Rico, the Bahama or Lucaya Islands, and the Caribbee Islands.

* The Strait of Magellan or Magellan is about 450 miles in length, and from two to fifteen leagues in breadth. Since the discovery of the passage round Cape Horn, vessels generally avoid this strait; as the passage through it is attended with danger, from its currents, sinuosities, and other causes.

† When Columbus discovered these islands, it was thought that they were some of the islands of India, arrived at by a westward course. After the mistake was discovered, they were called the *West Indies* for the sake of distinction; and the natives here, and on the American continent, were improperly called Indians.

‡ These islands lie between 10° and 28° of north latitude, and between 60° and 85° of west longitude. Cuba, St. Domingo, Jamaica, and Porto Rico, are sometimes called the *Great Antilles*; and the others, the *Less*. The Caribbean Sea lies between Jamaica, St. Domingo, Porto Rico, and South America. This sea is sometimes

Climate.—The summer is excessively hot; and the heat would be almost insupportable, if it were not moderated by the sea-breeze, which blows during the greater part of the day. The climate is in many places very unhealthy, particularly to Europeans.*

subject to hurricanes; but, in fine weather, its water is so transparent, that fish and coral can be seen at the depth of 300 feet. The current which crosses the Atlantic Ocean from the Canary Islands, continues its motion through this sea; and, being interrupted in its course by Mexico, it changes its direction, and passes through the Gulf or Strait of Florida;—a circumstance which causes it, during the rest of its course east of the United States, to be called the Gulf Stream. This latter part of it is about 75 miles, from the coast of Georgia and the Carolinas; but its distance from the shore increases as it proceeds northward; and, after passing Newfoundland, it turns eastward towards Europe: it then acquires such a breadth, however, that its effect is little perceived. Its general width, near the United States, is about 50 or 60 miles; but it increases towards the north. Its rate of motion is about three miles an hour; and it is easily distinguished, by the quantity of sea-weed which it carries along with it, by its fine blue colour, and by its not sparkling at night. It has been found to be from 6° to 11° warmer than the sea through which it runs; and, in the northern part of its course, it is constantly covered with fogs. Its breadth and situation are changed, in some degree, by the winds.

* The spring begins about May; and there are then copious rains, which promote vegetation, and clothe the country with verdure. The summer follows, when there is a cloudless sky and intense heat. The moon shines with such brightness during the night, that the smallest print can easily be read. The heat increases till October, when the great rains commence, and fall in tremendous torrents, which inundate all the lower parts of the country. The atmosphere is loaded with moisture; metals quickly contract rust; and it has been expressively said, that the inhabitants live in a vapour bath.

The following animated description of a West-Indian hurricane is from Malte Brun:

“A hurricane is generally preceded by an awful stillness of the elements, the air becomes close and heavy, the sun is red, and the stars at night seem unusually large. Frequent changes take place in the thermometer, which rises sometimes from eighty to ninety degrees. Darkness extends over the earth: the higher regions gleam with lightning. The impending storm is first observed on the sea: foaming mountains rise suddenly from its clear and motionless surface. The wind rages with unrestrained fury: its noise may be compared to the distant thunder. The rain descends in torrents; shrubs and lofty trees are borne down by the mountain-stream; the rivers overflow their banks, and submerge the plains. Terror and consternation seem to pervade the whole of animated nature: land birds are driven into the ocean; and those whose element is the sea, seek for

Produce.—These islands abound in trees, and other vegetable productions, of a great variety of kinds. The principal of these, and that to which they owe their chief importance, is the sugar-cane. Other valuable productions are coffee and cotton.

BRITISH WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.

The principal islands which belong to Britain are Jamaica, the Bahamas, Anguilla, St. Christopher's, Nevis, Antigua, Dominica, St. Lucia, Barbadoes, St. Vincent, Grenada, Tobago, and Trinidad.

JAMAICA is 150 miles long and 60 broad. The chief towns are KINGSTON, St. Jago de la Vega or Spanish Town, and Port Royal.* This island is of great value, producing three fourths of the coffee, and more than half of the sugar, which Britain derives from her colonies. It also furnishes excellent mahogany. The coasts are unhealthy, from their lowness and the heat; but in the higher grounds in the interior, the climate is mild and salubrious. The highest mountain has an elevation of nearly 8000 feet. In 1815, the population was estimated at 360,000, seven eights of whom were negro slaves.

The Bahama islands are about five hundred in number; but many of them are merely barren rocks. The twelve principal ones contain 13,000 inhabitants. Guanahani, called also St. Salvador and Cat Island, will ever be remarkable as the first part of the new world discovered by Columbus.

refuge in the woods. The frightened beasts of the field herd together, or roam in vain for a place of shelter. It is not a contest of two opposite winds, or a roaring ocean that shakes the earth: all the elements are thrown into confusion, the equilibrium of the atmosphere seems as if it were destroyed, and nature appears to hasten to her ancient chaos. Scenes of desolation have been disclosed in these islands by the morning sun,—uprooted trees, branches shivered from their trunks, the ruins of houses have been strewed over the land. The planter is sometimes unable to distinguish the place of his former possessions. Fertile valleys may be changed in a few hours into dreary wastes, covered with the carcasses of domestic animals and the fowls of heaven."

* Kingston has a population of about 30,000. St. Jago, which was the capital when the island belonged to Spain, is still the seat of government. Port Royal was once the capital, and was remarkably wealthy and flourishing, its fine harbour attracting numerous settlers. It has been reduced, however, to an inconsiderable size by an earthquake and other calamities. The legislature of the island consists of two houses, and is modelled after the British parliament. Columbus discovered this island in 1494, and it was taken by the English in 1655.

The population of Barbadoes is of whom are slaves.

Trinidad, or Trinity Island, was c in 1801. It contains a remarkable extent, and is filled with bituminous matter, when melted with tallow, is u

SPANISH WEST-INDI

The Spanish West-India Islands are

CUBA is 700 miles long and 70 broad posed to be 600,000 or 700,000, about t slaves. HAVANNAH, the capital, contains tants. Other considerable towns are Pt. St. Yago de Cuba. The island is health tobacco is considered the finest in the w

Porto Rico is a fine fertile island, 12 broad, and contains a population of upwar

FRENCH WEST-INDIA IS.

The principal islands belonging to France Mariegalante, and Martinico or Martinique.

Guadeloupe consists of two islands, separ channel. The population is about 120,000, a Basse-Terre.

The population of Martinico is nearly 100,00 is rich and valuable.

DANISH WEST-INDIA ISLAND

To Denmark belong Santa Cruz and St. T. though small, are fertile and valuable.

ST. DOMINGO.

The large island of St. Domingo, called also Hayti, which is about 400 miles long and 140 broad belonged partly to Spain and partly to France. slaves, however, during the wars that followed the Revolution, revolted against the whites; and, after numerous dreadful atrocities on both sides, the whites were over expelled; and since that time, the island has remained in the power of the negroes, who have divided it into two parts. It is now enjoying the advantages of peace and regular government, and the negro sovereigns are forming establishments

stratagem, and endeavour to surprise the enemy. If they get possession of a village while the young men are engaged in the chase, they set fire to the huts, and drive the women, children, and old men, into the flames, or massacre them indiscriminately by other modes. When they come to close fight, however, with their armed foes, the conflict is dreadful. The combatants, on each side, discharge volleys of arrows or bullets, and then shelter themselves behind trees. The combat is continued in this manner, till one party is incapable of farther resistance. The prisoners are then secured, and are borne to the residence of the victors, where some of them are taken into families to supply the places of those who have fallen in the war; and are ever after treated in the same manner as the other members of the tribe into which they are adopted. For the others, however, a fate of the most dreadful kind is reserved. They are put to death, after undergoing a series of cruelties, not surpassed by any ever devised by the depraved ingenuity of man. They are tied to stakes, beaten with clubs, torn with pincers, and burned with hot irons. The nails are pulled out, one by one, from their fingers; gashes are cut in their flesh, and instantly seared, to prevent the effusion of blood, and thus to protract their torments. Their toes are pounded between stones, the bare nerves and tendons are pulled and twisted, their eyes are put out, and their teeth torn out of their heads. After these tortures and many others, the victim is stuck all over with matches, which are set on fire, and burn slowly. This cruel treatment is sometimes continued for several days, till at length one of the chiefs releases the sufferer from his torments, by despatching him with a dagger or club. In the infliction of these torments, not only the men, but even the women, bear a part, and do not yield to the men in those deeds of cruelty. The cool fortitude of the prisoners, on these occasions, is such as can scarcely be conceived. A groan or a complaint, escaping from their lips, would be considered disgraceful to their tribe, and is carefully avoided. The cruelty on the one side, and the endurance* on the other,

* Another instance of the extraordinary endurance of pain, of which these people are capable, is furnished by the mode in which a chief is appointed, particularly in some of the southern regions. He is obliged to undergo rigorous fasting, and severe flagellation. He is suspended in his hammock; and, while multitudes of ants, whose bites occasion severe pain, are thrown upon him, a fire of stinking herbs is kindled below him, which scorches him with heat, and almost suffocates him with smoke. During all this trial, under which many expire, a look, a motion, or a sound, expressive of uneasiness, would exclude him for ever from the honour to which he aspires; but, if it be passed successfully, he is ever after regarded as a person of proved valour, and one who is fit to lead his fellows against their foes.

seem to arise from example, and from the principles instilled into their minds from their infancy; as on many other occasions they show the same feelings of tenderness and kindness, that ornament civilized society. To conclude the account of these dreadful scenes, it may be stated, that the mangled remains of the prisoners form a banquet for their foes. It is only the captives taken in war, however, that furnish such repasts, as they would shudder at the idea of devouring any other human flesh. It may also be remarked, that many of these dreadful practices are, in late times, in a great degree discontinued.

As among other savages, the women are the slaves, and not the companions of the men; being obliged to perform all the offices of labour and fatigue, and to undergo severe bodily chastisement if they displease their cruel masters. Among some of the tribes, if twins be born, one of them is exposed, and allowed to perish; and if a woman die while nursing, the child is buried with her in the same grave. The children are never taught to obey or reverence their parents; and, as they advance towards maturity, they are regarded by the parents with increasing indifference. When the parents become old and helpless, they are put to death by their children; the old man placing himself voluntarily in the grave which he has ordered to be dug, and the son or nearest relation pulling the thong or striking the blow which is to terminate his life.

With respect to the mode in which America was first peopled, there have been various opinions. The geographical discoveries of modern times, however, show the proximity of that continent to Asia on one side, and to Greenland on another; and hence there is good reason to suppose, that it received settlers from both these parts of the earth, at remote, and probably successive times.

OCEANICA.*

GENERAL VIEW.

Divisions.—The following are the principal divisions of this part of the earth:

* This part of the world, though in many respects interesting, is of little importance, compared with the other great divisions already described. Hence, the account of it here given will be confined to the principal parts, and will be short.

NORTH-WEST OCEANICA.

The Sunda Islands, consisting of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, and others; the Philippine Islands, comprehending Luzon, Mindanao, &c.; and the Moluccas or Spice Islands, consisting of Celebes, Gilolo, Ceram, and others.

SOUTH-WEST OCEANICA.

New Holland, Van Dieman's Island, New Guinea or Papua, New Zealand, New England, New Ireland, and Solomon's Islands.

EASTERN OCEANICA, OR POLYNESIA.

The Ladrone or Marianne Islands, Pelew Islands, Carolinas, Sandwich Islands, New Hebrides, Friendly Islands, Society Islands, Marquesas, and many others.*

Straits.—The principal straits are the Strait of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java; the Strait of Macassar, between Borneo and Celebes; Torres or Endeavour Strait, north, and Bass's Strait, south of New Holland; and Cook's Strait, between the two islands of New Zealand.

NORTH-WEST OCEANICA.

BORNEO.—Borneo, the largest island in the world, except New Holland, is 750 miles long, and above 600 broad. From the unhealthiness of its climate, it is little known. It produces gold and diamonds, in large quantities. Among its vegetable productions are camphor, pepper, ginger, and cotton. Among the animals are monkeys, called Pongos, as large as men, and also the ourang outang. The country is governed by several despotic sovereigns, and the prevailing religion is Mohammedanism. Two of the principal towns are Benjarmasson and Borneo. The Dutch have a settlement near the former.

SUMATRA.—The large island of Sumatra is above 1000 miles long, and from 50 to 240 broad. A chain of mountains runs

* Such as the Mulgrave Islands, the Feyjee Islands, Navigator's Islands, Low Islands, Easter Island, Christmas Island, &c.

through its entire length; but the coasts are low and marshy. Some of the mountains are volcanoes; and one mountain, called Mount Ophir, is nearly 14,000 feet high. Three fourths of the country are covered with an impenetrable forest, containing trees and shrubs of numerous kinds. The island is divided into several states, one of the principal of which is the kingdom of Acheen or Atcheen. The chief towns are Acheen, Nattal, Palembang, and Bencoolen. The English and Dutch have settlements on the coast.

JAVA.—Java is 700 miles long, and its breadth varies from 80 to 140 miles. The northern shore is very unhealthy, and often fatal to Europeans; but the elevated parts in the interior, are pleasant and salubrious. The fertility of the unhealthy districts is extremely great.* The eastern part of the northern coast, is the chief seat of the Dutch power in India. The rest of the island is governed by native princes, who, as well as their subjects, are of the Mohammedan religion. The population of the island is supposed to exceed two millions. Batavia, the Dutch capital, contained above 170,000 inhabitants in 1799; and Samarang contains 30,000. Other towns are Bantam and Sheribon. The chief exports are sugar, coffee, and pepper.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.—The Philippine Islands belong partly to Spain, and partly to native sovereigns. They contain mountains of great height, and many volcanoes. Earthquakes are frequent, and there are often great rains and hurricanes. The islands, however, are scarcely equalled in fertility. The fields are always verdant, the trees constantly in leaf, and fruit and blossoms are found on the same tree at the same time. The chief town, Manilla, in the island of Luzon, contains about 40,000 inhabitants.

MOLUCCAS, or SPICE ISLANDS.—The Moluccas properly so called, are the five small islands of Ternaté, Tidore, Motir, Makian, and Bakian or Batchian, which lie west of Gilolo; but Celebes, Gilolo, Ceram, and several others, are generally comprehended in the same group. Celebes and Gilolo are remarkable for their curious figures, and their resemblance to each other. The five islands above mentioned, are the only places in the world where cloves and nutmegs are produced in perfection. The Dutch have monopolized the entire traffic in these commodities, which, in consequence, sell at extremely high prices.†

* A poisonous tree, called the *upas*, grows in this island. It furnishes an active poison; but does not kill men or animals at a distance, nor blast and destroy the surrounding plants, as has been often stated.

† Cloves are the fruit of a tree, which grows to the height of forty or fifty feet. The nutmeg is the fruit of a similar tree; and the coat-

SOUTH-WEST OCEANICA.

NEW HOLLAND.—This vast island seems to be nearly 2500 miles long, from east to west; and above 2000 miles in breadth, from north to south. Except the eastern coast, which is called New South Wales, it is almost unknown. This part is the seat of an English colony, a great part of the population of which is composed of convicts, sentenced to transportation for crimes. Several of these have reformed, and become respectable and wealthy members of the colony. Many, however, have shown little improvement in their habits and propensities. There are several useful and efficient schools, for the instruction of the children, both of the free settlers and of the convicts. There is one also for instructing the children of the original savage inhabitants, which is likely to be productive of much good, as the children show sufficient aptness, though their parents are among the rudest and most uncultivated of the human race found in any part of the world. The principal town, Sydney, on Port Jackson, contains about 7000 inhabitants; and there are several smaller, which are fast increasing.

VAN DIEMAN'S ISLAND.—Van Dieman's Land is a fine island which lies south of the eastern part of New Holland. The climate is mild and salubrious, and the soil fertile. Many settlers have of late resorted to it from the British Islands; and the colony is in a very prosperous state.

NEW GUINEA.—New Guinea is a large island, north of New Holland. It is very imperfectly known, but it seems to be fertile; and the inhabitants, who are blacks, are savages of the rudest kind, and the most disgusting appearance.

NEW ZEALAND.—New Zealand consists of two islands, of which the northern seems to be rather smaller, and the southern rather larger, than Ireland. The northern island is fertile, and well adapted for cultivation; but the southern seems to be rather mountainous. The climate of both is good. The inhabitants are far superior in intelligence to those of New Holland, and are much farther advanced towards civilization. They devour the bodies of their enemies, however; but this is done from vengeance, and not from fondness for human flesh.

ing by which the nutmeg is covered, is called mace. These spices, were there no monopoly, might be sold in Europe for sixpence per pound; while in England, in consequence of the high price paid to the Dutch, and of the duties, they sell for seventeen times that sum. These islands, as well as those already mentioned, have many birds of extreme beauty; such as birds of paradise, paroquets, and several others.

POLYNESIA, OR EASTERN OCEANICA.*

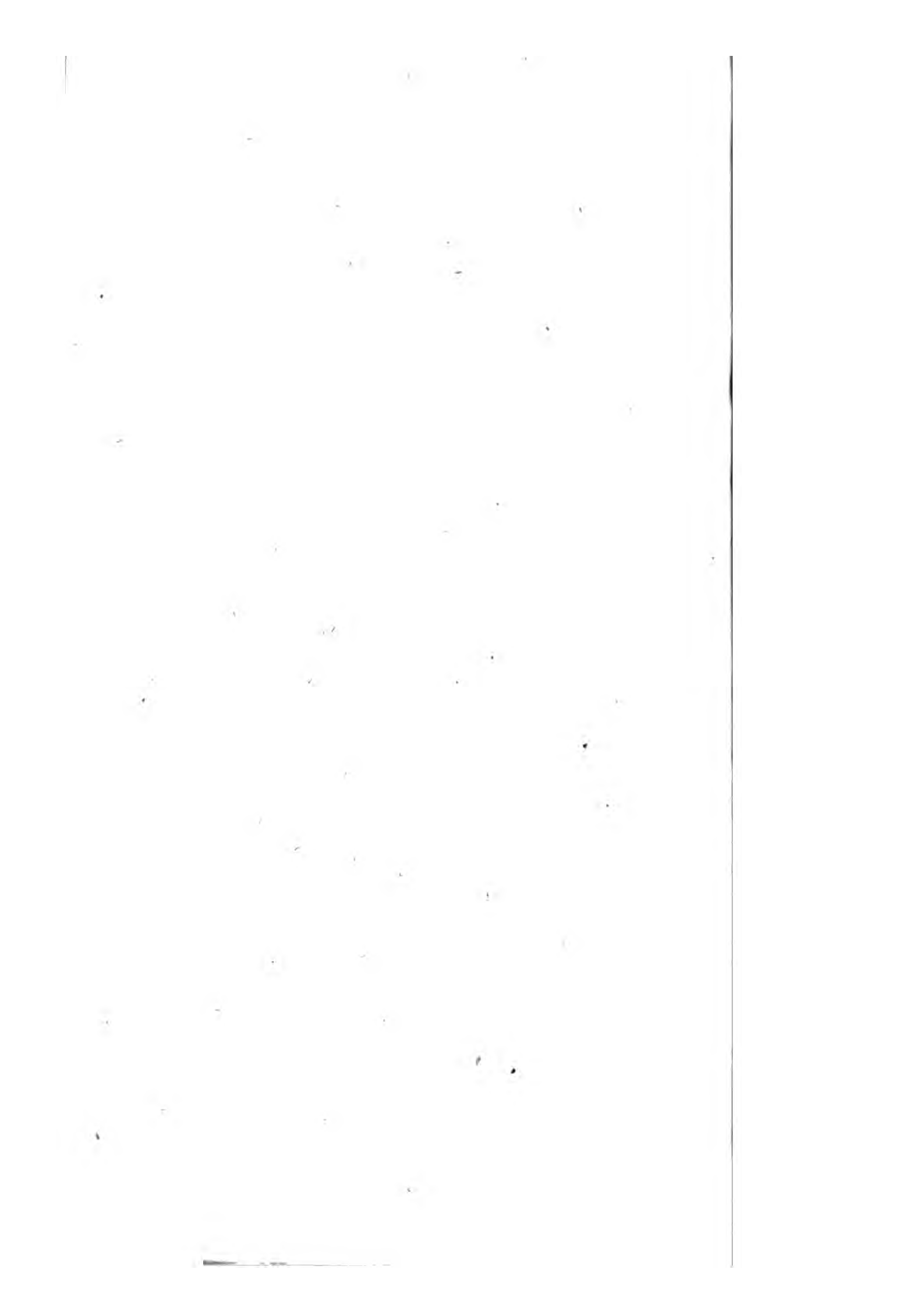
SANDWICH ISLANDS.—The principal of the Sandwich Islands is Owhyhee, the place where Captain Cook was unfortunately killed, in an affray with the natives, in 1779. Since that period, the inhabitants have greatly advanced in civilization; and have now twenty merchant ships, with which they perform voyages to the coast of America. They are described as a gentle, benevolent race; though, from custom and their religious ideas, they sacrifice human victims.

FRIENDLY ISLANDS.—The Friendly Islands are about a hundred in number, and are in general fertile and pleasant, but are subject to earthquakes.† The principal island is Tongataboo, which is divided into three small states. The inhabitants of these islands frequently sacrifice human victims; but they are, in general, represented as in other respects gentle and kind towards each other.

SOCIETY ISLANDS.—The principal islands in this group are Otaheité, Huaheiné, Ulietea, Eimeo, &c. Of all the islands in the Pacific, none is perhaps so interesting as Otaheité. The plains and valleys are extremely fertile; and produce, in the greatest perfection, almost all the vegetable species known in the islands of the Pacific. Of late, also, the inhabitants have very generally embraced the Christian religion, as propagated by the missionaries, and with it, the manners, and even the dress of civilized Europe.

* In the almost-numberless islands scattered over the Pacific Ocean, the climate, from their insular situation, is in general much milder than might be expected from their latitudes. Several of them contain volcanoes; and others exhibit marks of former ones, now extinct. Most of them are fertile and pleasant, and yield in profusion the fine productions of the tropical regions of the earth, such as the bread-fruit, cocoa, and orange trees, the sugar-cane, and many others. Their shores abound in fine fish, and their forests are peopled with myriads of beautiful birds. In almost all these islands, however, the Europeans found very few quadrupeds. In some, indeed, it is said there were none; and in others, only pigs, dogs, and rats. Several of the most useful species have since been introduced.

† The inhabitants of Tongataboo believe, that the island is supported on the back of the god Mauwi; and that earthquakes take place when he moves, in consequence of becoming tired of his load.



APPENDIX.

FIGURE OF THE EARTH.

THE Earth is proved to be nearly globular, by various arguments. When a ship approaches the land, her masts and rigging are first seen by those on shore; and she seems gradually to rise out of the water, till at length the hull becomes visible. In like manner, the persons in the vessel see first the tops of mountains or hills, and last of all the beach. When the vessel sails from the land, the hull first disappears from the view of those on shore, and the top of the mast is longest visible; and those in the vessel see the tops of spires, hills, and mountains, for a considerable time after the beach has disappeared. In all these cases, the disappearance of the lower objects can be accounted for, only on the supposition, that the surface of the water is convex; as, were this not the case, the bulkiest objects, such as the hull of the ship, and the lower parts of buildings, hills, and mountains, would be longest visible. These appearances are observed at every shore in the world, and in every direction. The surface of the sea, therefore, must in all places be nearly globular.*

* The same phenomena are observable in the ocean, at any distance from land; as the seaman finds from experience, that, in all places, he has a more extended view from the top of the mast, than from the deck of the ship. In sandy deserts also, and in regions which are destitute of mountains and hills, the same appearances are exhibited; the lower parts of remote objects being constantly concealed from the view by the intervening country. These phenomena may be well illustrated, by moving a pencil, or any similar object, along the surface of a ball or artificial globe, in such a manner, that its length may always be directed towards the centre. It may be farther observed, that, if the Earth were an extended plane, as was believed in early times, the Andes and other high mountains would be visible at vast distances, the thickness of the atmosphere being the only obstacle to their being seen from elevated positions, at the remotest parts of the Earth.

and the highest mountains on the land, are far smaller, in comparison of the Earth's magnitude, than the inequalities on the surface of the smoothest fruit are in comparison of the fruit itself.*

This conclusion is confirmed by eclipses of the Moon; as the shadow of the Earth on that luminary, is always found to be terminated by a boundary not differing sensibly from an arch of a circle; and no body, except a globe, can, in all positions, cast a circular shadow.†

A farther proof of the same conclusion is, that the Earth has been circumnavigated by Magellan, Drake, Anson, Cook, and many others.‡

All calculations also, particularly in Geography and Navigation, which are made on the supposition that the Earth is spherical, are found to give results which are very nearly true; while the results derived from the supposition that its surface is a plane, are quite false.

None of the inhabitants of the Earth feel any inconvenience from this figure; as in every place all objects are attracted towards the centre, and every person conceives the Earth to be beneath his feet, and the heavens to be over his head.

A plane touching the Earth's surface at any point, is

* How small the heights of mountains are, in comparison of the magnitude of the Earth, will appear, if we consider that five miles, a space which almost equals the height of any mountain at present known, is only about a sixteen-hundredth part of the Earth's diameter. Now, the sixteen-hundredth part of twelve inches is about the hundred and thirtieth part of one inch; so that the highest mountain on the Earth would be represented on a terrestrial globe, twelve inches in diameter, by a prominence very little exceeding the thickness of common writing paper.

† An eclipse of the Moon is occasioned by that body, in her revolution round the Earth, falling either wholly or partially into the Earth's shadow. An eclipse of the Sun is produced by the Moon, in her revolution, passing between the observer and the Sun; and thus rendering that luminary either partly or wholly invisible.

‡ If the Earth were a flat surface, it might, in one sense, be circumnavigated by a vessel perpetually changing her course, and thus describing a circuit on the plane. In the cases above referred to, however, the navigators constantly sailed in the same direction, except when obliged to deviate in some degree for the purpose of doubling certain lands, particularly the southern parts of Africa and America; and they at length arrived at the place from which they set out, which they could not have done, had the Earth been a plane.

called the *sensible horizon* of that point; and a great circle whose plane is parallel to the sensible horizon, is called the *rational horizon* of the same point.*

The *zenith* of any place is the point in the celestial sphere, which is exactly over the place; and the *nadir* is the point of the celestial sphere, which is diametrically opposite, or which is the zenith of the antipodes of that place.

When the figure of the Earth is accurately examined, it is found not to be exactly spherical. This is inferred from the fact, that degrees of the meridian are rather greater towards the poles, than near the equator; and from this it follows, that the Earth must be somewhat flattened at the poles, and protuberant at the equator. The length of a degree at the parallel of 45° , is found by measurement to be 69 miles 79 yards, which may be taken as the mean length of a degree. If this be multiplied by 360, the product is 24,856 miles, the circumference of the meridian; and hence, the mean diameter of the Earth is found to be nearly 7912 miles. From a comparison of the lengths of degrees measured in various parts of the world, it is inferred, that the Earth is very nearly an oblate spheroid, which has its equatorial diameter about twenty-five miles longer than its polar.†

* The term *horizon* is the participle of a Greek verb which signifies *to bound*; and, having the word synonymous with circle understood, it denoted originally the circle which limits the view, as nothing below it can be seen. In a popular sense, it is the circle in which the sky and the surface of the Earth, or rather of the sea, appear to meet; and, if the eye be supposed to have no elevation, this circle will coincide with the sensible horizon as above defined.

† If the Earth were an exact sphere, and if a person should travel due north or south, the altitude of the pole star, or of any other when on the meridian, would increase or decrease exactly in proportion to the space passed over. This is found to be nearly, but not exactly so; a degree at the equator being about 1675 feet less, and one at the polar circle about 1158 feet greater, than the one above mentioned at the parallel of 45° . Hence it is evident, that a circle nearly coinciding with the meridian at the equator, would be less than one nearly coinciding with it in the higher latitudes; and, consequently, the curvature is greater in a given space near the equator than near the poles, or, which is the same, the surface differs less from a plane in the polar regions than in the equatorial. According to late measurements in various parts of the world, the difference of the polar and

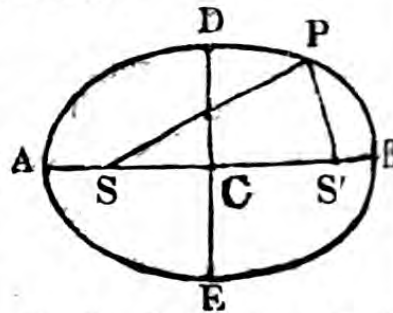
ASTRONOMY.*

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SOLAR SYSTEM.

Number of the Planets, &c.—The solar system consists of the Sun, and several bodies which revolve round him, and are called planets; besides many comets. The planets are of two kinds, *primary* and *secondary*. The *primary* are those which revolve round the Sun, as the centre of their motions; and the *secondary*, which are also called *satellites* or *moons*, are those which revolve round some of the primary, and are carried with them round the Sun. The number of primary planets at present known is eleven, and that of the secondary eighteen.

equatorial diameters is found to be between a three hundredth and a three hundred and twenty-fifth part of the latter.

If the ends of a thread, $S P S'$, be fastened to two pins, S, S' , fixed at a less distance asunder than the length of the thread, and if the point of a pen or pencil, P , be carried round in such a manner as to keep the thread constantly stretched, the figure enclosed by the curve line thus described, is called an *ellipse*: the points S and S' , where the pins are fixed, are called the *foci* (and each of them a *focus*): the line $A B$, drawn through the foci, and terminated both ways by the curve, is called the *greater axis*; and the line $D E$, drawn perpendicular to this axis through its middle point, and terminated by the curve, is called the *less axis*.



If one of the parts into which an ellipse is divided by either of the axes, revolve about that axis, the figure which it describes is called a *spheroid*;—*prolate*, if the revolution be performed round the greater axis; *oblate*, if round the less. An egg is nearly of the former figure; and a watch, or a flat turnip, nearly of the latter.

The diameter of a circle is to its circumference nearly as 113 to 355, or more nearly as 1 to 3.141593. A straight line drawn from the centre to the circumference, is called a *radius*, and is evidently half the diameter.

* Other interesting particulars respecting the Earth, will be found in what follows. The foregoing remarks on its figure, have been given in a separate form, in consequence of their close connexion with Geography.

Names of the Planets, &c.—The primary planets are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars; Vesta, Juno, Ceres, and Pallas; Jupiter, Saturn, and Uranus or the Georgium Sidus.*

The secondary planets, at present known, are the Moon, which accompanies the Earth; four satellites belonging to Jupiter, seven to Saturn, and six to Uranus.†

Orbits of the Planets.—The primary planets revolve from west to east, in elliptical paths or orbits, having the Sun in one of the foci. Most of these orbits differ very little from circles; the eccentricity, or distance between the centre of any of them and the focus, being in most cases very small in comparison of the magnitude of the orbit itself. The secondary planets also move in orbits of the same kind, having each its respective primary in one of its foci.‡

Distances of the Planets.—The mean distances of the planets from the Sun, in millions of miles, are as follows: Mercury, 36; Venus, 68; the Earth, 93; Mars, 142; Ves-

* Uranus was discovered by Dr. (afterwards Sir William) Herschel, in 1781; Ceres by M. Piazzi, at Palermo, on the first of January, 1801 (the first day of the present century); Pallas in 1802, and Vesta in 1807, both by Dr. Olbers, at Bremen; and Juno in 1804, by Mr. Harding, at the observatory of Lilienthal, near Bremen. The other primary planets have all been known since the earliest times.

† The satellites of Jupiter were discovered in 1609, immediately after the invention of the telescope; and those of Saturn and Uranus, at different times since.

‡ This will be illustrated by the foregoing figure, in which S will represent the Sun, the curve line A D B E the orbit of a planet, and C S its eccentricity. At the point A, the planet will be nearest the Sun; at B, most remote; and at D or E, it will be at its mean distance. By the nature of the ellipse, the mean distance, S D or S E, is equal to A C or C B, half the greater axis. Hence, the greatest distance is equal to the sum of the eccentricity and the mean distance, and the least distance is equal to their difference. The planetary orbits, however, differ much less from circles than the figure referred to. In the Earth's orbit, for instance, the eccentricity, S C, is only about a sixtieth part of the mean distance A C. From the table at the end of this article, it appears, that the orbits of Juno, Pallas, and Mercury, are the most elliptical; and those of Venus and the Earth, the least so. It may be farther remarked, that the eccentricities are all subject to some variation, in consequence of the mutual attractions of the planets.

ta, 221; Juno, 248; Ceres, 257; Pallas, 257; Jupiter, 486; Saturn, 890; Uranus, 1790.*

Periodic Times.—The periods of their sidereal revolutions, or the times in which they complete their revolutions round the Sun, are nearly as follows: Mercury, 88 days; Venus, $7\frac{1}{2}$ months; the Earth, 12 months; Mars, 1 year $10\frac{1}{2}$ months; Vesta, 3 years 8 months; Juno, 4 years 4 months; Ceres and Pallas, 4 years 7 months; Jupiter, 11 years $10\frac{1}{2}$ months; Saturn, $29\frac{1}{2}$ years; and Uranus, 84 years.†

Velocities.—From the distances and periodic times of the planets, their mean velocities in their orbits may be calculated. Thus, by multiplying double the Earth's mean distance by 355, and dividing the product by 113, we obtain 584 millions of miles, the space described during one revolution. If this be divided by $365\frac{1}{4}$, the quotient is 1,600,000 nearly, which is the average space described in one day. Dividing this again by 24, we get 66,600 miles, the motion in one hour; and two successive divisions by 60 give 1110 miles, the space described in a

* These distances are nearly as the numbers 4, 7, 10, 15, 24, 27, 28, 28, 52, 95, and 192. If round a point representing the Sun, circles be described with these distances, as radii, they will nearly represent the orbits of the planets. The radii may be taken from a scale of equal parts, which the pupil can form for himself, with the parts greater or smaller, according to the intended size of the scheme. If much accuracy be wished for, and more especially if the scheme be large, the orbits of Juno, Pallas, and Mercury, may be made elliptical by means of their eccentricities.

† By the time of a sidereal revolution, is meant, the period that elapses between the planet's appearing, as seen from the Sun, in any position in respect to the fixed stars, and its being again seen in the same position. It has been found, that the squares of these periods are proportional to the cubes of the mean distances. Thus, by squaring 365 and 88, the nearest days to the periods of the Earth and Mercury, we get 133225 and 7744; and the cube of 93, the millions of miles in the Earth's mean distance, is 804357. Then, as 133225 : 7744 : : 804357 : 46755; the cube root of which is 36, the millions of miles in the mean distance of Mercury. This important theorem is the last of the three Laws that were discovered by Kepler. The first of these is, that if a straight line be drawn from the central to the revolving body, it will describe equal areas in equal times; and the second, that the planets revolve in elliptic orbits, having the Sun in one of the foci. Kepler was a distinguished German astronomer, who died in 1630.

minute; and 18 miles, that which is described in a second. By similar processes, we should find the mean hourly spaces in miles described by Mercury, Jupiter, and Uranus, to be 110,000, 29,000, and 15,000; the velocity being less, the more remote the planet is from the Sun.

Apparent Motions of the Planets.—Seen from the Earth, any of the planets, during a part of each revolution, appears to move westward, or contrary to the direction of its real motions. At the beginning and end of this apparent retrograde motion, the planet appears for a short time to be stationary. These appearances are the effect of the combined motions of the Earth and planet.*

Inclinations of the Planetary Orbits.—The planes in which the orbits of the planets are situated, all pass through the centre of the Sun. With the exception of the orbits of Juno, Ceres, and Pallas, they are all inclined to each other at small angles; none of them making, with the plane of the Earth's orbit, an angle exceeding seven degrees and a few minutes; while most of them make much smaller angles.†

* These phenomena may be illustrated, by causing two balls to move round a candle or other centre, the interior one in shorter time than the other. Then, the eye being kept at one of them, if the other be observed, it will appear generally to advance in reference to any marks on the walls, but sometimes to recede. In like manner, the planets generally appear to move eastward, in relation to the fixed stars; but sometimes they seem to have a motion in the contrary direction. The inferior planets have this apparent retrograde motion, for some time before and after their inferior conjunctions; and the superior planets, for some time before and after their oppositions. The periods of retrogradation are not always the same: but the mean period for Saturn is about 140 days; for Jupiter, 120 days; for Mars, 73 days; for Venus, 42 days; and for Mercury, 22 days. It may be remarked, that the Earth, seen from any of the planets, would appear to move retrograde at the same time that the planet appears to move retrograde, as seen from the Earth.

† To illustrate this subject, take a piece of pasteboard to represent the plane of the Earth's orbit, and on it describe a circle for the orbit, the centre representing the Sun. Then, through this centre, cut a straight slit, in which put another circle, described on a separate piece of pasteboard, and of a size different from that which represents the Earth's orbit. Make the two centres coincide, and incline the circles at a small angle. Then the circle thus inserted will represent the orbit of an inferior planet. The points in which the orbit of the planet cuts the plane of the ecliptic, are called the *nodes* of its orbit; and the straight line joining these, is called the *line of the nodes*.

Rotations.—While the planets are performing their revolutions round the Sun, several of them are known to revolve from west to east, on lines within themselves, called their axes; and thus all parts of their surfaces enjoy the vicissitudes of day and night. The times of rotation, except for the Earth, are found by observing the periods occupied by certain spots in completing revolutions round the planets. Some of the planets, from their distance, smallness, or other causes, do not exhibit any spots by which their rotations can be ascertained;* but there seems to be every reason to conclude from analogy, that they all have such motions. The Sun also is found to perform a rotation in upwards of twenty-five days, and the Moon in the same time in which she revolves round the Earth.

Figures of the Planets.—The planets are all nearly globular. Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, are found to be compressed at the poles in the same manner as the Earth, but in a much more considerable degree; the polar and equatorial diameters of Mars being as 15 to 16, of Jupiter as 13 to 14, and of Saturn as 10 to 11. This compression is thought to be produced in the two latter, principally by their swift rotations on their axes; and in the former, by its being composed of matter differing considerably in density.

Magnitudes of the Planets.—Some of the planets are much smaller, and others vastly larger than the Earth. Thus, the bulk of Jupiter is nearly 1300 times, of Saturn nearly 1000 times, and of Uranus nearly 90 times, that of the Earth; and, while Venus and the Earth are of nearly equal size, the magnitude of Mars is about one seventh, and that of Mercury about one fifteenth, of the Earth's magnitude. The Sun is of enormous dimensions, his bulk being nearly 1,400,000 times that of the Earth.†

* For these reasons, the rotations of Uranus, Vesta, Juno, Ceres, and Pallas, are unknown. That of Mercury, also, is doubtful. It will be seen by the table to be given hereafter, that the lengths of the day in Venus, the Earth, and Mars, are nearly equal; and that in Jupiter and Saturn, they are also nearly equal to one another, but are much smaller than with us.

† The magnitudes of Vesta, Juno, Ceres, and Pallas, are not well ascertained; but Ceres is thought to be about as large as the Moon,

Sun's Attraction, &c.—The Sun's direct influence on the planets in producing heat, light, and attraction, and also his apparent magnitude as seen from them, are inversely proportional to the squares of their distances from him; that is, they decrease as the squares of the distances increase. Hence, the direct influence of the Sun on Mercury is nearly seven times as great as on the Earth; and seen from that planet, he will appear nearly seven times as large:* while his influence on Uranus will be only a three hundred and sixty-eighth part of his influence on the Earth, and his apparent magnitude will be diminished in an equal degree.

Densities, &c.—From comparing the attractive powers of the bodies in the system, and their magnitudes, the quantities of matter which they contain and their densities have been determined. Thus, it has been found that Jupiter contains 312 times as much matter as the

and Vesta a little larger; while Juno and Pallas are much smaller. The magnitudes, or solid contents, of spherical bodies, are proportional to the cubes of their diameters. Thus, the diameters of the Earth and Saturn being nearly as 1 to 10, their solid contents or volumes will be nearly as 1, the cube of the first, is to 1000, the cube of the second. The contents of the surfaces of such bodies, are proportional to the squares of their diameters. Hence, the surface of Saturn is very nearly 100 times as great as that of the Earth.

* For the distances of Mercury and the Earth are nearly as 5 to 13; and the squares of these are 25 and 169, the latter of which is nearly seven times the former. Again, the Earth's distance and that of Uranus are nearly as 1 to 19·18, the squares of which are 1 and 368 nearly. We are not entitled to conclude from these results, that Mercury is so hot and so brilliantly illuminated, or Uranus so cold and gloomy, as we might at first suppose. We are ignorant of the nature of their surfaces and atmospheres; and, consequently, we cannot know what effects may be produced on them by the solar rays. They may, therefore, be as well adapted as the Earth, to afford comfortable habitations for animals; and even if they and the other planets should differ considerably in this respect, there can be no doubt, but the wisdom and goodness of the Creator have suited the constitutions of the inhabitants to the residence which they are destined to occupy. The degree of attraction, and the Sun's apparent magnitude, follow precisely the law above stated. Hence, in Mercury, the Sun's diameter will appear to be more than two and a half times as great as to us, and his disk nearly seven times as great; while in Uranus, he will appear very little larger than Jupiter or Venus does to the inhabitants of the Earth.

Earth; Saturn, nearly 98 times; and Uranus, nearly 17 times, as much. The densities of Jupiter and Uranus are rather above one fifth of the Earth's density, while that of Saturn is little more than one tenth. The Sun's density rather exceeds one fourth of that of the Earth; but so vast is his magnitude, that he contains nearly 334,000 times as much matter as the Earth, or above 600 times as much as all the planets at present known.*

THE SUN.†

THE Sun is nearly, but not exactly, the centre of the system. The real centre is the common centre of gravity‡ of the Sun, and all the other bodies in the system;

* The quantities of matter contained in bodies, are proportional to the degrees of attraction which they exert on other bodies in similar circumstances. Hence, the degrees of attraction exerted by the primary planets on their satellites, being known from the periods and distances of the satellites, the quantity of matter contained in those planets which have secondaries, can in general be ascertained with a great degree of accuracy. The case is different with respect to those which have not satellites, as their power of attraction can be known only by the effects which they produce in disturbing the motions of the other planets. Hence, the quantities of matter contained in such planets, are determined with much more difficulty and less certainty. The results which appear to be most nearly correct, will be found in the table at the end of this article. By examining these, it will appear that, with the single exception of Uranus, the nearer any planet is to the Sun, the greater is its density. It may be farther remarked, that the mean density of the earth is supposed to be about five times that of water; and hence it will follow, that the planet Mercury, if its density be correctly determined, is considerably heavier than a mass of copper of the same magnitude; while the mean density of Saturn is only about three fourths of the density of fir, or less than twice that of cork.

† After the foregoing general sketch of the solar system, it will be proper to consider the bodies in it separately, especially in respect to any peculiarities that may belong to them.

‡ If two balls be fixed at the opposite ends of a straight wire or rod, their common centre of gravity is the point of the wire, on which they will be exactly balanced. The distance of this point from the lighter ball, will be to its distance from the other, as the weight of the heavier is to that of the lighter, if the weight of the wire be neglected. If one ball, equal in weight to these two, be placed in the point thus found, the common centre of gravity of it and a fourth,

and round this, the Sun and all those bodies move. So great, however, is the quantity of matter contained in the Sun, that the distance between his centre and the centre of the system is never greater than his diameter, and is generally much less, its position depending on the positions of the planets; and hence, there is little impropriety in calling the Sun the centre of the system.

Spots, &c.—When the Sun is examined with a telescope, various dark spots are frequently discovered on his surface. These are sometimes far larger than the entire surface of the Earth. They vary much in their number and appearance, sometimes none being visible, and sometimes several; and while on some occasions one spot separates into two or more, at other times two or more unite into one. They are now generally supposed to be produced by convulsions and openings in the luminous matter on the surface of the Sun. Though there are some irregularities, from the causes already mentioned, they seem to complete their revolutions, from one limb of the Sun to the same position again, in the average period of 27 days, 7 hours, 37 minutes; and hence, the period of the Sun's rotation is computed to be 25 days, 10 hours, nearly.*

Nature of the Sun.—With respect to the nature of the Sun, there have been different opinions. Some have thought, that he is an immense mass of fire, merely designed to afford heat and light to the planets; while others

found in the same manner, will be the common centre of gravity of the first two and the fourth, whether these three are in the same straight line or not; and it is easy to see how, by this principle, the common centre of gravity of four or more balls might be determined. It will be seen also, that this centre will be nearer the heavier ball, and more remote from the lighter. In just the same manner, by using the quantities of matter contained in the Sun and planets, instead of weights, their common centre of gravity may be found; and it is plain, that it will be nearest the Sun, when the planets are situated in different parts of the heavens around him; and most remote, when they are all on the same side of him.

* The period in which the spots appear to revolve, is longer than the real period, in consequence of the Earth's motion round the Sun, in the same direction in which they revolve. To find the true period, add the observed period to the time of the Earth's revolution; then, as the sum thus obtained is to the Earth's period, so is the observed period of the Sun's rotation to the true period.

have supposed him to be a habitable world. Of the latter opinion was Sir William Herschel, who thought that the Sun consisted of a solid body or nucleus, surrounded with an atmosphere in which luminous clouds float, diffusing light and heat through the system; and he conceived that the interior, or habitable part, is protected from the heat of the exterior surface by strata of dark clouds placed between them. Another opinion is, that the Sun is not a heated body, and that, instead of diffusing heat and light through the system, his influence merely brings into action the principles of these substances contained in the bodies themselves. These, however, are all merely theories, which it is perhaps impossible either to confirm or disprove.

Sun's Apparent Motion.—Like the other heavenly bodies, the Sun appears to us to perform each day a revolution round the heavens, from east to west, in consequence of the Earth's rotation in the contrary direction. He is also constantly, though slowly, changing his apparent situation in relation to the fixed stars, appearing to move each day almost one degree, or nearly twice his own diameter, eastward; and thus, in the course of a year, completing an entire revolution round the heavens. The circle which his centre thus appears to describe, is called the ecliptic. This is really the circle described by the Earth in its annual motion; the Earth describing one part of it, while the Sun appears to describe the opposite.*

Appearances of the Planets, &c.—The Sun is the only body in the system, in which the apparent motions of the planets accord with the real. Seen from the Earth, or any other planet, the rest appear sometimes to move eastward among the fixed stars, and sometimes westward; while at other times, they seem to be stationary: but seen from the Sun, they appear constantly to move eastward, and always present a full, round, enlightened disk.

* This will be illustrated by placing a candle, lamp, or other object, in the middle of a room, and moving round it. In this case, it will appear to be successively in the direction of various points on the wall; and, in the same manner, the Sun, though at rest, appears to a person on the Earth, in its motion around him, to describe a circle round the celestial sphere among the fixed stars. The ecliptic is so called, because eclipses take place when the Moon is in or near it.

Sun's Attraction.—So great is the Sun's attraction, arising from his vast quantity of matter, that a body at his surface falls from rest through a space of more than 400 feet in the first second of time; and the weight of bodies on his surface, or the pressure which they sustain towards his centre, is nearly twenty-eight times as great as at the surface of the Earth.

Motion of the Solar System.—The Sun and the entire system are supposed to have a motion towards the constellation Hercules. This is inferred from the stars in that part of the heavens appearing to recede* from each other with extreme slowness, and from other similar appearances.

MERCURY.

MERCURY and Venus are called, in relation to the Earth, *inferior planets*; because they are nearer the centre of the system, and, as it were, lower in it, than our planet. Those that are more remote than the Earth, are called *superior planets*. This planet, in consequence of his nearness to the Sun, can never be seen except a little before sunrise, or a little after sunset. From the same cause, the Sun's diameter, seen from Mercury, appears more than two and a half times as large as it does to us, and his disk nearly seven times as large. The Earth also, and its satellite the Moon, will both be distinctly visible. When viewed from the Earth with a telescope, Mercury presents phases similar to those of the Moon; appearing sometimes horned, sometimes half, and sometimes nearly round and full. On all these occasions, his enlightened side is turned towards the Sun;—a circumstance which proves that he shines, not by his own light, but by reflecting that of the Sun. He sometimes passes exactly between the Earth and Sun, and causes the appearance of a dark spot crossing the Sun's disk. Such an appearance is called a *transit*. These transits take place sometimes in May, and

* In the same manner as the trees in a grove seem to become more distant from one another as we approach them, while the intervals between those behind us seem to diminish as we retire from them.

more frequently in November, because his orbit crosses the ecliptic at the Sun's positions about these times. About fourteen or fifteen of these happen each century.*

VENUS.

VENUS, as seen from the Earth, is the most beautiful, and apparently the largest of the planets. When about 40° from the Sun, she may be seen in day-light; and in this situation, she causes objects, in a place from which other light is excluded, to cast a sensible shadow. When west of the Sun, she rises before him, and is called the *morning star*, or sometimes *Lucifer*; but when east of him, she sets after him, and is called the *evening star*, or sometimes *Hesperus*. She presents exactly the same phases as Mercury. There are also transits of this planet, which happen in June and December, and which afford the only method of determining the Sun's distance from the Earth, with any tolerable degree of accuracy.† From late observations, it appears, that Venus has mountains which are much higher than any on the Earth; and she has also an atmosphere and twilight.

THE EARTH.

THE Earth has two motions; one round its own axis in a day, and another round the Sun in a year.‡ The former is called its diurnal motion, and the latter its annual. The Earth's rotation on its axis from west to east, causes all the heavenly bodies to appear to revolve from east to

* When an inferior planet is in the same direction as the Sun, and on the side of its orbit next the Earth, it is said to be in its *inferior conjunction*; but when it is in the same direction, beyond him, it is said to be at its *superior conjunction*. In both cases, it is invisible.

† These occur very rarely. The last three, the only ones that have been observed, were in 1639, 1761, and 1769; and the next two will be in 1874 and 1882.

‡ Motions similar to these may be seen in a ball thrown from the hand, which, while moving forward, may, if thrown with a particular cast, be at the same time revolving on an axis within itself. A top in motion affords a similar illustration.

west; in the same manner as, when we ride in a carriage or sail in a boat, the ground beneath us in the first case, and the banks and other fixed objects in the second, seem to move in the opposite direction. The same phenomena would be produced, indeed, were the Earth at rest, and all the heavenly bodies moving round us from east to west, and completing their revolutions in a day: but it is much more agreeable to the simplicity which is found to exist in all the works of the Creator, as far as they are known to us, to suppose, that the various phenomena are produced by the single motion of the Earth, than that all the numberless heavenly bodies should be moving round it, some of them at distances, and with velocities, far exceeding any conception that the human mind can form. Nor can any inconvenience result from such a motion; as the atmosphere moves along with the Earth, and since in all positions, and at every point of the Earth's surface, all objects, as has been already remarked, are attracted towards the centre; so that every person conceives the Earth to be beneath his feet, and the heavens to be above him. Another proof of this rotation is, that pendulums move more slowly in places near the equator, than in those near the poles;—a circumstance which is easily explained on the supposition, that the rotation counteracts the effect of the Earth's attraction, by causing objects to tend to fly off from the surface, in the same manner as when a stone tends to fly off from a sling, when whirled round; and that the pendulum thus moves more slowly, being less affected by the power of gravity.* A

* Any body in motion will continue to move in a straight line, and with a uniform velocity, unless prevented by some external cause. Hence, if the earth have a rotation, and if bodies were not attracted towards its centre, they would be thrown off, except at the poles, by what has been called a centrifugal force, along a straight line touching the surface. This is prevented by the attractive or central force, the entire effect of which, however, is diminished by the amount of the centrifugal force. It follows from this, that, in case of rotation, bodies will tend towards the centre with less force at the equator than in the higher latitudes; and this is proved to be the case by the slower motion of pendulums in tropical countries, as it is evident that the motion of a pendulum must depend on the force by which it is attracted. The first experiment of this kind was made in 1672, by M. Richer, who found that a pendulum clock, which indicated time

farther confirmation of the same opinion, arises from the Earth's being protuberant at the equator; not merely the solid parts, but even the surface of the sea, being twelve or thirteen miles higher, or more remote from the centre there, than at the poles.* Since all the planets, also, upon which accurate observations can be made, revolve on their axes, we naturally infer from analogy, that the Earth has a similar motion.

The arguments in support of the Earth's motion in an orbit round the Sun—instead of the Sun, and the other bodies in the system, moving round the Earth—are of the same general character as those that prove the Earth's rotation. The objections against them may be answered in the same way; and they account for all the phenomena in the simplest and most satisfactory manner.†

correctly at Paris, lost 2 minutes 28 seconds daily at Cayenne; and numberless experiments of a similar kind have since been made in various other places, and all attended with like results.

* The principle on which the spheroidal figure of the Earth depends, is the same as that by which, if a bunch of keys be suspended loosely by a cord, and be made to turn rapidly round, they will diverge from one another; or by which, the parts of a mop, if it be whirled round in a similar manner, spread out in every direction. In like manner, if a very thin hoop be made to revolve rapidly, by means of machinery, about a diameter, it will become flattened in a considerable degree about the extremities of that diameter, and protuberant at the parts midway between them. These facts depend on the principle mentioned in the last note, that bodies in motion tend to move in a straight line. A popular objection against the Earth's motion is, that, if there were such a motion, a body allowed to fall by its own weight would not reach the ground exactly below the point from which it fell, but considerably to the west of it; and that a body projected perpendicularly upward, would not fall again, as it is observed to do, at the place from which it ascended, but, in like manner, at a distance to the west proportioned to the time of its flight, in consequence of the Earth's eastward motion during that time. This objection, however, is of no weight. When a vessel is sailing on a smooth sea, a stone dropped from the top of the mast strikes the deck exactly below the point from which it fell; and a stone dropped from a vehicle in motion, is seen to move as rapidly forward as the carriage, till it reaches the ground, when it is instantly left behind. In both these cases, the falling body, besides being attracted downwards, has the same tendency to move forward as the hand that drops it; and the same principle is applicable in respect to the Earth's motion.

† The strongest proof of the Earth's motion in its orbit, is derived from what is called the *aberration of light*. An explanation of this, however, is unsuitable to a work like the present.

As the Earth's rotation on its axis produces day and night, so its revolution in its orbit occasions the vicissitudes of the seasons. The axis is inclined to the plane of the orbit at an angle of $66^{\circ} 32'$, and always points in the same direction, or is parallel to the same straight line. By this means, the northern hemisphere is so situated on some occasions, and the southern on others, as to be subjected in a greater degree to the influence of the Sun; while at other times, both receive equal degrees of heat and light. In the first case, the northern hemisphere will have summer; in the second, the southern; and in the third, it will be spring or autumn over all the world.*

* To illustrate this, let a flat substance, with a circle of considerable magnitude described on it, be raised at one side so as to be inclined to the horizon, at an angle of about $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$; and place a candle a little above its centre. Then let a ball, suspended by a piece of thread, be carried gently round the circumference of the circle, the point of suspension representing the north pole; the point diametrically opposite to it, the south pole; and a circle midway between them, the equator. While the ball is thus moving round the circle, let it be made to revolve by twisting the thread, and both the annual and diurnal motions of the Earth will be correctly represented. Now, when the ball is at the lowest point of its course, it will be seen that, while it revolves on its axis, the north pole, and a space round it representing the northern frigid zone, will be constantly in the enlightened hemisphere, or will have perpetual day; while the south pole and the southern frigid zone will have perpetual night. It will be seen also, that any place on the equator will be equal periods in the enlightened and dark hemispheres. From this it appears, that at the equator the day and night are equal, which is evidently the case there at every period of the year. Any place in the northern hemisphere, between the equator and the frigid zone, will continue in the enlightened hemisphere longer than in the other, and will consequently have its day longer than its night; while exactly the reverse will be seen to take place in the like portion of the southern hemisphere. This position will represent our summer solstice, which happens at the twenty-first of June. Let the ball now be moved towards the right hand, and each of the spaces having perpetual day or night will diminish; while, at the same time, the lengths of the days and nights in the other parts of the northern and southern hemispheres, will become gradually less unequal; and, when it has removed to its extreme position towards the right hand, it will be seen that the circle separating the enlightened and dark hemispheres will pass from pole to pole, making the days and nights equal over all the earth, except at the north pole where perpetual day is then terminating, and at the south pole where it is beginning. This position represents the autumnal equinox, which happens on the twenty-second or twenty-third of

The heat of summer is chiefly occasioned by the Sun's elevation above the horizon; and in the higher latitudes, it is much increased by the great length of the days.*

September; and, by continuing the motion, the other seasons of the year may be illustrated in a similar manner. In this illustration, it will also be seen, that at our summer solstice, the Sun will be vertical, or exactly over head, at the tropic of Cancer, the line joining his centre and that of the Earth cutting the surface in that circle. In like manner, it will appear, that at our winter solstice, he is vertical at the tropic of Capricorn; while, at the equinoxes, he is vertical at the equator.

* The heat is rendered greater by an increase of the Sun's altitude, for two reasons: first, because the rays of the Sun then pass through a smaller portion of the atmosphere, and on that account fewer of them are dissipated or intercepted; and, secondly, because more of those that do pass through the atmosphere, fall on any given space when the Sun is high, than when he is low. To illustrate the first of these, describe two circles, of very nearly the same size, from the same centre; and let the interior one represent the Earth, and the space between them the atmosphere. Then, through the highest point of the interior one, draw several straight lines to represent rays arriving from the Sun at different elevations; and it will be seen, that those which fall most nearly perpendicularly, pass through a smaller portion of the air than those which are more nearly horizontal. The second reason may be simply illustrated, by means of a ring and either a candle or the Sun. If the ring be held horizontally over a table and near it, with the candle right above it and at a considerable height, the rays which pass through will form a circle on the table as large as the interior of the ring. If now the candle be carried to one side so as to be at the same distance, but much lower, and the ring be inclined so as still to allow as many rays as possible to pass through it, the rays will now form an oval as broad as the ring, but much longer. Hence, in this case, the same quantity of rays is spread over a much greater space, and must therefore produce a proportionally less effect than in the former case. Now, as the Sun is comparatively high in summer, and low in winter, these reasons explain the difference of temperature at those times. The same causes also account for the great difference between the heat at noon and in the morning or evening; and the first reason affords an explanation of the fact, that we can look at the Sun at his rising or setting, without much inconvenience, while our eyes are overpowered by his glare when he is on the meridian. It is found that the Earth is nearest the Sun at the first of January, and most remote at the first of July. This is known from the difference in the Sun's apparent magnitude and velocity at these times. At the former date, his apparent diameter is $32' 35\frac{1}{2}''$; and, at the latter, only $31' 31''$. His velocity, also, is so much greater in winter, that the time between the vernal and autumnal equinox is about 7 days 17 hours longer than the remaining or winter period of the year.

MARS.

MARS is distinguished from all the other planets by his red, fiery appearance. This is occasioned by the great density of his atmosphere, which gives passage only to the strong red rays of light.* Mars revolving, like the other superior planets, in an orbit exterior to that of the Earth, is sometimes in the same direction as the Sun, or in conjunction with him; and sometimes in exactly the contrary direction, or in opposition. In the former case, his distance from the Earth is nearly five times as great as in the latter; and hence, he appears much larger about the time of his opposition, than at other times.

This planet is also remarkable for bright spots round his northern and southern poles, particularly the latter. These are found to vary in appearance, each being largest and brightest at the return of summer to the hemisphere in which it is contained, and then gradually diminishing. On this account, and from their positions, they are thought to be snow accumulated during the long winter that reigns in his polar regions.

VESTA, JUNO, CERES, AND PALLAS.

THE small planets, Vesta, Juno, Ceres, and Pallas, have been supposed to be fragments of a larger planet, burst at a remote period, in consequence of some internal convulsion. This is inferred from the nearness of their

From this cause, the Sun's direct influence in producing heat at the first date, is about one fifteenth part greater than at the latter. The effect thus produced, however, is so small as not perceptibly to modify the effects arising from the other causes already mentioned. It may perhaps, indeed, render the extremes of heat and cold less in the northern hemisphere, and greater in the southern, than they would otherwise be; but even this effect must be counteracted in a great degree by the inequality of the lengths of summer and winter.

* In the same manner, when the heavenly bodies are seen near our horizon, they assume a ruddy appearance; because, while the strong red rays are able to penetrate through the great mass of atmosphere and vapour, through which they are obliged to pass before they arrive at the eye, the violet and other weaker rays are intercepted, and pre-

orbits to one another; from their small magnitudes; from the great eccentricities and inclinations of their orbits; and from the large space between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter seeming to require one planet to correspond with the order observable in the rest of the system.* Ceres and Pallas are remarkable for their large dense atmospheres; that of the former being perceptible at the height of nearly 700 miles above its surface, and that of the latter at the height of almost 500. The others have also atmospheres, but not so large. Pallas and Juno are remarkable for the great eccentricities of their orbits, which are such that the halves of them which are nearest the Sun, are described in little more than half the time that is occupied in describing the remote halves.

JUPITER.

JUPITER, as seen from the Earth, is the largest and brightest of all the planets, except Venus. From his great size, and his swift rotation on his axis, his equatorial diameter is more than 6000 miles longer than his polar. When he is examined with a telescope, he is found to be accompanied by four satellites, or small stars, which appear in nearly a straight line, in the direction of his equator. Several belts or bands are also observed on his surface, in the same direction. These are variable in number and appearance, sometimes four or five being visible, and sometimes many more; some of them also

vented from mingling with the stronger, so as to form the brilliant white appearance which the bodies present when they have attained a high altitude. The density and extent of the atmosphere of Mars, are also proved from the fixed stars losing their brightness as he appears to approach them, and becoming invisible before any part of his disk is interposed between them and the eye of the observer.

* It has also been supposed, that the meteoric stones which have on many occasions fallen to the Earth, are fragments of the same planet, which have been moving about through space, till they have come so much within the sphere of the Earth's attraction, as to have entered its atmosphere, and fallen to its surface.—The orbits of Ceres and Pallas intersect one another, a phenomenon which is quite singular in the solar system; and yet these planets, from their positions in their orbits, are never near each other.

are dark, and others luminous. These are probably occasioned by clouds in his atmosphere, formed into strata by trade-winds blowing round his equatorial regions; the dark belts being clouds, and the luminous ones the body of the planet seen between them.

The appearance of the heavens, as seen from this planet, must differ, in a striking degree, from the appearance which they exhibit to us. Generally, two of his moons, but sometimes more and sometimes fewer, are above the horizon of any particular point of his surface at the same time; and so rapidly does the first or nearest of them change its appearance, that it varies from being a small crescent to its greatest size in fourteen or fifteen hours. In this body, also, little opportunity will be afforded for observing the Earth and the other planets whose orbits lie within his, in consequence of their comparative smallness, their great distances, and their continuing above his horizon only a very short time before sunrise and after sunset; and hence it is probable, that several of them can never be seen from this planet.*

In consequence of the great quantity of matter contained in Jupiter, bodies will weigh between two and three times as much at his surface, as they do at the surface of the Earth.

SATURN.

SEEN from the Earth, Saturn, on account of his great distance, never appears large; and his colour is somewhat reddish, in consequence, it is supposed, of his being surrounded with a dense atmosphere. When viewed with a telescope of sufficient power, he exhibits not only seven satellites, but also two luminous rings. These are separated from the body of the planet and from one another, and lie in the plane of his equator.†

* Thus, in the most favourable circumstances, Mercury sets only 7 or 8 minutes after the Sun, Venus about 13, the Earth 19, Mars 23, and the four new planets about 50 minutes. The magnitude of Venus also, as seen from Jupiter, is scarcely a fiftieth part of its magnitude as seen by us; and that of the four new planets, not half as much.

† The distance of the inner side of the interior ring from the cen-

URANUS.

URANUS, the remotest of the planets at present known, is seldom visible to the naked eye, on account of the smallness of its apparent magnitude. Its satellites are said to revolve in a direction contrary to that of all the other heavenly bodies, and in a plane which is nearly perpendicular to the ecliptic. In consequence of the vast distance of this planet from the centre of the system, the other planets with which we are acquainted, must always appear so nearly in the same direction with the Sun, as to rise but a very short time before him in the morning, and to set very soon after him in the evening. Thus Saturn, which is most favourably situated for being seen, will never be more than about a twelfth part of the time of a diurnal rotation of Uranus before the Sun, or behind him. Most of the planets also, from their extreme distance, will appear excessively small. His own moons, however, and the fixed stars, will at all times adorn his sky by night; and planets may be visible from him, which we have thus far been unable to discover.

tre of Saturn, is about 70,000 miles; its breadth, 20,000; the distance between the rings, about 3000; the breadth of the exterior ring, about 7000; and its thickness, about 4500. Hence, if circles be described on paper, proportioned to these dimensions, and to the diameter of Saturn; and if the spaces between the rings, and between the interior one and the body of Saturn, be blackened, the remaining white spaces will represent Saturn and the two rings. When the plane of the rings is turned towards the Earth, the only trace of them that can be seen even by the most powerful telescopes, is a luminous line extending on both sides beyond the surface of the planet. The rings are found to revolve in about ten hours and a half, in the same manner as the rim of a wheel. This time is little more than that in which Saturn revolves on his axis, and is about the period in which a satellite would revolve at the mean distance of the rings. The uses of these curious appendages are very doubtful. From their lowness, they can never be seen from the polar regions of Saturn; and from their being frequently eclipsed by him, and frequently eclipsing parts of his surface, they do not seem to be of much service in supplying him with light. They must often present, however, splendid spectacles to many parts of his surface; and they may perhaps afford residences to numerous inhabitants.

THE MOON.

Motions, &c.—The Moon, as well as the Earth, revolves round the Sun in our year. She is also constantly moving round the Earth, or rather round the common centre of gravity of herself and the Earth, at the distance of nearly 240,000 miles, and completing her revolution in the average period of about 27 days $7\frac{3}{4}$ hours.* In this latter period, she performs a rotation round her own axis, as is shown by her always presenting, with a slight variation, the same face to the Earth.† In consequence, however,

* The motions of the Earth and Moon round the Sun may be thus illustrated: Place a candle on the middle of a round table, and taking two balls of the same material, one representing the Earth, having its diameter nearly four times that of the other; fix them on opposite ends of a strong wire, many times longer than the diameter of the greater. Then suspend these balls horizontally by means of a wire or cord fixed to the other wire near the larger ball, and carry the whole slowly round the edge of the table, causing the two balls to revolve round their point of suspension as uniformly as possible, and with such velocity as to cause them to perform about thirteen revolutions, while the whole is carried once round the candle. Then, if the motion be commenced when the smaller ball, representing the Moon, is between the greater and the candle, a position which corresponds to new moon, it will be seen that, when the balls have completed a revolution, so that the wire is in a position parallel to its former one, the smaller ball will not be between the greater and the candle, but that the motion must be continued for some time before it will be so situated. In her eastward motion among the fixed stars, the Moon appears to describe a space of about 13° each day, or about her own breadth each hour.

† This may be familiarly illustrated by a person turning slowly round, and holding a ball before him in such a manner that the same side of it may be always towards him; as it will be obvious that it must perform a single rotation in the same time in which he turns completely round, each side of it being, during that time, turned in every direction. The same may also be correctly illustrated by means of the balls referred to in the foregoing note. The period above mentioned, 27 days $7\frac{3}{4}$ hours, is the average time employed by the Moon between two successive conjunctions with a fixed star, and is called a periodic month; and as the difference between this period and a year is to a year, so is this period to 29 days $12\frac{3}{4}$ hours nearly, which is called a synodic month. The Moon's rotation on her axis, like that of all the other heavenly bodies, being perfectly uniform, while her motion in her orbit is subject to some inequality, it will be

of her own progressive motion along with the Earth about the Sun, the length of her solar day, instead of being 27 days $7\frac{3}{4}$ hours, is increased to the period of about 29 days $12\frac{3}{4}$ hours, the difference being requisite to bring her to that position in which the same face will again be presented to the Sun. This last period is also the time that elapses between one new or full moon, and the following.

Magnitude, &c.—The Moon's diameter is about 2160 miles. Hence, the Earth is about 49 times as large as the Moon; and, being denser, contains about $68\frac{1}{2}$ times as much matter. In consequence of the Moon's motion in an elliptical orbit, her apparent diameter is about one seventh part, and her surface about one fourth part greater, when she is at the least distance from the Earth, than when she is most remote.

Phases.—As the Moon derives her light from the Sun, the side next that luminary is always enlightened, and the other dark. Hence, more or less of the Moon is visible to us, accordingly as, in consequence of her situation at any particular time, a greater or less portion of the enlightened hemisphere is turned towards the Earth; and from this cause, her various phases arise.*

evident, on a little consideration, that when her velocity exceeds its mean quantity, a small part of the eastern limb will disappear, while an equal portion of the side which is ordinarily invisible towards the western limb will be seen; and the contrary will take place when her velocity is less than its mean quantity. By this means, in the course of a month she will appear to have a slight motion backward and forward like a balance; and hence, this appearance is called her *libration in longitude*. Another appearance of a similar kind is called her *libration in latitude*. This is occasioned by her axis not being perpendicular to the plane of her orbit,—a circumstance which, according to her place in the orbit, occasions sometimes one of her poles and sometimes the other to be a little removed from our view. When the Moon is newly risen, also, we see, in consequence of our elevation on the Earth's surface, a little more at the upper or western limb, and less at the eastern, than we can when she has attained a considerable elevation; while a little before setting, the contrary takes place. This is called the *diurnal libration*. From all this it will appear, that a vast proportion of one hemisphere is continually turned towards the Earth, while an equal space on the opposite side is for ever concealed from our view.

* This may be illustrated by a person having a ball with one hemisphere white and the other black, and carrying it round him so as to

Mountains, &c.—The surface of the Moon, when carefully examined with a telescope, is found to be full of inequalities, such as deep caverns and high mountains. Some of the latter, according to the most accurate measurements, appear at least to equal the highest mountains on this Earth. Appearances have also been seen, which seem to indicate the existence of volcanoes.

Celestial Phenomena.—Seen from the Moon, the celestial phenomena are nearly the same as they appear to us, with the exception of those presented by the Earth, some of which are very remarkable. The Earth will there appear to be a luminous body, about thirteen times as large as the Moon appears to us; and while the fixed stars, and most of the planets, will continue visible for nearly fourteen days, and invisible for an equal period, the Earth will be always visible to nearly half the Moon's surface, and always invisible to an equal portion on the opposite hemisphere. In the parts also to which the Earth is visible, its elevation and direction are always nearly the same; the principal change in its appearance arising from its having phases exactly similar to those exhibited to us by the Moon.*

keep the white side always directed towards some remote object supposed to represent the Sun. Then, when the ball is between the person and that object, none of the white or enlightened side will be visible; but when it is on the opposite side, he will see the entire enlightened hemisphere. The former position will correspond to new moon, the latter to full moon, and other intermediate positions will illustrate the other phases.

* To the middle point of the hemisphere which is turned towards us when the Moon is about her mean distance, the Earth will appear exactly over-head, except in respect to the slight deviation produced in the course of the month by libration. At any particular point between this and the edge of the disk, the Earth will be seen constantly at the same altitude and on the same point of the compass, except the slight change arising from the cause above mentioned. Thus, at one place the altitude will be 45° , and the direction south-west; at another, the altitude will be 30° , and the direction east, &c. About the extremity of the surface visible to us, the apparent motion of the Earth arising from libration will be more remarkable than elsewhere; as, in the period of the Moon's revolution, the Earth will slowly approach the horizon, and then recede from it; and while in some places it will rise and set entirely, in others only part of its disk will sink below the horizon, and in some again only part of it can ever be seen.

SATELLITES OF JUPITER, &c.

THE first, or nearest of Jupiter's satellites revolves round him in 1 day $18\frac{1}{2}$ hours nearly, and the most remote in about 16 days $16\frac{1}{2}$ hours; the first at a distance a little greater than that of the Moon from the Earth, and the other at about five times the Moon's distance. The nearest of Saturn's satellites revolves round him in $22\frac{1}{2}$ hours, at less than half the Moon's distance; and the most remote in 79 days, at nearly nine times the Moon's distance. The periods of the nearest and most remote of those of Uranus, are 5 days $21\frac{1}{2}$ hours and 108 days respectively; the former at nearly the Moon's distance, and the latter at nearly seven times as much.

From certain regular changes in the brilliancy of the satellites of Jupiter, it is inferred, that they revolve on their axes in the same time in which they perform their revolutions in their orbits; and the same has been observed respecting the most remote of the satellites of Saturn. Hence, since the same is found to hold respecting our Moon, it seems reasonable to conclude that all the satellites are placed in similar circumstances, and that each of them presents always the same side towards its primary.

The satellites are often eclipsed by falling into the shadows of the primaries. The eclipses of Jupiter's satellites are of great utility in determining the longitudes of places on the Earth's surface. By means of them also, the velocity of light has been determined. When Jupiter is nearer the Earth than his average distance, an eclipse appears to commence or terminate sooner than the computed time; while the reverse takes place when he is at the remoter parts of his orbit. By this means, it is found that

Hence, if there be inhabitants in the Moon, we can readily conceive what interest those on the remote side will feel on seeing the Earth; and long journeys or voyages may be undertaken for the purpose of seeing the great pale luminary, which to their view will appear thirteen times larger than the Sun. The mathematical student will readily see, that while there are the same means of determining the latitudes of places in the Moon as with us, the observed position of the Earth, after some corrections, will afford an easy mode of determining their longitudes.

light occupies about eight minutes and a quarter in describing a line equal to the Earth's distance from the Sun, and that it therefore moves with a velocity of about 190,000 miles every second of time.

COMETS.

COMETS are bodies which occasionally visit our part of the solar system, for a short time; and then recede to vast distances, so as to become invisible. They generally consist of a nucleus, or solid part, and a tail or train, which has the appearance of luminous vapour. It seems most probable, that these bodies move in very eccentric elliptical orbits, having the Sun in one of the foci; but their motions are very little known, and nothing certain is ascertained respecting their nature.

FIXED STARS.

Name, &c.—The Fixed Stars are so called from their always retaining the same situations in relation to each other, while the relative positions of the planets and comets are undergoing perpetual changes. For the sake of distinction, the stars have been distributed into groups, called *constellations*. These are named after animals, or other objects, to which the groups, in some instances, bear a resemblance; and the figures of these objects are generally painted on celestial globes, and maps of the stars. Of the constellations, twelve are in the zodiac, a zone extending 8° on each side of the ecliptic; thirty-four are north of it; and forty-seven, south of it.

The zodiacal constellations are *Aries*, the Ram; *Taurus*, the Bull; *Gemini*, the Twins; *Cancer*, the Crab; *Leo*, the Lion; *Virgo*, the Virgin; *Libra*, the Balance; *Scorpio*, the Scorpion; *Sagittarius*, the Archer; *Capricornus*, the Goat; *Aquarius*, the Water-bearer; *Pisces*, the Fishes.

The most remarkable of the northern constellations are *Ursa Major*, the Great Bear; *Ursa Minor*, the Little Bear; *Draco*, the Dragon; *Bootes*; *Corona Borealis*, the Northern Crown; *Hercules*; *Ophiuchus*, or *Serpentarius*, the Serpent-bearer; *Serpens*, the Serpent; *Lyra*, the Harp;

Cygnus, the Swan; *Aquila et Antinöus*, the Eagle and Antinoüs; *Delphīnus*, the Dolphin; *Pegāsus*, the Winged Horse; *Andromēda*; *Percus*, with *Caput Medūsæ*, the Head of Medusa; *Cassiopeia*; *Cepheus*; and *Aurīga*, the Charioteer.

The principal southern constellations visible in Britain or Ireland, are *Orion*; *Canis Major*, the Great Dog; *Canis Minor*, the Little Dog; *Piscis Austrālis*, the Southern Fish; and *Cetus*, a Sea Monster or Whale. The chief southern constellations not visible in these countries, are *Cruæ*, the Cross; *Centaurus*, the Centaur; and *Argo Navis*, the Ship Argo.

Magnitudes, &c.—The stars visible to the naked eye, have been farther divided by astronomers into six classes, according to their brightness: the brightest being called stars of the first magnitude; the next, stars of the second magnitude, &c.* Other stars are called telescopic ones. The stars in the several constellations have also been denominated by the letters in the Greek alphabet; the brightest star in each being denoted by α , the next by β , &c.†

Distances.—The distances of the fixed stars are great almost beyond conception. Astronomers have failed indeed in determining them, and have merely arrived at the conclusion, that the nearest of the stars is probably above 80,000 times more remote from the solar system, than the Sun is from the Earth.‡

* It is not to be understood that all stars of any particular nominal magnitude are of precisely the same apparent brightness. There are, in fact, almost as many varieties in this respect as there are stars; and hence, several stars are marked as being between two magnitudes. Thus Procyon, in *Canis Minor*, is marked 1. 2, to denote that it is of a magnitude intermediate between the first and second.

† For the use of those who are unacquainted with Greek, the following list is given, containing the capital and small letters of the Greek alphabet, with their names, and the letters, or combinations of letters, to which they are respectively equivalent in Latin and English:

A, α , alpha, *a*; B, β or ϵ , beta, *b*; Γ , γ , gamma, *g*; Δ , δ , delta, *d*; E, ϵ , epsilon, *e* (short); Z, ζ or ξ , zeta, *z*; H, η , eta, *e* (long); Θ , θ or ϑ , theta, *th*; I, ι , iota, *i*; K, κ , kappa, *k*; Λ , λ , lambda, *l*; M, μ , mu, *m*; N, ν , nu, *n*; Ξ , ξ , xi, *x*; O, \omicron , omicron, *o* (short); Π , π or ϖ , pi, *p*; P, ρ , rho, *r*; Σ , σ or ς , sigma, *s*; T, τ , tau, *t*; Y, υ , upsilon, *u*; Φ , ϕ , phi, *f* or *ph*; X, χ , chi, *ch*; Ψ , ψ , psi, *ps*; Ω , ω , omega, *o* (long).

‡ So enormous is this distance, that a body moving at the rate of 13 miles per minute, which is about the velocity of sound, would be

Nature, &c.—There seems to be strong reason to believe, that the fixed stars are large bodies like the Sun, and of the same nature. From their vast distances, it is evident that they cannot shine by reflecting the rays of the Sun, and that they cannot be bodies of the comparatively small dimensions of the planets of our system; as, on either supposition, they could scarcely be visible to us, and certainly not with the beautiful brilliance which they display. Hence, it has been supposed, that they may be the centres of systems like our own, containing various planets, which may afford residences for numberless animated beings.

Number of the Stars.—When we look at the sky in a clear night, we conceive the number of the stars which are visible, to be almost infinite. This, however, arises from our viewing them confusedly; and the deception is removed, if we count those which we see in any limited space, as their number is found to be much less than we are led to expect. In consequence of the vapour, indeed, and of the mass of atmosphere near the horizon, there are rarely more than a thousand stars visible to the naked eye at once; and all that it can see in the entire heavens, amount to scarcely three thousand. The telescope, however, has shown myriads which the naked eye is unable to distinguish, and every successive improvement in its mechanism has shown more; so that the entire number seems far to exceed any thing that man has the means of ascertaining.

Nebulæ.—In various parts of the heavens, there are spots, which have a whitish or cloudy appearance, and which are called nebulas. From an examination of these with powerful telescopes, it seems probable, that, in general, the appearances which they exhibit are occasioned by the blended light of almost innumerable stars, placed at a vast distance, and probably bound together

1,128,000 years in describing it; and a cannon ball moving with a velocity of 20 miles per minute, would require about 760,000 years to perform the same journey. Light, also, would occupy nearly a year and a quarter in passing over this space; so that if the star were annihilated, its rays, for a year and a quarter after its final catastrophe, would still continue to reach us, and would make it appear in its wonted place.

by mutual attraction, so as to form a dependent and connected group.

UNIVERSAL ATTRACTION.

EVERY portion of matter with which we are acquainted, is attracted by every other, or has a tendency to move towards it. Mountains attract plummets placed near them, and prevent them from hanging perpendicularly.* The Earth attracts the Moon, the Moon the Earth, the Sun the planets, and the planets the Sun and one another. All bodies at the Earth's surface tend to move towards its centre, and this tendency constitutes their weight. This arises, not from any attractive power lodged in the centre more than in other parts of the Earth, but because a great mass of matter lies in that direction, without any in the opposite to counteract its effect; while, whatever lies on any side of the line passing through the centre, is prevented from causing any motion towards itself by an equal mass placed on the opposite side, so that the joint effect of both is still to cause bodies to have a tendency towards the centre.

All the motions of the bodies in the solar system, are produced by a due combination and adjustment of such an attraction, and of a projectile force originally impressed upon each of them. Thus, a planet is attracted towards the Sun by a force, which, were its effect not counteracted, would cause it to fall to his body. It has also a motion in its orbit, which, if the Sun's attraction were suspended, would carry it forward with a constant velocity, in a straight line touching the orbit. Instead of thus receding, however, into infinite space, it is per-

* The magnitude of the Earth so vastly exceeds that of the largest mountain, that a plumb-line in the circumstances above referred to, deviates from the perpendicular only by a few seconds. The mountain of Schihallion in Scotland, by experiments made in 1774, under the direction of the Royal Society of London, caused a deviation of $5''\cdot 8$. From calculations founded on this result, compared with the Earth's attraction, and on the magnitude and density of this mountain, it has been inferred that the mean density of the whole Earth is nearly five times as great as that of pure water.

petually drawn off, by the Sun's attraction, from the rectilineal path, and caused to describe an elliptical orbit.*

* Were the velocity in the orbit much greater than it is, the attractive force would be insufficient to cause the body to move in an ellipse. In that case it would describe a parabola or hyperbola; and thus receding continually from the Sun, and losing the benefit of his influence, it would in all probability become unfit for both animal and vegetable life. If, on the other hand, the velocity were much less than it is, the planet would be brought so near the centre of the system as either to fall on some part of the Sun's body, or at least to be exposed to his influence in such a degree as to render it unfit to be a residence for animated beings. Even with the medium velocity, also, unless the direction of the motion were nearly perpendicular, as it is found to be, to the line drawn from the planet to the Sun, the orbit would be an ellipse of great eccentricity, and the planet would be subjected to all the inconveniences arising from such an orbit. It may be farther remarked, that the attractive force is found to be inversely proportional to the square of the distance; and it can be shown mathematically, that were the law of variation of the force different from this, the planetary orbits could not retain their present forms and permanence. Nothing, therefore, can afford a stronger proof of design and intelligence in the structure of the universe, than the accurate adjustment of these three elements, the law of the force, the velocity, and the direction, which all admit of infinite varieties; and a considerable change in any of which, in relation to a particular planet, would be fatal to the comfort, and perhaps even to the very existence, of its inhabitants.

On the general principles which have been here alluded to, it may be reasonably inferred, that the fixed stars must be in motion as well as the planets;—an opinion which also seems to be confirmed by observation, as some appearances seem to indicate motions among them, which, though it may require many ages to make them sensible to us, in consequence of the vast distances of the stars, may yet be extremely rapid. The fixed stars, however remote, may be expected to attract one another; and thus, though the effect may be excessively small in consequence of their extreme distance, its ultimate tendency would obviously be to cause them all to be collected into one vast mass, unless the effect of the attractive influence were counteracted by a projectile force impressed on each. Hence, each nebula may be a system composed of myriads of stars, completing their revolutions round the common centre of gravity of the nebula itself, in periods of time of which the ages that have passed since the creation of our planet, would form but an inconsiderable atom; and many of these vast systems may again be combined, to form another of still ampler and more inconceivable dimensions. According to this view, the stars of the universe are probably distributed into numerous vast systems, each of which is at such a distance from the rest, that, viewed from

THE TIDES.

THE tides are alternate elevations and depressions of the waters of the sea, which take place twice in the lunar day, or in the average space of about 24 hours 50 minutes. These are occasioned by the attractions of the Sun and Moon. Thus, while the Earth is performing its revolution, it is drawn by the Sun from the rectilinear path, in such a manner, that its centre describes its orbit. At the same time, the side nearest the Sun, being attracted with greater force, is drawn farther from the rectilinear path than the centre; while the most remote side is drawn less than the centre from the line in which it would otherwise move; and thus the distance of each from the centre, is increased.* Hence it appears, that,

it, they appear, till examined with telescopes, to be merely nebulæ; while the stars which are distinctly visible, all belong to the system in which the observer is placed. Dr. Herschel supposed, and apparently with reason, that our Sun and system belong to a vast nebula, which extends around us to an immeasurable distance, and forms what is called the Milky Way. The milky way, or galaxy, is a broad track extending round the sky, and distinguishable by its whitish appearance. Its course lies through the constellations of Cassiopeia, Cygnus, Perseus, Andromeda, Gemini, and several others. If Dr. Herschel's opinion, above alluded to, be true, it is a curious analogy, that the numberless stars in this collection should be so placed as to form a zone of limited breadth, in the same manner in which the orbits of the planets in the solar system all lie in nearly the same plane. Farther information on these interesting subjects will be found in Paley's Natural Theology, in several papers by Dr. Herschel, in the Philosophical Transactions, and in various works on Astronomy.

* This part of the theory of the tides, in which students generally feel some difficulty, will perhaps be rendered more simple, if we suppose a planet with two satellites of equal masses and at equal distances, revolving round the Sun in such a manner that one of the satellites is always between the Sun and planet, and the other in opposition to the Sun. In these circumstances, it is evident, that the primary planet would describe its orbit just as if it were attended by no satellites, and that, from the inequalities of the attractions exerted on it and on the secondaries, the distances between it and each of them would be increased. The theory may perhaps be rendered still farther intelligible by considering, that the centrifugal forces of the two satellites would be, one of them less and the other greater than that of the primary, in consequence of the one moving with a less and the other with a

though this cause is unable to affect the solid parts of the Earth; yet, as the fluid parts yield to the slightest force, an elevation is produced, by the Sun's attraction, in the waters of the ocean, at two opposite sides of the globe, and a depression at the intermediate parts. An illustration exactly similar is applicable respecting the effect produced by the Moon. From the nearness of the Moon, however, the difference between the attraction which she exerts on the centre of the Earth, and on the nearer and more remote sides, is three or four times greater than the same difference in the effects produced by the action of the Sun; and hence, her attraction contributes in a much greater degree to the production of the tides. From this reason, the Moon's attraction may be considered as the great cause of the tides, and the Sun's influence may be regarded as merely modifying its effects; the tides being greatest when the Sun, Earth, and Moon, are in nearly the same straight line, as about new or full moon; and least when the lines drawn from the Earth to the Sun and Moon, are nearly perpendicular to each other, as about the first and last quarters. For the same reason also, the tides are retarded each day by about fifty minutes, on account of the Moon's eastward motion, which brings her to the meridian each day about fifty minutes later than the preceding. The largest, or spring tides, happen a day and a half, or two days, after new or full moon; and the least, or neap tides, about the same time after the first or third quarter. This arises from the circumstance that, even after new or full moon, the actions of the Sun and Moon concur for some time in adding to the effect which they have already produced, and thus increase the height of the tide; and, for a short time after the quarters, their influence continues in a similar way to diminish their height. In the same manner, in the open

greater velocity. It is also evident, that the force which tends to produce the tides, is merely the difference between the forces acting on the centre, and on either the nearer or the more remote surface of the Earth. Hence it appears also, that though the Sun's attraction on the Earth is many times greater than that of the Moon, yet on account of his distance being nearly 400 times greater, and the attractions being inversely proportional to the squares of the distances, his influence in producing tides is much less than that of the Moon.

ocean, it is not high water for an hour or two after the Moon has passed the meridian.* In other places, the times of high and low water are greatly retarded, and the other phenomena of the tides much modified, by the extent, situation, and form of the land.

* The tendency of the Moon is to elevate the water, so as to form a prolate spheroid; which, in consequence of the Moon's apparent diurnal revolution, would revolve round from east to west, its axis being directed, not exactly towards the Moon, but somewhat to the east of her place; and hence, the reason is obvious why there are two tides in the lunar day. The Sun also produces a smaller spheroid; and the actual figure of the surface of the ocean, is produced by a combination of the two. The facts that the tide is not at the highest till after the Moon has passed the meridian, and that spring tides do not happen till about a day and a half after new and full moon, will receive illustration from the other similar and well-known facts, that, though the Sun's influence is greatest at noon, the heat is not at the greatest till two or three o'clock; and that the hottest and coldest times of the year are not at the solstices, but some weeks after. It may be farther remarked, that the magnitudes and other phenomena of the tides, are greatly influenced by the variations in the distances of the Moon and Sun from the Earth, by their declinations, and by their motions. It will also appear evident, that the waters of lakes cannot be sensibly affected by tides; as, from their limited extent, the Sun or Moon will influence every part of their surfaces in nearly an equal degree, and there is no connexion with any other body of water to supply a quantity of fluid to form the accumulation. In like manner, seas which are connected with the ocean by a strait that is small compared with their magnitudes, have either no perceptible tides, or very small ones. Thus, the tides are extremely small in the Mediterranean; and in the Baltic there are none. The tides are also influenced by the winds; being both higher and earlier when the direction of the wind favours the progress of the water; while, in contrary circumstances, they are later, and attain less height. Besides this influence, the winds, in their more general action, produce a movement in the waters of the ocean from east to west. The heat of the Sun rarifies the air at the place where he is vertical, and in some space around it. The air being thus rendered lighter ascends, and other air rushes in to supply its place. By this means, in consequence of the Sun's apparent westward motion, the air about the torrid zone is constantly moving in that direction, unless prevented by mountains, or other obstacles; and thus an east wind generally blows in those regions, causing a westward movement in the ocean. This cause produces the Gulf Stream, already mentioned; and the same movement has been observed in many other places.

TABLE OF THE PLANETARY SYSTEM.

Names.	Duration of a Sidereal Revolution.				Mean Distance from the Sun.	Ratio of the Eccentricity to half the greater Axis.	Mean Diam. in English Miles	Comparative Bulks.
	d.	h.	m.	s.				
Sun							883246	1395324·4
Mercury	87	23	15	44	·387100	·205515	3224	·0565
Venus ..	224	16	49	11	·723332	·006853	7687	·8828
Earth ...	365	6	9	8	1·000000	·016853	7912	1·0000
Moon							2180	·0204
Mars ...	686	23	30	35	1·523693	·093134	4189	·1386
Vesta ...	1335	4	55	12	2·373000	·093220	238
Juno ...	1590	23	57	7	2·667163	·254944	1425
Ceres ...	1681	12	56	10	2·767406	·078349	163 or 1024
Pallas ...	1681	17	0	58	2·767592	·245384	80 or 2099
Jupiter..	4332	14	27	11	5·202592	·048178	89170	1280·9
Saturn ..	10759	1	51	11	9·540724	·056168	79042	974·78
Uranus .	30689	0	0	0	19·183620	·046670	35112	81·26

Names.	Densities, that of water being one.	Proportional Quantities of Matter.	Rotations on their Axes.				Inclinations of Axes to Orbits.	Inclinations of Orbits to the Ecliptic.
			d.	h.	m.	s.		
Sun	1 $\frac{2}{5}$	333928	25	14	8	0	82° 44'
Mercury	9 $\frac{1}{6}$	0·1654	1	0	5	30	15° probably	7° 0' 0"
Venus ..	5 $\frac{1}{5}$	0·8899	0	23	21	19	15° probably	3 23 25
Earth ...	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ or 5	1	0	23	56	4·1	66° 32'	0 0 0
Moon ...	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	0·0146	29	12	44	3	88° 17'	5 9 3
Mars ...	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	0·0875	1	0	39	22	61° 18'	1 51 0
Vesta	7 8 46
Juno	27 hours probably				21 0 0
Ceres ...	2	10 37 0
Pallas ...	2	34 50 40
Jupiter .	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	312·1	0	9	55	37	87° nearly	1 8 56
Saturn ..	0 $\frac{3}{2}$	97·76	0	10	16	2	60° probably	2 29 50
Uranus .	0 $\frac{9}{100}$	16·84	0 46 20

TABLE OF THE SATELLITES OF JUPITER, SATURN, AND URANUS;

Containing their Sidereal Revolutions, and their Distances from their respective Primaries expressed in Semi-diameters of those Primaries.

SAT.	JUPITER.		SATURN.		URANUS.	
	Revolution.	Distance.	Revolution.	Distance.	Revolution.	Distance.
	d. h. m. s.		d. h. m. s.		d. h. m. s.	
I.	1 18 27 30	5·697300	0 22 37 30	3·080	5 21 25 20	13·120
II.	3 13 13 43	9·065898	1 8 53 5·8	3·952	8 16 57 47	17·022
III.	7 3 42 28	14·461628	1 21 18 25·9	4·893	10 23 2 47	19·845
IV.	16 16 32 9	25·436000	2 17 44 36·6	6·268	13 10 56 29	22·752
V.	4 12 25 11	8·754	38 1 48 0	45·507
VI.	15 22 41 13·9	20·295	107 16 39 56	91·008
VII.	79 7 54 27	59·154

USE OF THE GLOBES.*

THE *terrestrial globe* is a representation of the earth, with the sea and land on its surface, and the several circles necessary for determining their positions. The *celestial globe* is a like representation of the stars. Each globe is suspended, by means of an axis, in a brazen ring, called the *universal* or *brazen meridian*, and supported in a frame, the upper part of which is flat, and represents the rational horizon.

The universal meridian is divided into degrees, and parts of degrees: and it is numbered on one side from 0 at the equator, both ways, to 90° at the poles; and on the other side from 0 at each pole, to 90° at the equator.

On the terrestrial globe the equator is numbered, both eastward and westward, from the point in which it is cut by the first meridian. It is also divided into twenty-four equal parts, corresponding to the hours of the day.

Each globe is furnished with a small circle of brass, called the *hour circle*. This is placed at the north pole, and is divided into twenty-four equal parts, to represent the hours of the day.†

The horizon of each globe is divided into degrees; and is numbered by one series of figures, commencing from 0 at the north and south points, and ascending to 90° at the east and west; and by another series, commencing at the east and west points, and terminating at the north and south. The several points of the compass, the months of the year, and the signs and degrees of the ecliptic in

* The following article will contain merely the most important of the problems that can be solved by means of globes; many being omitted which are usually given in treatises on the subject, but which every intelligent teacher will perhaps consider to be much too numerous, and, in many cases, too little elementary, to be intelligible or useful to the generality of pupils.

† On some globes, the hour circle is fixed, and has a moveable index. On others, however, the circle is moveable, and the meridian serves instead of an index. This mode is much preferable, as the index is very liable to go out of order. Some globes have another circle at the south pole. When globes differ in this or in other respects from the description here given, the pupil will in general feel no difficulty, if he consider carefully what is here stated.

which the sun is on each day, are also marked on the horizon.

The *quadrant*, or the *quadrant of altitude*, is a thin slip of brass, numbered from 0 to 90° in one direction, and from 0 to 18° in the other.

PROBLEMS ON THE GLOBES.

PROBLEM I.—*To find the latitude and longitude of a given place.*

Rule.—1. Bring the place to the universal meridian. 2. Then the degree of the meridian above the place is its latitude; and, 3. The degree of the equator cut by the meridian is its longitude.*

Required the latitudes and longitudes of the following places:

Exercise 1. Moscow	Ex. 3. Peking	Ex. 5. Belfast
2. Lima	4. Otaheité	6. Batavia.

PROBLEM II.—*Given the latitude and longitude of a place; to find it on the globe.*

Rule.—1. Bring the given longitude found on the equator, to the universal meridian. 2. Find the given latitude on the meridian, and the point below it will be the required place.†

Find the places whose latitudes and longitudes are as follows:

lat.	lon.	lat.	lon.	lat.	lon.
Ex. 7. 16° S.	$5\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$ W.	Ex. 8. 56° N.	3° W.	Ex. 9. $22\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ N.	88° E.

* Thus, the latitude of Palermo is $38\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ north, and its longitude $13\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$ east. If two places lie on the same side of the equator, their difference of latitude will be found by subtracting the latitude of the one from that of the other; but if they be on opposite sides, the latitudes must be added. To find the difference of longitude of two places, add their longitudes if one be east and the other west; otherwise, subtract. If the result obtained by adding should exceed 180° , subtract it from 360° , and the remainder will be the required difference.

† Thus, the place whose longitude is $78\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ west, and latitude $33\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$ south, will be found to be the island of Juan Fernandez.

PROBLEM III.—*To find the distance of two given places.*

Rule.—1. Lay the quadrant with its graduated or divided edge over the two places, and with the cipher or zero over one of them. 2. The figure over the other will show their distance in degrees. 3. Multiply this by 69 to find the distance in British miles, or by 60 to find it in geographical or nautical miles.*

If the distance exceed 90° , it may be taken by means of a thread or compasses, and measured on the equator.

Required the distances between the following places:

Ex. 10. Belfast and Bombay Ex. 12. Cork and Charleston
11. Bombay and Pekin 13. Port Jackson and Owhyhee.

Ex. 14. Required the breadth of the Atlantic Ocean, at the narrowest part between Africa and South America.

Ex. 15. Required the breadth of the Pacific Ocean, between Lima and the nearest point of China.

Ex. 16. Required the length and breadth of Africa.

Ex. 17. Required the sum of the distances from the Land's End to the Cape Verde Islands; from the Cape Verde Islands to the Cape of Good Hope; and from that cape to Calcutta.

PROBLEM IV.—*The hour of the day at one place being given; to find what the hour is at another.*

Rule.—1. Bring the place where the time is given, to the universal meridian. 2. Set the hour circle for twelve o'clock.† 3. Bring the other given place to the meridian, observing the hours passed over on the circle, which will be the difference in the reckoning of time at the two places. 4. Then, if the proposed place be east of that at which the time is given, the hour at it will be more

* Thus, the distance between London and Cairo will be found to be $31\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$; the product of which by 69 is $2173\frac{1}{2}$ miles, the distance required. In strictness, in reducing the distance to British miles, a mile should be added for each 22 degrees contained in it. This is unnecessary, however; as, in using any ordinary globe, an error of several miles in the distance will be almost always committed, in consequence of the smallness of the scale.

† That is, if there be an index, set it to twelve o'clock on the hour circle: if there be not an index, put twelve on the hour circle to the universal meridian.

advanced than the given time by this amount; but if west, it will be less advanced by the same.*

The difference between the time at two places, may also be found from their difference of longitude, by allowing an hour for 15° , and consequently four minutes of time for 1° .

Ex. 18. When it is six in the evening at Dublin, what o'clock is it at Ispahan, Canton, and New Orleans?

Ex. 19. When it is nine in the morning at Edinburgh, what o'clock is it at Mexico, Rio Janeiro, and Siam?

Ex. 20. If a well-regulated time-piece, set to the true time at London, were taken to Bombay, how much should it differ from the clocks there?

PROBLEM V.—*At a given place, to set the globe in a position similar to that of the earth itself.*

Rule.—1. Elevate the nearer pole according to the latitude of the place. 2. Bring the place to the universal meridian. 3. Set the globe, so that the universal meridian may lie due north and south.†

* Thus, when it is ten o'clock in the morning at London, it is about five in the afternoon at Batavia, and half-past three in the morning at Vera Cruz. The reason of the difference in the reckoning of time at different places, arises from the sun's apparent daily motion from east to west. It is twelve at noon at any place when the sun is on its meridian; and as the sun appears to describe a circuit of 360° in 24 hours, he will appear to pass in one hour from any meridian to one 15° west of it. Hence, at the latter meridian, noon will be one hour later than at the former; and there will evidently be a like difference in the reckoning of time at all the other hours of the day. Degrees and minutes are easily reduced to time by multiplying by 4, and considering the degrees in the result as minutes of time, and the minutes as seconds of time.

† Thus, in setting the globe for Madrid, the north pole must be raised above the northern side of the horizon till the fortieth degree of the meridian, below that pole, on the side which is numbered from the poles, shall be cut by the horizon. The meridian is set due north and south by means of the compass placed beneath the globe, allowance being made for the variation of the magnetic needle at the particular place. If the globe be not furnished with a compass, a small moveable one may be procured, and placed on the horizon near the meridian; or, by means of the shadows of objects at twelve o'clock, the direction of any particular apartment in respect to the meridian may be ascertained, so that the globe may be placed with the meridian

PROBLEM VI.—*To find the direction in which any place in the world lies in respect to a given place.*

Rule.—1. Set the globe for the given place, as in Problem V. 2. Then, the direction of any place on the earth in respect to the given place, will be same as the direction of the points representing them on the globe.*

Ex. 21. Find the directions of the north and south poles, and of Cape Horn and Kamtschatka in relation to Limerick.

Ex. 22. Find the direction of Bhering's Strait, Tobolsk, and New Zealand, in respect to Algiers.

PROBLEM VII.—*To find the sun's declination, that is, his distance from the equator, on a given day.*

Rule.—1. Find the day of the month on the declination scale, or the sun's place in the ecliptic. 2. Bring either to the universal meridian, and the degree over it will be the declination.†

Ex. 23. Required the sun's declination on the twenty-first of June, the twenty-first of December, the fifteenth of April, and the twenty-fifth of January.

PROBLEM VIII.—*The time being given in a particular place, to find how the various parts of the earth are circumstanced at that time, in respect to day, night, twilight, &c.*

Rule.—1. Find the sun's declination by Problem VII. 2. Elevate the nearer pole according to this declination; that is, the north pole if the declination be north, and the south pole if it be south. 3. Bring the given place to the universal meridian, and set the hour circle for

north and south when required. The variation of the magnetic needle at Belfast, is about $28\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ west; that is, the needle is directed towards a point $28\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ west of the north point.

* Thus, in respect to Belfast, it will be seen, that the Cape of Good Hope lies a little to the east of the south, and in a line inclined to the sensible horizon of Belfast, at a considerable angle below it; while New Zealand lies nearly at the most remote point of the globe.

† Thus, on the twenty-first of May, the sun's declination is about 20° north. The ecliptic belongs in propriety only to the celestial globe; but, for the sake of some problems, it is put also on the terrestrial one. The analemma, or declination scale, however, which is given on modern terrestrial globes, is sufficient in all cases.

twelve o'clock. 4. If the time be before noon, turn the globe westward, according to the interval; if it be after noon, turn it eastward; if it be noon, the globe is not to be moved. 5. Then all places above the horizon have day, and all below it night. 6. At all places between the poles, and under the upper part of the universal meridian, it is noon; while at the places along the rest of the meridian, it is midnight. 7. At all places along the western side of the horizon, the sun is rising; and at all on the eastern side, he is setting. 8. If the quadrant be screwed on the meridian at the highest point, over the degree answering to the sun's declination, all places between the upper edge of the horizon and the eighteenth degree below it on the quadrant, have twilight; those on the west having twilight before sunrise, and those on the east evening twilight. 9. If the globe be made to revolve on its axis, all places about the elevated pole, which do not sink below the horizon, have at that time continual day; while those about the other pole, which do not rise above the horizon, have continual night.*

Ex. 24. When it is five o'clock in the afternoon at Lima, on the first of December, what places have day, night, &c.?

* Thus, suppose the time to be half-past ten o'clock in the forenoon, at London, on the nineteenth of July; we find the sun's declination on that day to be 21° north. Then, elevating the north pole according to this, and bringing London to the meridian, we have the positions of the various places at noon on that day. The time, however, being an hour and a half before noon, we set the hour circle for twelve o'clock, and turn the globe westward till an hour and a half are passed over on it. We then find, that all Europe and Africa, most of Asia, and parts of north and South America, have day; while it is night in New Holland, the Pacific Ocean, and other parts. It is noon in Lapland, Finland, Hungary, Greece, the centre of Africa, &c.; and midnight in the Sandwich Islands, &c. The sun is vertical at a point in Bornoo, under the degree of his declination; he is rising also near Charleston and Lake Superior, and setting in Corea, Borneo, &c. There is morning twilight in Chil , Peru, &c.; and evening twilight in Japan and Kamtschatka. There will also be continual day in Spitzbergen, part of Greenland, &c. By making the globe revolve uniformly on its axis, the comparative lengths of the day and night at the proposed time will be shown. Thus, it will appear, that at this season the British Isles are much longer in light than in darkness, while the contrary is the case at Cape Horn; and the hour circle would give the precise lengths of day and night.

PROBLEM IX.—*To find the apparent time of the sun's rising and setting, and the lengths of the day and night, at a given place.*

Rule I.—1. Set the globe according to the first three parts of the rule for Problem VIII. 2. Then turn the globe, till the given place comes to the horizon on either side; and the time passed over on the hour circle, will be the interval between noon and the time of rising or setting, whence the time of rising and setting will be obtained. 3. To find the length of the day, double the hour of setting; and to find the length of the night, double the hour of rising.

Rule II.—1. Elevate the nearer pole according to the latitude of the place. 2. Bring the given day of the month on the ecliptic or the declination scale, to the meridian, and set the hour circle for twelve o'clock. 3. Then bring the day of the month to the horizon on either side, and the time passed over on the hour circle will be the interval between noon and the time of rising or setting.*

* Thus, by either method, the sun will be found to rise at London on the twenty-fifth of January, at three quarters past seven o'clock, and to set a quarter past four: and hence, the length of the day, exclusive of twilight, is found to be eight hours and a half; and that of the night, including twilight, fifteen hours and a half. The reason of doubling the hours of setting and rising, to find the lengths of the day and night, is obvious from the consideration that noon is the middle of the day, and midnight of the night; and that the hour of setting is the time from noon, and the hour of rising the time from midnight, at which the sun rises and sets. It may be proper to remark, that, when the declination, rising, setting, &c. of the sun are mentioned, it is the declination, rising, &c. of his centre that are intended. It is also proper to state, that refraction makes the heavenly bodies appear visible for a short space before the true time of their rising, and after the true time of their setting. With respect to the two rules above given, it may be remarked, that the first has the advantage of showing, by one adjustment of the meridian, the rising and setting at all places on the given day; and the other, of giving the rising and setting on every day of the year at the proposed place. In the first rule, the sun is supposed to be at rest perpendicularly over the globe, while the earth revolves on its axis; but in the second rule, the sun is supposed to move round the earth according to his apparent diurnal motion.

In the use of the second rule, the point of the compass on which the sun rises or sets, will be had on the horizon opposite to the day of the month when brought down to it. Thus, at London, on the

Ex. 25. Required the sun's rising and setting, with the lengths of the days and nights, on the twenty-first of April, at the North Cape, at Edinburgh, at the mouth of the river Amazon, and at Cape Horn.

Ex. 26. Required the times of the sun's rising and setting, and the lengths of the day at Tornea, on the first of December, the third of February, the tenth of April, and the eighth of June.

PROBLEM X.—*To find the beginning and end of twilight.*

Rule.—1. Set the globe according to the first two parts of Rule II. for Problem IX. 2. Fix the quadrant over the latitude of the place on the upper side of the meridian. 3. Then move both the globe and the quadrant, till the day of the month on the globe comes to the eighteenth degree on the graduated edge of the quadrant below the horizon; and the time passed over on the hour circle, while the day of the month is moving to this position from the meridian, will be the time between noon, and the beginning or end of twilight.*

Ex. 27. Required the times of daybreak at Quito, on the twentieth of March and the twenty-first of June.

Ex. 28. At what times does dark night commence at Dublin and the Cape of Good Hope, on the twenty-fifth of December?

Ex. 28. Find the lengths of the twilight at the most northern points of Scotland and Madagascar, on the first of April.

CELESTIAL GLOBE.

The points in which the equator and ecliptic intersect each other, are called the *equinoctial points*: the one at twenty-fifth of January, the sun will be found to rise about 32° south of the east, and to set about the same quantity south of the west; the former point being almost S. E. by E. and the latter S. W. by W.

* Thus, day will be found to break at Paris, on the first of May, at half-past two o'clock in the morning, and twilight to end at half-past nine in the evening. If the complement of the latitude, that is, the difference between it and 90° , exceed the declination by less than 18° , there is no dark night, but continual twilight; and if the declination equal the complement of the latitude or exceed it, there is continual day.

which the sun appears to cross the equator northward, the *vernal equinoctial point*, or the *first point of Aries*; the other, the *autumnal equinoctial point*, or the *first point of Libra*.*

If a great circle be drawn through any of the heavenly bodies, perpendicular to the equator, the part of the equator extending eastward from the first point of Aries to the perpendicular, is called the *right ascension* of the body.

If a great circle be drawn through any of the heavenly bodies perpendicular to the ecliptic, the part of it between the body and the ecliptic is called the *latitude* of the body; and the part of the ecliptic between the first point of Aries and the perpendicular, is called its *longitude*. Longitude is usually reckoned in signs, degrees, &c. Thus, instead of saying that the longitude of a star is $283^{\circ} 27'$, we say that it is 9 signs $13^{\circ} 27'$. The sun being always on the ecliptic, has obviously no latitude.

PROBLEM XI.—*To find the right ascension and declination of a body.*

Rule.—1. Bring the body to the meridian. 2. Then the degree of the equator under the meridian is the right ascension; and, 3. The degree of the meridian over the body expresses its declination.†

* In the times of the early ancient astronomers, the vernal equinoctial point was in the constellation Aries; and hence it gets its name. This point is found to move westward on the ecliptic about $50\frac{1}{4}''$ annually; and, in consequence of this, it now falls more than a sign, or 30° , to the west of Aries, so that now all the signs, Aries, Taurus, &c. as marked on the ecliptic, are in very different situations from the constellations of the same name. There are certain characters used to denote the signs of the ecliptic, which are marked on that circle and on the horizon at the beginning of each sign. Thus, an arrow is used to denote Sagittarius; a character like the letter III with a sting, to denote Scorpio, &c.

† Thus, the sun's right ascension on the thirtieth of October is nearly 215° , and his declination $13\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$ south. In performing this or any other problem respecting the sun, his place in the ecliptic on the given day of the month must be employed; and if the body be the moon or a star, its place must be found for the given year or day from the Nautical Almanack, White's Ephemeris, or some similar work, and marked on the globe by a particle of wafer, iuk, or paper.

Required the right ascensions and declinations of the following stars:

Ex. 30. Sirius	Ex. 32. Regulus	Ex. 34. Spica Virginis
31. Arcturus	33. Capella	35. Aldebaran.

Ex. 36. Required the sun's right ascension and declination on the fifth of March.

PROBLEM XII.—*To set the globe in a position similar to that of the heavens, at a given time and place.*

Rule.—1. Set the meridian north and south. 2. Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the place. 3. Bring the sun's place to the universal meridian, and the globe will be in the position for noon. 4. Set the hour circle for twelve o'clock. 5. If the given time be before noon, turn the globe eastward according to the interval; but if it be after noon, turn westward.*

* Thus, to set the globe so as to correspond to the positions of the stars at Cork, on the fifth of September, at half-past nine o'clock in the evening, elevate the north pole 52° , which is nearly the latitude of Cork, and bring the fifth of September on the ecliptic to the meridian. Then, having set the meridian north and south, and fixed the hour circle, turn the globe westward till nine hours and a half are passed over, and the globe will be in the required position; or so that, if the eye were in its centre, each star on the globe would be in the same direction as the star which it represents in the heavens, some being on the meridian, some rising or setting, and others at various positions above or below the horizon. By means of this important problem, the pupil may make himself acquainted with all the constellations and principal stars visible at his residence. Thus, in the present instance, he will find, by looking at the globe, that the Great Bear lies between north-west and north, at a high elevation; and by placing a pencil or other upright object over it, he will see its direction so as at once to be able to find the constellation itself in the sky. Of the seven most conspicuous stars in this constellation, the two most remote from the tail are called the *pointers*; because, if a line drawn through them be continued to a length equal to about five times their distance asunder, it will point out the pole star in the tail of the Little Bear. A line drawn from the pole star to the remotest in the tail of the Great Bear, and continued through a distance nearly equal to its own length, will point out Arcturus, a star of the first magnitude, seen a little north of the west at the time referred to in the foregoing example. The bright star Lyra, or Vega, in the Harp, will at the same time be conspicuous at some distance south-west of the zenith; and between it and Arcturus, and nearer the latter, is Alphacca or Gemma in Corona Borealis. In the south-east, and at a considerable elevation, will be seen four

Ex. 37. Set the globe so as to exhibit the positions of the stars at Rome on the eighteenth of February, at seven o'clock in the evening.

Ex. 38. Set the globe so as to represent the positions of the stars at Otaheite on the fourth of August, at one o'clock in the morning.

PROBLEM XIII.—*To find the time at which a star rises, sets, or comes to the meridian, at a given place, on a given day.*

Rule.—1. Set the globe according to parts 2, 3, and 4 of the rule for Problem XII. 2. Then bring the star successively to the meridian, and to the eastern and western sides of the horizon; and, at these several positions, the hour circle will point out the times at which the star passes the meridian, rises, and sets.*

Ex. 39. Required the times at which Antares rises, sets, and passes the meridian, at Amsterdam and Algiers, on the eighth of October.

Ex. 40. Required the times at which Lyra, Canopus, and the middle star in Orion's Belt, rise, set, and pass the meridian at Cairo, on the fifteenth of June.

stars; three in Pegasus, and one in the head of Andromeda, forming nearly a square. The continuation of one of the diagonals of this, will pass through Andromeda, Perseus, and Auriga. By placing the globe in the open air or near a window, first at one side of the house and then at the opposite, the student will find it both easy and pleasant to trace the stars and constellations, and may form various artificial associations to assist his memory. He may also find it useful, to make rough draughts or sketches of particular parts of the heavens as they appear to the eye.

* Thus, at Madrid, on the third of February, Rigel in the foot of Orion passes the meridian a little before eight in the evening, rises at half-past two o'clock in the afternoon, and sets at twenty-five minutes past one the ensuing morning.

PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY.

In this list, the letters that are silent in the pronunciation are *Italics*; and the following are the sounds of the vowels used in it:

Fâte, fâr, fâll; mé, mêt, êre *; fine, fîeld; nô, mðve, nôr; tùbe, bùll.

Where no figures are put over vowels, they are to be sounded as they would in English words in similar situations.†

Ab'er-gaven-ny	An-da-lû-sl'a	Ar-kan-sâs'	Ba-hl'a
Aisne	An-go'ra	Ar-mâgh'	Bal-ly-mé'na
Al-a-bâ'ma	An-nap'o-lis	Ath-lone'	Bar-bâ'dôes
Al-giers'	An-tl'gua	A-thy'	Bas'so-ra
Al'le-ghâ-ny	An-tip'a-ros	A-vîgn'on	Bê-ârn'
Al'lo-a	An-to-nl'nus	A-zores'	Bel-fast'
Aln'wick	Ar'a-rat	Ba-hâ'ma	Bel-grâde'

* This sound of *e* is the same as the first sound of *a*.—See Walker's Dictionary.

† In the names of towns in England, the termination *-mouth* is pronounced *.muth*, and *-wick* and *-wich* have *w* silent. In French names, *ou* is pronounced like *o* in *move*; *au* like *o* in *no*; *ch* like *sh* in *shall*; *qu* as *k* hard; and *gn*, in French and Italian, like the first *n* in *opinion*. In French names, also, *e* at the end is silent, unless accented; as are also *s*, *es*, *t*, *g*, and *lt*: except *Brest*, *Rheims*, *Arras*, *Paris* (as pronounced in England), *Frejus*, and a few others, in which the final letter is sounded. In Spanish names, *j* and *x* sound like *h*, and *nho* like *yo*. In the names of places in the Netherlands, Germany, Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, *g* is always hard, as in *go*. In Italian words, *z* and *zz* sound like *ts*; *ce*, *ci*, and *cci*, like *ch* in *chin*; and *ch* like *k*. In German names, unless naturalized, as *Brunswick*, *w* is pronounced like the English *v*; and *sch* like *sh* in *shall*. In German names, also, the English pronounce *ch* without *s* before it, like *k*. The letter *i*, in the foreign languages of Europe, is generally pronounced like *ee* in *feel*. Names ending in *-poli* or *-polis*, have the accent on the syllable before this termination. In the names of places in India, Persia, and Afghanistan, the accent is on the last syllable, when they end in *-am*, *-an*, *-ad*, *-at*, *-ar*, *-ore*, *-ur*, or *-oor*; and many other eastern names have the accent on the same syllable. *Th*, in words which are not English, sounds nearly as *t*, with the tip of the tongue placed lower, so as to be nearly between the teeth.

These principles, together with the vocabulary here given, and particularly with the division into syllables, will enable the learner to make some approach to the true pronunciation of many of the names contained in the foregoing work. An enlarged list might readily have been given, from similar vocabularies already before the public. This, however, is purposely avoided; as, though it might please the pupil, it would in many instances mislead him. These vocabularies, indeed, though often useful, contain numerous inaccuracies and absurdities. Thus, in one of them, *Gloucester* is pronounced *Glorster*; *Armagh*, *Armar*; and *Maubeuge*, *Mor-booxh*: in another, *Drogheda* is pronounced *Drog-he'-da*: and in all of them, the accent is very frequently misplaced. They all err, indeed, in aiming at too much, and in pretending to give the mode of pronouncing many names, the true pronunciation of which the authors could have no means of ascertaining. In respect to foreign names, to the pronunciation of which there is no proper key, the best rule is to pronounce them as if they were English words.

Be-ná-res	Crom-ar-ty	Hu-ron'	Me-ri-da
Ben-gál'	Cul-ló-den	I-colm-kill	Mes-sí-na
Ber-blce'	Dar-da-nelles	In-ve-ra-ry	Metz
Ber-mú-das	De-can'	Is-pa-han'	Mil'an
Bom-bay'	Dem-e-rá-ra	Ja-pan'	Mis-sóu-rí
Bo-o'tes	Den-blgh	Kil-dáre'	Mo-ham-med
Brá/min	Dept'ford	Kil-la-lóe	Mon-te Vi-dé-o
Bra-zíl'	Des Cartes'	King-horn'	Mónt-pel-li-er
Brus'sels	Do-min'i-ca	Kin-naird'	Mont-rose'
Ca-díz'	Don-agh-a-dee'	Kin-ross'	Mo-ré'a
Caer-mar'then	Doubs	La-do'ga	Mount-rath'
Caer-nar'von	Drógh'e-da	Lag'an	Mul-lin-gar'
Cai'ro	Dro-mòre'	Lam-lash'	Náas
Cal'ais	Dum-fríes'	Lan'ark	Nan-kin'
Cam-bay'	Dun-bar'	Leg-horn'	New'ark
Cám'bridge	Dun-dá'k'	Leices'ter	Ni-ag'a-ra
Ca-ná'ry	Elles'mère	Lein'ster	Nismes
Can-tire'	Es-se-quí-bo	Léith	Nor'folk
Can-ton'	Eu-phrá'tes	Léi-trim	O'á-sis
Cape Bre-ton'	Fer-man'agh	Leomin'ster	O-ce-an'i-ca
Car-lisle'	Fer-moy'	Lí'ma	O'magh
Cas'tile'	Fries-land	Lime'rick	O-né'ga
Cau-bool'	Gal-lip'o-lí	Lin'coln	Or-i-nó-co
Cau'ca-sus	Gau'ges	Lis-more'	Ot-a-hei'te
Cav'an	Gen'o-a (<i>g soft</i>)	Llan-daff'	O-why-hee'
Ce-ri'go	Gib-rál'tar (<i>g soft</i>)	Lóu-l-si-á-na	Pal-my'ra
Cey-lon'	Glouces'ter	Ma-da-gas'car	Pa-ra'
Chat'ham	Gra-ná-da	Ma-dras'	Par'a-guay
Chí'lé	Gre-nó-ble	Ma-drid'	Pá'ris
Chim-bo-rá'zo	Guad-da-lóupe'	Mag-gi-ó're	Pa-to'mac
Cin-cin-ná'ti	Gua-ti-má-la	Má'ho-met	Pe-kin'
Cló-nes	Gui-á-na	Ma-lá'ga	Pen-sa-co'la
Clon-mell'	Haer'lem	Man'ger-ton (<i>g hard</i>)	Per-pign'an
Co-im'bra	Hal'le	Mar-an-ham'	Pe-rú'
Cole-raine'	Han'o-ver	Ma-ri'no	Pic'ar-dy
Con'naught	Heb-ri-des	Mar'ma-ra	Pled'mont
Cor-dil-lé'ras	Her'e-ford	Mar-ti-ní-co	Pl'sa
Cor-dó-va	Hid-de-kel	Má'ry-bor-ough	Por'to Ri'co
Co-ré'a	Hin-do-stan'	Mas-sa-chú'setts	Po-to-sl
Cor'inth	His-pa-ni-o'la	May-nooth'	Prágue
Cri-mé'a	Hon-du'ras	Me-dí-na	Ptol-e-má'is

Que-bec'	Sa-lo-ni'ca	St. Hel-é'na	Tu'am
Ra-cine'	Sau'ta Crúz	Stra-bâne'	Tu'rin
Ral'eigh	Sabne	Suf'folk	Ty-rone'
Ra-phoe'	Sar'a-cen	Sû-li	U'trecht
Rhêims	Sêine	Su-ri-nam'	Van Dle'man
Rhine	Sev'ern	Swé'den	Ven'a-chor
Rhodes	Si-âm'	Thur'les	Vên'ice
Ri-o Ja-nêi'-ro	Si'nâi	To-lé'do	Wind'sor
Roû-en'	So-phi'a	Trin-i-dad'	Worces'ter
Sâ'la-ra	St. Do-min'go	Trip'o-li	Yu-ca-tan'

NAMES.	PRONOUNCED.	NAMES.	PRONOUNCED.
Aix-la-Chapelle	ais la sha-pel'	Hainault	hâ-nô'
Alentejo	ã-len-tá'zho	Havre de Grace	hav-er de grâs'
Alsace	al-sâs'	Herault	he-rô'
Archipelago	ar-ke-pel'a-go	Jedburgh	jed'bur-ro
Artois	ar-twâ'	Laon	lâng
Auxerre	ô-sêr'	Lausanne	lo-sân'
Aylesbury	âls'ber-ry	Loire and Loir	lwâr
Badajos	bad-a-hôs'	Madeira	ma-dá'ra
Beaumaris	bô-mâ'ris	Martinique	mar-ti-nik'
Bourbonnois	bôr-bon-nâ'	Michigan	mish-i-gan'
Bordeaux	bôr-dô'	Neufchatel	noo-sha-tel'
Bourges	boorz	Orleanois	or-le-a-nâ'
Buenos Ayres	bwâ'nôs á'res	Pays de Vaud	pâ de vó'
Bury	ber'ry	Persia	per'she-a
Caen	cong	Pisa	pí'za
Cagliari	cal'lyl-a-rê	Quito	kí'to
Cayenne	ki-en'	Roxburgh	rox'bur-ro
Champlain	sham-plain'	Salisbury	sâls'ber-ry
Detroit	de-trwâ'	Scio	shí'o
Dieppe	dyêp	Tajo	tâ'ho
Edinburgh	ed'in-bur-ro	Thames	têms
Esquimaux	es'ke-mo	Vosges	vôzh
Foix	fwâ	Ypres	î-pré'

A TABLE,

Showing the Lengths of Degrees on the Parallels of Latitude, between the Equator and the Poles; the Earth being supposed Spherical.

Deg. Lat.	Geograph. Miles.	Deg. Lat.	Geograph. Miles.	Deg. Lat.	Geograph. Miles.	Deg. Lat.	Geograph. Miles.	Deg. Lat.	Geograph. Miles.
0	60·00								
1	59·99	19	56·73	37	47·92	55	34·41	73	17·54
2	59·96	20	56·38	38	47·28	56	33·55	74	16·54
3	59·92	21	56·01	39	46·63	57	32·68	75	15·53
4	59·85	22	55·63	40	45·96	58	31·79	76	14·52
5	59·77	23	55·23	41	45·28	59	30·90	77	13·50
6	59·67	24	54·81	42	44·59	60	30·00	78	12·48
7	59·55	25	54·38	43	43·88	61	29·09	79	11·45
8	59·42	26	53·93	44	43·16	62	28·17	80	10·42
9	59·26	27	53·46	45	42·43	63	27·24	81	9·38
10	59·09	28	52·97	46	41·68	64	26·30	82	8·35
11	58·89	29	52·48	47	40·92	65	25·36	83	7·31
12	58·69	30	51·96	48	40·15	66	24·40	84	6·27
13	58·46	31	51·43	49	39·36	67	23·44	85	5·23
14	58·22	32	50·88	50	38·57	68	22·48	86	4·18
15	57·95	33	50·32	51	37·76	69	21·50	87	3·14
16	57·67	34	49·74	52	36·94	70	20·52	88	2·09
17	57·38	35	49·15	53	36·11	71	19·53	89	1·05
18	57·06	36	48·54	54	35·27	72	18·54	90	0·00

✚ The foregoing Table is useful in the construction of maps, in showing the relative positions of the meridians.

ERRATA.

Page 15, near the bottom, insert *or* after *Salisbury*.

Page 38, last column, for *Macon* read *Macon*.

Page 74, last column, for *Montferrat* read *Casale*.

FINIS.

257

v. H. 1828.

ELEMENTS

OF

CHRONOLOGY AND HISTORY.

BY ANDREW THOMSON.

Turn the world's history, what find we there
But fortune's sports, or nature's cruel claims,
Or woman's artifice, or man's revenge,
And endless inhumanities on man?
Fame's trumpet seldom sounds but, like the knell
It brings bad tidings: how it hourly blows
Man's misadventures round the list'ning world!
MAN is the tale of narrative OLD TIME;
Sad tale! which high as paradise begins.—YOUNG.

LONDON:

HAMILTON, ADAMS & Co. PATERNOSTER ROW;
AND J. CHILCOTT, BRISTOL.

MDCCCXXVII.

101.

Entered at Stationers' Hall.

SMILCOTT, PRINTER, BRISTOL.

PREFACE.

WHEN Agesilaus, king of Sparta, was asked what things should be taught to children, he replied, Those which they must practise when they become men. This much-admired observation, however, seldom exercises its due influence on the education of the young, which is too often conducted without any definite object.

But whatever may be the future destination of youth, the study of History will ever be essential to a liberal education. The events of former ages made to pass, as it were, in review before our eyes, cannot fail to make a deep impression on our minds; and, if seen aright, to convey to us those lessons of wisdom, which others have acquired, not unfrequently, by painful experience.

The following pages, an abridgment of a work planned, some time ago, on an extended scale, but *for the present* laid aside, were designed to form a MANUAL, not

merely subservient to the purpose of elementary instruction, but containing an outline, which it would require a course of reading in mature years to fill up.

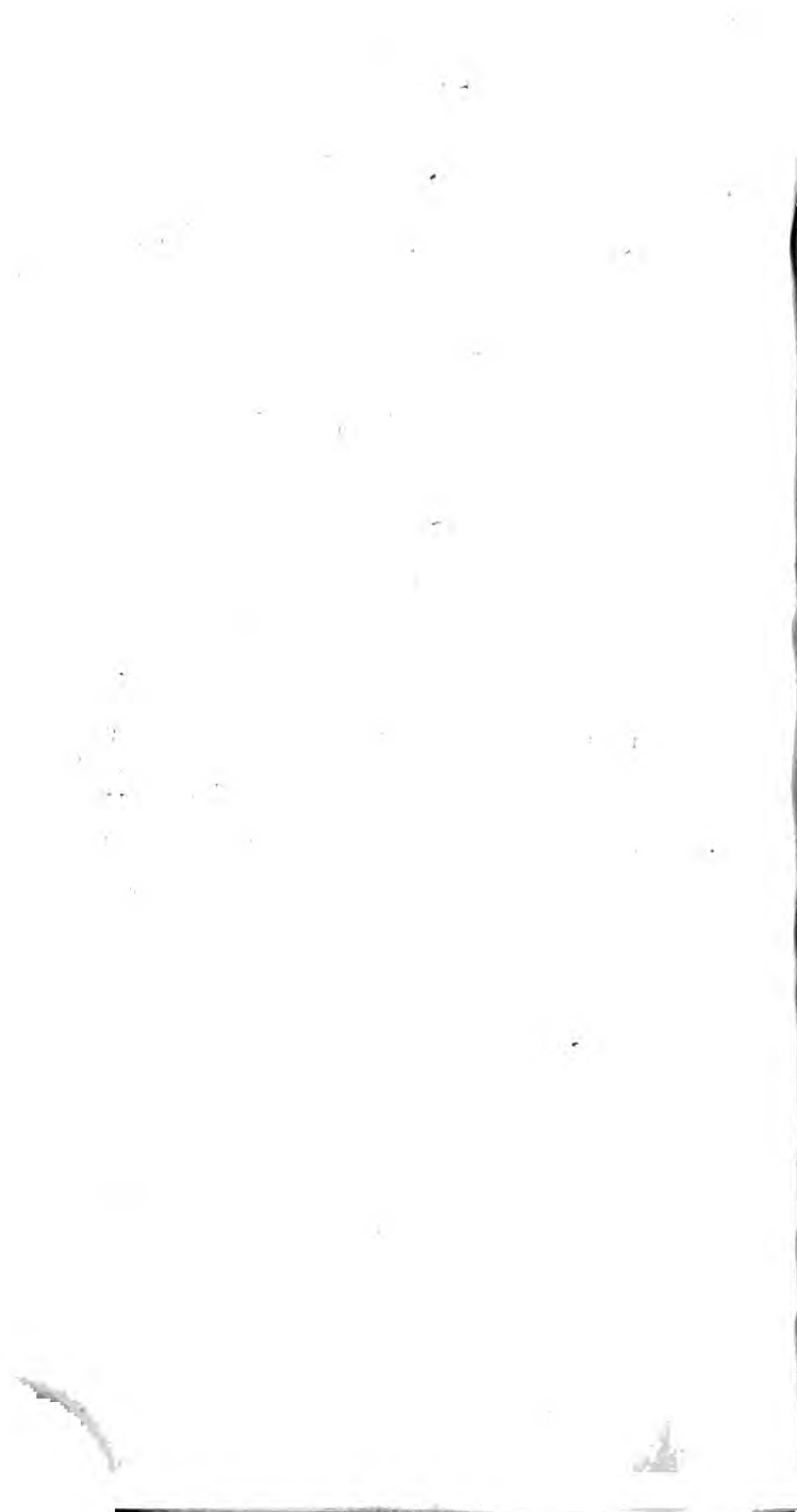
From the first chapter, which is purely chronological, many things, not of general utility, have been omitted ; for the purpose of introducing into the sequel, certain narratives, which, though indispensable to a knowledge of history, rarely occur in elementary works—the Mahometan imposture, the dispute concerning image worship, the origin and progress of the Saracen and Turkish empires, the decay and revival of literature, the rise and progress of popery, the reformation, the American, French, and Haytian revolutions, &c.—and at the same time to compress the volume as much as possible.

The historical part, which is the bulk of the work, consists of three branches, each embracing nine epochas. Having already published a complete course of **SCRIPTURE HISTORY**, with a series of minute chronological tables, formed solely from biblical data, the Sacred Record, embracing the first nine epochas, has been noticed here in a very summary manner. With regard

to *Profane History*, the eighteen epochas into which it is divided, form, in the whole, a *Stream of Time* that enlarges as it approximates to the present period. The distinguishing characteristic of each epocha constitutes the basis of an epitome of the history therewith connected; and the interval between each digest is occupied with a selection of important facts arranged in succession, with occasional notes. The sources whence the materials have been obtained may be ascertained by the marginal references. These might have been increased: but Grecian and Roman history furnish nearly all the particulars for the epochas of *Ancient History*; and in the æras of *Modern History*, those events to which no references are placed, have been chiefly selected from GIBBON and VON MÜLLER. A copious variety of questions for examination concludes the whole.

BRISTOL,

Horfield Road, June, 1827.



CONTENTS.

CHAP. I.

	Page.
Chronology; whence its difficulties	2
Astrology	3—6
Cœlestial phenomena; fatal superstition.....	4
Days; sun-dial; clocks; watches	7
Days, whence named; weeks;	9
Months, whence named; Roman calendar	10—11
Leap-year; Easter; unlucky and lucky days	12
Years, by whom adjusted; new style; Hogarth	13
Cycles, computation of; uses	16

CHAP. II.

Modes of reckoning time among different nations	21
Epochs; æras; divisions of history	„

CHAP. III.

CREATION; memorable events	23
DELUGE; dispersion: colonization	24
CALL OF ABRAHAM; EXODUS; remarkable events	25
FOUNDATION OF THE TEMPLE; Ten Tribes; Assyrian monarchy.....	26
Captivity of Israel; of Judah. Shadrach, &c.	27
Nebuchadnezzar; Belshazzar; Daniel	28
RESTORATION of the Jews; remarkable events	„
NATIVITY, how computed	29
FIRST AND SECOND DISPERSIONS	31
Ingenious arrangement of Sacred History	33

CHAP. IV.—SECT. I.

Ancient history; its divisions.....	34
Events of obscure and fabulous periods	36—38

SECT. II.

	Page.
Authentic history; OLYMPIC GAMES	38
BUILDING OF ROME; memorable events.....	40—41
CYRUS and his successors; memorable events	42—44
INVASION OF GREECE; illustrious men; Thermopylæ.....	45
Helots; Peloponnesian war.....	46
Thrasybulus; CONON; Epaminondas; Pelopidas	47
Philip of Macedon; death of Epaminondas	48
Death of Philip. Alexander; Thebes; Demosthenes	49
Conquests and character of Alexander.....	50
Memorable events; SELEUCIDÆ	51
PTOLEMIES; Egypt, her ancient splendour	53
Memorable events; PUNIC wars	54
Punic wars; Carthaginians; Phœnicians.....	55
Hamilcar Barca; Hannibal	57
Destruction of Carthage; memorable events; famous men	58—59
Macedonia.....	59
Achæan league; Aratus.....	61
Paulus Æmilius; first Roman library; Corinth.....	64
Agrarian law; Gracchi; Jugurtha.....	65
Cimbri and Teutones; Marius	66
Social war; Sylla; Mithridates	67
Civil war; Sylla; anecdote of Marius	68
Servile war; exploits of Pompey	69
Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus	71
Passage of the Rubicon; civil war	72
Assassination of Cæsar; second triumvirate	74
Augustus; Macænas; Nativity	76

CHAP. V.

Modern History; PERSECUTION of the Christians	77
Roman emperors, from Nero to Constantine.....	80
Memorable events; Constantine	82
Julian; Valentinian; Gratian; Theodosius	83
Division of the empire; Alaric; Radagaisus; Stilicho	84
Sacking of Rome; new kingdoms	85
Genseric; Attila; Ricimer; Orestes; Augustulus	86
ODOACER; Theodoric; Franks	87
Justinian; Narses; Saxon heptarchy.....	88
Exarchate of Ravenna; Lombards	89

CONTENTS.

ix.

	Page.
Venetian republic ; remarkable events	90
HĒGIRA ; imposture of Mahomet ; koran.....	91
Saracen conquests	93
Overthrow of the Gothic monarchy in Spain	94
Albassides ; Almansor ; Haroun ; Al Mamon	95
Motassem, the eighth ; Turks.....	96
Saladin ; Holagou ; Saracen conquests	98
Fez ; Tunis ; Cairo ; Fatimites ; Morocco	99
Memorable events ; Spanish monarchy	100
Image worship ; disputes about	101
CHARLEMAGNE and the Carolingian princes.....	102
Rollo, the Norman ; Saxons	103
Two Sicilies.	107
Assassins. CRUSADES ; superstitious sects	109
Guelphs and Ghibelins ; Zinghis Khan ; Prussia	114
Hanseatic league ; Mamalukes ; Florence	115
House of Commons ; Sicilian Vespers ; Bannockburn	116
Tamerlane	117
Union of Calmar ; usurpation of Henry IV.	118
Decay of learning ; Anecdote of Charlemagne.	119
Literature, how preserved	120
Learning and arts of the Saracens	121
Liberal arts ; four faculties ; Roger Bacon	122
Petrarch and Boccaccio commence the study of Greek.	123
House of Medici ; Trojans at Oxford ; PRINTING	124
Memorable events ; capture of Constantinople	126
Discoveries of Columbus, Cabot, and di Gama	128
Decay of piety. Antichrist	129
Abuses in religion from Cent. III. to XVI.	130—144
Paulicians ; Albigenses ; parochial divisions	135
Military orders ; papal ambition	136
Waldenses	137
Real presence ; Statute of the six articles	138
Tragic end of the templars	139
Papal schism. Remarkable anecdote	140
Wickliffe. Excommunicated popes	141
Council of Constance ; Huss ; Jerome	142
Hussite war ; Waldenses	143
Inquisition in Spain. Romish church in Cent. XVI.....	144
Leo X. ; indulgences ; Luther	146
Progress of the REFORMATION in Germany	147—153

	Page.
Progress of the Reformation in England ; in Scotland	154
Jesuits ; Stuarts ; Dutch republic	157
Parian marbles ; Portugal ; Louis XIV	158
Charles II. ; Queen Anne ; epochas of English history	159
Peter the Great ; Poland ; America	160
Colonial settlements in America	162
Origin of the disturbances in America	163
INDEPENDENCE of America	168
Causes of the French revolution	169
States-General, their conduct	171
Measures resorted to by the court ; consequences.....	173
Assault of the bastille ; conduct of the mob	174
State of France	175
Decrees, &c. of the National Assembly.. ..	176
Tumults of the 5th and 6th October ; Mirabeau	177
Violation of ecclesiastial property	178
Confederation of the Champ de Mars.....	179
State of France ; clubs ; jacobins	180
Flight of the king ; its consequences.....	181
Legislative Assembly ; its measures.. ..	183
Measures of the Girondists ; Louis XVI. insulted	185
Manifesto of the duke of Brunswick ; massacre of the Swiss.....	186
Imprisonment of Louis XVI. ; flight of La Fayette ; attack of the allies ..	187
Massacres in Paris ; general Dumouriez ; republic	188
Marat ; death of Louis XIV. ; war with all Europe	189
Republican calendar ; reduction of the Vendéans	192
Death of Robespierre, and consequences.....	193
Conquests of the republic : changes in the government.....	194
Sketch of Bonaparte's career	„
Naval successes of the British.....	199
Napoleon's invasion of Russia, and consequences	199
Insurrection in St. Domingo	200
Baseness of the Spaniards ; slave trade : Buccaniers	201
Hayti, state of, in 1789	202
Negro chiefs : Toussaint, sketch of his life.....	203
Republic of Columbia : Bolivar.....	„
Brazilian empire : Le Clerc's invasion of St. Domingo, and consequences	204

ELEMENTS
OF
CHRONOLOGY AND HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

Chronology; Division of Time, &c.

CHRONOLOGY, a discourse concerning **TIME**, treats of the several methods by which it has been computed, and of the means employed to ascertain the æras of the principal events recorded in history; for the purpose of arranging them in due order of succession.

To this science the ancients seem to have paid little or no attention. In the earliest ages of the world, time was measured solely by the seasons, and by the revolutions of the sun and moon; and ages elapsed before the custom of dating important events came into general use.* Many centuries intervened between the æra of

*When calculations of time were first commenced, its measures were very indeterminate. In the histories of Herodotus and Thucydides, no regular system of dates appears; nor was any attempt to determine a fixed æra undertaken, until Ptolemy Philadelphus made the essay, by comparing and correcting the dates of the Olympiads, of the kings of Sparta, and of the priestesses of Juno at Argos.

the Olympiads and the first historians; and several more, between these and the first authors of chronology. One capital exception, however, to these remarks, occurs in Moses, and the other Jewish historians, who have presented the world with the only authentic narrative of its origin, and of that awful calamity the deluge, to which the earth, in almost every country, bears witness: and have given us, in continuation, an account of the rise, progress, and decline of their own nation, until the days of Cyrus; so minute in its chronology, that notwithstanding some minor defects, it forms the basis of every system which merits the attention of the philosopher, or the historian. But the light, which the Old Testament sheds on profane history, is but a feeble glimmering; and, consequently, we are left to grope through the obscurity and fable of fifteen hundred years; which period may justly be distinguished as the **MIDDLE AGES** of the ancient world. Without the sacred writings, however, we must have remained utterly ignorant of the origin and age of our world; and might have contended, like the Egyptians and Chinese, for almost illimitable antiquity.

Chronology is embarrassed with many difficulties, arising from the following causes: the inattention of ancient writers to the subject, as already noticed; the discrepancy of the Hebrew Bible with the Samaritan and Septuagint versions, in the ages of the patriarchs from Adam to Abraham, at the birth of their recorded sons; the vague manner in which the different periods during the epocha of the Judges are recorded; the

different names assigned by the sacred and profane historians to the same princes; the destruction of many ancient monuments; the loss of many valuable books, especially by the burning of the Alexandrian library; and the discrepant accounts of profane historians.

These difficulties, however, have been in a great degree removed by means of astronomical observations, coins, medals, monuments, inscriptions, legal enactments, the works of ancient authors yet extant, and undisputed æras.

From the very early prevalence of Tsabism, or the worship of the host of heaven, there is reason to conclude that the cœlestial bodies early engaged the attention of mankind. In the progress of their idolatry, undue influences were ascribed to the planets and constellations, which were supposed by their various aspects to prognosticate good or evil to mankind. Hence special regard was given to the study of astronomy; and those, who had made great proficiency in it, taking advantage of the popular ignorance, framed the absurd science of astrology. This superstition obtained among the nations in the vicinity of Judea, as we learn from Jeremiah x. 2. where the Jews are exhorted to avoid this heathenish custom; was common in Chaldea, as we are informed by Daniel, in his notices concerning Nebuchadnezzar; prevailed particularly in Egypt and Greece; and has been found, more or less, in almost every country. All the events of this world were supposed to be brought about by the various configurations of the planets: and in accordance with such a belief, it was a received opinion, especially in India, Egypt, and Greece, that

after the revolution of the annus magnus, or grand cycle, a period of some thousands of years, the heavenly bodies, having returned to their original order, would again exhibit the same phenomena; and that these phenomena would exercise the same physical and moral influences on the earth and its inhabitants.*

That people swayed by notions like these should be greatly alarmed at the phenomena of eclipses, meteors, and the like, is not a matter of surprise. Consternation and dismay oftentimes pervaded, on these occasions, the stoutest hearts.

A memorable instance of this nature happened B. C. 413. Nicias, the Athenian general, finding the army, with which he and Demosthenes had invaded Sicily, in great peril, through a combination of disastrous events, resolved to withdraw secretly from the island with the troops. For this purpose the army was embarked with the greatest caution; but, just as the

* This is noticed by Virgil:

“ The last great age, foretold by sacred rhymes,
Renews its finish'd course: Saturnian times
Roll round again; and mighty years, begun
From their first orb, in radiant circles run.
The base, degen'rate, iron offspring ends;
A golden progeny from heaven descends.

* * * * *

Another Tiphys shall new seas explore;
Another Argo land the chiefs upon th' Iberian shore;
Another Helen other wars create,
And great Achilles urge the Trojan fate.”

DRYDEN'S Translation *Past. iv.*

fleet was about to set sail, the moon was suddenly eclipsed. Panic-struck at the circumstance, Nicias consulted the sooth-sayers, who declared that the fleet ought not to depart until nine days were expired. But this excellent man, out of a blind veneration for what he conceived to be the will of the gods, resolved to postpone his flight for a whole month. By this delay he ruined himself, his army, and his country. For the Syracusans, discovering the embarrassed condition of the enemy by the intended flight, prosecuted the war with redoubled vigour; and having reduced the Athenians to surrender at discretion, condemned to death Nicias and his colleague. This disaster was fatal to Athens: for, no longer able to contend with Sparta, with which she was involved in war, she submitted to her rival, B. C. 404.

These phenomena, therefore, being considered as portending the decease of princes and eminent men, the overthrow of armies, and revolutions of states, were carefully observed and recorded; the ancient writers generally connecting therewith some important political event. Hence modern historians have obtained data otherwise inaccessible: because the mean number of solar and lunar eclipses annually being four, and the possible number seven, superstitious minds had always an abundance of portents to which every extraordinary circumstance could be referred. But these notions of planetary influence were not restricted to the ancients. Even in our own country the rebellion of the highland lords in 1745 was supposed, by many, to have been indicated by a comet that appeared in the preceding

year. And the hieroglyphics of our annual almanacs, regarded by thousands as infallible adumbrations of the future, are striking proofs that the science of astrology, whence the materials for the picture are professedly obtained, is by no means consigned to oblivion.

In the superstition connected necessarily with astrology, a science much cultivated during the middle ages, originated the imposture of the conjurer; who, by casting nativities and telling fortunes, imposed on the credulity of the simple. This practice was very common in England and France. The Abbé Fleury, in his *Manners of the Israelites*, observes, "We find but too many who give ear to astrologers, and such impostors; not only peasants, and ignorant people of the lowest sort, but ladies that value themselves on their wit, politeness, and knowledge; and men that, notwithstanding they have had a good education, set up for free-thinkers, and cannot possibly submit to the dictates of true religion." In France, professed astrologers and necromancers constituted a part of the household of many ladies of quality; and Cornelius Agrippa was patronized by Louisa of Savoy, mother of Francis I. In England, Queen Elizabeth seems to have been so fully satisfied of the truth of astrology, doubtless from her conversations with the famous Dr. Dee, that she caused the parliament to enact a law ordaining the penalty of death to any person found guilty of casting her majesty's nativity. And it has had many admirers since her days; and still survives, though chiefly in the persons of crafty and ignorant pretenders.

Chronology, like Astronomy, takes cognizance of the natural divisions of time. These are days, months, and years.

A Day commonly signifies that portion of time in which the earth makes a complete rotation on her axis. It admits of two natural divisions—light and darkness. “And God called the light Day, and the darkness he called Night. And the evening and the morning were the first day.” This most ancient mode of reckoning the day was in use among the Athenians, and is yet common to the Jews, Chinese, and modern Italians. The Persians, Babylonians, and some other oriental nations, began the day at sunrise. The Arabians, following, no doubt, the practice of their celebrated astronomers, reckon from noon. But the Germans, English, French, and Spaniards, begin the day from midnight, a mode of calculation that had been formerly adopted by the Egyptians and Romans. Various divisions of the day obtained among different nations; but among modern Europeans it is divided into twenty-four equal parts, called hours.

The Sun Dial, one of the most ancient instruments for ascertaining the progress of the day, is supposed to have been invented by the Babylonians. It was used in Judea in the time of Ahaz, B. C. 730; and was not unknown to the Chinese and Egyptians. From the latter it passed to the Greeks; among whom, after receiving some improvements from Anaximander, it superseded the use of the Clepsydra, or Water Clock.

The invention of Clocks and Watches is comparatively

recent. A clock, supposed the only one in the world, was presented to Pepin of France, by Pope Paul I. Another of most curious workmanship was sent to Charlemagne, by Caliph Haroun Al Raschid. For want of a machine of this kind, the noble and illustrious Alfred, who flourished almost a century after, was compelled to measure his time by means of candles: but their consumption being irregular, owing to the currents of air to which they were exposed, he constructed lanterns to remedy the inconvenience.

The invention of the clock is ascribed to the Arabians, who first made them to strike about A. D. 801. The first of this description set up in Westminster does not appear to have been before 1368; but the instrument then, and for many years after, was very imperfect, the clock in Hampton Court Palace, dated 1510, being the first which went at all tolerably. They were made portable about 1530, but were not in general use till about 1631; and about eighteen years after, in 1649, they received their greatest improvement—the pendulum, from Mr. Huygens.

For those useful little machines—Watches, we are indebted to German ingenuity. They were invented at Nuremburg in 1477, and appear to have undergone considerable improvements before 1530, when Charles V. made use of one, which was then termed a small table clock. They were brought to England in 1577; and about eighty years after, Hooke invented the spring pocket watches, which were followed in 1676 by Barlow's repeaters. These instruments, now so common, and from habit so necessary to us, were injudiciously

taxed in 1797; but the vexatious impost was removed in the following year.

A Week is a cycle of seven days, originally measured by a Sabbath or day of rest, commemorative of the creation. From its observance, in the first ages of the world, it has continued as a small regulator of time to many nations, until the present period. Among the Hebrews, the seventh day was denominated the Sabbath, and the other six were called the first, second, &c. of the Sabbath. By some pagan nations the days of the week have been consecrated to false deities, as may be instanced in the Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, and Saturday of the English,—days evidently dedicated to the Sun, the Moon, Tuesco, Woden, Thor, Friga, and Seater, gods worshipped by the Saxons.

A Month, so called because originally regulated by the Moon, is with us the twelfth part of the year. Months are solar, lunar, and civil.

A Solar Month is that space of time which the sun occupies in going through a sign, or, the twelfth part of the ecliptic.

A Lunar Month is either periodical, or synodical. A periodical month consists of 27 days, 7 hours, 43' 7", in which interval the moon completes a revolution, arriving at the same point of the zodiac whence she set out.

A Synodical Month, called also a lunation, consists of 29 days, 12 hours, 44', being the period between any one conjunction with the sun, and the next following. Its excess beyond the periodical month arises from the earth's revolution in her orbit; for whilst the moon is

proceeding in her course round the earth, this planet advances through a twelfth part of her orbit, or nearly so ; and consequently before the conjunction of the sun and moon can again take place, the moon must make one revolution and a twelfth more, as may be familiarly illustrated by the hands of a watch.

A Civil Month differs in the name, number of days, and time of commencement, in different countries ; but the English, and Europeans generally, have adopted that of the Romans.

The Roman system of months, at first very imperfect, was improved by Numa Pompilius, who adjusted them to the lunar year. To the intelligence of Cæsar we are indebted for the arrangement, which we, in common with other Europeans, adopt. He ordered the months to be reckoned by the sun, and not by the moon ; and that they should contain alternately thirty,* and one and thirty days ; February excepted, which was to consist of twenty-eight days, except once in four years, when an additional day was to be added.

Some of the months were named in honour of the gods ; as January, from Janus, who was usually invoked at the commencement of a new undertaking ; March, from Mars, the pretended father of Romulus ; May, from Maia, mother of Mercury, to whom they offered sacrifice on the first day ; and June, from Juno. Some were named from the religious rites then observed ; as February, from *februando*, *purification*, because of certain

* August, however, is an exception ; both it and July, which it follows, having thirty-one days.

purificatory sacrifices then offered: others, from the agricultural labours then performed; as April, from *aperiundo*, *opening* the earth, according to some authorities; but more probably from the Palilia or Parilia, feasts held in honour of Pales, goddess of shepherds, on which occasion the offerings were simply the fruits of the earth. Others were named according to their numerical order, as Quintilis, the fifth, afterwards called July, in honour of Cæsar; Sextilis, the sixth, afterwards called August, in honour of Augustus; September, the seventh; October, the eighth; November, the ninth; and December, the tenth month, of the year of Romulus. In his time the year contained ten months, and began in March. Numa added January and February.

The days of the Roman months were divided into Calends, Nones, and Ides: thus

For March, May, July, and October.

Day.	Day.
1 Calends	17 16th day of Calends
2 6th day of Nones	18 15th
3 5th	19 14th
4 4th	20 13th
5 3rd	21 12th
6 Day before Nones	22 11th
7 Nones	23 10th
8 8th day of Ides	24 9th
9 7th	25 8th
10 6th	26 7th
11 5th	27 6th
12 4th	28 5th
13 3rd	29 4th
14 Day before Ides	30 3rd
15 Ides	31 Day before Calends
16 17th day of Calends	1 Calends

The other eight Months of the Year were thus arranged:

Day.		Day.	
1	Calends	17	16th day of Calends
2	4th day of Nones	18	15th
3	3rd day of Nones	19	14th
4	Day before Nones	20	13th
5	Nones	21	12th
6	8th day of Ides	22	11th
7	7th	23	10th
8	6th	24	9th
9	5th	25	8th
10	4th	26	7th
11	3rd	27	6th
12	Day before Ides	28	5th
13	Ides	29	4th
14	19th day of Calends	30	3rd
15	18th	31	Day before Calends
16	17th	1	Calends*

As February is generally three days short of 31, the 28th is the day before Calends, and the 24th is consequently the sixth of the Calends of March. In leap year, this day was reckoned twice, and hence that year was denominated Bissextile, from *bis*, twice, and *sex-tilis*, the sixth.

The festival of Easter is regulated by the moon, and is observed by the Western churches on the Lord's day immediately following the first full moon, that falls after the vernal equinox. Tables to calculate this festival are contained in all the English Prayer Books.

* The days immediately after the Calends, Nones, and Ides of every month, being reputed *unlucky*, were called *black days*; as their *fortunate* days were termed *white days*.

A Year is a system of months, and was very irregular among different nations, until Astronomy afforded the means of accurately determining it.

Years may be divided into Solar, Lunar, Sidereal, and Tropical. Of these, the Solar is the most important, being usually understood in conversation. The Sidereal and Tropical differ from it but a few minutes. The Lunar year will be noticed in the sequel.

The Roman Year was called *Annus*, a *ring* or *circle*. When first instituted by Romulus, it consisted of ten months, containing in all three hundred and four days, and began in March: but Numa Pompilius, to complete a lunar year, added fifty days; which, having first added ten days taken from the ten months of Romulus, he divided into two months. Afterwards he added another day, making the year to consist of 355 days; but this being too little for a solar year, by ten days and six hours nearly, rendered an interpolation of almost three months necessary every eighth year, which they called Leap Year. Numa ordered also that January should be reckoned the first month, because about the commencement of that month, the sun begins to ascend towards our hemisphere.

When Julius Cæsar became perpetual dictator, he determined to remedy this defective mode of calculation; and with this view solicited the aid of Sosigenes, a famous Egyptian mathematician. To bring forward the months, that had receded considerably from the seasons to which they had been adjusted by Numa, Cæsar added ninety days to one year, thence called the Year of Con-

fusion. This ended January 1, B. C. 45, but since that time, the Julian year has been regulated by the sun, and determined to 365 days, 6 hours. The day, formed every four years by the annual overplus of six hours, was directed to be intercalated in the fourth year, by reckoning the 24th day of February twice over. This day being the sixth of the Calends of March, occasioned the application of the term *Bissextile*, or *twice sixth*, to Leap Year.

But the true Solar Year, consisting of 365 days, 5 hours, 48', and 45", and the Julian, of 365 days 6 hours, it was subsequently discovered that the difference, though only eleven minutes and fifteen seconds, amounted to upwards of twenty-four hours, or a whole day, in one hundred and thirty-one years; and hence the Vernal Equinox, observed by Sosigenes, March 25th, had gone back, at the time of the Nicene council in A. D. 325, to the 21st of that month.

The cause of this difference was not then ascertained. The credit of giving the finishing stroke to the calendar was reserved for Pope Gregory, who, in A. D. 1582, when the Equinox happened March 11th, caused it to be finally rectified, after a long and patient investigation of the various methods devised by the mathematicians and astronomers, whom he had invited to Rome for that purpose. Ten days were struck out of October, the fifth of that month being reckoned as the fifteenth; and every fourth year was, as usual, to be reckoned *Bissex-tile*, or Leap Year, as ordered by Cæsar; with this difference, however, that every hundredth year be a

common year, unless the number of centuries be divisible by four, without a remainder. The reason for this is obvious: as the Julian exceeds the true Solar year by eleven minutes and fifteen seconds, the annexation of one day in every fourth year, causes in that time an overplus of forty-five minutes. This, in the course of one hundred and thirty-one years, amounts to rather more than a day; and hence originated the difference of the day when Sosigenes observed the Equinox, with that on which it was observed in A. D. 325, for which the Nicene council could not account. A day in one hundred and thirty-one years amounts in three hundred and ninety-three years to three days, which are dropt in four centuries, by Gregory's arrangement; because only one of every four consecutive centennial years is divisible by four. Owing to this excellent arrangement, the calendar will not need a revision for many centuries to come.

The Gregorian method of calculation was not adopted in England until A. D. 1752, when it became necessary to strike eleven days out of the calendar. Consequently the twelfth day of every month New Style, that is, by the Gregorian computation, is the first of every month Old Style. Its reception encountered much opposition, through the prejudices of people of all ranks;* and not

* At the adoption of the New Style in 1752, parliament ordered that the 3rd of September should be accounted the 14th: this gave umbrage to the multitude, some of whom believed that eleven days were thus subtracted from their lives. Hogarth, the celebrated painter, to ridicule this absurdity, represented them in a picture vociferating, *Give us our eleven days.*

a little of this arose from the consideration that it had originated with the bishop of Rome.*

The Lunar Year consists of 354 days ; and as a lunation is twenty-nine days and a half, the twelve lunar months contained twenty-nine and thirty days alternately. This year was used by the Hebrews, Greeks, Romans, and others ; and is still used by the Arabs and Turks.

Cycles are periods of time revolving into themselves : of these we have the Cycle of the Sun, the Cycle of the Moon, and the Cycle of the Roman Indiction.

The Solar Cycle is a term of eight and twenty years, after which the days of the month again correspond with the days of the week ; as would be the case every septennary, were there no leap year.

The Lunar Cycle is a term of nineteen years, after which the conjunctions and oppositions of the moon recur in the same order, and on the same days, but one hour and twenty-eight minutes sooner. But if a common centennial year occur in the cycle, the new and full moons will occur a day later in the calendar than otherwise. In three hundred and ten years, the hour and twenty-eight minutes difference between the cycles, amounts to a whole day. The period is sometimes called the Metonic Cycle, in honour of Meton, who discovered it.

The Cycle of Indiction, a period of fifteen years, was established by Constantine A. D. 312, and is supposed

* Friar Bacon, however, may be considered as the originator of the amended calendar, as will appear in the sequel.

to have indicated the time when the subjects had to make certain payments to the state. Justinian ordered its insertion in the public instruments, and since that time it has been used in the papal bulls, and other documents peculiar to the Roman hierarchy.

By the multiplication of these cycles into each other, Scaliger invented the Great Julian Period—7980 years. It comprehends all other periods, cycles, and epochas. As no two years of this period have the same number for all the three cycles of which it is composed, the epocha of every event might have been correctly ascertained, had ancient historians used such a mode of calculation. It is supposed to commence 710 years before the creation, all the cycles beginning at the same time. Christ was born, according to the vulgar æra, or common computation, A. M. 4004; and by adding 710, we obtain the year of the Julian period, 4714. And to find what year of the Julian period answers to any given year, say A. D. 1824, add 4713; and the sum 6537, is the year of the Julian period required.

This period is useful to ascertain to what year of each cycle any current year answers. Thus if it be inquired, To what year of the Roman Indiction does A. D. 1824 correspond? divide 4713, the year of the Julian period before the birth of Christ, by 15, (the number of years in the Cycle of Indiction,) and the result shews that

15)4713	314 cycles had revolved between the
—	supposed commencement of the Julian
314—3	period and the birth of Christ, and that
	three years of another cycle had passed over. Add

3 therefore to A. D. 1824, and divide by 15; the result is 121 cycles, and a remainder of 12. Wherefore A. D. 1824 is the twelfth year of the Roman Indiction.

If the question be, To what year of the solar cycle does A. D. 1824 correspond? divide 4713 by 28, the number
 28)4713
 ———
 168—9 rem. of years in the cycle. The result shews that from the commencement of the Julian period to the birth of Christ, 168 cycles had been completed, and 9 years of another. Add 9 therefore to A. D. 1824, and divide by 28. The result is 65 cycles, and a remainder of 13. Wherefore A. D. 1824 is the 13th year of the solar cycle.

If the question be, To what year of the lunar or Metonic cycle does A. D. 1824 correspond? divide 4713 by 19, the number of years in the cycle. The result shews
 19)4713
 ———
 248—1 rem. that from the commencement of the Julian period to the birth of Christ, 248 cycles had elapsed, and 1 year of another. Add 1 therefore to A. D. 1824, and divide by 19. The result is 96 cycles, and a residue of 1. Wherefore A. D. 1824 is the 1st year of the lunar cycle.

It will be perceived that the numbers added to the year of Christ, are the numbers of the years of each cycle respectively, which had elapsed at the birth of Christ; and which must be added to adjust the year of Christ to the number of years which have elapsed since the completion of each respective cycle immediately preceding that event. Thus, since the conclusion of the cycle of indiction, which preceded the birth of Christ, to A. D. 1824, 1827 years have elapsed; since the

conclusion of the solar cycle which preceded that event, 1833 years have elapsed ; and since the conclusion of the lunar cycle which preceded that event, 1825 years have elapsed. Hence the reason for the above modes of calculation, the correctness of which may be ascertained in the following manner : Find the year of the Julian period to which A. D. 1824 corresponds, and divide it by the number of years in each cycle respectively, and the remainders will be the years of each cycle corresponding to the given year. To 1824 add 4713, and the sum 6537 is the year of the Julian period.

28)6537	19)6537	15)6537
<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>	<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>	<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>
233—13	344—1	435—12
<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>	<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>	<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>

Therefore A. D. 1824 was the 13th year of the Solar ; the 1st of the Lunar ; and the 12th year of the Cycle of the Roman Indiction. When there are no remainders the cycles are just completed.

The year of the Lunar Cycle is also called the Golden Number, because it was formerly inserted in the calendar in golden characters ; and the Prime,* because by it the *first* day of the moon was ascertained. By means of this we calculate the Epact, or age of the moon at the beginning of the year, thus : Take 1 from the golden number, multiply the remainder by 11, (the difference in days between the lunar and solar year) divide the product by 30, and the remainder will be the Epact. Thus : if

* This is the usually assigned etymology. But it is observable that among the old Scandinavians *Prym* signified the *new moon*.

the Epact for 1827 be required :	From Gold. No.	4
The reason for this operation is	Subtract	1
obvious. At the beginning of A. D.		—
1827, only 1826 years have elapsed		3
since the birth of Christ ; conse-	Mult. by	11
quently, if we take 1 from the		—
golden number for 1827, or from		33
the golden number for any given	Divide by	30
year of Christ, we prevent the	Moon's Age,	—
error, which the calculation of	Jan. 1, 1827*	3
the given year would necessarily		—

produce. If the question were, What is the moon's age, Dec. 31, 1827, there would be no cause for the subtraction

1827
1
—
19) 1828 (96
171
—
118
114
—

of the 1. Thus 1827 has 4 for the golden number, which multiplied by 11, and divided by 30, gives 14 for the age of the moon at the end of the year. For the moon changing on the 18th of December, will be in the

4 Gold. No. 14th day of her age on the 31st.

Hence it is evident, that as a whole year elapses from January 1 to December 31, the calculation of the moon's age at the beginning of the year must differ from the calculation for her age at the end of the year, in the product, as much as a whole year can cause it to differ —11 days.

* The year 1827 is the 16th of the Solar, the 4th of the Lunar, and the 15th of the cycle of the Roman Indiction, as may be seen by consulting an Ephemeris.

CHAPTER II.

History; Definitions, Epochas, &c.

THE JEWS reckon time from the Creation; the Greeks computed by Olympiads; the Romans, from the Building of their City; Christians calculate from the Nativity of Christ, backward to creation, and forward to the present period; and the Mahometans, from the Hegira, or flight of Mahomet.

An Epocha is a point of time distinguished by some remarkable event: but an Æra is a period reckoned from an Epocha. Historians, however, generally employ them as synonymous terms.

An Anachronism is a mistake in the computation of time: and a Synchronism, a view of cotemporary history.

History admits of two grand divisions—Sacred and Profane.

Sacred History is the history of the Church of God, contained in the Old and New Testaments. The continuation of this narrative, not being the work of inspired writers, but merely the result of human observation, is termed Ecclesiastical History.

Profane History is divided into Ancient and Modern. The arrangement, however, is quite arbitrary; some writers bringing down Ancient History to the days of Charlemagne; and others, only down to the Nativity. In this elementary work, Ancient History comprehends all events before the birth of Christ; and Modern History, every thing that is subsequent.

In the subdivisions of history those periods are usually selected which are characterized by some important event. Some of those periods necessarily enter into every chronological scheme; but no arrangements are so absolute as not to admit such modifications as may facilitate the study of history.

In this manual, the epochas of sacred history, and of ancient and modern profane history, amount in all to twenty-seven. To obtain this number, in order that each division might contain nine, it was necessary to make a few additions to those usually received.

The Epochas of Sacred History, are:

1	Creation of the World	B. C.	4004
2	Deluge		2348
3	Call of Abraham		1922
4	Exodus of the Israelites		1492
5	Foundation of the Temple		1013
6	Captivity under Nebuchadnezzar.		587
7	Restoration of the Jews		536
8	Birth of Christ		—
9	Dispersion under Adrian.....	A. D.	135

The Epochas of Profane History, are:

Ancient.		Modern.	
1	Olympic Games B. C. 776	1	Persecution.. A. D. 64
2	Building of Rome 753	2	Constantine. . 313
3	Cyrus	3	Odoacer 476
4	Invas. of Greece 490	4	Mahomet.... 622
5	Seleucides 312	5	Charlemagne 800
6	Ptolemies 301	6	Crusades.... 1096
7	Punic Wars .. 264	7	Printing 1440
8	Macedonia 168	8	Reformation . 1517
9	Augustus..... 31	9	Revolution .. 1776

CHAPTER III.

Epochs of Sacred History.

CREATION OF THE WORLD.

B. C. 4004.

FROM this epocha to the Deluge, is a period of 1656 years. This æra, the first in the history of the world, is memorable for the institution of the sabbath; the fall of man; the promise of a recovery by "the seed of the woman;" the institution of sacrifice; the murder of Abel; the building of the city Enos* by Cain; the introduction of polygamy by Lamech; the construction of tents by Jubal, who also first paid attention to the breeding of cattle; the invention of the organ and harp by Jubal; the discovery and manufacture of metals by Tubal-Cain; the birth of Naamah; † the translation of Enoch to heaven; the general corruption of mankind; and the deluge; from which calamity only Noah and his family were saved.

THE DELUGE.

B. C. 2348.

From the Deluge to the Calling of Abraham is, according to the Hebrew Bible, a period of 427 years. During this interval, the building of Babel, the dispersion of the

* Most probably a large enclosure, to secure his family from the attacks of wild beasts.

† Jubal is supposed to be the Apollo, Tubal-Cain the Vulcan, and Naamah, whose name signifies *beautiful*, the Venus of pagan fable. The analogy is remarkably close.

children of Noah, and the erection of the first monarchy by Nimrod,* took place.

Elam appears to have settled in Persia, Asshur in Assyria, Aram in Syria, and Lud in Lydia. The children of Cush settled in Arabia,† in Ethiopia, and on the shores of the Persian Gulf. Mizraim settled in Egypt, which became, at a very early period, the seat of the sciences and arts; and presents the first traces of a regular government, and of an established religion. The Canaanites settled in Palestine; Madai appears to have settled in Media; Javan or Ion, in Greece; Tiras, in Thrace; and Gomer, Magog, Meshech, and Tubal, about the northern parts of Syria.

All these nations, and many others, of whose migrations and settlements we have no authentic record, early apostatized from the worship of the true God. “When they knew God they glorified him not as God, neither were thankful, but became vain in their imaginations, and their foolish heart was darkened:—and because they did not like to retain God in their knowledge, God gave them over to a reprobate mind, to do those things that are not convenient.” In the midst of this general apostacy, however, there were some who retained the fear of the true God: among these, Job holds a pre-eminent rank.

* His name Nimrod, *a rebel*, seems to mark him as a *usurper*, who trampled on patriarchal authority.

† The Arabian Cushites formed the great mercantile states of Yemen, Sheba, Saba, Raamah, and Dedan, long famous for commerce.

CALL OF ABRAHAM.

B. C. 1922.

When the light of truth was nearly extinguished among men, the God of glory appeared to Abraham, in Mesopotamia, and, entering into a covenant with him, called him to leave his kindred and the land of his nativity. Not conferring with flesh and blood, the patriarch obeyed; and, under the conduct of his heavenly guide, went to Palestine.

Between this epocha and the Exodus there is an interval of 430 years. This æra is signalized by the war of Chedorlaomer, king of Elam or Persia, and his allies, against the kings of Sodom, Gomorrah, Admah, Zeboim, and Bela; their defeat by Abraham—an event which renders the splendid accounts of the early glory of the first Assyrian monarchy very improbable; the birth of Ishmael; the overthrow of Sodom and Gomorrah, and the cities of the plain, for their abominations and impiety; the birth of Moab; of Ammon; of Isaac; of Jacob; of Jacob's twelve sons; the slavery of Joseph; the descent of Jacob's family to Egypt, to avoid the horrors of a famine; the amazing increase of his posterity; their severe oppression under some of the Egyptian kings; the infliction of the ten plagues on Egypt; institution of the passover; and the signal display of almighty power in the deliverance of the Israelites.

EXODUS OF THE ISRAELITES.

B. C. 1492.

The period between this epocha and the Building of the temple contains 479 years, and is memorable for the giving of the law; the erection of the tabernacle, and the institu-

tion of the Jewish worship; the forty years sojourn of the Israelites in the wilderness; their miraculous passage of the Jordan; their conquest of Canaan; their government under Judges; their frequent apostacy and punishment; the erection of the twelve tribes into a monarchy under Saul; the extension of their borders to the Euphrates, by the conquest of the Hagarenes; and the accession of David's family to the throne.

FOUNDATION OF THE TEMPLE LAID.

B. C. 1013.

426 years intervene between this epocha and the Captivity. This æra had a brilliant commencement under Solomon, the Israelitish state being then in the zenith of her prosperity; but it terminated in an overthrow which the Jews never recovered. During this period the ten tribes revolted from Rehoboam, and constituted themselves a separate kingdom under Jeroboam I. The history of this monarchy is remarkable for the apostacy of all its princes from the worship of the God of their fathers; and presents one tissue of idolatry, tyranny, usurpation, and anarchy.

The Assyrian monarchy was now extending its dominion on every side;* the adjacent states were falling,

* MICHAELIS has shewn, in his Commentary, vol. I. art. 24. that the Assyrian monarchy, in the days of David and Solomon, was by no means that mighty state, which it is represented to have been, by the Greek and Roman writers. It was then confined to the further banks of the Tigris, and, like Mesopotamia, consisted of several petty governments. Between the reigns of Solomon and Hezekiah, these states fell, one after another, before the Assyrian monarchs, Isa. x. 9—11. xxxvii. 11—13. who then came into contact with the Gileadites.

one after another, before its warlike sovereigns ; and, at length, the kingdom of Israel was conquered by Shalmaneser, who carried the people away captive, after it had subsisted as a distinct state 259 years.

The kingdom of Judah remained faithful to the house of David. Many of its princes walked in the fear of God, among whom Abijah, Asa, Jehoshaphat, Jotham, Hezekiah, and Josiah, are conspicuous. They strove vigorously to abolish the idolatry with which the state was deeply infected. But after the death of Josiah, the people gave themselves up to every idolatrous excess and abomination. Therefore, in the reign of Zedekiah, the Lord delivered them into the hands of Nebuchadnezzar, who carried them captive to Babylon. This calamity effectually cured them of their predilection for idolatry.

BABYLONISH CAPTIVITY.

B. C. 587.

From this epocha to the restoration of the Jews is a period of 51 years ; embracing the interval between the 19th year of Nebuchadnezzar, (the 11th year of Zedekiah king of Judah, Jerem. lii. 5. 12.) and the accessiou of Cyrus to the empire of Persia. This latter event was precisely 70 years after the capture of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar, in the 1st year of his reign, (coinciding with the 3rd year of Jehoiakim king of Judah, Dan. i. 1. comp. with ii. 1.) and thus was completed the threatened term of their captivity.

This epocha is memorable for the noble testimony to the faith, borne by Shadrach, Meshach, and Abednego, in Babylon, and their wonderful deliverance ; the sin-

gular punishment of Nebuchadnezzar for his impiety, and his restoration to reason, and to his kingdom; Belshazzar's first vision, representing the four great monarchies, Assyria, Persia, Greece, and Rome;* his second vision, relating to the extent of the Persian empire, its subversion by Alexander king of Macedon, and the partition of the Grecian empire among his chief captains; the fulfilment of the prophecies of Isaiah and Jeremiah, in the capture of Babylon by Cyrus; the persecution of Daniel, by the courtiers of Darius, and his remarkable deliverance; and the memorable predictions of that holy man, relative to the advent and death of the Redeemer, and the perpetuity of his kingdom.

RESTORATION OF THE JEWS, BY CYRUS.†

B. C. 536.

The epocha between this æra and the nativity, embraces—

	B. C.
The erection of the second temple. Completed	516
The government of Judea, as a lieutenancy of Persia, by Ezra and Nehemiah.	

This portion of history, the precise time of which is not known, closes the Old Testament record.

The subjection of the Jews to Alexander the Great 332

* These monarchies are noticed because of the intimate relation of three of them—Assyria, Persia, and Greece, with the Jewish state and church; and because of the relation of Rome, not merely with the Jewish, but also with the Christian church. For the illustration of these prophecies, see Bp. NEWTON's Dissert. the Bp. of CLOGHER's Dissert. and M. ROLLIN's Anc. Hist.

† Ezra i. 4. See p. 42.

	B. C.
The rise of the sect of the Sadducees	292
The sanguinary persecution of the Jews, on account of their religion, by the Seleucides. Begun	176
The noble resistance of the Maccabees to the Syrian tyranny, B. C. 166, and their accession to the regal dignity.	143
The reduction of the Edomites by John Hyrcanus, and their incorporation into the Jewish state . .	129
The capture of Jerusalem by Pompey.	63
The plunder of the temple by Crassus.	54
The union of Herod, son of Antipater, the Idumean, with the Asmonean family, by his marriage with Mariamne, grand-daughter of Hyrcanus	42
<p style="padding-left: 40px;">This prince contrived, with the aid of Marc Antony and Augustus, to get possession of the crown; after which his ambition and jealousy induced him to extirpate the whole of the Asmonean family, his beloved Mariamne and her sons not excepted.</p>	
The rebuilding of the second temple. Commenced	18
<p style="padding-left: 40px;">Some writers consider this structure as a third temple, but the Jews do not allow the opinion. In the prophecy of Haggai ii. 7. it is spoken of as the second temple.</p>	
The birth of the LORD JESUS CHRIST*	5

* The æra of the SAVIOUR'S birth was unknown for chronological purposes until after the beginning of the sixth century, when *Dionysius Exiguus*, "a Scythian by birth, and a Roman abbot, who flourished in the reign of Justinian," brought it into use, and computed it as having occurred A. M. 4004, being the forty-fourth year of the reign of *Augustus*, reckoned from

NATIVITY OF CHRIST.

A. D. I.

From the vulgar computation of the birth of Christ to the Final Dispersion of the Jews, is a period of 135 years. This æra is memorable for the sufferings, death, and resurrection of the adorable REDEEMER; the promulgation of the everlasting gospel; and the dissolution of the Jewish State.

After the ascension of the Lord Jesus, the gospel was first preached to the Jews; and though some thousands received the word gladly, the nation, as a body, not only rejected it, but raised a severe persecution against the infant church, both in Judea and among the Gentiles. Therefore the wrath of God fell upon them, and they were expelled from "the pleasant land," by the arms of Rome.

Nero, the Roman Emperor, having decided a dispute between the Syrians and Jews, who both laid claim to

the assassination of Cæsar, A. M. 3960; although *Eusebius* had placed it in the forty-second, and *Tertullian* in the forty-first year of that prince. This computation, being generally received, is called the *Vulgar*, or *Common Æra*. But some years after its adoption, it was discovered to be erroneous; because *Herod*, who, according to the testimony of *St. Matthew* ii. 1—18. survived the birth of Christ, died, according to *Josephus*, book xvii. cap. 7. in the thirty-fourth year of his reign, A. M. 4000, B. C. 4, computed from the death of *Antigonus*, A. M. 3967, B. C. 37. It was therefore necessary to place the Christian æra anterior to the death of this prince; and hence it was fixed at the close of A. M. 3999, which is the fifth year before the commencement of the vulgar æra; consequently, the preservation of the old computation imposes upon us the singular anomaly, "Christ born A. M. 3999, B. C. 5."—See Dr. CAVERHILL'S Exposition, or Dr. HALES'S Analysis, vol i. p. 188.

Cæserea, in favour of the former, the latter had recourse to arms. **Vespasian** was appointed to conduct the war against them ; but being in the interim raised to the imperial dignity, he confided that trust to his son **Titus**. This prince laid siege to **Jerusalem** at the celebration of the passover, **A. D. 70**, and, after spending five months before it, carried it by storm, and put thousands of the wretched inhabitants to the sword. This was the **FIRST DISPERSION**.

THE SECOND OR FINAL DISPERSION OF THE JEWS. A. D. 135.

After the sacking of **Jerusalem** by **Titus**, great multitudes of the Jews fled to **Galilee**, **Egypt**, and **Lybia**. Impatient of the Roman yoke, the **Lybian Jews**, who were very numerous, rebelled, **A. D. 115**, and so devastated the country that the Romans found it necessary to colonize it anew, after the war was concluded.

In **A. D. 116**, the Jews in **Mesopotamia** likewise flew to arms, and were not reduced without much bloodshed. And about the same time the Jews in **Cyprus** raised an insurrection, and made a horrid massacre of the inhabitants of that island. These attempts, however, desperate as they were, only ended in their own discomfiture, and caused them to be treated with greater rigour by their conquerors ; nevertheless, infatuated to their utter destruction as a people, they were induced within a few years, again to renew the war with the Romans.

Caziba, a leader of banditti, with which **Judea** was grievously infested, finding the Jews ripe for revolt, because of **Adrian's** design to rebuild and colonize **Je-**

Jerusalem with pagans, gave himself out to be the *star* spoken of by Balaam, and invited the Jews to join his standard. He soon found himself at the head of a powerful army, and commenced a war of extermination against both Romans and Christians, A. D. 134. Adrian therefore sent against him Julius Severus, one of the ablest soldiers of the age; who, instead of hazarding a general battle with the fanatics, attacked them in detail, and at length shut up the main body in Bithur, or Bethhoron, a city about twelve miles from Jerusalem. Notwithstanding a vigorous defence, Severus compelled them to surrender, and made such a dreadful carnage of this misguided people, as to extinguish for ever the hopes of re-establishing their monarchy. And to clear Palestine more effectually of its turbulent population, he consigned thousands of them to slavery.—See **UNIVERS. HIST.** book xx. ch. 1.

Since that time Jerusalem has been trodden under foot of the Gentiles, Luke xxi. 24. and the Jews, scattered over the face of the earth, Deut. xxviii. 64, not reckoned among the nations, Numb. xxiii. 9, harassed by persecutions, Deut. xxviii. 64, “an astonishment, a proverb, and a bye word,” v. 87, “without a King and without a sacrifice, and without an image, and without an ephod, and without a teraphim,” Hosea iii. 4, are at once attestations to the truth of prophecy, and most signal monuments of divine displeasure.

In an elementary work, published at the close of the seventeenth century, the *History of the Church of God*

is ingeniously divided into four parts : the Patriarchal, under twenty-two patriarchs ; the Judicial, under twenty-two judges and tyrants ; the Regal, under twenty-two kings ; and the Sacerdotal, under twenty-two ancestors of Jesus Christ. Thus :

<i>Patriarchs.</i>	<i>Judges.*</i>	<i>Kings.</i>	<i>Ancestors.</i>
1 Adam	Moses	Saul	Neri
2 Seth	Joshua	David	Salathiel
3 Enos	Cushan	Solomon	Zorobabel
4 Cainan	Othniel	Rehoboam	Rhesa
5 Mahalaleel	Eglon	Abijam	Joanna
6 Jared	Ehud	Asa	Juda
7 Enoch	Jabin	Jehoshaphat	Joseph
8 Methuselah	†Deborah	Jehoram	Semei
9 Lamech	Midianites	Ahaziah	Mattathias
10 Noah	Gideon	Athaliah	Maath
11 Shem	Abimelech	Joash	Nagge
12 Arphaxad	Tolah	Amaziah	Esli
13 Salah	Jair	Uzziah	Naum
14 Eber	Philist. Ammon.	Jotham	Amos
15 Peleg	Jephthah	Ahaz	Mattathias
16 Ren	Ibzan	Hezekiah	Joseph
17 Serug	Elon	Manasseh	Janna
18 Nahor	Abdon	Amon	Melchi
19 Terah	Philistines	Josiah	Levi
20 Abraham	Sampson	†Jehoiakim	Matthat
21 Isaac	Eli	Jehoiachin	Heli
22 Jacob	Samuel	Zedekiah	Joseph

* The dates are not transcribed because the author assumes the judges and tyrants to have been consecutive, which is not the case. The chronology of this period of Jewish history is confessedly intricate and perplexed; and as it has been already discussed in the tables appended to the Scripture History, a repetition here is unnecessary.

† Shamgar, a judge, and Jehoahaz, a king, are dropt to equalize the numbers.

CHAPTER IV.—SECT. 1.

Ancient History.

ANCIENT PROFANE HISTORY has been divided into the Obscure, Fabulous, and Historical, periods.

By the Obscure period is understood that remote antiquity, of which we have no certain account beyond what is contained in the Mosaic writings ; but in which the colonization and settlement of several nations must have taken place.

The Fabulous period refers to those subsequent ages when history first commenced: and from the hieroglyphic or picture writing then used, and the highly figurative language employed by the bards, the then historians, probably originated that tissue of fiction with which the accounts of those times are so closely interwoven.

The Historical period commences with the re-establishment of the Olympic games, B. C. 776. All previous history is so deeply tainted with the marvellous, that many reject it altogether.

The Jewish Scriptures are the only ancient records that can be depended upon: but, except the valuable fragments relative to the origin of nations, preserved in the book of Genesis, the information is generally restricted to people politically connected with the Israelitish state.*

* “ Ancient history has either been received in gross, or totally rejected, and the art has not yet been discovered of

But deeply involved as early profane history is in uncertainty and fable, historians and chronologers have

separating its ore from its dross ; the fragments of truth from the load of fables which conceal them.

“ The Chronology of the earliest nations is dilated into an enormous and impossible antiquity, while heaven and earth, the sun and the moon, and other equally real personages, live and reign for long astronomical periods, over happy and prosperous nations : and the train of these figurative sovereigns is increased by the artifice of making the contemporaneous kings, who reigned at the same time, in the same country, before it was formed into one empire, follow each other in a long line of successive dynasties.

“ To this chronological list of names, in the oblivion of the real events of history, were appended the traditions current among the vulgar ; narrative too far transformed into fable to be again easily recognised in its just lineaments ; romantic, improbable, or ludicrous, as the wonder, misconception, and buffoonery of the narrative prevailed. Such are the accounts which Herodotus has transmitted respecting the monarchies of Egypt and the East, vague and distorted rumours of past events, preserving, indeed, an air of truth for three or four generations backwards, and then lost in an inextricable labyrinth.

“ The difficulties attending the varying accounts of the elder Cyrus, together with the opportunities of information which the Greeks possessed, and the interest which they had in the affairs of Persia, sufficiently indicate how unsafe a guide Profane History is, when it attempts to follow tradition beyond the limits of a few generations.

“ Amid the obscurity of these fables and inconsistencies, the books of Moses shed a solitary light ; and, independent of the arguments for their inspiration, carry with them internal evidence of their authenticity, and of their containing within their brief notices, all that can be known of the earliest condition of man.”—DOUGLAS'S Advancement of Society.

found it necessary to assign determinate æras to the important events of that period ; and therefore though these æras are generally received, they must be regarded rather as approximations to probability, than as correct computations.

To the obscure and fabulous periods, are assigned B. C.

The colonization of China, about	2104
Commencement of the kingdom of Sicyon, the oldest of the Grecian states, by Egialeus	2089
Foundation of the kingdom of Argos by Inachus	1856
Invention of letters by Memnon the Egyptian . .	1822

Three ancient nations—the Assyrians, Phœnicians, and Egyptians, claim the honour of this discovery ; but to which of them it belongs it is impossible to determine.

Deluge of Ogyges, in Attica	1764
Foundation of Athens by Cecrops and a colony of Saïtes from Egypt	1556
Foundation of the kingdom of Lacedæmon, by Lelex	1516
Establishment of the Council of Areopagus	1507
Deluge of Deucalion, in Thessaly	1503
Establishment of the Council of Amphictyon, in Athens	1497
Introduction of sixteen letters into Greece from Phœnicia, by Cadmus, who founded Thebes . .	1493

There is little doubt that Cadmus and his companions were a colony that left Palestine about the time of Joshua.

Foundation of Troy by Dardanus	1480
--	------

	B. C
Reign of Minos in Crete	1406
Expedition of Jason and the Argonauts to Colchis	1263

This expedition, famous in Grecian story, is deeply involved in fable. The names of some of the principal Argonauts are—Æsculapius, son of Apollo; Ætalides, son of Mercury; Almenus, son of Mars; Augeas, son of Sol; Calais, son of Boreas; Castor and Pollux, and Hercules, sons of Jupiter.

Foundation of Carthage by a colony of Tyrians	1233
Destruction of Troy by the Greeks	1184

Homer has celebrated this event in his well-known poem, the Iliad; so called because it relates to the destruction of Ilium, the citadel of Troy.

Paris, son of Priam, king of Troy, having seduced Helen, queen of Sparta, from her husband Menelaus, carried her with him to Asia. This outrage roused the indignation of the princes of Greece, who not long after appeared in great force before the walls of Troy, and demanded the restoration of Helen. This being refused, they laid siege to the city; and after a war of ten years, in which prodigies of valour were performed on both sides, it fell by stratagem into the hands of its implacable enemies.

Among the Grecian heroes were Agamemnon, king of Mycenæ and Argos; Idomenus, king of Crete; Ajax, son of Telamon; Ulysses, king of Ithaca; Achilles, son of Peleus; Patroclus, his friend; Nestor, king of Pylos and Messina; and Menelaus, king of Sparta. Among the Trojans, were distinguished Sarpedon, a son of Jupiter, by Europa; Glaucus, grandson of Bellerophon, king of Lycia; Memnon, son of

Tithonus and Aurora; Troilus, Paris, Hector, and Deiphobus, sons of Priam; Æneas, son of Anchises and Venus; and Thalestris, queen of the Amazonians. The whole narrative is replete with fiction.

Change of the Theban government to a republic, on the death of Xanthus	B. C.	1128
Abolition of royalty at Athens on the death of Codrus, and establishment of the archonship		1070
Homer, the author of the Iliad, flourished about		907
Legislation of Lycurgus at Sparta		884
Rebellion of Arbaces and Belesis against Sardanapalus, king of Assyria, and subversion of that monarchy. Sardanapalus, having set fire to his palace, perished in the flames.....		820
Commencement of the kingdom of Macedon by Caranus		814

SECTION II.

AUTHENTIC HISTORY dawns with the Olympic Games B. C. 776, between which period and the Nativity, nine epochas are included: the Olympic Games; the Building of Rome; the Reign of Cyrus; the Invasion of Greece; the Seleucides; the Ptolemies; the Punic wars; the Subversion of the Macedonian monarchy; and the Reign of Augustus.

THE OLYMPIC GAMES RE-ESTABLISHED.

B. C. 776.

These games, in honour of Jupiter Olympius, were celebrated at Olympia, a town of Elis, in the beginning

of every series of four years, and continued five days. When, or by whom, first instituted is not certainly known: but after suffering a long interruption they were restored B. C. 884, by Iphitus, king of Elis. After his death their celebration was not much observed until B. C. 776, when they were again revived by Corœbus, of Elis. This is usually termed the First Olympiad.

These games consisted of wrestling, boxing, the pancratium* the discus, leaping, throwing the dart, and foot, chariot, and horse races. The prize was a simple wreath of wild olive and a palm branch, which the victor bore in his right hand. Great honour, however, was attached to his triumph: a herald conducted him through the stadium, proclaiming aloud his name and country; and on returning to his native city, his countrymen met him in a body, and, in a chariot drawn by four horses, preceded by persons bearing lighted torches, conducted him into the city, through a breach made in the wall for the purpose. The New Testament contains many allusions to these customs.†

Besides these games, there were the Pythian, celebrated at Delphi, in honour of Apollo, who slew the serpent Python; the Nemæan, celebrated every two years at Nemæa, a town of Argolis, in commemoration of the slaughter of the lion that haunted the neighbouring forest, by Hercules; the Isthmian, celebrated every

* This word signifies *all the powers*, because hands, feet, teeth, and nails, were employed in this sort of conflict.

† 1 Cor. ix. 24—26. Eph. vi. 12. Heb. xii. 1. 2 Tim. iv. 7, 8. Rev. vii. 9.

four years, at the isthmus of Corinth,* in honour of Neptune. In the Pythian games, the reward was a wreath of laurel; in the Nemæan and Isthmian, a wreath of parsley.

THE BUILDING OF ROME.

B. C. 753.

The origin of this city, enveloped in much obscurity, is usually ascribed to Romulus and Remus, the story of whose birth is mixed with fable. Romulus built† his city on the Palatine Mount, to which in process of time were added the Cœlian mount, the Capitoline mount or Tarpeian rock, (whence state criminals were precipitated;) the Quirinal; the Esquiline; the Aventine or Holy Mount, on which stood several temples; and the Viminal, which abounded in osiers. To these seven hills, three others of minor celebrity were afterwards added—the Hill of Gardens; the Janiculum, on which was a citadel, said to have been built by Janus; and the Vatican mount, once famous for the prophecies there uttered by the Vates or soothsayers, but now celebrated as the site of St. Peter's Church, the Vatican or pope's palace, and the castle of St. Angelo.

* Dr. E. D. CLARKE observes, that coins and medals of every celebrated city in Greece are found here.

† In building cities, the founders usually had recourse to augury, to ascertain the will of the gods. Satisfied on this head, the site of the wall was marked out with a plough; the places for the gates being left untouched. And because the plough was *carried* over them, they were called *portæ*, from *porto*, to carry.

This city, at first very small, peopled with banditti and marauders of every description, gradually assumed an imposing attitude among the petty states by which she was surrounded. Almost every war in which she was engaged brought an accession of territory and power, and at last she became mistress of the Italian peninsula.

Her warlike inhabitants then turned their attention to foreign conquests, and the civil war in Sicily soon gave them a pretext to send troops to that island. This involved them in a struggle with Carthage, which terminated in the utter ruin of that famous republic. After the overthrow of this formidable antagonist, Rome soon attained universal empire.

Between this epocha and that of Cyrus, some of the most memorable events are

The Accession of Nabonassar to the throne of Babylon, and destruction of the annals of his predecessors	B. C. 747
The correction of the calendar, by Numa	709
The erection of Media into a monarchy, by Dejoces	700
The migration of the Messenians to Zancle in Sicily, thence called Messina	671
The combat of the Horatii with the Curiatii	667
The building of Byzantium by a Greek colony ..	658
The usurpation of Periander at Corinth	629
The publication of Draco's laws at Athens	623
The capture of Nineveh by Cyaxares the Mede, and Nabopolassar the Babylonian	606
The circumnavigation of Africa by the Phœnicians, at the request of Necho king of Egypt	604

	B. C.
Solon, Thales, and Anaximander flourished	594
The deposition of Apries, king of Egypt, by Ne- buchadnezzar	571

CYRUS, KING OF PERSIA

B. C. 560.

The Persians, or Elamites, are mentioned in sacred history as early as the days of Abraham ; after which they sink into oblivion, but emerge again during the age of Cyrus. This prince, grandson of Astyages, king of Media, succeeded to the government of Persia and Media, about B. C. 550, and two years afterwards conquered Cræsus, the rich king of Lydia. In B. C. 538, he laid siege to Babylon, which, in the second year, he took by stratagem, while Belshazzar and his nobles were celebrating a festival in honour of their gods.* This event was speedily followed by a decree for the restoration of the Jewish church and state. The death of Cyrus is variously related : according to Xenophon he died a natural death, about B. C. 530 ; but according to Herodotus, he was slain by Tomyris, queen of the Massagetæ, a tribe of Scythians.

The princes that succeeded him were

Cambyses his son, B. C. 530, who annexed Egypt to the empire.

Smerdis, the Magian, B. C. 522, who, pretending to be the brother of Cambyses, was slain by conspirators.

* The circumstances of this capture, minutely detailed by Isaiah and Jeremiah the prophets, and by Daniel, then living in the court of Belshazzar, are beautifully illustrated by M. ROLLIN.

Darius Hystaspes, one of the seven lords who slew Smerdis, B. C. 522. In his reign Babylon revolted, but was again subdued by the stratagem of Zopyrus, a nobleman of Persia; and the Athenians laid the foundation of a deadly feud between the Persians and Grecians, by assisting with their fleet the rebellious Ionians, who burnt Sardis. Darius, intent on revenging this injury, sent into Greece a powerful army, which was completely routed at Marathon, by Miltiades the Athenian, B. C. 490.

Xerxes, his son, B. C. 485. This prince invaded Greece with the largest army that was ever assembled, B. C. 480; but Leonidas arrested the progress of this immense host at Thermopylæ, with a handful of Spartans, who nobly sacrificed themselves to the shrine of freedom. The successive defeats of the Persian forces at Artemisium, Salamis, Platea, and Mycale, delivered Greece from this formidable invasion. After an inglorious reign Xerxes was assassinated.

Artaxerxes I. Longimanus, B. C. 464, at whose court the celebrated Themistocles sought refuge from the ungrateful Athenians. This monarch was compelled by Cimon to make peace with Athens, B. C. 449.

His son, Xerxes II. B. C. 425, was murdered by Sogdianus his brother, after reigning a few weeks: and Sogdianus was slain for his crime by Ochus, another of the sons of Artaxerxes.

Ochus, called Nothus by historians, who assumed the sceptre and the name of Darius, B. C. 423. His reign was disturbed by several revolts in Egypt and Asia.

Artaxerxes II. surnamed Mnemon, because of his

extraordinary memory, B. C. 404. His reign was signalized by the revolt of his brother Cyrus the younger; and the ever-memorable retreat of the TEN THOUSAND Greeks, under Xenophon, from Babylon to Trebisond on the shores of the Black Sea.

Ochus, his son, B. C. 358, who cut off almost every member of the royal family, to secure the throne to himself. He reduced Phœnicia, Egypt, and Cyprus, which had rebelled, to obedience. But abandoning himself to pleasure, he was murdered by Bagoas, an officer of the court.

Arses, his youngest son, was placed on the throne, B. C. 337, by this traitor, who shortly after dispatched him, and elevated to the monarchy Darius Codomanus, a Persian remotely connected with the royal house B. C. 336. This prince punished Bagoas for his crimes; but was scarcely settled on the throne when he was attacked by Alexander, the Macedonian hero. In three pitched battles the strength of his army was broken; and, being shortly after murdered by Bessus, one of his officers, the Persian empire fell into the hands of Alexander, B. C. 331.

In the interval between the Accession of Cyrus and the Invasion of Greece by Darius, B. C.

The tyranny of the Pisistratides was abolished at

Athens	510
Monarchy was abolished at Rome	509
The Persians conquered Thrace and Macedon ..	506
Coriolanus was banished from Rome	491

During this period also flourished Heraclitus, the

philosopher ; Simonides, Thespis, and Anacreon, the poets ; and the celebrated Confucius of China.

INVASION OF GREECE BY DARIUS.

B. C. 490.

The celebrated achievements of the confederated Greeks against the Persians, between this period and the Peloponnesian war, and the celebrated men* who then flourished, constitute this æra the most illustrious in Grecian history.

The battle of Marathon, B. C. 490, those of Thermopylæ,† Artemisium, and Salamis, B. C. 480, and of Plataea and Mycale, B. C. 479, decided the superiority of the Greeks over the Persians. These wars, however, proved ultimately disastrous to Greece. To avenge the burning of Sardis, Xerxes, on his arrival in Attica, had burnt Athens ; which the inhabitants, on the departure of the Persians, immediately began to rebuild. To secure the new city from the recurrence of a like disaster, they surrounded it with strong fortifications. The Spartans, excited by jealousy, laboured to arrest the undertaking,

* Among these were Aristides, Anaxagoras, Aristarchus, Alcibiades, Aristophanes, Æschylus, Charondas, Empedocles, Euripides, Herodotus, Hippocrates, Meton, Pausanias, Socrates, Thucydides, Zaleucus, &c. &c.

† This place is famous as offering the only approach to all the southern states of Greece. It is for the most part one entire bog, between the base of Mount Ceta and the sea, altogether impassable, excepting over a paved causeway, so extremely narrow that a little troop may there maintain its ground against the greatest army the east ever produced. See Dr. E. D. CLARKE'S Travels.

but were frustrated by the policy of Themistocles. Nevertheless this base attempt sowed the first seeds of disunion between these potent republics.

In B. C. 470, Sparta being laid in ruins and her territories devastated by an earthquake, the Helots* attempted the recovery of their freedom. In this dilemma the Athenians, instigated by Cimon, nobly suspended their resentment, and sent them succours. The insurrection, however, was renewed not long after ; and the Athenians again sent a body of troops under the command of Cimon. But the Spartans, too envious to be able to estimate this generous behaviour, not only treated the Athenian soldiers with contempt, but dismissed them under suspicion of treachery. This insult the Athenians never forgave ; and the animosity thus sown strikingly displayed itself in the petty struggles which desolated Greece, and terminated at length in the long and destructive Peloponnesian war.

This contest, which involved all Greece, broke out B. C. 431, during the administration of Pericles at Athens, and lasted twenty-seven years. During its continuance, the Athenians, by the advice of the celebrated Alcibiades, invaded Sicily ; but the expedition proved ruinous : and Athens, notwithstanding many victories, fell into the hands of the Spartans, B. C. 404,

* The aborigines of Lacedemon ; or, at least, the people who possessed the country prior to the Spartan colonies. They were reduced to the most abject state of slavery ; and whenever their numbers became formidable, thousands of them were inhumanly butchered.

In B. C. 401, Athens recovered her liberty, owing to the expulsion of her Spartan tyrants by Thrasybulus. In B. C. 394, she joined the confederated states of Corinth, Argos, and Thebes ; which, corrupted by Persian gold, had coalesced against Sparta. In the following year, Conon, aided by the Persians, rebuilt the walls of Athens, and restored the city to its former splendour. This excited the jealousy of the Spartans ; who basely betrayed the interests of Greece to win the Persian monarch to their cause. In B. C. 382, they seized the citadel of Thebes, and thus nearly completed the subjugation of Greece, of which they were both the betrayers and tyrants. But their preponderance was of short duration.

Their treachery roused Epaminondas, Pelopidas, Charon, Gorgidas, Philidas, Melon, and other Thebans, to avenge their country's wrongs. Falling on the Spartan governors by surprise, they put them to the sword ; and calling the citizens to arms, with the assistance of some troops from Athens and the Bæotian cities, shut up the Spartan garrison, and compelled it to capitulate, B. C. 371.

Repeated skirmishes with the Spartans in the struggle that followed, tended greatly to improve the Thebans in the art of war ; and in the battle of Leuctra, B. C. 371, under the command of Epaminondas and Pelopidas, they defeated an army four times more numerous than their own, and inflicted a mortal wound on the Spartan ascendancy in Greece. In consequence of this victory Epaminondas re-instated the Messenians in those lands

whence the Spartans had expelled their ancestors 287 years before.

About this period a quarrel arising between Perdiccas and Ptolemy, sons of Amyntas II. king of Macedon, relative to the succession, Pelopidas was invited to decide between the brothers. Having settled the dispute, he carried Philip, brother of Perdiccas, and other noble hostages, to Thebes. There he committed him to the care of Epaminondas, from whom Philip acquired that military skill, by which he afterwards rendered Macedonia formidable to all Greece. But the prosperity of Thebes excited the envy of the Athenians, and even of the Persians. This opulent but pusillanimous people, therefore, interfering in Grecian politics, effected by wealth that which they were unable to accomplish by arms; and by promoting dissensions among the Grecian republics, diverted them from any attempts against the Persian empire.

A new war broke out, B. C. 363, in which the Athenians and Spartans, allied against Thebes, were defeated at Mantinea: but the Thebans gained this victory, with the loss of the illustrious Epaminondas.

The tidings of a revolution in Macedonia having reached Philip, then a hostage in Thebes, he left the city privately. Arriving in Macedonia, he took possession of the crown, B. C. 360, but found his country surrounded with enemies on every side—the Illyrians, Peonians, Thracians, and Athenians. But his political cunning and military skill soon rendered him victorious

over his enemies, and formidable to all his neighbours. Ambition soon urged him to conquest; and the Athenians beheld his progress with great anxiety. No sooner had he procured the command of the Grecian armies by intrigue, than the rival states of Thebes and Athens united to oppose him. In vain he attempted to negotiate:* the troops of the allies marched to Chæronea in Bœotia, to determine the quarrel by the sword. But victory decided in favour of Philip, and Greece was prostrated at the feet of the conqueror, B. C. 338.

Philip was then appointed commander-in-chief against the Persians; but in the midst of great preparations to carry on the war, he was assassinated by Pausanias, a young nobleman, to whom he had denied an act of justice, B. C. 336.

Alexander, his son, who had been educated by Aristotle the philosopher, began his reign at twenty years of age; in the same year that Darius Codomanus ascended the throne of Persia. He was immediately involved in war with all the states his father had subdued, and which now sought to recover their freedom. But they were speedily overcome; and his dreadful severity to Thebes, which he destroyed, after selling the inhabitants for slaves, struck terror into all his enemies.

Being shortly after elected generalissimo against the Persians, he carried the war into the enemy's country;

* Philip had a powerful antagonist in Demosthenes, the celebrated orator, whose *philippics* roused the Athenians, though too late, to oppose him.

and in the three pitched battles of Granicus, B. C. 334, Issus, 333, and Arbela, 331, annihilated the military strength of Persia. He then invaded Scythia, and subsequently penetrated as far as India, hitherto imperfectly known to the Greeks. The discontents, however, of the Macedonian soldiers, who saw no probability that the ambition of their leader would ever be satisfied, compelled him to return towards Europe. At Susa he married Statira, the daughter of Darius; and prevailed upon many of his nobles to contract marriages with the families of distinguished Persians, hoping thereby to form a union between the two nations. On his arrival at Babylon, he began to project fresh schemes of conquest; but having surrendered himself to the vice of drinking, he died prematurely, B. C. 323.* He was buried two years afterwards at Alexandria, with great pomp.

Aridæus, his natural brother, succeeded him; under whom the principal officers† held appointments as so many viceroys. The history of the sanguinary struggles, to which the partition of the empire gave rise, is a tissue of

* The character of this prince is not sullied merely by the myriads of human beings sacrificed to his love of glory, (as historians improperly term the ambition of princes) but by the cruelties exercised upon the Tyrians, and the inhabitants of Sogdiana, for defending themselves against his unjust assaults; by the murder of Callisthenes, for refusing to worship him as a god; and by the assassination of his friends, Parmenio and Clitus. He was also, as the Scythian ambassador told him, "the greatest robber upon earth."

† These were Ptolemy, Antipater, Lysimachus, Eumenes, Perdiccas, Seleucus, Antigonus, Cassander, and Laomedon.

treacheries and assassinations ; and during their progress, the mother, wives, children, and brothers of Alexander, fell victims to the ambition of the rival chiefs.

The principal events of history between the invasion of Greece by Darius and the æra of the Seleucidæ, are :

The arrival of Roman deputies at Athens to obtain a copy of the laws of Solon	B. C.	454
The creation of Decemvirs at Rome		451
The creation of Military Tribunes		444
The death of Socrates at Athens		400
The capture and burning of Rome by the Gauls . .		390
The expulsion of Dionysius the younger from Syracuse, by Timoleon		343
The execution of Phocion the Athenian		318
The usurpation of Agathocles in Sicily		317

SELEUCIDÆ.

B. C. 312.

This æra, distinguished by the arrival of Seleucus* at Babylon, is famous in history, being received by all the Orientals, whether Christians, Jews, Mahometans, or Pagans. The Jews call it the Æra of Contracts, because the Seleucidæ compelled them to insert it in their contracts and other civil instruments.

* This prince fell by assassination. "The shades of the mother, the brethren, the wife, and the children of Alexander, seemed to pursue with vengeance these kings, who owed their thrones to their treachery towards his house. Such is the course of human affairs ; and how much more awful would be the lesson offered to our view, if we could penetrate into the souls of tyrants."—VON MÜLLER.

This is the commencement of the Syrian monarchy, although Seleucus did not assume the title of king until some years after. This prince was the most illustrious of his dynasty; being distinguished for his justice, clemency, and extreme popularity. But the atrocious crimes of his successors, and the fatality that attended them, are almost without a parallel in history. Of seven and twenty princes, inclusive of usurpers and claimants of the crown, only two or three died natural deaths. Their licentiousness, tyranny, treachery, and crimes, at length exhausted the patience of their subjects, who transferred their allegiance to Tigranes, prince of Armenia. This monarch governed the kingdom by a viceroy, from B. C. 83 to 69; when Antiochus Asiaticus, a member of the old dynasty, assumed the sceptre, and reigned over part of the country. But Lucullus and Pompey, after having subdued Tigranes, deposed Antiochus, and annexed Syria to the Roman empire, B. C. 65.

PTOLEMIES.**B. C. 301.**

After taking possession of Babylon, Seleucus extended his dominions as far eastward as India. Meanwhile the war between the rival chiefs was carried on with great vigour; but Antigonus, having slain Eumenes, the most skilful of all Alexander's officers, became so powerful, that Cassander, Lysimachus, Ptolemy, and Seleucus, formed a confederacy against him, B. C. 314.

After great vicissitudes, a decisive battle was fought B. C. 301, at Ipsus in Phrygia, between the hostile chiefs. Antigonus commanded his troops in person,

assisted by his son Demetrius,* and Pyrrhus, king of Epirus : but victory declared in favour of the allies, and the veteran chief was left dead on the field.

This was followed by a new partition of the empire. To Ptolemy Lagus were allotted Egypt,† Lybia, Arabia, Cælo-Syria, and Palestine ; to Cassander, Macedonia and Greece ; to Lysimachus, Thrace, Bithynia, and some other Asiatic provinces ; and to Seleucus, all the other parts of Asia as far as India. Thus was Alexander's empire divided into four kingdoms, as predicted by the prophet Daniel, viii. 8.

Lagus, the first prince of this dynasty, founded the famous library and an academy, at Alexandria. His son Philadelphus, B. C. 284, who greatly patronized learning

* Surnamed *Poliorcetes, the taker of cities*: he married Deidamia, sister of Pyrrhus.

† The ancient splendour of Egypt may yet be discovered in her stupendous pyramids, her sphinxes, her magnificent temples, and her royal cemeteries, which, after some thousands of years, still defy the corroding hand of time. Of her early history, except a few incidental notices in the Jewish Scriptures, little is known ; and still less of her literature. Among its ancient princes are distinguished, Menes, usually identified with Misraim ; Osynandyas, whose mausoleum is said to have been encompassed with a golden circle, 365 cubits in circumference, each of which shewed the rising and setting of the heavenly bodies ; Moeris, known by the famous lake which bore his name ; Sesostris, by some identified with Shishak, who took Jerusalem in the reign of Jeroboam ; Cheops and Cephrenes, famous as builders of enormous pyramids ; the shepherd kings ; Necho ; Apries, the Pharaoh Hophra of holy writ ; Amasis, in whose reign Pythagoras visited Egypt ; and Psammenitus, who was conquered and slain by Cambyses.

and the arts, left one hundred thousand volumes to this library. Evergetes, son of Philadelphus, B. C. 247, augmented the collection, for which he borrowed valuable books, but kept the originals and returned only copies of them. The succeeding princes, Philopator, B. C. 221, Epiphanes, 204, Philometer, 180, Physcon, 145, Lathyrus, 117, Alexander, 81, and Auletes, 65, were engaged in a series of civil wars, and domestic dissensions, marked with circumstances of unusual atrocity, which were continued under Cleopatra and her brother Ptolemy, who began to reign jointly B. C. 51.

Cleopatra, having soon after slain Ptolemy, reigned alone; and in the wars which followed the death of Cæsar, espoused the cause of the triumvirs against the conspirators; but having seduced Antony, husband of Octavia, her brother Octavius made war upon them, conquered Egypt, and annexed it to the Roman empire, B. C. 31.

The short interval between the epocha of the Ptolemies, and the first Punic War, is distinguished by

	B. C.
The introduction of painting at Rome by Fabius . .	290
The war between the Romans and Tarentines, in	
which Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, took an active part	281
Among the celebrated characters who flourished during this period, are Euclid, B. C. 300; Epicurus, 296; Zenodotus, the first librarian of Alexandria, 287; and Berosus, the Chaldean historian, 268.	

THE FIRST PUNIC WAR.

B. C. 264.

The defeat of Pyrrhus, one of the greatest captains of his day, and the reduction of the Tarentines, elevated

the Roman state to the dominion of all Italy. But the lust of power, fostered by continued success, made them ambitious of foreign conquests, for which they did not long want either a pretext or an opportunity.

The Carthaginians, or Pœni, (whence, by a corruption, *Punic*) were a colony of Phœnicians,* who sought refuge in Africa from the sword of Joshua. Carthage was founded some centuries after, about B. C. 869, by Dido, sister of Pygmalion, prince of Tyre. The character of its inhabitants, as drawn by the Romans, their implacable enemies, was proverbial for treachery. Their religion was a superstition so sanguinary, that even mothers deemed it meritorious to immolate their infant offspring to Saturn or Moloch. Their government was administered by an annual magistracy of judges in conjunction

* The Phœnicians possessed a small territory on the eastern shores of the Levant, of which the chief places were, Sidon, a very ancient city, and Tyre, one of its colonies, planted before the days of Joshua. Josh. xix. 29. They were a tribe of Canaanites, a people so addicted to commerce, that their name was synonymous with *mercantile men*. But the Phœnicians excelled all the other tribes in arts, manufactures, and navigation. They were the inventors of glass, of paper, of coinage, and, most probably, of letters. They colonized many of the Grecian isles, Bœotia, the north of Africa, and the coasts of Spain: and their enterprize and industry secured to them a monopoly of the commerce of the world. Their ingenuity has been celebrated by classic writers since the days of Homer: but the most imposing account of the nature and extent of their traffic, and of the splendour of their fleets and armies, is given by the prophet Ezekiel, xxvi—xxviii.

with a senate. Possessed of the enterprising spirit of their ancestry, they rose rapidly to wealth and power : but their chief resources were the gold mines in Spain. Their armies were usually composed of hired troops—Numidian cavalry, Balearic slingers, and Spanish, Gaulish, and Grecian infantry. Thus they were enabled to prosecute the most protracted contests without depopulating their own territories. In one or two instances, however, the perfidiousness of the mercenaries placed Carthage in great jeopardy ; and strikingly demonstrated the impolicy of confiding the defence of the state to foreigners. To what extent they cultivated literature cannot now be ascertained.

This enterprising people first turned their arms against their neighbours in Africa : the islands of Sardinia, Majorca, and Minorca, next drew their attention : after a severe struggle they subdued Spain : and, last of all, they invaded Sicily. In this island the Romans were anxious to obtain a footing ; and they soon found an occasion to interfere in its politics. Hiero, king of Syracuse, having a quarrel with the Mamertines, a small independent people of Sicily, sought aid from the Carthaginians ; wherefore the Mamertines, dreading this formidable enemy, had recourse to the Romans. The circumstance was opportune ; Rome eagerly engaged in the struggle ; and thus originated the first Punic war.

The contest began B. C. 264, and lasted twenty-four years, when the Carthaginians relinquished Sicily to the Romans, from whom they received conditions of peace. This disastrous war was followed by the rebellion of

the mercenary troops, which continued upwards of three years, and was quelled with great difficulty, B. C. 238. In B. C. 237, Hamilcar Barca was sent to Spain with an army; and on this occasion he caused his son, the famous Hannibal, then only nine years of age, to swear, on the altar, eternal enmity to the Romans: an oath which he faithfully observed.

Hannibal, the greatest captain of his time, at the age of twenty-five, began the second Punic war, B. C. 219, by the capture of Saguntum in Spain. He then crossed the Pyrenees, traversed Gaul, and, by an extraordinary route over the Alpine mountains, suddenly appeared in Italy. At Ticinium and Trebia, B. C. 218, at Thrasymene, B. C. 217, and at Cannæ, B. C. 216, the Roman armies were successively vanquished by this enterprising soldier; and, but for an envious faction at home, which denied him the necessary succours, Carthage had probably involved Rome in an overthrow similar to that which she herself ultimately experienced from her haughty rival. At length the Romans, grown cautious by defeat, carefully avoided a battle, contenting themselves with harassing the enemy. Years had been spent in this desultory warfare, when Scipio appeared to rescue his country. He attacked the Carthaginians in Spain; and, having defeated them, adopted Hannibal's plan of operations, passed over to Africa, and carried the war to the very gates of Carthage. Hannibal, summoned to the defence of his native city, abandoned Italy with regret, after having maintained himself there sixteen years: and the battle of Zama, B. C. 202, re-established the superiority of the Roman arms.

After this war Carthage rapidly declined ; but in her fallen condition, she was still a terror to the Romans, who lost no opportunity to depress and humble her. About B. C. 151, the city was rent by intestine divisions ; and one of the factions, having sought aid of Massinissa, king of Numidia, and the ally of the Romans, thus gave their implacable enemy the wished for opportunity to renew the war. The Carthaginians, anxious to avoid this, made many extraordinary concessions ; but these, far from satisfying the Romans, only increased their arrogant and unjust demands, and they at last required the demolition of the city, giving the inhabitants the option of building another ten miles from the shore. This proposition drove the Carthaginians to despair, and they nobly resolved rather to bury themselves under the ruins than to submit. Immediately all the wood and metals in the city, (the gold and silver not excepted) were in requisition to build a fleet, and to make into arms. Even the women cut off their hair to make into cordage ; and all classes devoted themselves and substance to preserve their native city. Thus animated, they made a resistance so desperate, that they might have achieved their deliverance, had not a traitor named Phaneas deserted his country. The city at length being taken by storm, B. C. 146, was set on fire by its resolute inhabitants, great numbers of whom cast themselves into the flames ; whilst others, on the graves of their forefathers, and in the temples of the gods, sought refuge in death from the tyranny of the abhorred Romans.

The principal events between the commencement of

the first Punic war, and the overthrow of Perseus, king of Macedon, are :

The commencement of the Parthian empire under Arsaces.....	250
The capture of Syracuse by Marcellus	212
The defeat of Antiochus, king of Syria, by Scipio Asiaticus	189
The death of Philopœmen, of Megalopolis; who, as head of the Achæan confederacy, had greatly signalized himself in the civil wars of Greece	183
The death of the celebrated Hannibal, at the court of Prusias, king of Bithynia. He poisoned himself to avoid falling into the hands of the Romans..	182
Among the famous men who flourished during this æra, are Manetho, the Egyptian historian, B. C. 261; Eratosthenes, librarian of Alexandria, 245; Fabius Pictor, the first Roman historian, 225; and Archagathus, the first Roman physician, 219.	

MACEDONIA CONQUERED BY PAULUS EMILIUS. B. C. 168.

On the partition of the empire of Alexander, B. C. 301, Macedonia and Greece were assigned to Cassander, who had married Thessalonica, one of the sisters of that hero. At his death, B. C. 294, he left three sons—Philip, who succeeded him, but died shortly after; and Antipater, and Alexander, each of whom claimed the crown.

As Thessalonica favoured the views of Alexander, the younger, the unnatural Antipater murdered her with his own hands. Alexander, therefore, called in the aid of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, and of Demetrius Poliorcetes.

These princes, however, were intent on promoting their own ambitious projects: for Pyrrhus seized several cities as a recompense for his services; and Demetrius caused Alexander to be slain, banished Antipater, and took possession of the crown. The death of Antipater, which happened soon afterwards in Thrace, terminated the ancient dynasty of Macedon, and left Demetrius in possession of the throne.

But the ambition of this prince soon induced Ptolemy, Lysimachus, and Seleucus, to form a confederacy against him. They were joined by Pyrrhus, who expelled Demetrius from Macedonia, and assumed the sceptre, *v. c.* 287. Doubting, however, the fidelity of the soldiery, he resigned it to Lysimachus, *v. c.* 286. Demetrius tried in vain to retrieve his desperate fortune; for falling into the hands of Seleucus, he died in confinement. After many vicissitudes, during which the government of Macedon passed successively into the hands of Seleucus, Ceraunus, and Sosthenes, (an enterprising Macedonian nobleman) Antigonus Gonatas, son of Demetrius, found means *v. c.* 276, to seize the crown, which he transmitted to his posterity.

The death of Pyrrhus, at an attack on Argos, *v. c.* 271, freed Antigonus from a dangerous competitor. He then became formidable to the Grecian states, many of which he held in subjection; and in a war with the Spartans and Athenians, he captured Athens, *v. c.* 268, and retained possession of it twelve years.

Not many years after this, a great revolution took place in many of the Grecian states. A confederation

called the Achæan league, had anciently subsisted among twelve of the small cities,* whose inhabitants were celebrated for probity and patriotism. But on the subjection of Greece to Macedon, in the reigns of Philip and Alexander, they lost their freedom; and continued dependant until the reign of Gonatas. About four years, however, before the accession of this monarch, B. C. 280, the inhabitants of Dyma and Patræ revived the Achæan league, expelled their tyrants, and restored their ancient forms of government. Their example was soon imitated by other states; and among the first of these was Sicyon.

This city had long groaned under a tyrannical government, but in B. C. 252, a bloodless revolution, conducted by Aratus, a young citizen, only twenty years of age, restored it to freedom by the expulsion of its tyrants. To secure its liberty, a union with the Achæan states was formed; and a successful war was carried on against Antigonus by Aratus, who was appointed chief of the confederacy.

This prince was succeeded in B. C. 242 by his son Demetrius, with whom the war was still continued. After a reign of ten years, Demetrius left the crown to Philip his infant son: but Antigonus Doseon, his guardian, marrying the queen, assumed the sceptre, B. C. 233.

Meanwhile the Achæan league had become formidable by the accession of all the Peloponnesian states, Elis,

* These were Patræ, Dyma, Pharæ, Leontium, Aegira, Pellene, Aegium, Bura, Ceraunia, Olenus, Tritœa, and Helice, whose union did not equalize them either with Athens, Sparta, or Thebes.

Arcadia, and Sparta, excepted; when an attack made upon Arcadia, by Aratus, involved him in an unfortunate war with Cleomenes, king of Sparta. In this conjuncture, Aratus had recourse to Antigonus Doseon for aid. This was promptly granted; and the war was terminated by the battle of Sellasia, B. C. 222, where the Spartans received an overthrow, which placed their city at the mercy of the conqueror. In B. C. 221, the death of Antigonus consigned the sceptre to Philip, son of Demetrius, then only seventeen years of age. This prince having been partly trained up by Aratus, entertained a great respect for that general; and was induced by him to join the Achæans, in the war of the allies, B. C. 220. After a contest of three years continuance, the Ætolians, and their allies, the Eleans and Spartans, sued for peace, which Philip was not reluctant to grant, having set his heart upon other objects.

The report of Hannibal's victory at Thrasymene, B. C. 217, having made a powerful impression on his mind, he began to thirst for more extended empire. Intoxicated with ambitious projects, he entirely changed his behaviour. His faithful friend Aratus he caused to be poisoned, and gave himself up to flatteries. Believing Hannibal invincible to the Romans, he entered into an alliance with him; but not long after, having attacked the Romans in Epirus, he was shamefully defeated. A partial struggle with the republic was the result of this aggression, but a peace was concluded B. C. 204. Nevertheless, ambition soon prompted him, in connection with Antiochus, king of Syria, to make an attempt on

Egypt, then governed by the infant son of Philopater; but the king's guardians committed their country to the protection of the Romans. He was also unsuccessful in his wars against Attalus, king of Pergamos, and the Rhodians.

About B. C. 201, two young Acarnanians having been murdered at Athens by the populace, for having accidentally entered the temple of Ceres during the celebration of the mysteries, their countrymen sought redress from Philip, who furnished them with a body of troops to ravage the Athenian territories. The Athenians therefore sent a complaint to Rome; and Attalus and the Rhodians having likewise accused Philip, the senate declared war against him, B. C. 200. This contest lasted four years, when Philip, defeated by the consul Flaminus, agreed to a peace.

At the Isthmian games, which were soon after celebrated, the Romans proclaimed liberty to the Greeks; who, for a time, believing themselves really free, rent the air with their acclamations.

The remainder of Philip's reign was rendered irksome by the restrictions imposed by the Romans: nevertheless his restless ambition gave his neighbours great molestation. But his life was chiefly embittered by the treachery of Perseus, his eldest son; who induced him to put to death his brother Demetrius, on a charge of attempting his life, and of cultivating a treasonable correspondence with Rome. The plot, however, was fully developed two years after; and the unhappy father broke his heart, and died B. C. 178, venting the bitterest execrations against Perseus.

Perseus began his reign with preparations for a war with Rome. His first seven years had been thus occupied, when the Romans, fully apprized of his design, anticipated him, by sending an armament against Macedon, B. C. 171. Had Perseus acted with due vigilance and caution, the issue of the war might have tarnished the Roman name. But in B. C. 168 he was decisively overthrown by Paulus Æmilius, to whom he shortly after surrendered himself; and was carried, with all his family to Rome, to grace the triumph of the conqueror. As the Romans now plundered all the countries they subdued by war, Macedonia shared the same fate: and amongst the valuables carried away was a quantity of books, with which was formed the first library at Rome.

THE REIGN OF AUGUSTUS.

B. C. 31.

After the subjection of Macedonia, Carthage was the only state which excited the apprehensions of the Romans; and the utter overthrow of that celebrated republic, B. C. 146, left them without a rival.

In the same year, Corinth was destroyed by the consul Mummius, the Achæan league dissolved, and Greece reduced to a Roman province.* In B. C. 133, the Numantines, a powerful people of Spain, who for eight years had vigorously opposed the Romans, were con-

* A war had broken out, B. C. 147, between the Achæans and the Spartans, in which the Romans were invited to interfere. They gladly seized the opportunity; and the so much boasted liberty of Greece was prostrated for ever.

quered by Scipio: and the will of Attalus, king of Pergamos, transferred his dominions to the Romans.

But the corruption, which wealth and power had generated, now began to manifest itself. The proposal of Tiberius Gracchus, a tribune, to revive the agrarian laws, by which no citizen was allowed to hold more than five hundred acres of conquered lands,* caused a serious tumult at Rome, in which this patriot and three hundred citizens lost their lives. His brother Caius, a tribune also, a man of extraordinary talents, was likewise unsuccessful in a similar attempt; and on his return to a private station, was exposed to a persecution which cost him his life, B. C. 121. The Romans continued successful, however, in their foreign wars, and country after country was annexed to their empire, either by arms, treaties, or the wills of sovereigns; not a few of whom transferred their dominions to the Romans, to secure them from the grasp of ambitious neighbours.

The next important transaction in which the Romans were engaged was the war against Jugurtha; who, having slain his cousins Hiempsal and Adherbal, had seized on the sceptre of Numidia. The senators, bribed by the usurper, were disposed to connive at the treason, but the people compelled them to declare war, B. C. 111. Nevertheless it was prosecuted slowly until Metellus was invested

* It was the custom of the Romans to take for themselves a portion of the lands conquered in Italy: of this, part was sold for the benefit of the state, and the remainder divided among the poorer citizens, who paid a small acknowledgment for it to the treasury.

with the command ; when Marius, his lieutenant, a consummate officer, soon put the war into a favourable train. But envying Metellus the credit of conquering Jugurtha,* which he thought due to himself, he used his influence with his countrymen to secure his own election to the consulate. He then carried on the war with redoubled vigour, drove Jugurtha out of Numidia, followed him to Mauritania, and having defeated Bocchus, his father-in-law, in two great battles, compelled him to deliver up the wretched monarch, B. C. 106. After being led in triumph by the conqueror, Jugurtha was strangled in prison by order of the senate.

A very formidable irruption of the Cimbri and Teutones, about this time, threatened Italy with desolation. On this occasion, the Romans, departing from the established laws, continued Marius in the consulate. He waged a sanguinary warfare against the barbarians, whom, in his fifth consulate, B. C. 101, he subdued, after making a dreadful carnage of them.

But the ambition of Marius was fatal to the republic. His animosity towards Metellus caused him to instigate Saturninus to propose the execution of the agrarian law relative to the lands recently recovered from their enemies. On the adoption of this measure, Metellus went into voluntary banishment ; and in the tumults, which it occasioned, may be traced the germ of the civil war, which afterwards distracted Rome. But its first serious

* It was not an uncommon practice of the consuls, in the corrupt ages of the republic, to protract a war for the purpose of being continued in the command.

consequence was the Social War; so called, because the inhabitants of the Italian states, disappointed of the privileges annexed to the citizenship of Rome, promised them by Drusus, one of the tribunes, as an equivalent for their yielding to the operation of the agrarian laws, made war upon Rome, B. C. 90. The contest lasted about three years; and after a slaughter of more than three hundred thousand men, the senate put an end to the war by granting in part the demands of the allies: an accommodation to which the formidable preparations of Mithridates, king of Pontus, no doubt greatly contributed.

This prince, the sixteenth of his line, ascended the throne of Pontus B. C. 124, at twelve years of age. Having in the early period of his reign corrupted one of the Roman generals, he got possession of Phrygia; his subsequent expulsion from which laid the foundation of his enmity towards the Romans. In B. C. 91 he seized on Cappadocia, whence he was driven the following year by Sylla. He therefore strengthened himself by an alliance with Tigranes, king of Armenia, one of the most powerful sovereigns of the east: and, soon after, attacking the Romans in Asia, obtained three great victories. These were followed by a massacre of all the Romans and Italians in Asia Minor, eighty thousand of whom fell in one day. He then sent a powerful army into Greece under the command of Archelaus, B. C. 87.

As the war with Mithridates was likely to prove very lucrative, owing to the immense wealth of that monarch, Marius wished to conduct it: but, contrarywise, it was

assigned to Sylla, a consul of patrician rank, who had distinguished himself under Marius, in the Numidian war. Marius, nevertheless, by promising to give the freedom of Rome to all the Italians, gained the popular interest, and caused the command of the Asiatic army to be transferred from Sylla to himself. This lighted up the torch of civil discord. Sylla, marching immediately to Rome with six legions, B. C. 87, proscribed Marius and eleven of his adherents, who immediately sought safety by flight. Sylla, now deeming himself secure, marched into Greece against the armies of Mithridates, defeated them in several great battles, and, after compelling Mithridates to sue for peace, B. C. 84, hastened back to Rome.

The departure of Sylla from Rome had been followed by the most tragic scenes. The city fell into the hands of Marius and the consul Cinna, who gratified their revenge on Sylla, by the massacre of great numbers of citizens and distinguished senators, and by the abrogation of all his laws. Marius then caused himself to be declared consul with Cinna; but the hoary murderer survived his election only sixteen days.*

* He died B. C. 86; aged seventy. He was a man of the most daring character, which his physiognomy is said to have strikingly indicated. After his proscription by Sylla, he was apprehended near Minturnæ, whither he was conducted to prison. There a slave was sent to dispatch him: but the stern visage of the Roman, and the exclamation, *Darest thou slay Caius Marius?* uttered in a voice of thunder, so terrified the executioner, that he threw down his dagger and fled. This singular circumstance so influenced the magistrates in his behalf, that they not only set him at liberty, but furnished

Italy, on Sylla's arrival, became the theatre of a civil war. After some sanguinary conflicts, Carbo the consul,* and the younger Marius, were slain; and Sylla, everywhere victorious, entered Rome in triumph, B. C. 82. Having engrossed all power to himself, he trampled on the laws; and after proscribing eighty senators and several thousands of the citizens, gave up his enemies to military execution, and even permitted the soldiers to revenge their private wrongs. Julius Cæsar, nephew to Marius, and son-in-law to Cinna, narrowly escaped the horrid carnage: but Pompey, his future antagonist, distinguished himself among the partizans of Sylla.

Sylla then assumed the dictatorship; but after confiding all the chief offices of state to his own creatures, and exercising uncontrolled power for three years, he resigned his office, offered himself for trial, and then retired to a private life. He died the following year, B. C. 78, of a loathsome distemper.

On the death of Sylla, the civil war, renewed by the partizans of the deceased rivals, continued for five or six years; at the same time the republic was engaged in the Servile War, against forty thousand rebel slaves.† In these conflicts Pompey so signalized himself, that he

him with a vessel to carry him to a place of safety. After being pursued from place to place for some time, he escaped to Cinna, the other consul who had declared in his favour.

* He was beheaded by Pompey.

† They were headed by some gladiators; a class of swordsmen, who fought with each other for the amusement of the Romans.

abridge his power and authority. Cæsar, however, had the foresight to secure the affections of the soldiery, probably to counterbalance Pompey's influence in the senate. When required, therefore, to give up his command, whilst Pompey was still continued in the government of Spain, he refused to comply; expressing his determination never to submit to partial and unjust decisions. The contrary faction, eagerly seizing on this declaration, decreed that Cæsar should either resign his command, or be deemed an enemy to the republic; and their troops were instantly in motion, B. C. 50.

The Rubicon, now the Luso, a little river separating Gaul from Italy, formed the boundary of Cæsar's province. To pass this stream with a hostile army, however small, was an offence of the most detestable kind to Romans, and devoted the offender to the infernal gods, and to the execrations of his countrymen. Cæsar arrived on its banks at daybreak with the thirteenth legion; and, after a short pause, exclaiming, *The die is cast*, he crossed over with his brave followers, and instantly marched to Ariminium, (now Rimini) of which he took possession. This unexpected measure filled Rome with consternation, for the senate had not conceived that with so small an army he would commence so great an enterprize. Cæsar, however, as distinguished for clemency as for decision, used all means to effect an accommodation, but in vain; and, finding Pompey inflexible, he resolved to prosecute the war with vigour.

Pompey, necessitated to fly from Rome, was followed by Cicero, Cato, great numbers of the senators, and mul-

titudes of the citizens. Proceeding to Greece, he there organized a powerful army against Cæsar, whose adherents he treated with the utmost severity whenever they fell into his hands. The contest was, for a short time, doubtful : but the battle of Pharsalia, in Thessaly, B. C. 48, blasted all the hopes of Pompey. He fled for shelter soon after to Egypt, where he was basely assassinated before he reached the shore. After this battle, Cæsar carried his victorious arms over Egypt, Syria, and Pontus, and then returned to Rome. Having rectified the disorders that had taken place in his absence, he proceeded to Africa; and, having defeated Scipio, Petreius, and Cato, the leaders of the Pompeian faction, and their ally, Juba, king of Mauritania,* he again returned to Rome, where he was honoured with four triumphs for his victories in Gaul, Egypt, Pontus, and Africa. He then went into Spain; where, on the plains of Munda, a decisive overthrow for ever ruined the hopes of Pompey's party, B. C. 45, and the victor once more returned to receive the acclamations of his countrymen. Every honour that the most fulsome adulation could devise was heaped upon him: but, alas! he was only crowned for a sacrifice. A formidable conspiracy was organized against him, consisting of sixty senators, among whom Brutus and Cassius, who both owed their lives to Cæsar's clemency, were the chief. Some intimations were given him of the plot, but he disregarded

* Scipio was slain in the fight; Petreius and Juba killed each other; and Cato, admired for his stern virtue and patriotism, slew himself.

them all, saying, "It is better to die than to fear." On the ides of March they suddenly fell upon him in the senate house. Until his eyes encountered Brutus, he bravely defended himself: but shocked by the monstrous ingratitude of the man upon whom he had lavished numerous favours, he exclaimed, "And thou, Brutus!" and covering his head, fell at the base of Pompey's statue, after receiving three and twenty wounds, B. C. 44.

His death re-kindled the flames of civil war, and filled the empire with faction. The senate, Antony, (master of the horse,) and Octavius, Cæsar's sister's grandson, then only eighteen years of age, had all different views to promote. Octavius, at first, joined the senate against Antony, and defeated him; but suspecting the senators, he afterwards made a compact with Antony and Lepidus, B. C. 43. This alliance constituted the second triumvirate, to cement which the blood of friends as well as of enemies was shed; for the inhuman proscription, which included three hundred senators and two thousand knights, embraced Paulus, brother to Lepidus, Lucius, uncle to Antony, and Cicero, the famous orator, and friend of Octavius. All who could effect their escape fled, either to Brutus in Macedonia, or to the younger Pompey in Sicily. But Octavius and Antony having settled affairs at Rome, marched with a strong army against Brutus and Cassius, who, being defeated at Philippi in Macedonia, B. C. 42, fell upon their own swords.*

* Though the assassination of Cæsar cannot be approved, yet Brutus seems to have been solely actuated by zeal for what

After this battle, Octavius returned to Italy with his soldiers, who there committed the greatest atrocities, with the connivance of their general: whilst the younger Pompey, with a large fleet, impeded the navigation of the Mediterranean. The commonwealth, groaning under its oppressors, was soon agitated by new wars. Pompey, however, being at length defeated by Octavius and Lepidus, fled to Antony, who caused him to be put to death, B. C. 35.† Shortly after, Octavius divested Lepidus of his authority, and sent him into banishment. Meanwhile Antony, who had gone to Asia, carried on his conquests there successfully, and would have proved a dangerous rival to Octavius, but falling into the snares of Cleopatra, the infamous queen of Egypt, he gave himself up to the most unbounded licentiousness. His wife Octavia, sister of Octavius, having set out to join him, was not only ordered home, but even repudiated as a preliminary to his marriage with the Egyptian queen. This furnished Octavius with a sufficient pretext for war, which was almost immediately commenced: and a great naval victory, gained over Antony, at Actium, near the gulf of Ambracia, B. C. 31, consigned the

he deemed the cause of liberty. His estimate of the character of Cassius was so great, that he called him "the last of the Romans." It is remarkable that all the murderers of Cæsar came to a violent end.

† This noble Roman met with an ill reward from this base triumvir. On one occasion Antony and Octavius, having ventured, unarmed and without attendants, on board Pompey's ship, he was advised to slay them: but he refused, saying, that *such an act was unworthy the son of Pompey the Great.*

sovereignty of the world to Octavius: for Antony and Cleopatra, being pursued to Egypt by the conqueror, laid violent hands on themselves.

Octavius now became undisputed master of the Roman empire, which embraced Italy, Spain, Gaul, Britain, Greece, Illyria, and part of Germany, in Europe—Asia Minor, Syria, Média, and Armenia, in Asia—and Egypt, Lybia, Numidia, and Mauritania, in Africa. In B. C. 27, the corrupt senate conferred the title of Augustus upon him; they then declared him imperator for ten years; and, finally confirmed his despotism, B. C. 24, by exempting him from the laws.

His future wars against the barbarous tribes of Pannonia, Germany, and Gaul, were conducted principally by his lieutenants; and had for their object the security rather than the extension of the empire. The chief care of Augustus, whose success seems to have annihilated his ferocity, was directed to promote the happiness of his people: and with this design he enacted many salutary laws for the suppression of that licentiousness, which pervaded all classes of the community. Under his patronage and that of his friend and minister Mæcenas, learning was so much promoted, that the Augustan age, distinguished by many celebrated writers, has become proverbial.

But the reign of Augustus is chiefly signalized by the manifestation of the Son of God. At a period when the Gentile nations, not excepting the polite states of Greece and Rome, were plunged into the grossest superstition and idolatry, and practised the most abo-

minable rites as acts of duty in honour of their gods; and when the Jews, who had long been the depositaries of divine truth, had become so profligate and abandoned as to be compared by the Spirit of prophecy to the inhabitants of Sodom and Gomorrah—appeared the Lord Jesus Christ to “put away sin by the sacrifice of himself,” and to “set up a kingdom which shall never be destroyed.”

CHAPTER V.

Modern History.

THE death of Augustus, A. D. 14, consigned the liberties of Rome, for a time, to a race of voluptuous and sanguinary tyrants, whose enormities could never have been tolerated but by a degenerate and corrupt people. The reigns of Tiberius, A. D. 14, Caligula, A. D. 37, Claudius, A. D. 41, Nero, A. D. 54, present a sickening detail of rapine, licentiousness, poisons, and assassinations; in the guilt of which the senate, once the boast of Rome, largely participated. But whilst the empire was thus prostrated, the gospel was extending its influence on every side. The death, resurrection, and ascension of the Son of God, which took place in the reign of Tiberius, about A. D. 33, was speedily followed by the outpouring of the Spirit, and the rapid spread of divine

truth. This success excited the jealousy of those pagans, who, like Demetrius the silversmith, were interested in the continuance of the old superstitions : and the calumnies raised on this account against the christians, to which the rancour of the Jews not a little contributed, furnished a plausible pretext for subjecting them to a violent persecution.

THE PERSECUTION OF THE CHRISTIANS.

A. D. 64.

Nero, in the midst of his extravagant cruelties, caused the city of Rome to be set on fire ; and, to transfer the odium from himself, blamed the christians, whom he subjected to a bloody persecution. Some were crucified ; others wrapt up in the skins of animals and thrown to wild beasts ; and, to make the punishment indicative of the crime, not a few were enveloped in combustible materials and set on fire. The church groaned for four years under this oppression ; but in A. D. 68, the inhuman tyrant was denounced by the senate and slain, in the thirty-second year of his age.

During the second persecution, which began A. D. 95, in the reign of Domitian, St. John was banished to Patmos, in the Archipelago, where he wrote the book of Revelation. The assassination of the tyrant, in the year following, restored a short interval of peace to the church. The third persecution happened under Trajan, A. D. 107, and was continued at intervals under Adrian, and Antoninus Pius : but this prince, shocked at the injustice of such cruelties, denounced capital punishment against those who dared to accuse a christian

merely on account of his religion. Under Aurelius Antoninus, his successor, the fourth persecution commenced, and was carried on with excessive severity until his death, A. D. 180. In this the venerable Polycarp, bishop of Smyrna, and the celebrated Justin Martyr, sealed the truth with their blood.

The fifth persecution occurred under Septimius Severus, A. D. 203; and the sixth under Maximin, A. D. 235. The seventh and most severe, began under Decius, A. D. 249, and was continued by his successors, Gallus and Volusianus. The christians were adjudged to the most painful torments, from which there was no escape but by a compliance with idolatrous rites; and hence there arose a great apostacy. Many individuals, for the sake of peace, withdrew altogether from society; and thus originated the monastic life, which subsequently became so great a nuisance to the church. The eighth persecution was the work of Valerian, A. D. 257, who decreed the banishment of the bishops, and the abolition of assemblies for worship. In the cruel scenes by which it was characterized, Cyprian, bishop of Carthage, Sextus, bishop of Rome, and Laurence, a deacon, received the crown of martyrdom. The ninth persecution happened under Aurelian, A. D. 272, but his intolerant designs were frustrated by his assassination. The tenth and last general persecution was caused by the hostility of Maximian Galerius, who obtained from Dioclesian several decrees against the christians, A. D. 303, 304. These inhuman practices were at last checked by Constantine; who, in A. D. 313, proclaimed a toleration to

the christians, made them eligible to all the offices of state, and, subsequently, adopted their faith.*

On the death of Nero, the last of the family of Augustus, the sceptre was successively wielded by Galba, Otho, and Vitellius, who severally forfeited their lives for assuming the purple, with which Vespasian was ultimately invested, A. D. 69. This prince transmitted the empire to Titus, A. D. 79, and from him it passed to Domitian, his brother, A. D. 81. Though not of the family of Augustus, he is usually known as the last of the twelve Cæsars:† he was one of the most sanguinary tyrants that ever filled a throne, and was at length slain for his crimes, A. D. 96. To him succeeded Nerva, and, in succession, Trajan, Adrian, Antoninus Pius, Marcus Aurelius, Antoninus the philosopher, and Commodus. On the death of the latter, A. D. 192, a profligate soldiery began to interfere in the election of the emperors; whilst numerous aspirants to the government prepared to prosecute their claims with the sword. Septimius Severus, the successful candidate, undertook an expedition to Britain, A. D. 207, and having driven the Caledonians into the north, built a wall across the country from the Frith of Forth, to prevent their future aggressions. Dying at York, A. D. 211, he was succeeded by Caracalla, who in A. D. 217, was slain by the guards. From this period the emperors were, to a great extent, the mere creatures of the soldiery; and the whole of the third

* For particulars of the persecutions under the emperors, see MOSHEIM's and MILNER's Ecclesiastical Histories.

† See their Lives by Suetonius.

century is characterized by the usurpations of military adventurers, and the assassinations committed by the Prætorian bands.*

After the middle of the third century, the Persians under Saporess, assumed a very formidable attitude; and the Scythians, Goths, Franks, Heruli, and Germans began their inroads upon the empire. In A. D. 260, the emperor Valerian was defeated by Saporess, king of Persia, and being taken prisoner died in captivity. During the troubles by which the empire was then distracted, Odenatus, one of nineteen usurpers, who aspired to power, erected Palmyra into a very flourishing kingdom, A. D. 264. Odenatus soon after defeated the warlike Saporess; but his kingdom was not of long duration. In A. D. 273, the emperor Aurelian defeated Zenobia,† his widow, and put an end to the infant

* The following are the Roman emperors from Caracalla to Dioclesian, those slain by the soldiery being distinguished with an asterisk.

* Macrinus .. 217	* Philip 244	Aurelian .. 270
* Heliogabalus 218	Decius 249	Tacitus 275
* Alexander.. 222	* Gallus .. } 251	* Probus 276
* Maximin .. 235	* Volusianus } 251	Carus..... 282
* Papienus } 238	Valerian .. 253	* Numerian } 282
* Balbinus } 238	* Gallienus .. 259	* Carinus.. } 282
* Gordian ... 238	Claudius II. 268	‡ Dioclesian.. 284

† Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, was an extraordinary character. She was remarkable for her learning, her courage, and her beauty: she had selected for minister the celebrated philosopher Longinus: and, on account of his talents, married Odenatus.

‡ In 286, this prince associated Maximianus in the empire: and the two Cæsars at that time were Constantius Chlorus and Maximianus Gallerius.

monarchy. Almost all the subsequent wars of Rome were undertaken against the barbarian hordes who attacked the empire on every side. In 291, the emperors Dioclesian and Maximianus, and the Cæsars, Constantius Chlorus and Maximianus Galerius, took the field in different parts of the empire, and gained several victories over the Franks, Carpathians, Alemanni, and other warlike tribes.

The principal events occurring between the first persecution under Nero, and the toleration of Christianity by Constantine, are :

	A. D.
An eruption of mount Vesuvius, which overwhelmed the cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii	79
The administration of Julius Agricola in Britain ..	82
The payment of tribute to the Goths by Heliogabalus, to divert them from invading the empire	222
The erection of the new kingdom of Persia under Artaxerxes, a military adventurer; who, three years after, conquers Parthia, and terminates the dynasty of the Arsacides	229

CONSTANTINE TOLERATES THE CHRISTIANS.

A. D. 313.

In A. D. 304, Dioclesian and Maximian resigned the cares of state, and were succeeded by Constantius Chlorus and Maximian Galerius. The death of the former at York, 306, consigned his share of the administration to his son Constantine the Great. This prince had to struggle with several competitors for the empire, but was ultimately successful. In 313, he put an end to the persecutions of the Christians; and becoming sole

emperor 325, he transferred the seat of government to Byzantium, the name of which was changed to Constantinople. Dying in A. D. 337, the empire was divided between his sons Constantine, Constans, and Constantius; the last of whom, surviving his brothers, became sovereign of the whole. In 355, he created Julian, his cousin, Cæsar; but this prince being greatly beloved by the soldiery, whom he had often led to victory, was by them saluted Augustus A. D. 360. He bore his elevation with great modesty; but all his concessions failed to propitiate Constantius, who prepared to attack him. The death of the emperor, however, made Julian sole master of the empire, A. D. 361. This prince is usually distinguished among the Roman emperors as the *apostate*; because he threw aside the profession of Christianity, and became the abettor and protector of idolatry. Being slain A. D. 363, when fighting against the Persians, the caprice of the soldiery confided the duties of the empire to Jovian, one of his domestics: but his death, which speedily followed, enabled them to elect another sovereign in the person of Valentinian, the son of a Roman general. This prince, reserving the western empire to himself, committed the eastern to his brother Valens. To these princes succeeded Gratian, son of Valentinian, who A. D. 379 raised to a participation of the imperial dignity, Theodosius the great, a Spaniard by birth, and son of a Roman general of the same name. But the death of Gratian and his brother Valentinian a few years after, through treachery, transferred the whole empire to Theodosius, A. D. 394.

On the death of Theodosius A. D. 395, the last division of the empire took place; the East being assigned to Arcadius, and the West to Honorius. But from this period to the close of the imperial government of Rome under Augustulus, history presents little else than a series of tremendous conflicts between the imperial armies and the barbarian hordes, who burst like an impetuous torrent upon the empire. These tribes were endowed with courage of the most ferocious kind; and many of them had fought under the imperial banners. Long trained in the demoralizing practices of war, whilst fighting as mercenaries for Rome, they were well prepared to retort upon her the injuries she had inflicted upon the human race. A feeling of jealousy which arose between Rufinus and Stilicho, the former guardian and counsellor to Arcadius, the latter to Honorius, greatly accelerated the career of these savages: for Alaric the Visigoth,* instigated by the treacherous Rufinus, invaded the eastern empire with a formidable host, A. D. 396, and overran Pannonia, Macedonia, Greece, and Peloponnesus. Thither Stilicho followed them; Arcadius, however, not only forbade his interference, but even took the Goths into his service. In A. D. 400 Alaric invaded Italy, and carried off many thousands of captives. This success produced another irruption in 403, but Stilicho defeated the barbarian and compelled him to retire. In 405, Radagaisus penetrated into Italy, with two hundred thousand Scythians; and again the talents of

* The Visigoths were the western, and the Ostrogoths the eastern Goths.

Stilicho saved the empire. But notwithstanding these extraordinary services, Stilicho, accused by his enemies of treasonable correspondence with Alaric, was beheaded by his ungrateful master and son-in-law Honorius, A. D. 408: and, by the orders of Olympius, his successor, the wives and children, whom the barbarians employed by Stilicho had left in Italy, were inhumanly massacred. Roused to madness by so horrible a procedure, they instantly placed themselves under the brave Alaric, and laid siege to Rome. Cut off from all succours, the luxurious inhabitants suffered the most dreadful privations; and the city, falling at last into the hands of the enemy, A. D. 410, was given up to pillage. For six days the wealth of many nations, here concentrated, occupied the ravagers; who, having seized whatever they thought valuable, evacuated the city, after setting fire to many of its splendid edifices.

Several new kingdoms were founded about this time: by the Vandals, Alains, and Suevi, in Spain, A. D. 412, whither they had been invited by Stilicho; by the Burgundians in Alsace, 413; by the Visigoths at Thoulouse, 414; and by the Franks on the Lower Rhine, under Pharamond, 420: and six years after, the Romans, unable to defend so distant a country, bade adieu to the island of Britain.

Whilst the empire, governed by weak princes, and distracted by perpetual usurpations, was rapidly going to decay, the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarian tribes, were making a fearful progress. Not only were their armies inadequately opposed for want of means;

but they were occasionally invited to take a part in the disputes and jealousies which arose between the emperors and their rebellious generals. In this manner Genseric entered Africa with his Vandals, A. D. 427, and there succeeded in erecting a kingdom : about the same time also Attila, prince of the Huns, surnamed **THE SCOURGE OF GOD**, spread desolation over both empires ; and, notwithstanding some severe defeats, he continued formidable until his death, A. D. 454, when the dominion of the Huns, owing to a want of union among the chiefs, was altogether dissolved.

In A. D. 455, Genseric, invited by the empress Eudoxia to avenge upon Petronius Maximus, then emperor, the murder of her husband Valentinian, invaded Italy with a powerful army, pillaged Rome, and carried the empress and her daughters into captivity. After this, Rome and Italy became a prey to every military adventurer, who could enforce his claims with the sword. Among these, Ricimer, a nobleman descended from the Suevi, acted a very conspicuous part, and for some time made and unmade emperors at pleasure : for the empire at this period was full of foreign mercenaries who were ready to sell their services to the highest bidder. The death of this chieftain, 472, again placed the imperial dignity at stake ; and after passing rapidly through the hands of Glycerius, and Nepos, the soldiery at length tendered it to their general Orestes, who declined it in favour of his son Augustus. For this service, however, the mercenaries demanded one third part of the lands in Italy ; and the refusal given by Orestes was im-

followed by his execution, A. D. 476. The
 men saluted Odoacer, prince of the Heruli,
 title of emperor : this, however, he refused ;
 pted the administration of the affairs of Italy,
 e title of king, and chose Ravenna for the seat
 iment.

SUBVERTS THE WESTERN EMPIRE.

A. D. 476.

er, on being invested with the government, dis-
 ugustus into Campania with a princely annuity.
 ed in many respects to the prejudices of his
 subjects : but was compelled by a licentious
 o assign them one third of the lands in Italy ;
 sion which entailed distress upon the whole .
 . After reigning sixteen years, Odoacer was
 assassinated at a banquet, A. D. 493, by Theodoric,
 he Ostrogoths.

his period to the Hegira, the page of history
 a field of blood ; occasioned by the convulsed
 he nations which formerly constituted part of
 n empire, and by the devastations committed
 ads of barbarians ; who, bursting like an
 s torrent from the northern parts of Europe
 sought to secure a settlement in milder climes,
 point of the sword. Among these the Franks,
 aracens, Vandals, Goths, Huns, and Slavonians,
 ery prominent part. The former succeeded in
 ng themselves in Gaul, by the battle of Soissons,
 : and after many sanguinary conflicts, the

Saxons obtained possession of nearly the whole of South Britain.*

With all these warlike tribes Rome was engaged from time to time in active warfare. Under Justinian,† the imperial armies were for a time successful: Belisarius, his general, captured Carthage A. D. 534, and put an end to the kingdom of the Vandals; in 536, he took Rome from the Ostrogoths; and in 540, captured Ravenna, and took Vitiges, the Gothic prince, prisoner. But being recalled to the east, Totila, the newly elected prince of the Ostrogoths, retrieved their affairs in Italy, laid siege to Rome, and having captured it in 547, pillaged it for several days, and expelled the whole of the inhabitants. Justinian then dispatched an army against them under Narses, who defeated and slew Totila, A. D. 553. This warlike race then raised Teia, another general, to the throne; but the valour and dexterity of Narses rendered all their efforts abortive. At Nocera, a desperate conflict, of three days continuance, decided the fate of the Gothic empire, which fell beneath the

* The kingdom of Kent began under Hengist, A. D. 455; Sussex, under Ella, 491; Wessex, under Cerdic, 519; Essex, under Erchenwin, 527; Northumberland, under Ida, 547; East Anglia, under Uffa, 575; and Mercia, under Crida, 582. These kingdoms constituted *the Heptarchy*; but there were other Saxon principalities, though of minor import.—See TURNER'S Anglo-Saxon History.

† This prince is justly celebrated for his *pandect*, or collection of Roman laws, called *Codex Justinianus*, which was published A. D. 529. A copy of this work was found in the ruins of Amalfi, A. D. 1137.

power of the Roman arms, A. D. 554, after having existed only seventy-eight years.

Justinian then confided the government of Italy to Narses, as a viceroy : but in A. D. 569, Justin II. sent Longinus, whom he invested with absolute power, to supersede him. This governor effected a total change in the Italian states, by abolishing the ancient magistracies, and raising every important city to a dukedom. Rome itself experienced this revolution, and submitted to the government of a duke : but Ravenna being chosen by Longinus, (who assumed the title of Exarch,) for his own residence, was distinguished by the name of the Exarchate ; and continued under this form of government until 752, when it fell into the possession of the Lombards.

These people, whose origin is wrapt in obscurity, had been permitted by Justinian to settle in Pannonia. Subsequently they fought as mercenaries in the imperial armies ; and their valour contributed, in no small degree, to the overthrow of the dominion of the Goths. Narses, under whom they had served, had by generous treatment secured their fidelity. When, therefore, he had been accused to Justin II. of designs upon the government of Italy, and consequently disgraced, he sent to Alboin, their then king, an embassy, inviting him to the peninsula, A. D. 568. The Lombard chief hailed the opportunity ; and, entering Italy with the entire mass of his subjects, founded the kingdom of Lombardy. This monarchy subsisted two hundred and six years. The ambition of its princes having at length

alarmed the papal court, Adrian I. confided the protection of the Holy See to Charlemagne. This warlike sovereign, therefore, made war upon Didier, (or Disiderius) A. D. 773, and having defeated him, shut him up in Pavia. With the capture of this city, in the following year, ended the kingdom of Lombardy; and Didier was sent to Rome, where he died in captivity.

The invasion of the Lombards caused thousands of Italians to seek shelter in the islands of the Adriatic. These refugees, uniting with others, who had fled thither from time to time to escape the calamities that followed the subversion of the western empire, formed themselves at length into a republic. At first they acknowledged subjection to Padua; but ultimately declared themselves independent, and A. D. 709, elected a doge, or governor. Such was the origin of the Venetian republic.

The most important facts of general history during this æra are :

	A. D.
The introduction of silk into Europe by monks ..	551
The subversion of the kingdom of the Suevi in Spain, by the Visigoths	583
The mission of Augustin and forty monks to England, to preach the gospel to the Saxon princes	597
The invasion of the eastern empire by the Persians	614
The banishment of the Jews from Spain and France	616

HEGIRA, OR FLIGHT OF MAHOMET.

A. D. 622.

Mahomet, descended from the most considerable family of the Korashites, the noblest of the Arabian tribes, was born A. D. 568. Losing his parents in early

life, he found an asylum in the house of Abdol Motallab his grandfather ; but death depriving him of this friend also, before he was nine years of age, his uncle Abu Taleb, an Arabian merchant, took him, and trained him up to his own business. At twenty-five years of age, however, the death of this uncle compelled him to seek another situation. Opportunely for him, Cadigha, a merchant's widow, being left with a great stock of merchandize, engaged Mahomet on liberal terms to undertake its disposal. Being subsequently much pleased with his conduct, she married him at the end of three years. Mahomet becoming thus possessed of considerable wealth, formed the design of raising himself to the sovereignty of his country, and for this purpose devised a very extraordinary plan.

His countrymen, at that time addicted to idolatry, worshipped Allah, Menah, and Al Uzza, believing them to be the daughters of God. The christian church was divided into a variety of sects, all of them furiously opposed to each other, and all hostile to the Jews. This state of things attracted the attention of Mahomet; and he conceived the design of forming a religious system accommodated to all classes of the community, whether Jews, Christians, or Pagans, who were desirous of combining the utmost license in sensual gratifications with the hopes of future reward. He therefore engaged Ben Salon, a renegade Jew, and Bahira, an excommunicated monk, with whose assistance he composed the Koran ; a work abounding in the grossest absurdity, but occasionally

enjoining moral duties, and exhibiting a few facts from Mosaic history.

In his thirty-eighth year, A. D. 606, he began to retire every morning to a cave in the neighbourhood of Mecca, in which place he pretended to receive communications from God. In 608, he began to practise on the credulity of his friends, to whose circle his opinions were confined for several years. His first attempt to enlarge the number of his disciples unsheathed the sword of justice against him, and he narrowly escaped punishment through the influence of powerful relatives. But an unexpected circumstance gave a favourable turn to his affairs.

The heretical christians in Medina having quarrelled with the resident Jews, a great number of the disputants repaired to Mahomet, then at Mecca, and professed themselves converts to his opinions. From these he selected TWELVE; and, having given them the necessary instructions, sent them as missionaries to Medina. There his doctrines made a rapid progress; and, at length, the impostor, whose life was every moment in jeopardy, fled from Mecca, September 13, A. D. 622, and took refuge with his disciples in the former city. Omar, the third caliph, appointed this to be the grand epocha for the calculations of all Mahometans.

At Medina, Mahomet decreed the propagation of his doctrine by the sword. He first began by plundering the caravans that traded from Mecca to the neighbouring countries; and having thus excited the cupidity of his followers, they were soon in a condition to prosecute a system of robbery and murder on an extended scale.

The Arab tribes were attacked one after another, and successively compelled to embrace his doctrine* and to receive him as a prophet sent from God. But he did not long enjoy the fruit of his crimes; for he died A. D. 632, in consequence of poison taken three years before.†

In the reign of Abu Beker, one of the fathers-in-law of Mahomet, the career of Saracenic conquest began by the invasion of Syria and Persia. The fury of the Saracens was irresistible; and no armies, however superior in numbers, could withstand them. Under Omar,‡ another of the fathers-in-law of Mahomet, who succeeded to the caliphate, A. D. 634, Syria and Egypt|| were wrested from the Greek empire; and under Othman, secretary to Mahomet, who became caliph A. D. 644, they overran Africa, the islands of Cyprus and Rhodes, and, by the defeat of Yezdegird,§ obtained possession of Persia. In 655, Othman was succeeded by Ali, husband of Fatima, the only surviving child of the prophet. As Mahomet had made no arrangement for the succession, the sovereignty soon became the object of the ambitious chiefs. Moawiyah, of the house of Ommiyah, was the

* This superstition is called *islamism*, i. e. *salvation*; and a believer in it, a *musleman*.

† See PRIDEAUX's *Life of Mahomet*.

‡ The temple at Jerusalem was turned into a mosque by this caliph.

|| Alexandria was taken A. D. 640, by Amrou, the Saracen general, who consigned its famous library to the flames.—See OCKLEY's *Hist. of the Saracens*.

§ This prince, grandson of Chosroes, and the last of his dynasty, was betrayed and murdered by his Turkish auxiliaries.

first successful adventurer: he assumed the title of caliph, established himself in Syria, and on Ali's death, 660, succeeded to the entire sovereignty, which in 680, he transmitted to his son, Yezid I. On the death of Yezid, 684, a civil war transferred the sceptre to Merwan, a chief of the same faction. He was succeeded by Abdalmalec, his son; who, after quelling several insurrections, invaded Northern Africa, which ultimately yielded to the Saracen yoke. In 710 the Saracens passed the Oxus, defeated the Turks, and subdued the country. In 711, in the reign of Walid, son of Abdalmalec, they were invited to Spain by Count Julian, a malecontent nobleman. Tarik, a daring soldier, led the first Saracen band over the strait that separates Africa from Europe, and landed on the point that still bears his name—*Gibraltar*, a corruption of *gibel et Tarik*, the Mount of Tarik. The battle of Xeres, near Cadiz, decided the fate of the Gothic monarchy: and Roderic, the king, flying from the field, was drowned in the Guadalquiver. Musa, the Saracen commander-in-chief, following Tarik with large reinforcements, the Andalusian province submitted to the victors. The Jews were freed from the persecutions to which they had been exposed; whilst the other inhabitants, according to the custom of the Moslems, were subjected to tribute. In 731, during the reign of Hashem, the Saracens of Spain penetrated into France; but the valour of Charles Martel interposed an insurmountable barrier to their progress. Between Tours and Poitiers he gave them a decisive overthrow: and they were subsequently compelled to retire beyond the Pyrenees.

On the death of Hashem, 743, the sceptre passed rapidly through the hands of Walid II. Yezid III. and Ibrahim, to Merwan. But in 749, Abul Abbas drove Merwan from the throne to Egypt, where he was soon after taken and slain. The house of Ommiyah was almost extirpated by the conqueror; but Abdalrahman, grandson of Hashem, escaping to Spain, erected there an independent monarchy.

The sceptre remained under the dynasty of the Abbasides until the subversion of the caliphate by the Turks, A. D. 1258. The most illustrious of its princes were Almansor, 754, by whom the magnificent city of Bagdad was built; Al Mohdi, 775, notorious for his immense wealth and extreme prodigality, and in whose reign Al Mokannah, the veiled prophet of Khorasan, attempted his imposture; Haroun *al raschid*, or *the just*, 786, who compelled Nicephorus, the Greek emperor, to pay tribute; and Al Mamon, 813, justly celebrated for his patronage of letters. This prince employed agents in Armenia, Syria, and Egypt, to collect the scattered literature of Greece, which he caused to be translated into the Arabian tongue, for the benefit of his subjects. Under this munificent monarch and some of his successors, learning flourished greatly: nor was it confined to this dynasty; for the Ommiades in Spain gave such encouragement to the erection of libraries and schools, that their kingdom became the seat of the sciences and arts.

The Saracenic empire was in its zenith in the reign of Al Mamon. Motassem, his brother, succeeded him in 833. This prince, from several curious coincidences,

was denominated the *eighth*. He was the *eighth* of his dynasty; reigned *eight* years, *eight* months, *eight* days; fought *eight* battles; and at his death left *eight* sons, *eight* daughters, *eight* thousand slaves, and *eight* millions of gold. In his reign, a great number of Turkish* troops

* This extraordinary race, in very remote times, were in slavery to the Khans of the Geougens, a nation in Tartary; and were employed in smelting iron (with which Siberia abounds) and in the manufacture of arms. Becoming conscious of their own strength and importance, they shook off the yoke, defeated their former master in a decisive conflict, and established themselves in Tartary. Their empire was for a time the terror of all the adjacent nations; but about A. D. 93, was almost extinguished by the Chinese. On the subsequent revival of their dominion, their history is closely blended with that of the Avars, with whom they carried on a sanguinary warfare. The march of a large body of this people, who fled from the victorious Turks, 558, shewed their conquerors the way to Europe, whither they tracked them from the Jaik, the Volga, Mount Caucasus, and the Black Sea. In 569, their ambassadors from the regions eastward of the Caspian, appeared in the capital of the eastern empire, and were received as allies by the emperor Justin II. In 626, in the reign of Heraclius, they sent a powerful armament against Chosroes, the warlike prince of Persia, to create a diversion in favour of the emperor. But in the next century they felt the arms of the warlike Saracens; who, having seized on Persia, soon carried their arms against their valiant neighbours: and the slavery of great multitudes of the Turkish youth under the caliphs attests the superiority of the followers of the prophet. The young captives were carefully educated in the Mahometan faith, and trained to military pursuits; but soon after the reign of Motassem, who imprudently brought fifty thousand of them into his capital, they became mutinous; and, like the prætorian bands at Rome, disposed of the empire at pleasure.

were employed in the Saracen armies ; and from them the royal guards were selected—a measure which greatly contributed to hasten the downfall of the empire.

Al Radi, A. D. 934, was the last of the caliphs who preached publicly in the mosque, disposed of the revenues, and commanded the army. He owed his elevation to the Turkish guards, by whom Al Kaher, his predecessor, had been deposed and sent to prison, after being deprived of sight. The reins of government were now in the hands of the Emir-al-omra, the prime minister ; who, like the mayor of the palace in France under the Merovingian kings, soon engrossed all authority to himself. The dominion of the caliphs scarcely extended beyond Bagdad : their empire having been successively stripped of Arabian and Persian Irak, Mesopotamia, part of Syria, Egypt, and the western parts of Africa. Their subsequent history, for nearly a century, is replete with the crimes of the Turkish soldiery, and the Emirs : but Al Cayem, who assumed the sceptre, A. D. 1031, invited Togrul Bek, a Turkish chief of the Seljukian dynasty, and then sultan of Persia, to his aid ; and was soon placed by him in a situation to command the respect of his enemies. For these important services the Turk received Al Cayem's daughter in marriage.

Al Cayem was followed by Al Muktadi, A. D. 1075 ; by Al Mostadher, 1094 ; and by Al Mostarshed, 1118. Under this caliph, and Al Moktafi, his brother, who ascended the throne 1136, the Saracen fame was for a time revived. These princes held the reins of government in their own hands, and recovered from the Seljukian

Turks nearly the whole of Persia and Arabia. Under Al Mostanged, 1160, appeared Saladin, who first distinguished himself against the European troops in Egypt; which country, soon after the accession of Al Mostadi, 1170, he restored to the Abbasides. This celebrated warrior was constituted Emir by Al Naser, who succeeded to the empire 1180; and his exploits in Palestine, against Richard I. of England, have made his name famous. Al Naser was followed by Al Dhaher A. D. 1225, by Al Mostanser 1226, and by Al Mostassem, 1242. Sixteen years terminated the inglorious reign of this pusillanimous prince, and with it the government of Bagdad. For in 1258, Holagou, one of the Mogul chiefs, grandson of Zingis Khan, having conquered Persia, advanced towards Bagdad; which, after a siege of two months, he captured and surrendered to pillage. In the death of the caliph, who was dragged through the streets in a leathern sack, ended the house of the Abbasides, after having filled the throne five hundred and nine years.

The ramifications of Saracenic history are numerous, and intermingle with the history of almost all the nations between the Ganges and the Atlantic. Had not the followers of the prophet become enervated by luxury, and their power been divided by ambitious chieftains, their arms would have been fatal to Europe. But in the reign of Haroun al Raschid, the structure formed by religious fanaticism began to crumble to dust. Yet at that time they were truly formidable: in A. D. 823, a band of Spanish adventurers seized Crete, since called Candia;

and in 827, the solicitation of a refugee, whom the Greek emperor condemned to lose his tongue for enticing a nun from her cloister, brought over an armament from Africa to Sicily, which they captured after a war of fifty years continuance. During this period they ravaged the coasts of Italy, and marched even to Rome itself, which, in 849, owed its preservation to pope Leo IV. Early in the ninth century, the Edrissites in Africa established an independent state at Fez, which they built: and the Aglabites erected another, of which Tunis became the capital. In 908, these states yielded to the Fatimites, or descendants of Fatima, daughter of Mahomet, who conquered Egypt also. Moez, a sultan of this dynasty, built Alkahira, or Grand Cairo, in 972, and wrested Syria from the caliphs. For two hundred years the Fatimites reigned from the Euphrates to Tunis: but in 1171, they were conquered by Saladin, who restored Egypt to the caliphate.

Of other dynasties, which held a short-lived dominion on the African shores, the Marobeths, a new sect of Mahometans, are conspicuous as the founders of the empire of Morocco, whose capital was built by Yussuf, 1069. These gave place in the next century to the Mowaheddins; and the latter, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, to the Abuhafidæ at Tunis, and to the Merinides at Morocco. Their subsequent history is deeply involved with that of Spain. After numerous vicissitudes, the same fanaticism, that had produced so many revolutions, proved fatal to the Merinides; the representative of whose house was murdered to seat Hamet, the founder of the

present dynasty on the throne. Tunis submitted to the Turks 1571.

The principal events of history between the Hegira and the Coronation of Charlemagne, by Leo, are : A. D.

The introduction of painting, glazing, and masonry into England by Bennet, a monk, preceptor of the venerable Bede	663
The rise of the kingdoms of Leon and Asturias..	718

The Asturian mountains were the cradle of the Spanish monarchy. Thither, under Pelagius, a distinguished warrior, fled a few valiant Goths, who disdained submission to their Mahometan conquerors. By degrees this band increased; and, nourished in warfare, at length achieved the conquest of Oviedo and Leon. After a struggle of two hundred years, Ordogno II. restored the royal authority, 914.

From this period until 1492, a system of warfare was carried on by the numerous petty princes and counts of Spain against the Arabs. The consolidation of the monarchy by the union, from time to time, of the little kingdoms, enabled the Spanish princes to wield a more efficient force against the common enemy. Meanwhile the long war which the Moors or African Saracens waged against those of Spain, and the subjection of the latter in 1091, rendered both parties less able to contend with the Spaniards. At length the marriage of Ferdinand V. and Isabella, in 1479, having united all Christian Spain, Grenada, the last kingdom which remained to the Arabs, was attacked. After a valiant defence, the Moors surrendered in 1492, after stipulating for religious freedom. But contrary to the faith of treaties they were exposed to the sanguinary fury of the inquisition. Under Philip II. they

revolted, but were soon subdued: wherefore to avoid the horrors of that bloody tribunal, they abandoned the country in 1610.

The decree of Leo III. surnamed Isauricus, emperor of Constantinople, for the demolition of all images in churches, promulgated. 726

This is one of the most important events of history. From the third century the church had gradually fallen from her primitive simplicity, and had adopted a variety of idolatrous rites; at length images were introduced: and towards the beginning of the eighth century, christianity had become little else than a mask for idolatry. But the witness borne both by Jews and Mahometans against this practice, and perhaps an occasional consultation of the Scripture, at last excited the just apprehensions of the Greeks, that they had returned to paganism. Leo, therefore, ordered the demolition of the images, which he immediately commenced by destroying the mummery about the palace. Several popular commotions followed, but Leo steadily pursued his design; nor was he daunted by the excommunication denounced against him by pope Gregory II. His son Constantine proceeded further; and assembled in 754, at Constantinople, a council of three hundred and thirty-eight bishops, by whom image worship was declared a *renewal of paganism*; all visible symbols of Christ, except in the eucharist, blasphemous: and all such monuments adjudged to destruction. During the absence of this prince, in the war against the Saracens, a usurper, encouraged by the monks and the slaves of their superstition, seized his throne: but this attempt failed, and the ruin designed for Constantine recoiled upon his enemies. He returned with an army, re-assumed his sceptre, proscribed the monks,

abrogated a religious profession that had been prostituted to the blackest purposes of treason, and confiscated all their property.

The resistance of the Roman pontiff being seconded by the great majority of the Italians, the authority of the emperors was disavowed. In the schism which thus arose, originated the temporal power of the popes, who finally succeeded in separating Italy from the eastern empire; and by craftily engaging Charlemagne to espouse their cause, cut off all hopes of a re-union with the Constantines.

CHARLEMAGNE.

A. D. 800.

Though the Franks, according to some authorities, were established under Pharamond, on the lower Rhine, A. D. 420, yet the true æra of their monarchy is usually referred to the battle of Soissons, A. D. 486, when Clovis,* son of Childeric, of the family of Meroveus, defeated Siagrius, the Roman general.

The infant monarchy continued for some time to be governed by Merovingian princes, under whom, in 534, it received the accession of Burgundy. During the reign of Sigibert II. which began A. D. 638, the important office of mayor of the palace, then held by Pepin, was made hereditary by the nobles. All the real power was ultimately engrossed by these officers; and in A. D. 714, Charles Martel,† the mayor, governed France in reality, whilst the king only possessed the shadow of authority.

* The Salic law, by which females were excluded from the throne of France, is said to have originated with this monarch.

† Martel, *the hammer*.

In 752, the Franks assembled at Soissons, deposed Childeric III. the last of the Merovingians, and, sanctioned by pope Zachary, elected Pepin, son of Charles Martel to the throne. This prince was the founder of the Carlovingian dynasty, so called from Charles the Great.

Pepin warred successfully against the Saxons, Saracens, and Lombards, and munificently repaid the favours he had received from the pope. Dying in 768, his sons, Charles and Carloman, succeeded him; but the death of the latter three years after, left the whole kingdom in possession of Charles, whose exploits have procured him the name of the Great.* This prince reigned forty-two years after the death of his brother; and following the example of Pepin, greatly promoted the interests of the western church; which kindness the popes† were not backward to reciprocate. He warred with distinguished success against the Lombards in Italy, the Saracens in Spain, the Huns in Pannonia, and the Norman pirates, who then ravaged the maritime provinces. The Saxons displayed a singular firmness in struggling against this despot; but a war of thirty-three years, attended with circumstances of uncommon barbarity on the part of Charles, effected their subjugation, and they received christianity at the point of the

* Charlemagne.

† Mr. GIBBON observes, that the mutual obligations of the popes and the Carlovingian family form the important link of ancient and modern, of civil and ecclesiastical history.—Vol. vi. c. 49.

sword.* His victorious arms annexed a considerable portion of Spain, nearly the whole of Italy, all Germany south of the Eyder, and Hungary to his dominions. He became the guardian of the Holy See; and Leo III. to gratify the ambition of the conqueror, and promote the temporal interest of the church, suddenly crowned him emperor of the West, on christmas day A. D. 800, whilst worshipping in St. Peter's church at Rome.

The reign of Louis le Debonnaire,† son and successor of Charlemagne, in A. D. 814, was disturbed by the rebellion of his sons, Lothaire, Charles le Chauve,‡ and Louis, who compelled him to divide a portion of his dominions among them; and by revolts in several parts of his extensive dominions. In 840, the death of Louis put Lothaire in possession of Italy, and the imperial title; Charles in possession of France; and Louis, of Germany. But an attempt of Lothaire to wrest France and Germany from his brothers, brought them into the field against him; and at Fontenay, 841, after a sanguinary conflict, in which nearly all the French nobility were cut off, he was decisively overthrown. He therefore had recourse to the Saxons, whom he gained to his cause by permitting them to return to idolatry; a proposition which they hailed with rapture. But the nobility interfered, and compelled the brothers to an accommodation, 843.

The French monarchy soon declined in the hands of

* Four thousand and five hundred Saxons, who refused to submit to the rite of baptism, were beheaded in one day.

† *The gracious.*

‡ *The bold.*

the successors of Charlemagne. In the troubles which involved the country, through the predatory assaults of the Saracens and Normans, in the reign of Charles le Chauve, the nobility, taking advantage of the imbecility of their monarch, erected a number of fiefs, or petty sovereignties. Charles, incapable of contending against the Saxon pirates, confided this arduous service to Robert the Strong, one of his nobility, who greatly signalized himself against the enemy. During the reign of his successors, the power of the nobles greatly increased : and in 888, on the death of Charles the Fat, Eudes, count of Paris, as a recognition of the services of Robert his father, was raised to the throne during the minority of Charles the Simple. Charles assumed the sceptre 898, surrendered Nuestria to Rollo the Norman, 912, and was deposed by his nobles in 922, when the crown was conferred on Robert, brother of Eudes. This prince being slain in battle the following year, was succeeded by Ralph, duke of Burgundy ; but on his death, 936, the Carlovingian family was restored in the person of Louis IV. son of Charles the Simple. Hugh the Great, grandson of Robert the Strong, was then one of the most potent nobles in France, and possessed all the real authority. On the death of Louis, 954, Lothaire became king ; and in 986 he was succeeded by Louis V. the last of the house of Pepin. Dying 987, in consequence of the treachery of the queen, who poisoned him, Hugh Capet, son of Hugh the Great, had sufficient influence with the nobility to secure his election to the throne ;

and the Carlovingian family, through the imbecility of its representatives, sunk into obscurity.

The German empire remained only one hundred years in the family of Charlemagne. It was in that time successively governed by Louis I. Lothaire I. Louis II. Charles II. le Chauve, Charles the Fat, and Louis III. This prince dying without issue A. D. 912, the nobles, by whose consent all the Carlovingian princes had swayed the imperial sceptre, raised Conrad, duke of Franconia, to the throne. From that period the empire continued elective until 1806, when the imperial dignity was set aside by Napoleon Bonaparte.

The principal events occurring between A. D. 800 and the epocha of the Crusades, are :

	A. D.
The union of the kingdoms of the English Heph- tarchy by Egbert, king of Wessex	828
The extinction of the Picts, as a nation, by Ken- neth, king of Scotland	838
The conquest of Hindostan by Mahmood of Gazna	997

This Turkish prince governed Eastern Persia, which had been separated from the Saracenic empire by its rebellious lieutenants.

The erection of Poland to a kingdom by the em- peror Otho III. of Germany ; and of Hungary by pope Sylvester II.	1000
The accession of Canute to the throne of England	1017

From this reign until that of Henry II. people were sold from England for slaves to the Irish. Githa, a relative of Canute's, made a great fortune by this traffic.—ANDREW'S Great Brit.

The rise of the kingdom of the two Sicilies 1018

Some soldiers from Normandy being invited to Italy by Melo, a noble citizen of Bari, crossed the Alps and joined his standard. Their defeat and his exile depriving them of the expected reward, they wandered about the hills and valleys of Italy, earning a subsistence by the sword. Being distinguished warriors, they were soon appealed to by the princes of Capua, Benevento, Salerno, and Naples, in their petty quarrels; and victory always accompanied their arms. The duke of Naples, therefore, to gain them to his cause, conferred on them some lands in the vicinity of his own residence, and there in 1029, they founded the town of Aversa.

Meantime Sicily was distracted with the wars between the Saracens and Greeks; and the Arab government was weakened by the divisions of the chiefs, who all aspired to independence. In this state of things, five hundred Norman knights, or warriors on horseback, were engaged by the Grecian chiefs against the Saracens, whom they overthrew in a great battle 1038. But Maniaces the Greek general, in dividing the spoil, neglected his brave auxiliaries. They complained; their interpreter was scourged. This indignity was not to be forgiven. They escaped to the Italian peninsula; complained to their brethren of Aversa; and Apulia was immediately invaded to avenge their wrongs. A victory in the plains of Cannæ secured Apulia to the invaders; and neither the warfare nor the policy of the Byzantine emperor could remove them. A league between pope Leo IX. and the emperors of Germany and Constantinople was therefore formed against them: and in 1053 an army of Germans and Italians marched under the command of the pope to expel the

invaders. The small, yet valiant band of Normans knelt before the pontiff: but death or exile were the only alternatives proposed to them. Roused, therefore, to desperation, Richard, count of Aversa, Robert Guiscard, and count Humphrey, fell upon the hostile army in the plains near Civitella: the Italians were soon routed, but the Germans died in their ranks sword in hand. The pope, a prisoner in the hands of the Normans, listened to terms of peace; granted Apulia and Calabria to them as fiefs of the Holy See; and concluded with them a treaty of mutual support. Such was the origin of the kingdom of Naples.

Robert Guiscard, or the Wise, on the death of Humphrey was chosen general of the Norman republic. A signal service rendered to pope Nicholas II. obtained for him the title of duke, and a grant of all the lands in Italy and Sicily which he could conquer from the Greeks and Saracens. His Italian conquests, the present kingdom of Naples, comprised Calabria, Apulia, Salerno, Amalfi, and the duchy of Beneventum.

Roger, the brother of Guiscard, began in 1059 the war in Sicily. After a struggle of thirty years the conquest was achieved; and the Norman princes of Sicily were declared by the pope hereditary and perpetual legatees of the Holy See. The island was governed as a duchy until 1130, when Roger, the son of the conqueror, erected it into a kingdom.

The separation of Savoy from France	1032
The commencement of the dynasty of the Seljukian Turks in Persia under Togrul Bek ..	1038
The conquest of England by William, duke of Normandy	1066

The commencement of the dynasty of the Assassins in Irak. 1090

These were Ishmaelites, who submitted to the authority of a chief styled *the old man of the mountain*. Their creed, a mixture of islamism with the superstitions of India and the visions of their own prophets, required the most absolute devotion to the cause of their chief, in whose service they deemed it meritorious to lose their lives. This command over his subjects made him formidable to his enemies, whom neither time nor distance could screen from the daggers of his devotees. There were two distinct bands of these assassins—one in Irak, another in Syria. The former were extirpated by Holagou, the Mogul chief, about the time when he overturned the caliphate of Bagdad: and the latter in 1280, by the Mamalukes.

CRUSADES.

A. D. 1096.

These religious wars, first planned by that ambitious pontiff Gregory VII. surnamed Hildebrand, and eagerly engaged in by the European princes, (who were alarmed by the progress of the Mahometans westward,) were begun during the papacy of Urban II. The insults heaped upon Christian pilgrims by the Mahometans, and the degradation of the Holy City, were the themes by which the eloquence of Peter the hermit, a native of Amiens in Picardy, who had been on a pilgrimage to Palestine, stirred up an extravagant fanaticism among the people of France and Italy. Urban taking advantage of the popular prejudice, held a council at Placentia, to which he communicated his plans, but artfully postponed

any decision until a future council should be summoned. Meanwhile the flame of enthusiasm being fanned by the pope and the ecclesiastics, spread with great rapidity. At Clermont, the second council was held, at which attended many renowned noblemen and knights, besides some thousands of the clergy: and, in the market-place, from a lofty scaffold, Urban expatiated on the devastations of Palestine, the sufferings of the pilgrims, and the duty of Christian princes to attempt their rescue. Having explained his views to the audience, he announced remission of all sin and penance to those who should engage in the holy warfare, and promised them eternal life. Motives like these were irresistible: *It is the will of God*, burst from his enthusiastic audience. A crusade was immediately determined upon; and the 15th of August, in the year following, was fixed for the departure of the adventurers. Urban himself was solicited to march at their head, but this he prudently declined; alleging that the interests of the church required his presence at home.

Such was the origin of the crusades, so termed from the badge of the cross worn by the devotees on the right shoulder. The struggles, to which they gave rise between the Christians and Saracens, lasted, with some partial interruptions, from 1096 to 1291.

The first crusade, which began 1096, was conducted by several warlike nobles, among whom Godfrey duke of Bouillon, Baldwin his brother, Raymond earl of Thoulouse, and Robert duke of Normandy, were conspicuous. In Palestine they performed prodigies of valour;

Antioch, Jerusalem, and Acre; and gave the several defeats. The second was undertaken Conrad III. emperor of Germany, and Louis VII. e. The capture of Jerusalem by the famous 1187, gave rise to the third, in which the emperor Frederick Barbarossa, Philip Augustus of France, and Richard I. of England, assumed the cross. The emperor distinguished himself by his bravery, that his name became terrible among the Saracens. The fourth crusade began 1203; but the crusaders, solicited by Alexius, son of Isaac Angelus, whom the Greeks had turned their arms against Constantinople. The city, however, was scarcely restored, when a quarrel broke out between the Greeks and the crusaders, and Constantinople was carried by assault, and given up to the Latins. The fifth crusade was planned by Innocent III. in 1216 the champions of the cross set out for the Holy Land, under Pelagius the pope's legate. Having spent some time there, they turned their arms against the Ayyubids, and took Damietta, after a siege of a year and six months. There they spent a full year, reaping the spoils; but Meladine, prince of the Saracens, by opening the sluices, let in the water of the Nile upon the camp, and left them no alternative but drowning, or the surrender of Damietta. This city was therefore given up, and the crusaders departed from Egypt. The two last crusades were undertaken by Louis IX. of France: the first, in 1248, was begun by the capture of Damietta; the second, in 1270, terminated by the utter destruction of the French

army, and the captivity of the king. Being released on the restoration of Damietta and the payment of four hundred thousand pieces of gold, Louis went into Palestine, with the wretched remains of his army; but in 1253 returned home. His ill success, however, did not deter him from another crusade; in 1270 he sailed again for Palestine, but was induced to attack Tunis in his way. A siege was accordingly commenced; but a plague, that broke out in the army, carried off thousands of the soldiers, and among others the good but misguided Louis. This was the last crusade: and the hopes of again setting foot in Palestine were altogether blasted by the capture of Acre, the key of Syria, which fell into the hands of the Sultan Serapha, 1291. On this occasion the very elements conspired to destroy the monsters, who, under the name of Christianity, had for many years been guilty of the most atrocious crimes. To the remembrance of their enormities, the abhorrence in which Christians are held by the Turks must in no small degree be attributed.

In these strange contests, almost all ranks and classes of men engaged. Several of the princes and nobles of Europe, with their serfs, followed by the scum of the populace, pressed forward to a warfare in which every species of crime seems to have been tolerated; and which held out the pardon of all sin, and the promise of everlasting life, to every marauder who fought against the Mahometans. A crusade to Palestine was substituted for repentance and a holy life: and every offender against

morals and religion sought, in these murderous expeditions, to obtain favour with God. Saracens and Jews alike felt their vindictive arm; especially the latter, who were always exposed to pillage and death. In this protracted conflict, Europe suffered in her morals, population and wealth. The departure of troops for Palestine was almost incessant; and great sums of money were occasionally drained to supply the troops. Many nobles and gentlemen sold their privileges and estates to provide means for a crusade, and thus reduced their families to poverty; whilst others, less scrupulous, seized on the wealth of their tenants. In this phrenzied state of society, to conciliate the clergy was the object of all: and hence some gave gifts; others made large bequests; whilst a third class gladly restored what their ancestors had wrested from the church.

To the same superstitions by which the crusades were cradled and fostered, the tumultuous risings of the people in France and Italy have been justly attributed. Thus the White Caps in France, in the reign of Philip Augustus; the Pastoureaux, or Shepherds, in the reign of St. Louis; the Flagellants, or Whippers, in Italy about 1260; and the Bianchi, so called from their White Vestments, about 1399, were all influenced by a species of religious phrenzy; as their extravagant conduct, and not unfrequent crimes, under the mask of piety, sufficiently attest.*

To the interval between the Rise of the Crusades and the Invention of Printing, belong:

* See GIBBON'S *Decline, &c.* HALLAM'S *Middle Ages*, and FULLER'S *Historie of the Holy Warre*.

- The annexation of Normandy to the crown of England A. D. 1105
- It was recovered to the French crown in 1204, by Philip Augustus.
- The rise of the Guelph and Ghibelin factions 1141
- The Guelphs, or Welfs were the representatives of the Saxon line of German emperors: the Ghibelins were the faction in the interest of the house of Swabia, or Franconia.
- The erection of the kingdom of Sardinia by the emperor Barbarossa 1164
- The annexation of Ireland to the English crown 1172
- The reign of Zingis Khan, which began about 1206
- Temudsin, the Zingis Khan, or *Greatest King*, was a Tartar chief; who, having subdued all the pastoral tribes between China, Siberia, and the Caspian sea, invaded the southern provinces of Asia, where the Chinese, Indians, Persians, and inhabitants of Thibet, acknowledged him conqueror. He died 1227: but his posterity completed his schemes. Before the commencement of the following century, nearly the whole of Asia, and a large portion of Europe, were conquered by the Mogul chiefs.
- The signature of the Great Charter of English liberty, by king John. 1215
- The conquest of Prussia by the Teutonic knights 1230
- Prussia was for some time governed by its conquerors. Frederic, burgrave of Nuremberg, purchased Brandenburg of the emperor Sigismund in 1417, and laid the foundation of the future greatness of his house. Albert of Brandenburg, grand master of the Order, sacrificing his duty

to his interest, in 1525 accepted the hereditary dukedom of Prussia as a fief from Poland. In 1663, it was declared independent; and in 1701, raised to a kingdom.

The confederation of the Hanseatic towns 1241

This famous league embraced eighty of the principal towns in Germany, which united for defence against pirates, and tyrant nobles, great numbers of whom supported themselves by plundering travellers. The inhabitants owed their privileges to the emperors, who had freed them by degrees from their feudal lords.

They were divided into four colleges, of which Lubec, Cologne, Brunswick, and Dantzic were the chief towns. They had four principal foreign factories, at London, Bruges, Bergen and Novogorod.

At this period the maritime towns of Flanders, France, and England, prosecuted their own quarrels, without seeking permission of their respective sovereigns.—HALLAM'S Middle Ages ii. c. 5. iii. c. 9.

The Sorbonne, a college for divinity, founded at Paris, by Robert de Sorbonne 1250

The seizure of Egypt by the Mamalukes 1250

The Mamalukes were slaves, purchased when young, and trained up in the Mahometan faith, and to the profession of arms. They kept possession of Egypt until 1517, when it fell into the hands of the Turks.—See FULLER'S Holy Warre.

The rise of the republic of Florence 1251

The history of the Italian states is highly interesting. They were very numerous, all the large cities being republics. But their freedom degenerated into licentiousness; and their his-

tory is replete with petty quarrels, rapine, and assassination.

The Rise of the English House of Commons. . . . 1265

For a long time after this, the deputies, or members, were paid so much per day by the freeholders, for their attendance in parliament and travelling expences. The poverty of the burgesses often induced them to evade the return; and hence many places, that might have been represented, abandoned their claims, and sunk into neglect. Andrew Marvel, the Hull member, in 1660, is said to have been the last who received a salary from his constituents.— See HALLAM's Middle Ages.

The seizure of Sicily by Charles of Anjou 1266

The Sicilians recovered their freedom in 1280, by the massacre of the French on Easter-day, March 30. This inhuman deed is known as the *Sicilian Vespers*, the ringing of the bell for evening prayer being the signal to commence the slaughter.

The annexation of Wales to England by Edward I. 1283

The invasion of Scotland by Edward I. 1296

Edward's ill founded pretences to the Scottish crown involved Scotland in a bloody warfare for many years: but the battle of Bannockburn, gained 1314, over Edward II. by the celebrated Bruce, decided the independence of his country.

The rise of the Swiss republic 1307

The extinction of the house of Philip the Fair of France, and accession of Philip de Valois to the throne 1327

Isabella, daughter of Philip the Fair, and the murderer of her husband, Edward II. of England,

laid claim to the crown of France, on the extinction of the male branches of her house. This circumstance gave rise to a series of wars between England and France, which continued upwards of one hundred and twenty years.

The battle of Cressy	1346
The reign of Tamerlane, which began about....	1361

Timour, or Tamerlane, was one of the many military adventurers which the Mogul empire produced. After many extraordinary vicissitudes, his valour secured to him the crown of Zagatai, or Transoxiana, in 1370, in the thirty-fourth year of his age. His subsequent history is a record of splendid victories, in the course of which he subdued Persia, Turkestan or Eastern Tartary, Kipsak or Western Tartary, Persia, and Hindostan. In 1400 he turned his arms westward, conquered Georgia, entered Syria, sacked Aleppo, and burnt Damascus. Wherever he marched pyramids of human heads attested his destructive progress; and on the ruins of Bagdad one of these monuments was reared with ninety thousand heads. In 1401, he marched through Armenia and Anatolia; and in a great battle near Angora, defeated and took prisoner Bajazet, one of the most celebrated of the Turkish sultans. Asia, from the Irtish and Volga to the Persian Gulf, and from the Ganges to the Archipelago, acknowledged his sceptre: the Greek emperor consented to pay tribute, and the Mamaluke sultans of Egypt sent him presents. In 1405, he set out for China; but his death, April 1, saved that empire from his murderous grasp.

His posterity preserved a small portion of these conquests, from the mountains of Cashmere to Cape Comorin, and from Candahar to Ben-

gal. Since the days of Aurengzebe, who died 1707, this empire has been dissolved, and its finest provinces are now possessed by the East India Company. The great Mogul is a successor of Tamerlane.

The union of Calmar 1397

This union, effected by Margaret, the Danish queen, embraced the kingdoms of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. The early history of these states is very obscure, and abounds in the marvellous. Their inhabitants were famous for the system of piracy which they commenced in the seventh century, and for the miseries they inflicted on England, France, and Scotland. The most illustrious of their princes was Canute; who, in 1017, reigned over Denmark, Norway, and England.

The deposition of Richard II. of England, by Henry, duke of Lancaster, who seized the crown 1399

In this usurpation originated the civil wars, which distracted England until the accession of Henry VII. 1485. His marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Henry IV. united the two houses of York and Lancaster.

The defeat of the French at Agincourt by Henry V. of England 1415

PRINTING.

A. D. 1440.

The state of learning from the close of the fourth until the eleventh century, was very deplorable. The ignorance in which society was then enveloped is usually ascribed to the settlement of the barbarians in the empire, and the consequent corruption of the Latin tongue, which ultimately ceased to be a living language, although

it contained "the whole treasury of knowledge." But there were other concurring causes; among which may be enumerated the discouragement of profane literature by the Christian Fathers; their utter contempt of physical science; the superstition which crept into the church; and the introduction of the monastic life. Learning, by degrees, became almost entirely circumscribed within the pale of the church; and, even there, ignorance of letters was not uncommon. For many centuries there was scarcely a layman of any rank whatever to be found, who could sign his name, for which the mark of the cross was substituted. "France reached her lowest point at the beginning of the eighth century," but appears to have emerged progressively after the æra of Charlemagne, who established some schools, and encouraged the learned to settle in his dominions.* "England did not fall into complete degradation until the middle of the ninth century:" but "at the accession of Alfred not a single priest in England understood the ordinary prayers, or could translate the Latin tongue." As to Spain, "not one priest of a thousand could address a common letter of salutation to another;" and at the close of this period, there was scarcely one "to be found

* Among many fine traits in the character of Charlemagne, his respect to learned men is conspicuous. When Paul Warnefried, chancellor of Didier, and the historian of Lombardy, had been condemned to lose his eyes and hands for having three several times attempted the recovery of the independence of his country, Charles arrested the judgment, exclaiming, Where shall we find hands able to write history as these have done?—MÜLLER'S Univ. Hist.

in Rome itself, who knew the first elements of letters." The state of letters in Italy and England in the following century was very deplorable: even contracts were made verbally for want of notaries capable of drawing the instruments.

But notwithstanding the gloomy hostility of superstitious devotees, the preservation of learning is solely attributable to christianity. "Religion alone made a bridge, as it were across the chaos, and has linked the two periods of ancient and modern civilization." The only hope for literature depended on the Latin language; which, though no longer a living tongue, was preserved by means of three circumstances in the then prevailing religious system, "of all which we are justly accustomed to disapprove:"—the *Papal Supremacy*, in consequence of which a common language was necessary to keep up an intercourse between Rome and the various nations of Europe;—*Monastic Institutions*, which became secure repositories for books and manuscripts, and where almost all the learned clergy were to be found;—and a *Latin Liturgy*, which, though a cause of much corruption, has eventually been serviceable, in the highest degree, to literature.*

Whilst Europe was involved in intellectual darkness, learning began to flourish among the Saracens. By

* The only individuals who were distinguished by true genius and solid learning, from the sixth to the middle of the eleventh century, were John, surnamed Scotus, or Erigena, who flourished about the middle of the ninth century, and Gerbert, afterwards pope Silvester II.—See HALLAM.

them it was diffused over Italy, Spain, and Africa. The Arabian doctors, on account of their learning, were held in the highest estimation: and their schools of philosophy, especially at Cordova and Seville, were greatly celebrated. Thither all Europeans, emulous of literary distinction, repaired: and thence was derived all the knowledge of physic, astronomy, philosophy, and mathematics, which flourished in Europe subsequent to the tenth century. On this account the Spanish Saracens* have been justly denominated the fathers of European philosophy.

In the eleventh century, literature rapidly declined in the Greek empire, owing to the very precarious state of the government, which was shaken to its foundation by the attacks of enemies without, and by conspiracies within. Among the Arabs, on the contrary, it flourished vigorously; and a host of astronomers, mathematicians, and physicians, shed lustre on the age in which they lived. Learning also began to receive considerable encouragement in France from the clergy; but as for the nobility, they treated it with contempt. From France letters were introduced by the Normans into the south of Italy, and into England, where a man who understood the principles of grammar was considered as a literary phænomenon. At the close of the tenth century, all

* To this enterprising race Europeans owe Arithmetical figures, Gothic architecture, (so called from the Visigothic kingdom in Spain, which they conquered) and the art of Weaving. This ingenious and useful contrivance the French had acquired from them before the æra of Charlemagne.

the schools were in the hands of monks ; but in the eleventh, several were opened both by clergymen and laymen. In these the trivium and quadrivium were taught : the former embraced grammar, rhetoric, and logic ; and the latter, arithmetic, music, geometry, and astronomy : these were denominated the liberal arts.

In the twelfth century, learning received considerable encouragement both from princes and ecclesiastical dignitaries. In the principal cities of Europe, societies of the learned were formed, and colleges established : but Paris, in the number of its schools, the talents of its professors, and the multitude of students, far surpassed all other places. Learning was no longer confined to the trivium and quadrivium. Theology, the learned languages, civil and canon law, and physic, were now eagerly studied : and hence a new classification of the sciences arose in the following century, termed the four faculties—philosophy, (which embraced the trivium and quadrivium) theology, jurisprudence and physic. Spain, however, still continued to be the resort of the studious.

In the thirteenth century, learning received extraordinary encouragement from the munificence of several crowned heads of Europe, among whom the emperor Frederic II. and Alphonsus X. of Leon and Castile, are conspicuous. The academies received peculiar distinction, and were governed by their own laws. In that of Paris, all the sciences were taught ; and hence it first acquired the name of University. But this age was distinguished by the genius of Roger Bacon, an Englishman, a monk of the Franciscan order. In 1267, he

l to pope Clement IV. an amendment of the similar to that since adopted by Gregory XIII.* greatly skilled in astronomy, chemistry, and sm; understood the composition of gunpowder, ime not in use; was acquainted with the camera magnifying glasses, burning glasses, and tele- and, on account of his profound knowledge in hy, theology, and the learned languages, was shed as the *wonderful doctor*. His belief in r, however, enabled his enemies in the Parisian y where he resided, to consign him to prison, e languished many years. Being at length , through the interest of some persons of rank, ed to his native land, where he died 1292.

fourteenth century, the increase of books was y promoted by the introduction, if not the in- of paper made from linen rags. Public libraries more important and respectable. Search was er the literary treasures that were concealed in steries, of which the monks were grossly igno- etrarch, Boccaccio, and other Italians, greatly shed themselves in this interesting inquiry; and labours learning is indebted for the first intel- ct of the Latin classics. The laudable ambition etrarch† and Boccaccio to acquire a knowledge

14.

rch, the first of the Latin scholars, became ac- with Barlaam, the Greek ambassador, at the court n; and the desire of mutual instruction became the of their literary commerce. But the numerous avoca-

of the Greek language, laid the foundation of its successful culture in Italy.

The fifteenth century was exceedingly auspicious to literature, which received special patronage from the house of Medici. The search for manuscripts was sedulously continued; and many copies of ancient authors rescued from oblivion.

On the ruin of the eastern empire by the capture of Constantinople, 1453, great numbers of Greeks sought refuge in the west of Europe from the calamities that involved their country. There was scarcely a city or university of celebrity, in which some of the fugitives did not take up their residence: a variety of causes, however, induced them to give a general preference to Italy, which thus became a second time the abode of the muses.

But the impulse thus given to learning in Italy was not felt in France, Germany, and England. In the latter country, in the reign of Henry VII. the introduction of Greek by Grocyn and Linacer was violently opposed by a party of Oxonians, under the name of Trojans. Nevertheless literature received its greatest boon from Germany—the Art of Printing. The mode of making impressions on cards by wooden blocks is supposed to have suggested to Laurence Coster, of Haarlem, his moveable wooden types, which appeared about 1440.

tions of Petrarch, and the departure of his friend, prevented him from making the desired proficiency in Greek. His reply to another ambassador, who presented him a copy of Homer, shews the high estimate he had formed of Grecian literature.— See GIBBON'S *Decline, &c.* vol. viii. c. 66.

Genfleisch and Guttenberg improving upon this discovery, carved metallic types at Mentz; but Schœffer perfected this ingenious contrivance, at Strasburg, by casting the types in a mould engraved with a puncheon. Those, who dispute Coster's claims, attribute the glory of the discovery to Faust, Schœffer and Guttenburg; from whose presses at Mentz, the Mazarine Bible,* the first fruits of an ingenuity which ranks them among the greatest benefactors of mankind, issued between 1450 and 1455. England is indebted for its introduction in 1470 or 1471, to William Caxton, a London mercer; whose anxiety to confer on his country the benefits of this discovery, had induced him to go to Cologne to learn it.†

The great benefits resulting to the English nation from the introduction of Printing, cannot be enumerated here. But since its consecration to the cause of God and Religion, by the printing and distribution of the Scriptures, the march of civil and religious liberty has been progressive. A moral reformation, the only effectual one, has been successfully advancing; and a religion, founded in the knowledge of God, as revealed in the Scriptures of the Testaments, has been found the best safeguard of all our civil institutions.

The principal events occurring between 1440, and the Reformation are :

	A. D.
The erection of Austria to an Arch-duchy by Frederic III.	1453

* So called from a copy having been found in the Parisian Library that bears the Cardinal's name.

† See HALLAM's Middle Ages. MOSHEIM's Eccl. Hist.

The storming of Constantinople by the Turks . . . 1453

The Turks or Turkmen from the east of the Caspian Sea, had migrated in the tenth century into the spacious plains of Transoxiana and Carizme, where the reigning Khans permitted them to settle, on their embracing Islamism. Mahmood of Gazna, the conqueror of India, employed great numbers of them in his army; but after his death they seized on the country of Eastern Persia, and deposed his son, 1038. They then elevated Togrul Bek, grandson of Seljuk, to the throne, in which he was acknowledged as a sort of viceroy, by the caliph of Bagdad, who dreaded his power. The princes of this dynasty acquired an immense empire in Asia: but on the death of Malek Shah, 1092, four dynasties arose—the Persian, Kerman, Syrian, and Roum. The latter took its name from the Roman provinces in Asia Minor, which about 1074, were conquered by Soliman, great-grandson of Seljuk, who fixed his residence at Nice in Bithynia.

In the numerous revolutions of the Asiatic governments during the reigns of Zingis Khan and his successors, and the destructive warfare of the Crusaders, the important dynasty of Roum dwindled to a petty government. No mighty chief appeared to unite the Turks and lead them to victory. But in 1299, the Othman or Ottoman dynasty arose in the person of Othman, a military chief: his valour soon made him conspicuous, and success arrayed thousands under his banners. Under him and Orchan his son, supported by many other Emirs, the Asiatic provinces were wrested from the Greek empire. In the civil wars that followed the assumption of the sceptre by Cantacuzene in 1341, the Turks were invited to take a part: and by this

means found an opportunity, as allies, to get possession of the fortresses of Thrace, and to fill the Chersonesus with their countrymen. Amurath I. succeeded his father Orchan, in 1360, and pursued the same career of conquest: all the nations around Constantinople acknowledged his prowess; and from the multitudes of Christian captives that fell to his lot, he formed the best corps of troops* that ever fought under the banners of the Moslems. The sphere of Turkish dominion was greatly enlarged under Bajazet, surnamed Ilderim, or Lightning, who succeeded his father in 1389: but his Asiatic conquests attracted the attention of Timour the Mogul chief, who invaded Anatolia, and at Angora defeated Bajazet and took him prisoner in 1402. The death of Bajazet, 1403, and the departure of Timour, was followed by a civil war between his five sons: but in 1413, Mahomet I. being left without a competitor, restored the unity of the Turkish monarchy. He was succeeded, in 1421, by Amurath II.† who after a prosperous reign of thirty years, left his kingdom to Mahomet II. a man of a furious and licentious character. Bent on the possession of Constan-

* The Janisaries, or *new soldiers*, were Christian youths educated in islamism, and trained to arms. For two hundred years they brought victory to the Turkish arms: but becoming licentious and mutinous, they subsequently interrupted the tranquillity of the empire. Mahmud the present sultan, ordered their suppression in 1826.

† Amurath II. *twice* abdicated his throne; and, at the earnest solicitation of his ministers, *twice* resumed the sceptre.

He was faithful to his word, and feared an oath. When in 1444 he was nearly defeated at Warna (Odessa) on the Black Sea, by Ladislaus, king of Poland and Hungary, (who had broken the treaty to which he had sworn on the gospel,) he raised his eyes and hands to heaven, and appealing to God and Jesus, besought them to avenge the profanation of their sacred names. The fate of the battle was soon after turned by the janisaries; the head of Ladislaus on the point of a Turkish spear was the signal for flight, and ten thousand Europeans were left dead on the field.

tinople, he amused the Greeks with professions of friendship, whilst his preparations evidently disclosed the object of his heart. The Turks already had a fortress on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus, and in 1452 he began to raise one on the European side: this was completed with amazing celerity. When his arrangements were finished, he laid siege to the city, April 6, 1453. The animosity between the Greek and Latin churches had, with other causes, produced in the western empire a general indifference to the fate of Constantinople. A vigorous defence, however, was made by the emperor and a few brave soldiers who rallied round his person; but in vain. On May 29, an assault was made on every side. After an attack of a few hours the walls were beaten down, and the countless hosts of the Turkish army entered the city. Constantine* Palæologus, the emperor, died sword in hand, and was buried amid the ruins of his country. The city was sacked; thousands of the inhabitants sent into captivity; and Mahomet II. seated himself on the throne of the Cæsars, fifteen hundred years after the battle of Pharsalia.

The battle of Castillon, which terminated the English ascendancy in France; all their territories but Calais being recovered by the French. . . . 1453

Calais also was recovered by them in the last year of Queen Mary's reign.

The expedition of Christopher Columbus in search of a Western Continent undertaken 1492

In 1492, and 1493, he discovered the West

* The imperial government of Rome began and ended with an Augustus; and that of Constantinople began (strictly) and ended with a Constantine.

India Islands; and in 1498, the continent near the mouth of the Oronoco.

In 1497, Sebastian Cabot, of Bristol, discovered the north-east coast of America; and Americus Vesputius, the southern continent. Meanwhile Vasquez di Gama, a Portuguese admiral, sailed to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. The Cape had been discovered in 1392, by the Portuguese.

In 1500, the Brazils increased our knowledge of geography; in 1502, St. Helena; in 1506, Ceylon; in 1507, Madagascar; and in 1542, Japan.

The invasion and conquest of Naples by Charles VIII. of France 1495

The French were driven out in 1503.

The accession of Charles V. to the Spanish crown 1516

REFORMATION.

A. D. 1517.

. Cent. The first century of the Christian æra witnessed the decay of piety, which commenced in the bosom of the church, even in the days of the apostles. It originated, among other causes, from designing men, who aspiring to be leaders of sects, debased Christianity with doctrines accommodated to human depravity; to temporizing converts, by whom an amalgamation of Christianity with "the cunningly devised fables" of pagan superstition, was attempted; and by loose and hypocritical professors.* Hence the spurious

* Acts xx. 29, 30. Jude 4, 11—13. Consult also Thess. ii. 1—12. This picture of antichrist, drawn by the hand of a master, is so faithful a delineation of the corruption of the

works on Christianity, and the many heresies which early distracted and rent the church; and hence the many ceremonies adopted in divine worship, in the second century, to make it vie with the Pagan and Jewish forms.

Cent. The third century was characterized by an
 III. increase of rites; the introduction of exorcisms and spells against dæmons; and the promulgation of many heresies, especially that of the Manichees—a mixture of Christianity and Magian doctrines. Never-
 Cent. theless, success continued to attend the gospel;
 IV. and in the beginning of the fourth century, Constantine not only tolerated Christianity, but subsequently embraced the faith. This circumstance gave a new aspect to the affairs of the church. Ecclesiastical property, hitherto held by an insecure tenure, now received legal recognition. Numerous gifts were bestowed, and bequests of property made to the church; but an avaricious spirit, the result of this profusion, stains almost every page of her history. The gem of the gospel gradually became incrustated with those base substances which it was the design of the Reformation to remove. Christianity vied with paganism in pompous rites and magnificent temples. The vacillating conduct of the successors of Constantine kept alive the old supersti-

church of Rome, that it rather resembles a history than a prophecy. It is evidently a representation of that spiritual tyranny *wherever found*, which prostrates truth to a system, enslaves the consciences it was intended to enlighten, and makes a gain of godliness.

tions ; and under Julian, Jovian, Valentinian, Valens, and Gratian, both religions were almost equally tolerated. Unhappy divisions rent the church, especially the controversy between Arius, a presbyter, and Athanasius, bishop of Alexandria ; monkery began to prevail ; festivals in honour of the martyrs were instituted ; relics were sought after ; and the sign of the cross became a spell against dæmons. And when Christianity, aided by the civil power, began to predominate in the empire, its professors had imbibed all the virulent intolerance of paganism ; of which the severe persecutions of the heterodox members of the church were the wretched consequences.

Cent. Many barbarian tribes became nominally

V. Christian in the fifth century ; the rite of baptism being considered as a sufficient initiation, and the people generally professing either paganism or Christianity after the example of their kings. Public penance was now superseded by private confession ; love feasts, on account of their abuse, were abolished ; and, in this age of abounding superstition, the Stilites, a fanatical sect, who stood motionless for years together on the tops of pillars, acquired, by this artifice, a great reputation for sanctity.

Cent. Monkery infested the church to an extraor-

VI. dinary degree in the sixth century. Towards the close of this period, pope Gregory I. distinguished himself by attempting to establish the supremacy of the See of Rome, and by his temporizing schemes to win the pagan nations to nominal Christianity. To this policy must be

attributed the existence of many vestiges of ancient superstition* in England, (which received the gospel A. D. 597,† during his popedom) and in almost every country of Europe.

Cent. VII. The ignorance of the community was favourable to a corrupted and corrupting ministry. Repentance and humiliation for sin were commuted for gifts to the church; the intercession of Christ was bartered for the advocacy of patron saints; and, in short, a drivelling and contemptible superstition was substituted for the gospel. The seventh century exhibited the wood of the *true cross*, the bones of saints, and images, to a wondering multitude. What the state of religion then was may be gathered from St. Eligius, bishop of Noyon, whom ecclesiastical writers usually quote. "He is a good Christian who comes frequently to church, and presents an oblation;—who does not partake of his fruits, until some portion has been offered to God;—who can repeat the creed or the Lord's prayer. Redeem your souls from punishment whilst you have power—offer gifts and tithes to the churches; set up lights in the holy places—assemble in church also more frequently; seek humbly the patronage of saints—. Because if you observe these things, coming boldly in the day of judgment before the tribunal of the Eternal Judge, you may say, Give, Lord, for we have given unto thee."

This century also witnessed the prostitution of the

* May day, Bealtain day, Mid-summer and Mid-winter eve fires, &c.

† RAPIN gives a curious account of this circumstance.

church as a sanctuary for criminals. Boniface V. the author of this abuse, as Fuller justly observes, seems to have propounded Romulus rather than Moses for his model. In the east the Jews were violently persecuted.

Cent. In this and the preceding century the gospel
VIII.

was successfully propagated on the continent of Europe, by missionaries from England, Scotland, and Ireland. The dispute about image worship distracted the eastern and western empires: and the ecclesiastical character, which had become extremely dissolute, was, in many cases, combined with the military profession.*

Cent. In the ninth century, the wealth of the church

IX. attracted the cupidity of the needy nobles, many of whom scrupled not to seize on her revenues. The popes, however, sedulously improved every opportunity of aggrandizing their power. The false decretals,† canons that appeared about the close of the preceding century, under the name of Isidore, were enrolled among the laws of the church. The canonization of saints was adopted; their lives written for popular edification;‡ that mon-

* The pope having on one occasion required the release of a bishop who had been taken in arms, the monarch, whose prisoner he was, sent him the regimentals of his captive, with a quotation from Genesis xxxvii. 32. "Know now whether it be thy son's coat or no."

† These decretals forbid national councils without consent of the pope, and render bishops amenable only to the See of Rome.

‡ See HALLAM's *Middle Ages*, and SOUTHEY's *Vind. Eccles. Anglic.*

strous fraud, trial by ordeal, put into operation; and, in brief, the religion of Rome papal now approximated so closely to that of Rome pagan, that the difference could scarcely be discerned.*

Cent. X. In the tenth century an opinion obtained that the end of the world was approaching. To appease the clamours of guilty consciences many extraordinary gifts were made to the church. The doctrine of purgatory became the favourite topic of the discourses of the clergy; and false miracles and fabulous legends were not lacking for its confirmation.

Cent. XI. The eleventh century is signalized by the resolute attempts of pope Gregory VII. to free the clergy from the jurisdiction of their lawful sovereigns,† and to place the sceptres of princes at the disposal of the See of Rome. Some weak monarchs submitted; but the kings of England and France, and Henry IV. of Germany, made a determined opposition. Nevertheless he succeeded in depriving the emperor of his right to confirm the election of the popes, and even attempted to wrest from him his prerogative of confirming the appointment of bishops. A bloody war was the conse-

* See Dr. MIDDLETON's Letter from Rome.

† The exemption of the clergy from the power of civil law was extremely prejudicial to their morals. Of this, the enormity of their conduct in the following century, under Henry II. of England, is a lamentable proof. Henry's attempt to recover his jurisdiction over them by the *Constitutions of Clarendon* gave rise to the quarrel which cost the haughty Becket his life.—See HUME's England, under Henry II.

quence, in 1076; but during its progress the ambitious prelate was removed by death. His name stands connected also with the celibacy of the clergy;* a measure which he decreed, and enforced with extreme cruelty.

In this century the Paulicians, a sect of the Manichæans, who had often been the subjects of a sanguinary persecution, forsook their country, and sought an asylum in the west of Europe. They were afterwards known in Germany, France, and Italy under a variety of appellations: the most remarkable was that of Albigenses, probably from Albigensium, in Narbonne Gaul, where they were numerous. This name subsequently became a brand for all dissenters from the Romish communion.

Parochial divisions were completed in this century. "The rural churches, erected successively as the necessities of a congregation required, or the piety of a landlord suggested, were, in fact, a sort of chapels dependent on the cathedral, and served by itinerant ministers at the bishop's discretion. The bishop himself received the tithes, and appropriated them as he thought fit. A capitulary of Charlemagne, however, regulates their division into three parts: one for the bishop and his clergy, a second for the poor, and a third for the support of the fabric of the church. Some of the rural churches obtained by episcopal concessions the privileges of baptism and burial, which were accompanied by a fixed share of tithes, and seem to imply the residence of a

* The prohibition of marriage is one of the brands by which the Spirit has pointed out an apostate sect in the church. 1 Tim. iv. 3. See also Art. xxxii. of the Eng. Church.

minister. The same privileges were gradually extended to the rest; and thus a complete parochial division was finally established. But this was hardly the case in England till near the time of the conquest."*

Cent. The close of the eleventh century ushered in XII. the crusades; which gave rise, in the twelfth century, to three celebrated military orders—the Hospitalers, or knights of St. John of Jerusalem, the knights Templars, and the German knights of the Teutonic order, for the defence of pilgrims in the Holy Land. This century is distinguished by the struggles of the papal with the kingly power. The principal were pope Pascal II.'s contest with the emperor Henry IV. whose son he excited to a rebellion against his father; Adrian IV.'s quarrel with the emperor Frederic Barbarossa, who indignantly refused to act as equerry to the pope, or to hold his stirrup, which, at his coronation, 1155, he had been required to do; and the dispute between pope Alexander III. and Henry II. of England, about the conduct and death of Becket. The influence of the popes, however, was so great, and their antagonists so disunited, that they generally succeeded in thwarting, if not in crushing their opponents. In this period also Alexander III. wrested from the clergy and people of Rome, the privilege of electing the pontiff, and transferred it solely to the college of cardinals, two-thirds of whose votes he made requisite to secure the choice: an ordination that still remains in force.

* HALLAM's Middle Ages.

Among a multitude of sects that now appeared in the Romish church, the Waldenses hold a distinguished place. Their origin is by some ascribed to Peter Waldo, a merchant of Lyons; whilst others identify them with the worthies of the valleys of Piedmont. It is probable, however, that Peter was surnamed Waldo, from his adoption of the religious tenets of these brave villagers. About the year 1160, having procured a translation of the gospels, he was struck with the apostacy of the church. He therefore began to disseminate the doctrines of the testament, devoting all his wealth to the promotion of this object. His disciples rapidly increased; and so firmly did they adhere to the doctrines of the Redeemer, that neither fire, nor sword, nor all the inhuman cruelties of that most horrible of tribunals—the inquisition, could quench their zeal in the cause of truth.*

The clergy at this period possessed nearly one half of England, and a still larger proportion of other countries of Europe. The monks, who revelled in luxury, became exceedingly wealthy from the sale of relics: whilst the bishops found a most lucrative employment in commuting the numerous ecclesiastical penalties† for money. The latter source of revenue becoming exceedingly prolific, was seized by the popes; who not only sold exemptions from penance, but even pretended to mitigate and abolish

* For an account of this magnanimous people, see MOSHELM'S Eccles. Hist. HALLAM'S Middle Ages; FULLER'S Holy Warre, and GILLY'S Researches among the Vaudois.

† COKE'S Elements of power, &c. contains a curious account of these compositions.

the punishments denounced against impenitent sinners in a future state. Nor was this all; they discovered a fund of merit; an accumulation of the supererogatory labours of good men,* placed by heaven at the disposal of the pontiff; who, thus endowed, could, by transfer, make the defects of any sinner preponderate against his guilt. Cent. In the thirteenth century Innocent III. is particularly distinguished by his ambition and intolerance. He conferred a king on the Armenians; elevated Johannicius, duke of Bulgaria and Walachia, to the regal dignity; and compelled John, king of England, to resign his crown, which Pandulf the legate restored, five days after, as a gift of the Holy See. With this pontiff originated the doctrine of the real presence,† and the ordination of auricular confession to a priest; but his name merits the execrations of mankind for the establishment of the inquisition. Its first labours were

* Art. XIV. of the English Church is directed against this absurd doctrine.

† In Henry VIII.'s time this doctrine was thus enforced in the sanguinary Statute of the six articles: "If any person by word, writing, printing, cyphering, or otherwise, do preach, teach, dispute, or hold opinion, that in the blessed Sacrament—after the consecration thereof, there is not *really* the *natural* body and blood of our Saviour—; or that there remains *any* substance of bread and wine, or any other substance, but the substance of Christ, God and man; or that in the flesh under the form of bread, is not the very blood of Christ; or that with the blood under the form of wine, is not the very flesh of Christ, as well apart, as though both together;—then he shall be adjudged a heretic, and suffer death by burning."— See COKE'S Elements of Power, &c.

directed against the Albigenses in France, 1204: but not fully answering the wishes of the pope, he caused a crusade against them to be commenced 1209, and thus kindled the flames of a civil war which lasted forty years.

In 1294, Boniface VIII. acceded to the popedom. With him originated the jubilee, a centenary festival, first observed in 1300. All who attended this pageant, received a plenary pardon of their sins. The project being found lucrative, the interval of its celebration was reduced to fifty, and afterwards to five and twenty years. Cent. This century opened with a serious quarrel between Philip the Fair, of France, who had seized upon some church property, and Boniface: Philip treated the pope with great contempt, and even caused his person to be seized at Anagnia in Italy, and consigned to a prison. The populace, however, rescued him: but his rage threw him into a fever, of which he died 1303; and Benedict XI. his successor, made an accommodation with the refractory monarch.

The knights templars had incurred Philip's displeasure by assisting Boniface; and he secretly wished for vengeance. Having obtained from pope Clement V. then at Avignon, a grant of their extensive estates, he caused all the knights to be seized in 1313; charged with the most atrocious crimes; and condemned, though upon the most insufficient evidence, to suffer death by burning.* The inhuman sentence was speedily executed: in

* The people at large considered them as martyrs, and gathered up their ashes as precious relics.

FULLER, who has detailed this horrid tragedy in his Holy

England they were treated in a similar manner, by the pusillanimous Edward II; but the Germans, believing the solemn protestation of the knights in preference to the word of a convict, only required them to abandon the Order, which was then suppressed. Philip did not reap the reward of his iniquity; their estates were bestowed on the knights hospitallers.

This century was further memorable for the great schism, which originated in the residence of the popes at Avignon in France. Clement V. began it; and his example being followed for seventy years by his successors, the Italians became disaffected, and mistrustful of the cardinals. Therefore at a papal election in 1377, they compelled them to elevate one of their countrymen—Urban VI. to the papal chair: but this pope giving umbrage to the conclave, they elected another, Clement VII. out of their own body. Hence arose a very serious schism, of thirty-eight years' continuance, in the church: France, Spain, Scotland, Sicily, and Cyprus espousing the cause of Clement; whilst Italy, Germany, England, and the northern nations, adhered to Urban.

The Dominicans, Franciscans, and other mendicant orders, having great influence in the Romish court, and among the people, had become obnoxious to the clergy.

Warre, observes, that Clement and Philip, whilst glutting their malignity by the sight of a knight scorching in the flames, were addressed by the sufferer with the strongest protestations of his innocence, which he concluded by a solemn citation of the two tyrants to the bar of Christ, within a year and a day, to answer for their crimes. Within that period they both died.

In 1360, Wickliffe appeared against them, as the champion of the Oxford university, and even ventured to reprove their patrons—the popes. On this account the archbishop of Canterbury deprived him of the wardenship of Canterbury-hall in the university. Exasperated at this, he attacked the numerous corruptions in the doctrines and practices of the church; and, translating the scriptures into English, urged the laity to read for themselves. A severe persecution was the consequence; but he escaped, probably by court influence, and died peaceably at Lutterworth, 1387. His followers, the Lollards, who were very numerous, were subsequently treated with great cruelty.

Europe was now awaking from her dreams of superstition and ignorance. In England and France, limitations were set to the authority of the pope, the power of the ecclesiastical courts was abridged, and many clerical immunities abolished; and in Germany, the sanction of the pope to the choice of an emperor was declared by the diet of Frankfort, 1338, as no longer necessary.

Cent. At the opening of the fifteenth century, Boniface IX. and Benedict XIII. claimed equally the honours of the popedom. Under Innocent VII. and Gregory XII. successors to Boniface, the schism still continued: and at length the cardinals connected with both parties assembled a council at Pisa, 1409; and after denouncing Benedict and Gregory as heretical, perjured, contumacious, and unworthy of the least respect, not only deposed, but excommunicated them. They then elected Alexander V. to be pontiff; but the other popes

refusing to submit, the schism became worse. Alexander dying 1410, was succeeded by John XXIII. a man of very bad character. At the suggestion of the emperor Sigismund, this pontiff summoned a general council at Constance, in 1414. This assembly, which continued its sittings until 1418, first declared popes subject to general councils, and then in 1415, deposed John. Gregory XII. soon after resigned: and in 1417, Benedict, who alone remained, was also deposed, and the popedom transferred to Martin V.

The members of the council of Constance imbued their hands in the blood of the reformers. Wickliffe's bones were ordered to be disinterred, and committed, with his writings, to the flames. Huss, the Bohemian, who, depending on the faith of Sigismund, the emperor, for a safe conduct, had appeared before them, was condemned to be burnt:* the council declaring *that no faith nor promise ought to be kept with him to the prejudice of the Roman catholic church.* He suffered July 6, 1415: and on the 30th of the following May, his friend Jerome, of Prague, received in like manner, a martyr's crown. With this sanguinary assembly originated the decree that the Lord's supper should only be permitted to the laity in one kind, *i. e.* the bread.†

* The bishops delivered his body to the civil magistrate, and his soul to the devil. "And I," said the martyr, "give my spirit into the hand of God my Saviour."—MÜLLER'S *Univer. Hist.*

† Art. xxx. of the English church is levelled against this abuse.

The crimes of the council of Constance lighted up a civil war in Bohemia. The Hussites had been proscribed: but the magistrates, who published the decrees of the council at Prague in 1419, were murdered by an enraged populace. Wenceslaus the king, hearing of these extremities, died of fright. The faithless Sigismund was then elected king; under whom persecution began to rage in all its horrors. The Hussites, becoming desperate, withdrew their allegiance from a monarch who had denied them the protection of the laws. Under John Zisca, an intrepid knight, and afterwards under Procopius Rasa, they became a terror to their foes. At length they separated into two parties—the Calixtins, who contended chiefly for the cup in the sacrament; and the Taborites, an extravagant sect, so named from a hill where they held their assemblies. The council of Basle, in 1433, reconciled the Calixtins by conceding their demand; but the Taborites would listen to no accommodation with the murderers of Huss. They acted a nobler part: taking the scriptures as their guide, they commenced a reformation among themselves, rejected all doctrines not according to godliness, and expelled from their communion all licentious characters. Thus renovated, “they resolved themselves into the peaceable communities of the Moravian brethren.”*

At this time the inquisitors fell with sanguinary fury upon the Waldenses, a sect peculiarly obnoxious to the

* See HALLAM's *Middle Ages*; MÜLLER's *Univer. Hist.* MOSHEIM's *Eccles. Hist.* and COXE's *House of Austria*.

popes. In Spain, where the union of Ferdinand and Isabella had been followed by the conquest of Grenada, the most sanguinary barbarities were practised against the Moors, Jews, and others. It was the reign of terror: the land was filled with spies; and the confidence of friendship was destroyed. In 1481, Thomas, a Dominican, became the first inquisitor in Spain; and the burning of two thousand victims in a very short period attested his capability for this murderous occupation. To avoid this inhuman severity, one hundred and seventy thousand Jewish families deserted that ill-fated monarchy.

During a contention which arose between the council of Basle and the popes, Charles VII. of France, ordained the pragmatic sanction of Bourges, by which first fruits were abolished,* and elections to vacant benefices taken out of the hands of the popes. Louis XI. at the earnest desire of Pius II. repealed this law, and thus obtained the title of *Most Christian King*; but his parliament nobly refused to register its revocation.

Cent. At the opening of the sixteenth century, the XVI. church of Rome, drunk with the blood of the slain, beheld, exultingly, her enemies prostrate at her feet; whilst authority temporal and spiritual combined to rivet the chains of her subjects. Her corruptions, the accumulated evils of the preceding ages, were extreme. The popes and clergy were licentious and tyrannical; and the monks, ignorant, profligate, and

* First fruits were the revenues of a living during the first year of its occupation by a new minister.

perfidious. Theology was scarcely understood; and lying wonders abused the credulity of the people. The worship of God had dwindled to mere ostentation; false miracles, legends, the virtues of saints, the efficacy of relics, the terrors of purgatory, the excellence of indulgences, and the duty of endowing religious foundations, were the perpetual themes with which the clergy edified their auditories: the reverence due to the Most High was transferred to the blessed virgin and a host of mediatorial saints; and the denial of the word of God to the people was miserably compensated by religious plays, in which sacred subjects were intermingled with no small portion of the ridiculous, to excite the risibility of the deluded devotees.*

Pope Alexander VI., a brutal tyrant, dying in 1503, Pius III. received the triple crown,† which devolved, within a month, on Julius II. This querulous pontiff so enraged Louis XII. of France, that he caused a medal to be struck with an inscription threatening Rome, under the name of Babylon, with an overthrow: an insult, which the death of the pontiff, in 1512, alone prevented him from resenting.

* These plays, called *Mysteries* and *Moralities*, are still acted in popish countries. For an interesting account of them, see MALONE'S *Shakespeare*, Dr. PERCY'S *Reliques of English Poetry*, and WARTON'S *History of English Poetry*.

† The pontiffs wear a triple crown, because of their dominion over the duchy of Rome, the exarchate of Ravenna, and the reign of Pentapolis, which constitute the State of the Church.—See BP. OF CLOGHER'S *Diss. on Proph.* and GIBBON'S *Decline, &c.*

Leo X. of the Medici family, was then elevated to the pontificate. He was a slave to his appetites, a great patron of learning, and a decided enemy to any reformation. Designing to raise a large sum of money for finishing St. Peter's Church at Rome, he had recourse to an extensive sale of indulgences. His German agent in this traffic was John Tetzel, a Dominican friar, of unusual effrontery, who did not scruple to attribute more benefit to his indulgences than had resulted from the preaching of St. Peter.

Luther,* a monk of the Augustinian order, a sect deci-

* Martin Luther was born at Eisleben, in Saxony, 1483. He intended to study the civil law; but the death of a friend, who was struck dead by lightning, at his side, changed his purpose. He became very serious; retired into a monastery of Augustin friars at Erfurth; and assumed the habit of the order, in his twenty-second year. Whilst there, he found a Latin bible, a book interdicted to the laity, and scarcely known to the clergy: this he studied with great assiduity, and the result was soon manifested. His reputation for sanctity and learning, induced Frederic the Wise, elector of Saxony, to appoint him a professor of philosophy, in the university of Wittemberg, where he greatly distinguished himself. When sent on the business of his order to Rome, he was struck with the corruption of the Court and the profligacy of the clergy. His devout behaviour at the celebration of the mass was ridiculed; and he heard the priests substitute, instead of the prescribed form of consecration, the expressions, "Panis es, et Panis manebis. Vinum es, et Vinum manebis." On his return to Wittemberg, being made professor of theology, he discarded the usual themes of discourse; and, taking the Scriptures for the ground of his preaching, illustrated them in plain and perspicuous language, at once interesting to the learned, and intelligible to the meanest capacity.—See COXE's House of Austria.

dedly hostile to the Dominicans, indignant at this daring impiety, stepped boldly forward ; and in ninety-five propositions, maintained publicly at Wittemberg, Sept. 30, 1517, pointed out the enormity of the ecclesiastical abuses, which were sanctioned by the pope. These declarations the Germans hailed as precursors of a reformation, which all good and enlightened men earnestly desired. Learning had made great advances, notwithstanding the hostility of the monks ; and not a few individuals made very clear distinctions between Christianity and its corruptions. Erasmus, a native of Rotterdam, greatly signalized himself, by turning his keen satire upon ecclesiastical abuses. But the monks, and especially the Dominicans, to whose charge the most atrocious crimes are laid, beheld these indications of a return to reason with horror and indignation.

A host of controversialists attacked Luther ; but defeat only augmented their rage ; whilst the Reformer pleaded with the pope the utmost purity of motive, and a willingness to retract his opinions when convinced. Cardinal Cajetan was therefore appointed to confer with him at Augsburg ; but the arrogance of the legate was intolerable to Luther, who abruptly left the town, still appealing to the pontiff. On the appearance of a decree soon after, requiring all Roman Catholics to recognise the power of the pontiff to remit *all* punishment due to sin, Luther repaired to Wittemberg, and appealed from the pope to a general council.

This bold measure induced another negotiation at Altenberg, 1519 ; in which Charles Miltitz, a Saxon

Philip landgrave of Hesse, and Wolfgang prince of Anhalt, entered a solemn **PROTEST*** April 19, and appealed to a general council. The members of the embassy who carried it to Charles, were arrested; but this act only admonished the **PROTESTING** princes to coalesce for mutual defence.

On the emperor's arrival in Germany, 1530, the Confession of Augsburg was presented to the diet. It had been drawn up by Luther and Melancthon, at the request of the elector of Saxony, and contained a digest of the faith of the reformed. It was read June 25, by Christian Bayer, chancellor of Saxony; and a copy, signed by all the **PROTESTING** princes, and on behalf of the cities of Nuremberg and Reutlingen, was handed to the emperor. A similar document, containing the reformed doctrines as taught by Zuingle, drawn up by Martin Bucer on behalf of Strasburg, Constance, Memingen, and Lindau, was presented at the same time. These memorials produced a great sensation in the diet; but Charles resolved to oppose the Reformation. Every trivial measure that could annoy the protestants was adopted; and at length the Reformation was condemned by a public instrument; and all dissenting princes, states, and cities, summoned to return to their obedience to the pope, on pain of incurring the vengeance of the emperor. This gave rise to the league of Smalcald, between the

* Hence the term **PROTESTANT**, by which all dissenters from popery are now distinguished. The names of these brave advocates of truth should be had in everlasting remembrance.

PROTESTING princes ; and Charles, unwilling to divide the strength of the Empire, at a time when it was threatened by a Turkish invasion, signed the treaty of Nuremberg, 1532, by which freedom in religious matters was granted to the Protestants, until the convention of a general council. But he was scarcely freed from the apprehension of the Turks, than he renewed his quarrel with the Reformers.

Ambition was Charles's governing passion, and to this his religious sentiments were freely sacrificed, as may be instanced by his alternate wars and treaties with Francis I. of France, the pope, and the Reformers. In the fierce struggles of the contending parties he never lost sight of the aggrandizement of his house. He earnestly desired the convention of a general council, by which the papal authority was as likely to be circumscribed, as the reformation to be impeded. On the other hand, the pontiffs dreaded such an assembly ; and contrived to procrastinate from time to time. At last Paul III. in 1545, consented to assemble a council at Trent, in Austria, though very contrary to the wishes of the reformers, who protested against the place of meeting, and the pope's authority to convene it. It was now resolved between Charles and the pope to crush their opponents by force, and the protestants prepared to meet the storm. Both parties took the field : and near Muhlburg on the Elbe, April 24, 1547, a sanguinary conflict took place ; the little army of the protestants was entirely defeated, and John of Saxony taken prisoner. Philip of Hesse soon after surrendered to the

emperor; and the two princes were consigned to a prison. Maurice, uncle of John, and a traitor to the protestant cause, through the influence of Charles, was made elector of Saxony. The emperor now thought himself secure of ultimate success; but he was taken in his own craftiness.

The protestants after this disaster made many and great concessions to Charles: and in 1551, at the re-assembling of the council of Trent, which the report of a plague had caused to be dissolved, the emperor fully calculated on carrying his own measures both against the pope and the protestants. But Maurice of Saxony, and the other princes, displeased at the protracted confinement of John and Philip, contrary to an express stipulation, entered into a new confederation, to which Henry II. of France acceded, to maintain the rights of the empire against the innovations of Charles. Besides, Maurice was anxious to obtain the good will of the reformers, who had been alienated by his treachery. All their measures were concerted with great secrecy; and, when ripe for execution, the elector of Saxony, the margrave of Brandenburg, and the king of France, severally published manifestoes explanatory of their designs, and immediately invaded the dominions of the emperor. This unexpected revolution astonished Charles; who, though ill of the gout, was obliged to make his escape from Inspruck, in a very stormy night, to avoid the approach of Maurice. The tide of Charles's fortune was now changed; his schemes in Germany and Italy were rendered abortive; the Turks were ravaging Hungary

and menacing Naples with a naval armament; and the French, already victorious in the Low Countries, had leagued with pope Paul IV. for the conquest of Naples. These embarrassments compelled Charles to adopt conciliatory measures; and at length, on September 25, 1555, at the diet of Augsburg, the protestants were declared exempt from papal jurisdiction. In the year following, Charles* gave up the imperial crown to Ferdinand his brother; invested Philip II. his son, with the government of Spain and the Low Countries; and then retired to a monastery.†

This extraordinary revolution in ecclesiastical affairs was not restricted to Germany. Switzerland, Scotland, Denmark, Sweden, and the Low Countries, hailed it with rapture, and abandoned the superstitions of Rome: France, Italy, and Spain also, partook of its salutary influence, but in these countries it was extinguished

* Charles is supposed to have died a protestant; because he was no sooner dead than all the ecclesiastics who had followed him into his retirement, were consigned to the inquisition, and punished by cruel torments. The reformation in Spain was extraordinary, and the persecution to which its adherents were exposed terrible. Charles had sent many learned ecclesiastics from Spain to Germany, to combat the reformers with argument. They were themselves convinced, returned home, and nobly preached the truth. But this zeal was met by gibbets, racks, stakes, and other barbarous torments; the blood of these witnesses was poured out; and the fetters of popery rivetted upon ill-fated Spain.

† An interesting account of the Reformation is given in COXE's *House of Austria*. See also MOSHEIM's *Eccles. Hist.* and ROBERTSON's *Charles V.*

by the terrors of the inquisition and the force of arms ; England followed the will of the sovereign. But a serious rupture occurring, in 1534, between Henry VIII. and pope Clement VII., the former discarded the papal supremacy, and declared himself head of the English church. Henry was still an intolerant papist ; only promoting the Reformation indirectly when it subserved his selfish purposes : nevertheless under the judicious administration of Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, it was steadily and successfully carried on. The reign of Edward VI. saw it nearly completed. But Queen Mary's accession, 1553, revived popery ; and during her short reign of little more than five years, the decayed and tottering fabric was cemented with the blood of Cranmer, Hooper, Ridley, Latimer, and some hundreds of protestant worthies. Political causes again produced its overthrow ; her sister Elizabeth in 1558, restored protestantism, which has ever since continued the established religion of England. James II. attempted the restoration of the sanguinary superstition ; the spirit of an insulted nation was roused ; and the rash and bigotted monarch, the last of the Stuarts, forfeited his crown.

In Scotland the Reformation assumed a different aspect. She was early visited with the light of protestantism, by some of her nobles, who had been in Germany when Luther first assailed the papal abuses. But the iron sceptre of despotism, and the rage of a fierce persecution, had nearly quenched the sparks of religious freedom. In 1559, Knox, the friend of Calvin

of Geneva, returned to his native land, the dauntless champion of the Reformation. Supported by many of the nobles, he lifted up his voice against the MOTHER OF ABOMINATIONS; the multitude caught his spirit; enraged by the recollection of the tragic scenes exhibited in the persons of Hamilton, Wishart, Kennedy, Mill,* and others, who had borne a noble testimony against the errors of the Romish church, they proceeded to acts of violence; and the fury of their zeal, levelled first against statues, pictures, crucifixes, and the like, terminated at length in the demolition of some of the finest churches in the kingdom. The court, almost exclusively in the popish interest, strenuously resisted the reformed doctrines, and attempted to chastise the adherents of Knox by force of arms. A civil war was the result; and as French soldiers had been employed by the court, the congregation sought aid from Queen Elizabeth of England. The battle of Glasgow in 1568 was fatal to the popish cause; and Mary, whose history is one unbroken tissue of misfortune, levity, and crime, fled to England. This event established the Reformation in Scotland, but not the church government. The people had chosen the presbyterian form, as arranged by Knox and five others, to whom that charge had been confided; and it was afterwards ratified by

* Walter Mill, aged 82, condemned in the Cathedral of St. Andrews, and burnt 1558, was an eminently pious man. The death of this aged martyr so incensed the populace against the popish clergy that numbers of them bound themselves by promises and oaths to take arms and resist the papal tyranny.

James VI. But after this prince inherited the English crown, he formed a resolution to assimilate the Scottish to the English church. His successors, Charles I. Charles II. and James II. pursued the same design : but the mass of the Scottish clergy and people resisted. A bloody persecution laid waste the country : fines, imprisonments, banishment, maiming, hanging, drowning, shooting,—and in brief, inhumanity, under every horrid form, characterized the reigns of the four last Stuarts over Scotland.* The flight of the last of this persecuting race, on the seasonable arrival of William, prince of Orange, in 1688, brought the reign of terror to a close, restored the presbyterian form of government to the church of Scotland, and preserved the protestant establishment in England. The elevation of William to the vacant throne is the true epocha of British liberty ; and may justly be considered, next to the introduction of the gospel, as the most important event occurring in the history of the British islands.

Some of the principal events between the epocha of the Reformation and the Revolution in America, are :

* The *Biographia Scoticana* contains an account of some of the WORTHIES who suffered “ for the word of God, and for the testimony of Jesus Christ,” during this most interesting period of Scottish history ; and abounds in references to the most popular authorities. These must be studied before any adequate idea can be formed of the tyranny and atrocity of the Stuarts.

† This prince had afforded an asylum to all the Scottish ministers, whom persecution caused to leave their native land.

The establishment of the independence of Genoa 1528

The institution of the order of the Jesuits 1546

An account of the origin and constitution of this society is given in Robertson's Charles V. Their political intrigue has caused them to be banished, at different periods, from every country in Europe.

The massacre of the Huguenots at Paris, Sunday August 24 1572

The rise of the Dutch republic. Unable to endure the barbarities of the papists, or the tyranny of Philip, they shook off the Spanish yoke 1579

The incorporation of the British East India Company 1600

The accession of the Stuart dynasty to the throne of England, in the person of James VI. of Scotland 1603

This dynasty consisted of twelve princes:— Robert II. the founder, 1370; Robert III., 1390; James I., 1406, assassinated by the nobility; James II., 1437, killed by the bursting of a cannon; James III., 1460, slain in battle; James IV., 1488, killed at Flodden; James V., 1513, who died of grief; Mary, 1542, beheaded by Queen Elizabeth; James VI. of Scotland and I. of England; Charles I., 1625, beheaded; Charles II., 1660, supposed to have been poisoned; and James II., who forfeited the crown. Their despotism, profligacy, intolerance, misfortunes, and final expulsion, make them striking parallels of the Seleucidæ of ancient history.

The discovery of the Arundelian marbles 1610

These marbles constitute a Greek chronicle,

which commences with the arrival of Cecrops at Athens, B. C. 1556, and ends with the death of Dion, tyrant of Syracuse, B. C. 354. According to general report they were found at Paros, one of the Cyclades, and brought to England by the earl of Arundel. But according to Dr. E. D. Clarke, the late celebrated traveller, they were found among the ruins of Joulis, in the island of Zia.

The accession of Michael Romanoff, founder of the present dynasty, to the grand duchy of Russia 1613

Michael was elected czar by the nobility, in consequence of the extinction, in 1601, of the race of Ruric, which had governed Russia since A. D. 861.

The union of Navarre to the French crown 1620

The re-erection of the kingdom of Portugal 1640

Portugal, when first wrested from the Arabs, became dependent on Castile. But Alfonso, the second count, having gained a victory over five Arab princes at Ouriques, was saluted king by the army, 1139. In 1580, Philip II. annexed it to the Spanish crown. In 1640, John, duke of Braganza, availing himself of the general detestation in which the Spaniards were held, expelled the authorities, and assumed the sceptre, which his dynasty still retain.

The massacre of 40,000 protestants in Ireland . 1641

The decapitation of Charles I. of England, and establishment of a commonwealth 1649

The commencement of the reign of Louis XIV. 1651

This reign is termed the Augustan age of France. Louis was contemporary with Charles

I. Charles II. James II. William and Mary, Queen Ann, and George I. of England. He died 1715.

The restoration of the monarchy in England, in the person of Charles II. 1660

In 1662, on St. Bartholomew's day, Aug. 24, two thousand of the English clergy were ejected from the church by the act of uniformity. In this impolitic and cruel measure originated the dissenting churches. Charles lived a persecutor and a profligate; and died in the communion of the church of Rome.

The annexation of Hungary to the house of Austria 1687

The rejection of the Stuart dynasty in the person of James II. and the accession of William III. prince of Orange, to the British crown 1688*

The reign of Charles XII. of Sweden begins. . . . 1697

The accession of queen Anne to the throne of England 1702

This, and the preceding reign, were remarkable for a constellation of genius and talent; in which Newton, Addison, Locke, Watts, Dryden, Steele, Pope, and Swift, shine conspicuous.

The capture of Gibraltar by the English 1704

* English history conveniently admits of *nine* important divisions :

The Roman Invasion, under Cæsar	B. C.	55
The Arrival of the Saxons	A. D.	449
The Introduction of the Gospel		597
The Norman Conquest.		1066
The Signing of Magna Charta		1215
The Origin of the Civil Wars.		1399
The Reformation by Henry VIII.		1534
The Commonwealth under Oliver Cromwell		1649
The Revolution		1688

The accession of the house of Brunswick to the British throne, in the person of George I. elector of Hanover	1714
The elevation of Peter the Great, czar of Russia,* to the rank of an emperor, by his senate. . . .	1721
The first treaty for the partition of Poland	1772

This treaty was made between the emperors of Austria and Russia, and the king of Prussia. The second was made in 1795, when the embarrassed state of Europe afforded them a seasonable opportunity for the projected dismemberment.

REVOLUTION.

A. D. 1776.

The discovery of America, by Christopher Columbus,† in 1492, was almost immediately followed by attempts at conquest and colonization, chiefly by the Spanish, English, French, Portuguese, and Dutch. The pope, in conformity with the arrogance common to the inheritors of St. Peter's chair, made very magnificent donations of newly discovered lands to the Spaniards; but, as the papal juris-

* This extraordinary man served in his own regiments as a private soldier, to acquire a perfect knowledge of military discipline. In 1698, two years after becoming sole sovereign, he went *incognito* to Holland in the suite of his ambassador; and, to acquire a knowledge of ship building, worked as a common carpenter at Saardam. He afterwards visited England for a like purpose, and spent three months at Deptford.

† The new continent was called after Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine gentleman. But, since the late revolutions in South America, some amends have been made to the memory of Columbus, after whom one of the large Republics has been named.

diction was unknown to the inhabitants of Mexico and Peru, the Spaniards subdued these countries by a combination of force and treachery; and, to secure their conquests, perpetrated cruelties of so horrid a description, that the acquisition of the territories in the new world reflects upon them an indelible disgrace. But their immense wealth, acquired by means so iniquitous, has not proved a real benefit. Becoming luxurious and effeminate, they have sunk in the scale of European nations; their colonies taking advantage of the imbecility and embarrassment of the mother country, have lately achieved their independence; and Spain, once a kingdom of the first class, is now looked upon with contempt by almost every state in Europe.

The English, who, next to the Spaniards, obtained most footing in the new world, took possession, like other Europeans, *by right of discovery*; not however by virtue of grants from the pope, but from temporal princes. Upwards of a century elapsed from the discovery of America, before the eastern coasts of the northern continent were successfully colonized by any Europeans. Almost every attempt in the sixteenth century proved fatal to the adventurers. The seventeenth was more auspicious—the French, Dutch, Swedes, and Finns, severally effected settlements; but the chief colonization was by the English. The causes of the migration of the first settlers from Britain were various; some left their native land as speculators, under the sanction and protection of the government; and others, to avoid the severity of persecution on account of their religious tenets: among the

latter we find Quakers, Roman catholics, and protestant Dissenters.*

The British colonies were first established on the principles of a commercial monopoly, and not for the sake of a revenue by taxation. Under the control of the mother country, they were made every way subservient to the promotion of her trade, commerce, and manufactures; and were prohibited all mercantile transactions with other states but through her medium. Britain monopolized the raw materials of the colonies; and in return supplied them with her manufactures: a reciprocity of interests was established; commerce flourished; and the revenues of the British government were greatly augmented, without any direct impost being laid upon the colonies.

This relationship between Britain and her colonies had lasted upwards of half a century, at the conclusion of

* Plymouth was settled 1620, by Mr. Robinson and a part of his congregation; Maryland, in 1633, by Lord Baltimore and a company of Roman catholics; Rhode Island, in 1635, by Mr. Roger Williams and others, who were banished from Massachusetts; and Pennsylvania, in 1682, by the celebrated William Penn and a colony of Quakers. Quebec was settled, in 1608, by the French; New York and New Jersey, about 1614, by the Dutch; and Delaware, and part of the country since called Pennsylvania, in 1627, by the Swedes and Finns. The other colonies, settled from time to time by the English government, were Virginia and Newfoundland 1610; New Hampshire 1623; Massachusetts-bay 1628; Connecticut 1635; New Jersey (first settled by the Dutch) 1664; South Carolina 1669; North Carolina, about 1728; Georgia, 1732; and Kentucky, 1773.

the peace of Paris between Britain and France, 1763. The national debt of the former country was then one hundred and forty-eight millions; and as this enormous debt, for such it was then considered, had been partly incurred by the war against the French in America, the British government resolved to tax the colonies. Accordingly, in 1765, an act imposing a stamp duty was passed by the Parliament; a measure which laid the foundation of the quarrel that issued in the independence of the colonies.

The calculations of the British ministry were entirely thwarted. The colonists looking upon a tax imposed by the British Parliament as a direct infringement of their chartered rights; rights enjoyed by long proscription, first called the authority of Parliament to tax them in question, then denied it, and finally resolved to resist it. The opposition, which began in Virginia, was soon manifested in the other states; in Massachusetts, the stamp commissioner was burnt in effigy, and several of the government offices pulled down; similar modes of shewing disapprobation were resorted to in other places; and in New York, besides other acts of violence, several boxes of stamps were burnt. At length the colonists formed associations against the importation of British goods, until the Stamp Act should be repealed; and sent over several petitions to the government in behalf of their privileges. These petitions were backed by others from the British manufacturers: and after some very warm debates, the parliament repealed the obnoxious law, March 18, 1766.

This conciliatory measure was so acceptable both to the inhabitants of Britain and to the colonists, that it caused general rejoicing; harmony was again restored between the countries, and commerce forthwith revived. But this calm was of short duration. Though defeated in so signal a manner, the British ministry still adhered to the design of taxing the Americans; and in 1767, a bill was passed in parliament laying a small duty on glass, paper, painters' colours, and tea. The colonists considering themselves *as unrepresented in, and therefore not liable to be taxed by, a British parliament*,* were determined to dispute its claims. The people of Massachusetts took the lead, and invited the other states to join them, in repelling this invasion of their rights. The governor therefore dissolved the house of assembly; but this evil the Bostonians remedied, by a convention of deputies from all those towns which were hostile to the projected imposts. The delegates recommended moderation to the people, inculcated on them submission to the authorities, and encouraged them with hopes of redress from the king. They then published the objects for which they had assembled, and separated. On the following day a military force took possession of Boston, to awe the inhabitants, who had already insulted the collectors of the revenue.

The British parliament, ignorant of the spirit that actuated the colonists, and calculating on their being

* In this opinion they had been countenanced by several eminent statesmen, among whom were Lord Camden and Mr. Pitt.

easily reduced to obedience, presented an address to the king in 1769, imploring him to cause certain individuals, who had opposed the decrees of the government, in the state of Massachusetts, to be apprehended and *sent to England for trial*. The high tone of the British government, however, did not terrify the Americans. Since the first attempt to tax them, the claims of the mother country, and those of the colonists, had been fully and freely discussed; the latter had acquainted themselves with their rights, and were resolved to maintain them. As soon therefore as the determination of parliament was known in America, the house of burgesses in Virginia assembled, and passed resolutions expressing *their exclusive right to tax their constituents, and their right to petition their sovereign for redress of grievances: and declaring that all persons accused of offences in the colony ought to be tried there; and that the seizure and conveyance of any person beyond the seas to be tried was highly derogatory to the right of British subjects*. North Carolina followed the example of Virginia; and associations against any further importation of British goods were also formed; but the Bostonians, who were greatly irritated, resolved on re-shipping the goods to Britain. The other states adopting the same line of conduct, the consequence to the British manufacturers was very disastrous. Numerous petitions for the repeal of these duties were therefore presented to the parliament; and, in 1770, all the duties, except three pence p lb on tea, were taken off. The commercial intercourse between the countries, except in the article on which the obnoxious impost remained, was immedi-

ately renewed; and the colonists were subsequently assured, in the name of his Majesty's government, that every means would be used to restore harmony between the countries.

But the measures pursued towards the colonists of Massachusetts proved fatal to every attempt at reconciliation. The continuation of the duty on tea was opposed on the same principles as the stamp tax had been: but to this already sufficiently fertile source of irritation, three others were added—a standing army was maintained in the colony; the board of commissioners was continued at Boston; and the governor and judges, who had been formerly paid by grants from the house of assembly, were rendered independent by a provision from the crown. Meanwhile some letters, written by governor Hutchinson, lieutenant governor Oliver, and others, to the authorities in England, recommending coercive measures towards the colonists, fell into the hands of Dr. Franklin, deputy post-master-general, who sent them to Boston. The writers were immediately denounced as enemies to the colony; and the house of assembly, Jan. 29, 1774, petitioned his Majesty for their removal, as betrayers of the people whom they governed. On the arrival of the petition in England, the matter was discussed before the privy council; and Dr. Franklin, stigmatized as the fomentor of the disturbances in the colonies, was dismissed from his office.

The insult thus offered to Dr. Franklin was deeply felt by the colonists; but, far from daunting them, only determined them to act with inflexible obstinacy.

Of this they soon gave evidence : some vessels arriving at Boston, Nov. 1773, with tea, were boarded, and their cargoes thrown overboard. The same spirit of opposition was manifested at Philadelphia, New York, and other places, though the destruction of the tea was not effected.

The British government could not overlook so daring a contempt of authority. The parliament passed several bills to operate like so many penal statutes against the colonists, but especially against the state of Massachusetts, and still more so against the town of Boston ; and at the same time to conciliate Canada, which had been wrested from the French soon after the battle of Quebec, 1759, its government was settled in a council, to which Roman catholics were admitted members ; and the possessions of the Roman catholic clergy were secured to them.

The colonists, though justly alarmed by the measures of government, resolved to stand by the people of Boston. The Virginians appointed a day of public humiliation and intercession, for commending their cause to God ; and then recommended a general congress of all the colonies. It was accordingly assembled in September, 1774 ; and consisted of fifty-one delegates, whose first act was an approval of the conduct of the people of Massachusetts. All the colonies were subsequently pledged to join the Bostonians, and to guarantee them from any loss they might sustain in the conflict. A very ample declaration of Rights was set forth ; and a petition to the king, and addresses to the British nation and the colonists, were agreed upon. The entire disuse of British

goods was strenuously recommended; and thanks were returned to those members of parliament, who had spoken in behalf of the rights of the colonists.

An attack made by a troop of British soldiers, sent by General Gage to destroy some provisions at Concord, a town twenty miles from Boston, on the Lexington militia, who were assembled to oppose them, gave the Americans a pretext for organizing an army. This was eagerly carried on; and, in 1775, hostilities commenced between Great Britain and her colonies. On the 4th of July 1776, the Americans, to facilitate their negotiations with the princes of Europe, declared themselves **INDEPENDENT**. The issue of the war was for a time doubtful; but the American cause, strengthened by the accession of the French, Spaniards, and Dutch, to their alliance, at length triumphed: and Britain, everywhere defeated in America, at last ratified the independence of the colonies, Nov. 30, 1782. Confusion and anarchy, the necessary consequences of their emancipation from the dominion of the mother country before they had consolidated a regular government, threatened to deprive them of the advantages they had gained; and for a time the colonists suffered great distress. At length Mr. Madison of Virginia suggested the propriety of a convention for the purpose of digesting a constitution for the States. To this proposition the thirteen states of Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Georgia, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Maryland, South Carolina, New Hampshire, Virginia, New York, North Carolina, and Rhode Island, acceded; in 1787 they were united by an Act of Con-

federation ; and George Washington, who had greatly distinguished himself in the struggle, was chosen first president of the congress of the United States of North America.*

The epocha of American independence ushered in the Æra of Revolution. France, whose soldiers had been sent, at an enormous expence, to assist the colonists in their rebellion against Great Britain, received back into her bosom an army prepared for acts of hostility against her own government. Like an impetuous torrent sweeping every thing before it, the popular fury burst forth in that unhappy country ; and the insurgents, instigated to rebellion and crime by a base but secret faction, proceeded from one act of violence to another, until the foundations of the government were destroyed, the bonds of society torn asunder, the whole kingdom consigned to anarchy, and rendered the theatre of the most bloody tragedy which ever stained the page of history.

A variety of causes conspired to bring about the French revolution. "The forms of society which had sprung up in the middle ages still existed. The territory was divided into hostile provinces, and the population into rival classes. The noblesse, although still preserving its distinction, had lost all its power ;—the royal authority was restrained by no limits ; and France was abandoned to the confusion of arbitrary administration, partial governments, and privileged bodies."†

* See WINTERBOTHAM'S America.

† Letters of noblesse, and privileges, were sold by the court.

“The crown disposed of the person by *lettres de cachet*; of property, by confiscation; of income, by imposts.” From the latter the nobility were exempt; and the clergy were allowed to tax themselves. The *tiers-état*, or commonalty, “borne down by the court and harrassed by the noblesse,” “possessed scarcely a third part of the soil, upon which they were compelled to yield feudal services to their lords, tithes to the priests, and imposts to the king. In compensation for so many sacrifices they enjoyed no rights, had no share in the administration, and were admitted to no public employments.” Such was the state of France anterior to the revolution.

Despotism had reached its zenith in France under Louis XIV., and his successor. But the patronage then given to letters, had diffused knowledge widely amongst the commonalty. This order, which had hitherto obtained but a temporary investiture of power, when it could be made subservient to the views of the nobles or the king against each other, had gradually become enlightened, wealthy, and powerful; and was prepared to claim a participation in the government when the opportunity presented itself. On the other hand, at the accession of Louis XVI. the finances of the country were exhausted,† the royal authority deranged, parliaments intractable, and public opinion hostile to the old system of administration. Louis XVI. was a most amiable

The former could be procured for two thousand crowns a piece.—BOUILLE's Memoirs.

† The enormous expences incurred in the American war against England were one cause of this exhaustion.

man ; but, although anxious to improve the condition of the people, he did not possess that determination of character which great exigencies require. He governed an enlightened but oppressed population* whom he wished to relieve, and the privileged classes of the nobility and clergy whom he was desirous to reform. But the opposition of these orders perpetually paralyzed his measures ; and after repeated attempts at amelioration, the embarrassed state of the finances imposed upon the court the convocation of the States-General,† a measure adopted with great reluctance. This was the commencement of the Revolution.

The States-General were opened with great pomp May 5th, 1789. The members of the *tiers-état*, to avail themselves of their numbers, insisted on voting by poll ; but the king and the court, justly fearing innovations, insisted that the States should vote by orders, unless on questions of finance. At the verification of the powers, the *tiers-état* requested that the examination might take place in the presence of the three orders, as

* The commercial classes, though superior in many respects to the old nobility, were excluded from offices in the army, high ecclesiastical preferments, and the superior magistracy. Proofs of nobility were necessary to obtain these distinctions. —BOUVILLE'S Memoirs.

† This assembly consisted of the three orders—clergy, nobility, and *tiers-état*, or commons. It had merely a temporary existence, being only convened to grant subsidies, when the wants of the state were pressing. At the convocation of 1789, the number of members was one thousand, half of whom belonged to the third order. They were called *States-General*, to distinguish them from the *Provincial States*,

each had an interest in examining the powers of the other two. The nobility and clergy however resolutely opposed this; the court interfered but in vain; and the *tiers-état*, finding the privileged classes inflexible, proceeded to business without them, verified their powers, and, June 17th, on the motion of Siêyes,* decreed themselves a National Assembly.†

The court, then principally directed by the queen, thunderstruck at this decisive step, induced the king to oppose the measures of the *tiers-état*. The hall where they had deliberated was taken from them, June 20; the military were drawn out to intimidate them: nevertheless, undaunted by these demonstrations of hostility, they followed M. Bailly, deputy of Paris, to the Tennis court; and there swore‡ never to separate until they had given a constitution to France.

The Tennis court being afterwards occupied to prevent their re-assembling there, the deputies repaired to the church of St. Louis, June 22, where the clergy|| joined them in great numbers. On the following day, the king met the three orders in the hall of the States, condemned the conduct of the *tiers-état*, prescribed

* Abbé Siêyes had been disappointed of preferment in the church, and to this his hostility to the old régime is attributed.—See DE MOLEVILLE'S Annals of the Revolution.

† The orders had been previously united in Dauphiny, which first exhibited a model for the nation.

‡ One deputy, M. Martin d'Auch, from Castelnaudary, had the courage to refuse to take the oath.—DE MOLEVILLE.

|| Many of the inferior clergy were disaffected to the government.

their duty, and enjoined them to obey at the peril of their dissolution. He then ordered the States to withdraw. The clergy and nobles obeyed: but the deputies, influenced by Mirabeau, a factious nobleman, remained unmoved, and resolved to re-model the government. A few days after, the duke of Orleans* and forty-seven of the nobles joined them; and congratulatory addresses† from all parts of France rivetted their determinations.

The court, however, assembled a large military force in the neighbourhood, under Mareschal de Broglie, and prepared to adopt decisive measures. The deputies in vain solicited the dismissal of the troops. Trains of artillery arrived from the frontiers; foreign regiments were called in; and Paris and Versailles were menaced by a powerful army. M. Necker,‡ whose conduct was very suspicious, was dismissed, July 11, and an insurrection immediately followed. Previous to this, the nobility, and the remainder of the clergy, who had been dreadfully menaced by the mob, at the earnest entreaty of the king had joined the Assembly; and the

* This unprincipled man was one of the chief agents in the revolution, if not the author. He is charged with aspiring to the crown.—See DE MOLEVILLE'S Annals.

† These addresses were prepared at Versailles by the Breton deputies, and sent into the provinces by trusty agents with directions to procure as many signatures as possible.—See DE MOLEVILLE'S Annals.

‡ This minister had given the States a democratic form, by making all the members of the three orders, without any distinction, eligible either as electors or members.—BOUILLE'S Memoirs, &c.

deputies, apprehensive of the seizure of the hall by the military, had decreed a permanent sitting, until circumstances should render it unnecessary. The Parisians, dreading the violence of the rabble, and apprehensive also of an attack from the troops, began to concert means of defence. The electoral Assembly, which, after the election of the deputies to the States-General, ought to have been dissolved, now seized upon all authority, and assumed the title of *provisional magistrates*. They called out a corps of forty-eight thousand militia, and required every Parisian to enrol himself in his district.

The vast population of Paris, now in motion, apprehending an attack, became clamorous for arms, which they seized wherever found. A report that the guns of the Bastille were pointed against them, induced them July 14, to assault that fortress, which they stormed;* and the governor, Swiss soldiers, and some invalids there on duty, were put to death. These sanguinary proceedings alarmed the king; who, abandoning the councils of his courtiers, dismissed the troops,† confided himself to the Assembly, went to Paris, and recalled M. Necker. On this occasion, however, the princes of the blood, and the ministry, emigrated.‡

* The Bastille contained seven prisoners, two of whom were deranged.

† This imprudent step ruined the monarchy by giving up the capital to the mob: Marshal de Broglie, however, offered to escort his majesty to Metz with the troops, but in vain.

‡ M. Foulon, ex-minister, and his son-in-law M. Berthier, intendant of Paris, were taken and butchered by the mob. “A never ceasing inquietude tormented those freemen of

But these insurrectionary movements were not confined to Paris; the provinces also caught a similar spirit; the lower orders everywhere "organized themselves into municipalities for their government, and into national guards for their defence." In the towns the people united against the nobles and magistrates; and in the country, fired the castles of their lords. In several places the soldiers joined the citizens; but in some provinces, the mob, headed by thieves, incendiaries, and murderers, committed shocking barbarities.

Notwithstanding these tumultuous scenes, the National Assembly deliberately carried on its projects; and after abolishing the privileges of the nobility* and of corporate

yesterday; in their anxiety for a new order of things, and for a sovereign jurisdiction, they seized and engrossed all jurisdiction to themselves; and several tumultuous assassinations were the fruits of this delirium."—See RABAUT DE ST. ETIENNE'S French Revolution.

The savages of New Zealand probably never displayed so much horrid brutality as the ruffians who murdered M. Foulon and M. Berthier. The disgusting detail is given at large in DE MOLEVILLE'S Annals.

* France contained at this period sixty-thousand nobles, possessed of all the connections of the feudal system; and a hundred thousand *privileged* persons. These privileges consisted in exemptions from certain imposts, which consequently under a court that measured its magnificence by its prodigality, fell with accumulated weight on the tiers-état. Every thing was venal: offices, commissions, and *rights*, were sold. Patents were made out for carrying on certain trades; these trades became exclusive, and were termed *privileges*. The rich speculated in these purchases. One individual held thirty patents for peruke-makers, which were sold at a high price, to persons living in the remotest parts of France.—See RABAUT DE ST. ETIENNE'S French Revolution.

bodies, and proclaiming religious liberty and freedom of the press, Aug. 4, prefaced their legislative enactments* by a declaration of rights, August 26, 1789. Though the king resisted these measures, the National Assembly was resolved to carry them: and the financial distresses increasing, they ordered the church plate to be sent to the mint, whither the king's had already gone.†

* The National Assembly, in the course of its sittings, instituted juries; abolished *lettres de cachet*, all distinction of orders, feudal rights, titles of nobility, armorial bearings, liveries,—turnpike tolls, the *corvée*, the *gabelle*,* lotteries, and the punishment of death by torture; suppressed the offices of farmers general, and monastic establishments; conferred on the oppressed Jews the rights of citizenship; made game free to all citizens; liberated all foreigners from the galleys; ordered the gratuitous administration of justice, by judges to be chosen every six years by the people; rendered all persons, of whatever religion, eligible to state employments; ordered the restoration of the property of the individuals who fled at the revocation of the edict of Nantz to be made to their descendants; excluded the clergy from all judiciary functions; and abolished the monopoly of the East India commerce. Besides, they decreed that no member of the Assembly should receive any office or favour from the executive until four years after leaving the legislature; that the old provincial divisions of France should be abolished, and the kingdom divided into eighty-three departments; and declared that France “never more would make war, from a spirit of making conquests.”

† The king had voluntarily surrendered it: and the clergy, deeming the emergency extraordinary, spontaneously offered all the church plate, except what was absolutely wanted, to their country.—See DE MOLEVILLE'S Annals.

* The *corvée* was a law compelling the peasantry to repair the roads without any recompense: and the *gabelle* constrained every person to take a certain quantity of salt, at an arbitrary price. Louis XVI. earnestly desired the abolition of these unjust statutes.

The state of the capital became daily more critical ; the inhabitants, terrified by the scarcity of bread, and by apprehensions of an attack from the soldiery, were in constant irritation. The flight of the king, whom the people wished to detain as a sort of pledge for provisions and security, was now agitated by the queen ; he was to retire to Metz, near Bouillé, and having there collected a powerful army was to reduce his subjects to unconditional obedience. But a banquet, given Oct. 1, to the military by the queen, developed this design to the Parisians, and caused a formidable insurrection. On the 5th, vast masses of the population marched to Versailles ;* and had not La Fayette followed them with

* The royalists charged this tumult to the duke of Orleans, and M. de Mirabeau ; but the case could not be substantiated. The former of these was an atrocious character : but M. de Mirabeau, one of the heroes of the revolution, was admired by all parties for his great talents. In Jan. 1791, he resolved to support the royal cause and to arrest the revolutionary mania, on condition that the just rights of the nation were secured. Louis XVI. cheerfully acquiesced ; and Mirabeau soon proved to the king and his ministers that he was acquainted with all the secret springs of the revolution. Some interesting particulars of this extraordinary character are given in the MARQUIS DE BOUILLE's Memoirs, and in M. DE MOLEVILLE's Annals. Unfortunately for France he died April 2, 1791, before his schemes were ripe for execution. Several of his friends, among whom was Talleyrand, bishop of Autun, staid with him during the whole of his illness, which lasted but a few days. He was sensible of his approaching fate, and beheld with grief the triumph of the factions who threatened the royal authority. A few minutes before his death, he said, " My friends, it is not for me you have to weep, but for the monarchy, *which descends with me to the grave.*"

the National guard, the most horrible scenes might have been apprehended.* That night the king accepted the declaration of rights. The next morning the palace was suddenly attacked by the brigands; and before La Fayette was apprized of this treason, the assassins who sought the queen's life had dispatched two of the bodyguards, and wounded several others. In the course of the day the royal family went to Paris, accompanied by sixty thousand people: and the Assembly, which on the 19th was transferred thither, to prevent the king's escape, decreed that his majesty should remain with them in the same town.

To relieve the finances from difficulties which seemed almost invincible, Mirabeau persuaded the assembly to grant to M. Necker the fourth part of the income of every citizen. This extraordinary grant producing but a temporary relief, the eyes of the malecontents were directed towards the property of the church. The clergy had on the 11th Aug. abandoned tithes: but now Talleyrand, bishop of Autun, proposed the renunciation of ecclesiastical property in behalf of state exigences. The clergy made a strenuous opposition: but their adversaries carried the measure Dec. 2nd. To effect the sale of it, a species of exchequer bills called *assignats*† was created.

The daring attacks made upon the monarchy had

* The carriages had been got ready for the king's departure, but he refused to go, nobly declaring "that he would rather perish than see the blood of Frenchmen streaming in his quarrel."—ST. ETIENNE.

† See MIGNET's French Revolution, vol. i. p. 163.

determined the hostility of the court and the princes of the blood to the measures of the National Assembly ; the abolition of the privileges of the noblesse, had decided the hostility of the aristocracy ; and those parties were reinforced by the clergy, whom the sale of church property had made implacable enemies to the new order of things. No measures were spared to effect a counter-revolution : great hopes were cherished from the expected dissolution of the assembly, whose powers, as deputies of the States-General, were only for one year. In this however they were disappointed: the king, on the 4th Feb. 1790, went to the Assembly ; and, in an excellent speech, pointed out the wants of the nation, and urged the deputies to complete the constitution, which he promised cordially to maintain : and the Assembly declared that the session should only end with the accomplishment of its labours. In these it proceeded without intermission, notwithstanding the terrible commotions excited by the Roman Catholics at Toulouse, Montaubon, and Nismes, in the spring.

On July 14th, 1790, the anniversary of the capture of the Bastille was celebrated by a grand Confederation in the Champ de Mars ; where the deputies of the eighty-three departments,* the members of the assembly, the Parisian guard, and Louis XVI., in the presence of four hundred thousand spectators, swore to maintain the con-

* France had formerly been divided into provinces, some of which had their respective parliaments and states ; but the National Assembly ordered the division of the kingdom into departments, and suppressed these assemblies.

stitution decreed by the Assembly. Harmony was apparently restored between the king and his people, and every thing seemed to augur the future happiness of France.

But a variety of circumstances revived public distrust. Clubs were formed to discuss the measures of administration: and of these the Jacobin club,* which subsequently ramified through the provinces, became most celebrated. The aristocracy organized similar associations; but, their design being suspected, they were suppressed. France was rent by factions, and filled with gloomy forebodings. A supposed attempt to carry off the king, Feb. 29, 1791,† again rendered the attachment of the monarch to the constitution doubtful: whilst the constant emigration of nobles and priests, and the menacing attitude of almost all the European powers, indicated an approaching struggle.

In April, count Alphonse de Durfort went on a secret

* The meeting of the Breton deputies for the dispatch of business originated this association. On the removal of the National Assembly from Versailles to Paris, they followed; and subsequently held their sittings in the convent of the *Jacobins*, whence they received their designation. "This club," says MIGNET, "changed its spirit with every crisis, without changing its name; it was a kind of frame work, which was all ready for the use of the ruling party, who excluded from it all its opponents."

† A tumult having taken place at Vincennes, La Fayette marched thither with the national guards. Meanwhile three hundred royalists, alarmed for the king's safety, went, with arms concealed about their persons, to the palace to defend him. They were disarmed and dispersed by La Fayette.

mission to the emperor, whom he saw at Mantua, and who promised to aid Louis XVI. with a powerful army, formed by a junction of Germans, Swiss, Spaniards, and Sardinians, in July following. But the emperor requested that all attempts to escape might, for the present, be given up. The state of France was at this period deplorable: "a government the slave of popular tyranny; the sanctuary of the laws surrounded by unruly men, who alternately dictate or despise them; soldiers without discipline; ministers without means; a king, the first friend of his people, plunged into bitterness, insulted, menaced, stripped of all authority; and the public power no longer existing, but in clubs, in which ignorant and rude men dare to decide all political questions."*

The affair of Vincennes had caused the Assembly to decree that the king's departure from the realm would be a forfeiture. Nevertheless Louis and his family renewed the attempt June 20. Every precaution had been taken to secure their flight to Montmedy; † soldiers at different stations on the route escorted them along; every thing seemed favourable, when the king indiscreetly shewed himself at Varennes, was recognized, arrested, and sent back to Paris. Meanwhile the Assembly,—alarmed at this conduct, and irritated by a manifesto, ‡

* See the celebrated letter of the Abbé Raynal to the Assembly, May 1791, in DE MOLEVILLE'S Annals.

† See the particulars in DE BOUILLE'S Memoirs, and DE MOLEVILLE'S Annals.

‡ This highly interesting document forms the Appendix No. xvii. in DE MOLEVILLE'S Annals.

found, June 21, on the king's bureau, in which he condemned the measures of that body,—had assumed the reins of government, and declared the provisional suppression of the royal authority.

This last act of the king was the signal for the appearance of the republican party. A mob, headed by the infamous Robespierre, assembled, July 17, in the Champ de Mars, and demanded the deposition of the king. As the Assembly had declared there were no grounds to pronounce his forfeiture* of the crown, La Fayette was charged with the dispersion of the rioters, who had proceeded to deeds of blood. He therefore hastened to the spot with the national guard, and put the ruffians to flight by a discharge of musketry. By this measure, he and M. Bailly, mayor of Paris, incurred the hatred of the republicans.

The partition treaty of Pilnitz, to which nearly all the sovereigns of Europe, with Austria at their head, were parties, was concluded July 27; and had for its chief object the deliverance of the French king from his captivity: this refused by the Assembly was to be the signal for the invasion of France at several points. Unmoved by these demands, the Assembly proceeded with its labours: the suspension of the royal authority was taken off; the constitution completed was presented to, and cordially accepted by, the king;† an amnesty for

*The Constitutionals were anxious to preserve the monarchy, which they now perceived to be in danger.

† On this occasion all the debtors in France were liberated; and *Te Deum* was sung at the church of *Notre Dame* in Paris,

all offences connected with the revolution was passed ; and on Sep. 30, after a royal speech, which called forth loud plaudits, the Constituent Assembly was dissolved.

The National Legislative Assembly, which succeeded the Constituent, commenced its sittings Oct. 1, 1791, and swore to maintain the Constitution. This body, decidedly democratic, consisted of three factions—Constitutionals, who wished to maintain the revolution by law; Girondists,* who resolved to support it by all possible means; and Republicans, who for a time were auxiliaries to the latter. The Girondists, alarmed by the insurrections in the departments of Calvados, Gévaudan, and La Vendée,—by the continual flight of nobles, and military officers,† to join the emigrant army, forming on the frontiers,—and by the coalition of the foreign powers, resolved on decisive measures. On Nov. 9, all Frenchmen who should be found assembled on the frontier, Jan. 1, 1792, were declared liable to capital punishment; and on the 29th, a severe decree was issued against the clergy who should resist the laws. But the king opposed their measures, and received the support of the Constitutionals. Had he now joined this party sincerely, he would have preserved his life and crown.‡ But he was governed by the court; which,

* So called because the heads of the faction were Vergnaud, Guadet, Gensonné, and Isnard, “orators of the department of the Gironde.” Its leader was Brissot.

† They disliked the Constitution because promotion was no longer confined to nobles, but awarded to seniority.

‡ A firm hand was wanting to check the extravagance of

trusting to the confederacy of European sovereigns, and to intrigue, endeavoured to weaken the two ruling factions by placing them in collision with each other.

Thus actuated, the court gave its interest in favour of Pétion's election to the mayoralty of Paris, Nov. 29, against La Fayette,* and thereby placed the capital in the hands of the Girondists. The king was soon required to choose a Girondist ministry, of which the principals were Dounouriez and Roland; and war was declared against Austria, April 20, 1792. Previous to this, the emigrant princes were declared guilty of conspiracy against the state.

The defeat of two corps of the army, with which the French immediately invaded Belgium, determined the executive to defensive measures. The safety of the state became paramount to all other considerations: the Legislative declared itself permanent; disbanded the body-guards; decreed the banishment of the clergy who resisted the laws; and June 6, ordered the formation of a camp of twenty thousand at Paris. But Louis XVI. indignantly rejected these measures, dismissed the ministry, and elected another from the Feuillants† or Moderates. This club, however, being on the decline in

men to whom power was novelty; and who, *under pretence of abolishing despotism, were establishing the very worst of tyrannies.*

* He was suspected both by royalists and jacobins.

† So called from their place of meeting. It was composed of the most active members of the Constituent Assembly, among whom were Barnave, the Lameths, Siéyes, Talleyrand, Montesquieu, &c.; two hundred and sixty-six members of the legislative body, and eight hundred and eighty citizens.—TALMA.

popular favour, the king began to rely on the coalition, to which he dispatched a secret messenger. Meanwhile all who dreaded republicanism and anarchy, laboured to suppress the clubs, to strengthen the laws, and support the king. But all was in vain; the republican party, supported by all the lower orders, had become formidable; the Jacobin club declared its sittings permanent; denounced La Fayette as an enemy to France; and June 20, some thousands of the populace, whom Pétion did not attempt to restrain, burst into the Thuilleries, entered the king's apartments, and insulted him in the grossest manner. The constitutional party, however, and the national-guard, tendered their services to his majesty; the duke of Rochefoucault Liancour wished him to go to Rouen, where the soldiers would defend him; and La Fayette proposed to place him at the head of the army at Compiègne: but the king declined their services.

The crisis was now approaching. The Girondists, triumphant, declared the country in danger; the whole population was armed, and a camp formed at Soissons; and every measure resorted to which could ensure the triumph of their party. The Austrian and Prussian armies, consisting of one hundred and thirty-eight thousand men, began their march July 25. It was to have been commanded by Gustavus of Sweden; but his assassination at a masquerade by Ankerstrom,* Mar. 16,

* Some interesting particulars of this event are given by the MARQUIS DE BOUILLE, then in the Swedish service.

had transferred the command to the duke of Brunswick. This officer published a manifesto, charging the National and Legislative Assemblies with all the disorders in which France was involved; avowing the intention of the coalition to re-establish the old order of things; threatening with military execution all the inhabitants of the towns which dared to defend themselves; and denouncing vengeance on "the members of the Assembly, of the department, of the district, of the municipality, and of the national-guard," and the total destruction of Paris, if the king were not restored to liberty and power: promising, however, the good offices of the confederates with Louis to procure their pardon "if they promptly obeyed the orders of the coalition." This declaration, which reached Paris on the 27th, greatly irritated the French; and the republicans, availing themselves of the general excitement, agitated the dethronement of the king.

The month of August began with popular insurrections organized by the republicans: and on the 10th, the king and his family fled to the Legislative Assembly for protection against the armed bands who beset the Thuilleries on every side. After his departure they forced the palace; a dreadful conflict ensued between the assailants and the Swiss guards; who, surrounded on every side, and exposed to the artillery which had been brought to act upon them, were almost cut off to a man. Thousands of the aggressors perished; but the monarchy was no more. On the 12th, Louis and his family were consigned to the temple; and soon after all

the statues of the kings, and all the emblems of royalty were destroyed. Determined to be avenged on all their enemies, the republicans sent commissioners to Sedan on the 14th, to arrest La Fayette: but that general committed them to prison; and, on the 19th, accompanied by several officers, he left the army and proceeded towards Holland, intending from thence to escape "to the United States, his second country."* But falling into the hands of the Austrians, he was imprisoned at Magdeburg and Olmütz for five years.

On the 24th, Longwy, after a bombardment, surrendered to the Prussians; on the 25th, earl Gower, the British ambassador, was recalled; and, on the 30th, the duke of Brunswick began the attack of Verdun.† The loss of this place would necessarily expose Paris to the invaders. The capital was in the greatest agitation; and the republicans, beset with enemies within and without, proceeded to terrible extremities. Domiciliary visits were made; and great numbers of clergy, nobility, and others, were committed to prison on account of their rank, opinions, or conduct. The news of the capture of Verdun, which arrived on the night of the 1st Sept. filled Paris with consternation; and the republicans seized this moment to effect their murderous designs. An armed band of three hundred ruffians visited all the

* In the American war he had fought by the side of Washington. For his character, see MIGNET's French Revolution, vol. i. p. 317—319, and BOUILLE's Memoirs.

† The plan of this invasion was devised by the MARQUIS DE BOUILLE.—See his Memoirs.

prisons in Paris, and murdered the unhappy inmates,—nobles, priests, staff officers of the Swiss, and the ladies of the court, among whom was the princess Lamballe. In vain the Assembly and ministry tried to stop these sanguinary proceedings, which continued for three days to outrage humanity.

Meanwhile it became necessary to oppose the invading armies, and therefore the executive confided the chief command to Dumouriez. His military skill soon interrupted the march of the allies; and some partial advantages gained, Sept. 20, by Kellerman's corps, over the Prussians first, and afterwards over the Austrians, at Valmy, caused them to retrograde. On the 21st, ROYALTY was abolished, and the REPUBLIC proclaimed by the National Convention,* which on that day commenced its sittings in the Thuilleries. After a few days the invading army began to retreat; the French prosecuted their advantages; and at the close of the campaign the army of emigrants was disbanded, Verdun and Longwy retaken, and several important cities belonging to the enemy were in the hands of the republic.

But the Convention, instead of legislating, was surrendered to intestine disputes. The Girondists and the Mountain† struggled for the mastery; until the latter, supported by the whole body of the Jacobins, now de-

* The notorious Thomas Paine was a member of this assembly; and, on the trial of the king, voted for his banishment.

† This party sat at the *top* of the left side in the Convention, and were so named to distinguish them from the *Plain*, or *neutral* members on the same side.

cided republicans, gained the ascendant. In vain the Girondists denounced, as enemies of liberty, Robespierre and Marat,* who now began to act a conspicuous part : the die was cast ; and France was doomed to experience, under the name of liberty, all the tyranny of a sanguinary faction. After an arduous struggle between contending parties, Louis XVI. was placed at the bar of the Convention, Dec. 11, tried, and condemned, Jan. 17, 1793.†

The death of Louis roused all Europe to arms against France : into this war England plunged with more zeal than any other power ; and a long and destructive contest was the consequence. The republic experienced many reverses ; several departments were in a state of insurrection, especially Brittany and La Vendée ; the foreign armies were victorious ; and the consternation thus excited was still further increased by the defection of general Dumouriez, who took refuge in the Austrian

* This ruffian, in a paper called *l'Ami du Peuple*, which he edited, advocated massacre and assassination. He was stabbed July 14, 1793, by Charlotte Cordé, who was guillotined for the offence.

† This ill-fated monarch was executed on the 21st, in the square of the revolution. He attempted to address the people from the scaffold, but the beating of the drums drowned his noise ; three executioners seized him, and at ten minutes past ten he was no more. “ Thus perished, at the age of thirty-nine, after a reign of sixteen years and a half, passed in endeavouring to do good, the best but the weakest of monarchs ! — He perished, the victim of passions which he did not share ; of the passions of those about him to which he was a stranger ; and those of the multitude, which he had not excited.” — MIGNET.

camp. The republicans made these disasters serve as pretexts for desperate measures; the property of the emigrants was confiscated; those who returned to France were executed; severe laws were enacted against suspected priests and nobles; and the revolutionary tribunal began its work of death.

From April, 1793, when the murders sanctioned by the Convention, then under the influence of Robespierre, his brother, Marat, Billaud-Varenes, Collot-d'Herbois, Couthon, St. Just, Danton, Dumas, and the other infamous names who vied with each other in outraging humanity, began, until July, 1794, France was the theatre of the most appalling scenes which the pen of history records. Every individual inimical to these infuriated monsters, or suspected of being so, was ordered to the guillotine; deputies of the convention, officers of the army, priests, nobles, and numbers of the middle classes,* were, from time to time, sent off, by thirty, forty, sixty, and eighty together, to execution. Neither age nor sex was spared by the ruffians; who, habituated to their murderous occupation, frequently pronounced the sentence of death in jocular terms. Meanwhile, fully alive to impending danger within and without, they prepared for war with the greatest vigour. Every man from eighteen to twenty-five being ordered to take arms, the republic soon had forty armies, and one million two hundred thousand soldiers. France became, "on the one hand, a

* The rich were often sacrificed for the sake of their wealth. "The guillotine coins money for the republic," was a saying of one of these wretches.—DE MOLEVILLE.

camp and a workshop for the republicans, and, on the other, a prison for the disaffected ;" whilst " a revolutionary army of six thousand soldiers and a thousand artillerymen was created for the interior." " They placed the public functionaries under the inspection of clubs, and formed a revolutionary committee in each section ; on every side they presented a bold front both to their enemies abroad and the insurgents at home."

The war between the republic and the coalition was vigorously carried on, but without any decisive circumstance until the capture of Valenciennes, about the end of July, 1793, by the Austrian and English troops. In Aug. Toulon was captured by the British forces under lord Hood, and for a time supported the royalist cause. Nevertheless the Convention was successful against its enemies, whom it visited with terrible severity. The Queen was guillotined Oct. 16 ; the chiefs of the Girondists* on the 31st ; in Nov. the duke of Orleans,† madame Roland,‡

*The attempt to save the king was their chief crime. Twenty-one were executed, and seventy-one detained in prison.

† He was called citizen Egalité, and had voted for the death of Louis XVI. his relative.

The causes of the difference between the duke of Orleans and the court were three: 1st, the refusal of his request during the American war, of the reversion of the office of high admiral, then filled by his father-in-law, the duke de Penthièvre. 2nd, his banishment in 1788, on account of his conduct at the royal sitting held in the parliament at Paris. 3rd, the stop put by the queen to the marriage of his daughter with the duke d'Angouleme.—BOUILLE'S Memoirs.

‡ She was the wife of the ex-minister Roland, a woman of extraordinary talents, and the soul of the Girondist party. She suffered with great fortitude.

M. Bailly,* and a vast number of priests and nobles. Excesses of every kind were tolerated; a new division of the year was decreed,† and Sept. 22, 1792, distinguished as the beginning of a new æra for France. The bishop of Paris and his rectors were compelled by a frantic rabble to abjure *Christianity*, and the Convention to decree the worship of *Reason*.

In Dec. Toulon was re-captured; and in Feb. 1794, La Vendée, the strong-hold of royalty, subdued. The vengeance exercised by the republicans on these places was dreadful. "General Thurreau surrounded La Vendée with sixteen entrenched camps; twelve columns, known by the name of the *infernal columns*, scoured the country with fire and sword, explored the

* He was a philosopher, and had been deputy for Paris at the States-General, and subsequently mayor.

† They divided the year into twelve months of thirty days each, abolished the sabbath, divided each month into three decades, or periods of ten days each: and the five complimentary days were ordained festivals to Virtue, Labour, Genius, Opinion, and Rewards. The months were called

Vendemaire,	Vintage Month,	Sep. 22.
Brumaire,	Fog Month,	Oct. 22.
Frimaire,	Frosty Month,	Nov. 21.
Nivose,	Snow Month,	Dec. 21.
Pluviose,	Rainy Month,	Jan. 20.
Ventose,	Windy Month,	Feb. 19.
Germinal,	Blossom Month,	Mar. 21.
Floreale,	Flower Month,	Apr. 20.
Prairial,	Meadow Month,	May 20.
Messidor,	Harvest Month,	June 19.
Thermidor,	Hot Month,	July 19.
Fructidor,	Fruit Month,	Aug. 18.

woods, carried off those who were collected together and spread terror throughout this unfortunate country."

In 1794 the war was carried on by the republic with great success. But the reign of terror was at its height; Robespierre and his emissaries deluged France with the blood of her children.* His old partizans at last were wearied with these cruelties, and many of them, unwilling to support his measures, were put to death. At length, after many ineffectual attempts, he was denounced in July, and on the 27th, was added, with several of his inhuman coadjutors, to the list of victims slain by the guillotine. The revolutionary tribunal was re-organized; justice and clemency recommended by the committee of safety; multitudes relieved from prison; and the reign of terror closed. In Oct. the Jacobin clubs were suppressed;† and in Dec. an amnesty for all state criminals, with few exceptions, decreed:‡ the royalist insurgents, at the beginning of 1795, accepted the amnesty, and the civil war was for a time suspended.

The campaign of 1794 had been particularly favourable for France; and at the close of the year the republic

* May 12, 1794, thirty-three nobles were guillotined, and afterwards madame Elizabeth, sister to Louis XVI. July 25, one hundred and thirty-four persons were condemned to the same fate, and among them the unfortunate baron Trenck.

† Many curious facts relative to sundry individuals, to whom the ABBE BARRUEL attributes the revolution, are to be found in his History of Jacobinism.

‡ The murderous associates and agents of Robespierre and his party were excepted. Nearly all these monsters suffered for their atrocities.

were in possession of the Austrian Netherlands ; the United Provinces ; the principalities of Liege and Monaco ; the bishoprics of Spire and Worms ; the duchies of Deux Ponts, Juliers, and Cleves ; the electorates of Trèves, Cologne, and Mentz ; the continental dominions of the Sardinian king, and part of Biscay and Catalonia.

The subsequent history of the republic is a tissue of party-struggles for power ; of massacres, in which royalists and republicans alike disgraced themselves by barbarities of the most shocking kind ; and of internal conspiracies, and foreign coalition : during the progress of which the government of France passed Oct. 1795,* to two Councils, (one of the Ancients, and another of the Five Hundred) and a Directory ; † Dec. 13, 1799, to a triple consulate, of which Bonaparte was the first, Cambaceres the second, and Le Brun the third ; May 2, 1802, to a Dictatorship, under the first Consul ; and finally, May 20, 1804, into the hands of an Emperor. Without a consolidated government, rent by faction within and assaulted by hosts of foes without, endangered by perpetual insurrections, [sometimes republican, sometimes royalist,] a dictator was perhaps necessary to heal the wounds of France.

The splendid victories of Bonaparte, ‡ the most

* The Convention closed Oct. 26, after having sat three years.

† This consisted of five individuals—Larévèillère-Lepaux, Rewbell, Letourneur, Barras, and Carnot.

‡ Napoleon Bonaparte was born at Ajaccio in Corsica, Aug. 15, 1769. On the death of his father, Charles Bonaparte,

distinguished of all the republican generals, in Italy, and his subsequent exploits in Egypt and Syria, had

M. de Marbœuf, commander in the island, placed him first at the college of Autun, and afterwards at the military college of Brienne; from whence in 1785 he removed to finish his studies at the military academy of Paris. He first distinguished himself at the re-capture of Toulon, in Dec. 1793: but his grand military career did not commence until Oct. 1795, when Barras, appointed to the command in Paris, named him his second; in which capacity he suppressed a formidable attack made on the 5th, by forty thousand insurgents on the Convention. After this he was made general of the interior; and in Feb. 1796, was appointed to the command in Italy. His *first* victory April 11, at Montenotte, was the precursor of signal successes. In a series of battles, of which those at Millesimo, at Mondovi, at the bridge of Lodi, at Castiglione, at Roveredo, at Arcola, at Rivoli, and at Tagliamento, are conspicuous, he humbled Sardinia, the Italian states, and Austria, and compelled them to take peace almost on his own terms. The Sardinian war terminated after six victories, in fifteen days; and the campaign against Austria was ended by a treaty of peace signed April 18, 1797. He was now feared by the Directory; who, to rid themselves of so formidable a competitor, sent him to Egypt, May, 1798, with a large army, intended to menace the English East India possessions. In his voyage thither, being denied permission to take in fresh water at Malta, by the grand master, he landed some troops, and took possession of the island. In Egypt and Syria he gained a series of victories; but the valour of Sir Sydney Smith checked the tide of his success in the latter country. The arrival of Turkish reinforcements also made his return to Egypt indispensable. On the 25th July, 1799, he gave them a signal defeat at Aboukir, drove ten thousand of them into the sea, and made the Pacha prisoner.

But hearing of fresh commotions in France, he confided his army, which had no special object in view, as the idea of attacking India had been renounced, to general Kleber, and

made him the idol of the people, who longed to bestow on him extraordinary marks of favour. Repeated attempts on his life only enhanced his merit in their esteem. Besides, he had the address to veil his restless and insatiable ambition by great exertions for the public welfare. He destroyed the factions that had distracted France; re-introduced the clergy; conciliated the

Aug. 23, embarked for France, where he landed Oct. 9. He was hailed everywhere with acclamation; and each party sought to gain him, whilst he cautiously availed himself of such means as were likely to promote the design he had formed of grasping at the government. In conjunction with Abbé Siêyes, and aided by the troops, he dissolved the directory, and the legislative body, Nov. 9; established a provisional administration under Siêyes, Roger Ducos, and himself, until Dec. 13, when the authority was lodged in the hands of a triple consulate, in which rank he took the first place.

Bonaparte's interference in the government was generally popular, because as he had been careful not to connect himself with parties, each faction hoped to reap the benefit of a change. Meanwhile, anxious to wield the energies of France against external foes, he resolved by all possible means to terminate its civil dissensions. For this purpose he called around him men of all parties, and thus conciliated the moderate of all classes. He then directed his attention to the continent, where the armies of the *second* coalition menaced the tranquillity of France. He left Paris May 6, 1800, crossed Mount St. Bernard, entered Milan June 2, and on the 14th, on the plains of Marengo, decided the fate of Italy by the signal defeat of the Austrians. Eighteen days after he returned to Paris, where he was received with acclamations. From this period to the peace of Amiens, March 27, 1802, he laboured to procure internal tranquillity for France, in which he completely succeeded.—MIGNET'S French Revolution, BIOGRAPHIE MODERNE, &c.

hostile priests; and encouraged industry and commerce. "He sought his own glory in the prosperity of France. He surveyed the departments, cut out canals and harbours, built bridges, repaired the roads, erected monuments, and multiplied the means of communication. He prided himself especially in being the protector and the legislator of domestic interests: and the *civil, penal, and commercial* codes, which he undertook, completed in this respect the work of the revolution." After the peace of Amiens, 1802, he re-established the clergy; and, by the institution of the legion of honour, created a new aristocracy. But the liberty of the press, which all aspirants to despotism dread, was taken away; and in defiance of some few unbending republicans, who suspected his designs, he completed his schemes, and assumed the imperial dignity, May 20, 1804. He was crowned at Paris, Dec. 2, by pope Pius VII.

England, irreconcilable to the new order of things in France, was unremitting in her attacks against the colossal power of that country; and, whilst her fleets rode triumphant on the ocean,† annihilated the foreign

* The English were as successful by sea in the late war, as the French by land; and her NAVAL CHRONICLE represents an almost unbroken series of victories. The principal of these were the battle off Brest, June 1, 1794, gained by Lord Howe; off Cape St. Vincent, Feb. 14, 1797, by Sir J. Jervis; off Camperdown, Oct. 11, by Admiral Duncan; off Aboukir, at the mouth of the Nile, Aug. 1, 1798, and off Cape Trafalgar, Oct. 21, 1805, by Lord Nelson; off Cape Ortegal, Nov. 4, by Sir R. Strachan; and that in Basque Roads, April 11, 1809, by Lord Cochrane.

commerce of her rivals, and seized upon their colonial possessions, her money, lavished profusely among the needy sovereigns of the continent, stirred up repeated coalitions against France. Five times† the whole of continental Europe was prostrated before the military genius of Gaul; but a sixth coalition was fatal to the imperial eagles. Spain, which Bonaparte had invaded in 1807, offered an unexpected resistance; and the war, carried on by the Spanish patriots and the British auxiliaries, being protracted until 1812, Russia, having completed her armaments, declared war against France, her former ally. Bonaparte, with his accustomed rapidity, crossed the Niemen, June 24, and invaded Russia with five hundred thousand men. After a series of battles at Ostrowno, Mohilow, Smolensk, and Moskowa, he entered Moscow Sep. 14. After improvidently remain-

† The *first* coalition against France, March, 1793, was dissolved by the brilliant campaign of 1796; the *second*, April, 1799, was paralyzed and subsequently dissolved by the defeat of the Austrians at Marengo, June 14, 1800; the *third*, April, 1805, was destroyed by the victory gained at Austerlitz, Dec. 2, over the Anstrians and Russians; the *fourth*, Sept. 1806, was terminated by the peace of Tilsit, June 21, 1807, the result of a series of victories gained by the French over the Prussians, at Jena, Oct. 14, and over the Russians, at Eylau, Feb. 8, 1807, and at Friedland, June 14; the *fifth*, April 1809, was destroyed by the defeat of the Austrians at Eckmuhl and Esling, which consigned Vienna to the victor, May 12, and by the decisive battle of Wagram, July 8. After his occupation of Vienna, he issued a proclamation, May 17, abolishing the temporal power of the pope, and uniting his dominions to the French empire.—See MIGNET'S French Revolution.

ing there six weeks, in hopes of treating with Russia, he began his retreat. But it was too late: the Russians, in retiring before him, had laid waste the country on every side, and burnt their towns; and almost all this fine army, exposed to the severe frosts of a Russian climate and to famine, perished, and with it the good fortune of Napoleon.

These disasters, though they did not cause the emperor to despair, revived the hopes of oppressed Europe. In 1813 the sixth coalition was begun against him by England, Russia, and Prussia. The campaign opened, however, auspiciously for Napoleon, who gained several victories: but the defeat of his lieutenants, and the continued defection of his old allies, compelled him to retreat. In the tremendous battle of Leipsic, the Saxons and Wirtembergers passed over to the enemy in the field of battle; and Napoleon, after a desperate struggle, re-crossed the Rhine, Oct. 30, 1813, and re-entered France.

The campaign of 1814 rolled the vast armies of continental Europe, like a torrent, into France. Napoleon displayed his usual military genius; and had not treachery and indifference been manifested by his lieutenants, and even by the members of his own family, the invading hosts, instead of a triumph, might have reaped disgrace. But, attacked in so many places at once, and betrayed by Talleyrand, who had been disgraced by him, he was compelled to submit to adverse fate. The Bourbon dynasty, in the person of Louis XVIII. was replaced on the throne of France by four hundred thousand foreign

bayonets, and Napoleon, after ruling the continent for ten years, was restricted to the sovereignty of Elba.*

The allied armies had scarcely retired from France, when in March, 1815, the ex-emperor, with one thousand men, set sail from Elba, landed in France, and directed his march to the capital. Everywhere his return was hailed with acclamation by a devoted soldiery; and he entered Paris at the head of a large army. The Bourbon princes fled; Europe was in consternation; the contending parties again took the field at Waterloo; and after a series of battles the French army was vanquished. The Bourbon dynasty was again restored; and Napoleon, after surrendering himself to the British government, was sent to St. Helena.†

The commencement of the Republic of Hayti . . . 1797

The revolution in France was followed by dreadful commotions in St. Domingo, Aug. 1791, where the *men of colour* resolved to assert their freedom by the sword. A sanguinary conflict was the result, in which the massacres, conflagrations, &c. that had taken place in France were repeated. But all attempts to reduce the island have hitherto proved ineffectual: and the Haytians now present the singular spectacle of a *Black Empire*, considerably advanced in civilization.‡

* See MIGNET's French Rev. vol. ii.

† Here he remained in a state of severe captivity until his death, May 5, 1821. The narratives of O'MEARA, his surgeon, and of his confidential friends MONTHOLON, LAS CASAS, &c. afford ample particulars concerning his life and imprisonment.

‡ The beautiful and fertile island, called Hayti by the aborigines, Espagnola by the Spaniards, and St. Domingo by the French, and considered as the

The union of Ireland to Great Britain 1800

Ireland is represented in the British parliament by twenty-eight peers and one hundred commoners.

garden of the West Indies, contained, in 1492, when discovered by Columbus, a million of inhabitants. In return for extraordinary acts of kindness shewn by the natives to the Spaniards, they were reduced to a slavery so abject, and compelled to labour so severe, that within the short space of twenty-five years they were diminished to fourteen thousand souls.

To remedy this loss, forty thousand of the simple inhabitants of the Lucay or Bahama islands were decoyed to Espagnola by the treachery of the Spaniards. This number being still insufficient for the purposes of culture, the inhuman and avaricious Spaniards turned their eyes towards Africa.

The odious and inhuman commerce, branded by the name of *slave trade*, which has too long desolated Africa, to the disgrace of christian governments so called, owed its origin to baseness, perfidy, and cupidity. Gonsales, a Portuguese navigator, in 1440, kidnapped ten Moors near Cape Bajador; and on restoring these men to their country shortly after, by command of his prince, he received as a recompense, from the Moors at Rio del Oro, *ten blacks* and a quantity of gold dust. This tempted another essay; and at length ships were equipped, and settlements formed, for this execrable commerce. Nevertheless the trade made no very considerable advances until about 1517, when the necessities of Espagnola induced Charles V. to grant a patent to one of his Flemish favourites for the introduction of four thousand slaves into the island. This patent was sold to some Genoese merchants; and then commenced a regular trade between Africa and the West India islands. Still, however, little was effected in the colony; the island did not thrive in the hands of the Spaniards.

The unexplored islands of the new world being favourable for pirates and free-booters, some of them were occupied in the beginning of the seventeenth century by a set of desperate adventurers, called *Buccaniers*, from *Buccans*, places in which, after the manner of the Spaniards, they cured their meat by smoking it over fires of green wood. St. Christophers was their first settlement; but on being dislodged from thence by the Spaniards, to whom in consequence they owed a mortal hatred, which they were not tardy to demonstrate, they took refuge in the barren isle of Tortuga, not far from Port Paix in Espagnola. But about 1660, some of the French *Buccaniers* obtained footing in St. Domingo, and commenced a settlement. The infant colony, in 1665, attracted the notice of the French government; great attention was paid to secure all the advantages which it promised; and the colony rose to a state of prosperity almost unexampled.

In 1688, the capture of some slaves from the English was followed by the culture of the sugar cane, which was carried on with signal success; and within a century from that period the island contained 793 sugar plantations,

A revolution in Sweden, effected by the influence of Bonaparte. Gustavus Adolphus IV. deposed, and the duke of Sudermania elevated to the throne under the title of Charles XIII..... 1809

On Aug. 21, 1810, Bernadotte, the French general, was elected crown prince of Sweden; and has since acceded to the throne.

3117 of coffee, 789 of cotton, 3160 of indigo, 54 of cocoa, and 623 smaller settlements for raising various articles of food. In 1789, the population consisted of 30,000 Whites; 24,000 Mulattoes, who were debarred from almost all civil rights; and 480,000 Negroes. The administration was vested in a governor-general, whose power was absolute; and an intendant, who directed the finance.

At the period of the Revolution, the mulattoes, many of whom were rich and well educated, were eager to put in their claim to the civil rights enjoyed by the white colonists. The National Assembly by a decree, May 15, 1791, raised them to the rank of citizens; but this declaration, intended as a boon to the mulattoes, brought upon them the indignation and suspicion of the whites; and, apprehensive of an attack from them, they took arms in self-defence. Fearing, however, the superiority of their adversaries, they engaged large bodies of negroes in their cause; and thus originated that formidable insurrection, which terminated the dominion of the French in St. Domingo. It broke out, Aug. 23, 1791, with a horrible massacre of the planters, and the conflagration of the plantations, in the vicinity of Cape François.

The commissioners sent by the French legislature, and who arrived at St. Domingo, Sep. 13, 1792, to confirm the rights decreed, April 4, to the *mulattoes* and *free negroes*, by which they were made eligible as representatives, quarrelled with all the authorities, and engrossed all power to themselves. M. Galbaud, appointed governor by the Convention, arriving in St. Domingo May 7, 1793, had recourse to force to overawe them: but to the utter consternation of the planters, the commissioners invited the aid of the *rebel* negroes, and promised freedom to all who should join their standard. They were consequently joined by thousands; while thousands more, mistrusting the sincerity of the commissioners, availed themselves of the opportunity to retire to the mountains.

Recourse being now had to the British government, several corps of British troops were sent, from time to time, to St. Domingo. The first armament arrived Sep. 19, 1793; but the skill of the negro chiefs, the numerical superiority of their troops, and the yellow fever which broke out in the British army, rendered all their military prowess abortive: and at the fall of the year 1798, general Maitland entered into a negotiation with Toussaint, recognized the *neutrality* of St. Domingo, and evacuated the island with his

The establishment of the Republic of Columbia . 1821

During the prostration of the Spanish monarchy by the events of the late war, her American colonies successively threw off the dominion of the mother country, whose imbecility rendered even her own political existence a problem, and were formed into several republics. One of the principal of these is Columbia, in the north of the southern continent; formed 1821, under the direction of the truly illustrious BOLIVAR, a magnanimous patriot, distinguished by his admiring countrymen as *the Liberator*, a title justified by his late voluntary surrender of authority. The independence of these republics has lately been secured by their treaties with Great Britain.

troops. In the course of the struggle the Spanish colony had been ceded to the French; so that the departure of their allies transferred the dominion of the island to the Blacks.

The most distinguished of the negro chiefs were Jean François, Blassou, Boukmant, Christophé, Dessalines, and Toussaint L'Ouverture. The latter is the *hero of St. Domingo*. He was born, 1745, on the estate of the count de Noé, near Cape François. While tending his master's flocks he learned to read, write, and calculate; and thus laid the foundation of his future acquirements. M. Bayou, attorney to the estate, perceiving him to be a man of ability, appointed him his postillion; *an enviable distinction* among the negroes: this kindness the grateful Toussaint never forgot:

Toussaint's mind expanded with his studies; but works on political affairs and military tactics seem to have been his chief delight. His moral qualities procured for him the esteem of all who knew him. As the estate of Noé was the cradle of the rebellion, his co-operation was sought; but he refused his consent. Feeling at last, probably, that he would not be allowed to be neutral in an exterminating warfare, he first secured the safety and comfort of M. Bayou and family, and then made common cause with his countrymen. He joined the corps under Blassou, and was made second in command to him. Blassou being subsequently deprived of his authority, because of his cruelty, Toussaint was appointed to the command of a division; and, finally, made commander-in-chief. At the cessation of the war, he made a tour through the island; attached to his person individuals whose talents were likely to subserve the interests of the country; effected several reformatations in the local authorities; and put the island in a state of complete defence. On the 1st July, 1801, a declaration of INDEPENDENCE was published.

The erection of the Brazilian empire 1822

The house of Braganza, terrified at the ambitious projects of Bonaparte, fled to the Brazils, in 1808. In 1821, the king returned to Portugal: in the following year, the Brazilians declared themselves independent, and elevated Don Pedro, the king's eldest son, to the throne, under the title of Emperor.

On the 28th Dec. following, the French armament, commanded by Le Clerc, Bonaparte's brother-in-law, and intended to reduce the negroes, arrived at St. Domingo.

The history of his campaign is a record of the most flagrant baseness, treachery, and cruelty. Suffice it to say, that Toussaint, lulled into security by a treaty of peace May 8, 1802, retired to his estate at Gonaives; whence, within a few days, he and his family were dragged at midnight, by some troops landed from two ships of war, and embarked for France. Until June 11, when he arrived at Brest, he was not allowed to communicate with his family, and he then saw them only to take an agonizing farewell. He was conveyed first to the Castle of Joux in Normandy, and afterwards to Besançon, where the cruel treatment he received caused his death within twelve months. The fate of this extraordinary man will be a lasting stigma to the French government. What became of his family is not known.

Christophé and Dessalines, roused by this almost unexampled perfidy, rejoined their brethren in arms, and vigorously renewed the war. Disease meantime made great ravages in the French army. Le Clerc died Nov. 1, 1802, and was succeeded by Rochambeau. The Blacks, who were now gaining ground on every side, retaliated all the cruelties of the French army. Opportunely for St. Domingo, the war in Europe was recommenced; the British fleet had possession of the sea, and July, 1803, a squadron arrived off the island. Cut off from all supplies, the French capitulated first to Dessalines, (who did honour to humanity by foregoing his vengeance on the assassins, who had suffocated with brimstone ship-loads of their prisoners, and caused others to be devoured by blood-hounds;) and afterwards to the British commodore, Loring, who conveyed them to Jamaica. On the 29th Nov. Dessalines, Christophé, and Clerveaux, issued a proclamation of INDEPENDENCE.

On 1st Jan. 1804, the French nation was solemnly **ABJURED** in a most energetic proclamation, which was followed by another on the 28th April: and on the 8th Oct. 1804, the first year of INDEPENDENCE, Dessalines was crowned emperor of Hayti.—See RAINSFORD'S and EDWARDS' History of St. Domingo, and ABBE RAYNAL'S History of the Indies.

QUESTIONS.

	Page.
Of what does chronology treat?	1
How was time measured in the early ages?	„
Who first attempted to determine a fixed æra?.....	„
What historical record forms the basis of almost every chronological system?	2
Whence originate the difficulties of chronology?	„
How are they removed?	3
What superstition seems to have resulted from Tsabism? ..	„
What were supposed to be the effects of the configura- tions and aspects of the planets?	„
What memorable instance of superstition is recorded of the Athenians?	4
Have any benefits resulted from the superstition con- nected with astrology?.....	5
Prove the present existence of this superstition	6
What imposture rose out of it?	„
In what countries, and by what persons, has this super- stition been patronized?	„
Of what does chronology take cognizance?	7
What is a day? how computed by different nations? which mode the most ancient?	„
Who invented the sun-dial?	7
How did the Greeks measure the day previous to the introduction of the dial?.....	„
Give some account of clocks; of watches	8
What circumstance caused the invention of the lanthorn? ..	„
What is a week?	9
How were the days distinguished by the Hebrews?....	„
Whence are the English names of the days derived? ..	„
How many kinds of months are there? Define them ..	„
How did Cæsar cause the months to be arranged?	10

	Page.
Whence were derived the present names of the months?	10
Give some account of the Roman months	11
Explain the term <i>hissextile</i>	12
How is the festival of Easter regulated?.....	„
How many kinds of years are there?	13
Give some account of the Roman year	„
How did Cæsar remedy its defects?.....	10—13
What is the difference between the Julian, and the true solar year?	14
Who effected the last improvement of the calendar? ..	„
When was the Gregorian computation adopted in England?	15
What is meant by old style? new style?.....	„
Was the new style favourably received by the multitude?	„
How did Hogarth ridicule the popular prejudice?	„
Give some account of the lunar year?	16
What are cycles? the solar cycle? the lunar cycle? and cycle of indiction?	„
What is the Julian period? what is its use?	17
To what year of each cycle does the current year answer?	17—19
Give some account of the golden number; its names; and use	19
What is the epact? How calculated?.....	„
Why is 1 subtracted from the golden number in that calculation?	20
How did the Greeks and Romans compute time?	21
How do Jews, Christians, and Mahometans reckon it?..	„
What is an epocha? an æra?	„
How is history divided?	„
Define sacred history; ecclesiastical history; profane history; ancient and modern history	„
Repeat the nine æras of sacred history; of profane ancient history; of modern history	22
Relate the chief events between the Creation and the Deluge.....	23
With whom are Jabal, Tubal-Cain, & Naamah identified?	„
What took place between the Deluge and Calling of Abraham?	„

	Page.
Who erected the first monarchy?	24
Where did Elam, Asshur, Aram, Lud, the children of Cush, Mizraim, the Canaanites, Madai, Javan, Tiras, Gomer, Magog, Meshech, and Tubal settle?	,,
Did the children of Noah preserve the true faith?	,,
Was the fear of God entirely thrown aside?	,,
With whom did God enter into a covenant?	25
Relate the most remarkable events between the Call of Abraham and the Exode.....	,,
Between the Exode and the Founding of the Temple ..	26
What memorable events distinguish the interval between the Founding of the Temple and the Captivity?.....	26—27
What is observed by Michaelis relative to the Assyrian monarchy?	26
What is singular in the history of the monarchy of the Ten Tribes?	,,
Name the most pious of the Jewish princes?	27
Relate the principal events occurring between the Cap- tivity and the Restoration	28
Between the Restoration and the Nativity	28—29
Why are only <i>four</i> great monarchies noticed in prophecy?	28
How many temples were there?	29
State some particulars relative to the adoption of the Christian æra.....	,,
For what is the period between the Nativity and A. D. 135, memorable?	30—32
State some particulars relative to the dispersions.....	,,
What mode of arranging sacred history is remarkable for its ingenuity?	33
How is ancient profane history divided?.....	34
To what ages of the world are the obscure, fabulous, and historical periods to be referred?	,,
To what may the mass of fiction pervading the earliest records be attributed?.....	,,
Can any ancient records be depended upon?.....	,,
What events are usually assigned to the obscure and fabulous periods?	36

	Page.
How are the dates assigned to the events of those periods to be received?	36
What nations claim the honour of the invention of letters? ..	,,
Name some of the principal argonauts.....	37
Relate some particulars relative to the Trojan war	,,
What were the olympic games? the rewards of the victor? ..	39
What other games were observed by the Greeks?	,,
On how many hills did Rome stand?.....	40
For what were some of them famous?	,,
How was Rome peopled?	41
Name some principal events between the building of Rome, and the age of Cyrus	,,
Name the kings of Persia, and relate the principal events connected with their reigns.....	42
Which was the most illustrious period of Grecian history, and why?.....	45
Name some of these famous characters	,,
What was the consequence of the burning of Sardis? of the burning of Athens?	,,
To what may the Peloponnesian war be traced?	46
What was its duration, and what its consequences?....	,,
Who were the Helots? How were they treated?	,,
What nations successively predominated in Greece, after the Peloponnesian war?	47
Name some illustrious Thebans	,,
What famous general was the pupil of Epaminondas? ..	48
In what condition was Macedon at Philip's accession?..	,,
What are <i>philippics</i> ? For what is Chæronea famous? ..	49
What was the end of Philip?	,,
Who was the tutor of Alexander the Great?	,,
In what state was Macedon at Alexander's accession? ..	,,
Relate some of his exploits, and what his character and death?.....	50
What became of his family?	(59) 51
Relate some events between the Invasion of Greece by Darius, and the Æra of the Seleucidæ	,,
What is remarkable of this æra?	,,

	Page.
What was the character and fate of the Seleucidæ? ...	52
Name the princes of the dynasty of Ptolemy Lagus, and mention some particulars concerning them	53
What was the final partition of Alexander's empire? ..	,,
Name some particulars about ancient Egypt	,,
Name some remarkable events and characters between the epocha of the Ptolemies and the first Punic war:.....	54
Who were the Carthaginians? What their character, religion, government, resources, armies, and wars?.....	55
Relate some particulars concerning the Phœnicians....	,,
In what originated the first Punic war?	56
What consequences resulted to Carthage from the employment of mercenaries?	,,
What is memorable concerning Hannibal?	57
How did the third Punic war originate?	58
How did the Carthaginians defend themselves?	,,
Name some remarkable events and characters between the first Punic war and the Conquest of Macedon.....	59
How were Cassander's sons deprived of the crown? ..	,,
Into whose hands did the kingdom ultimately fall?	60
Who were Pyrrhus and Demetrius Poliorcetes? .. (53)	,,
What was the Achæan league? when, and by whom, was it revived?	61
Who was Aratus? what his exploits? and fate?.....	62
Relate some particulars concerning Philip, son of Antigonus Doson	,,
Of what was Perseus guilty? what his fate?	63
Of what was the first library at Rome formed?.....	64
What became of Corinth?	,,
Did the Romans, with the wealth and power they had acquired, retain their boasted virtue?	65
What was the Agrarian law?	,,
Who were the Gracchi? their fate? ..	,,
Relate some particulars of the Jugurthine war	,,
What is remarkable of Marius?	(68) 66
Relate some particulars of the social war	67
Of the war with Mithridates	,,
Of the civil war between Marius and Sylla.....	68

	Page.
In what wars did Pompey distinguish himself?.....	69
Who brought cherries to Rome?.....	70
What act terminated the successes of Pompey?	„
What conspiracy did Cicero defeat?.....	„
What was the character of Mithridates?.....	„
What was the first triumvirate?	71
In what wars did Cæsar distinguish himself?	„
What was the fate of Crassus?.....	„
What resulted from the ambitious views of Cæsar and Pompey?.....	„
What is the Rubicon? Relate its passage by Cæsar ..	72
What became of Pompey and his principal adherents?..	73
What became of Cæsar? what was the consequence? ..	74
What is remarkable of the murderers of Cæsar?	75
What noble act is related of the younger Pompey?	„
What followed the battle of Philippi? What became of Antony?	„
What was the result of the battle of Actium?.....	76
By what was the Reign of Augustus distinguished?	„
How was Rome governed after his death?	77
What events are chiefly observable in the reign of Tiberius?	„
How many Persecutions are usually reckoned?.....	78
Relate some particulars of the first, second, third, fourth, seventh, eighth, tenth	„
What is remarkable of Domitian? Septimius Severus? ..	80
What distinguishes the third century in Roman history? ..	81
Who was Odenatus? Zenobia? Longinus?.....	„
Relate some memorable events between the reign of Nero and that of Constantine	82
What distinguishes the reign of Constantine?	„
Relate some particulars of Julian; of Theodosius	83
What followed the death of Theodosius?.....	84
Who was Honorius? Arcadius? Rufinus? Stilicho? Alaric? and Radagaisus? and by what circumstances distinguished? ..	84
What kingdoms were founded between A. D. 410 and 420? ..	85
What circumstances facilitated the progress of the bar- barian hordes?	„

	Page.
Who were Genseric and Attila, and how distinguished?	86
What followed the capture of Rome by Genseric?.....	,,
Who was Ricimer? Orestes? Odoacer?	,,
What became of Augustus or Augustulus? of Odoacer?	87
How long did the Gothic empire in Italy subsist, and how was it overthrown?	88
When were the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms founded?.....	,,
For what is Justinian celebrated?.....	,,
How was Italy governed after the overthrow of the Goths, and what changes were there effected?	89
Who were the Lombards, and how were they introduced into Italy?	,,
What caused the overthrow of their monarchy?.....	90
From what events originated the republic of Venice?..	,,
Name some important facts between the Subversion of the western empire and the Hegira	,,
Relate some particulars of Mahomet and his imposture	,,
What is the nature of the koran?	91
What caused Mahomet's flight to Medina?.....	92
What is islamism? What is a musleman?	93
What circumstances characterized the reigns of Abu- beker, Omar, and Othman?	,,
When and why did the Saracens invade Spain? and what was the result?.....	94
What is Gibraltar? Why so called?	,,
By whom were the Saracens overthrown in France?..	,,
Who was Abul Abbas, and how did he signalize himself?	95
Who was Abdalrahman, and what dynasty did he found?	,,
What is memorable of Almansor, Al Mohdi, Haroun <i>al</i> <i>raschid</i> , Al Mamon, and Motassem?	,,
Relate some particulars of the early history of the Turks	96
What is remarkable of Al Radi, and Togrul Bek?	97
Who was Saladin? How was the caliphate of Bagdad subverted?	98
Name some of the states and dynasties founded by the Saracens	,,
Name some memorable events between the Hegira and the age of Charlemagne.....	,,

	Page.
Relate some particulars relative to the Spanish monarchy	100
Relate some particulars concerning the dispute about image worship, and its consequences.....	„
What were the first and second dynasties of French princes called? and why?.....	102
For what is Clovis remarkable?.....	„
What took place under Sigibert II. and what were the consequences?.....	„
Relate some particulars concerning Charlemagne	„
What is memorable in the reigns of Louis le Debonnaire and his sons?	103
By what events was the reign of Charles le chauve (or, <i>the bald</i>) distinguished?.....	104
What important events resulted from the imbecility of the Carlovingian princes?.....	105
Who founded the dynasty of the Capets?.....	„
How long did the German empire remain in the family of Charlemagne?.....	106
How long did the German empire continue elective?..	„
Relate some remarkable events between the age of Charlemagne and the Crusades	„
What traffic was carried on between England and Ireland from the reign of Canute until that of Henry II.? „	„
State some particulars about the rise of the two Sicilies	107
State some particulars concerning the Assassins	109
Who planned the crusades? How did Peter the hermit and Urban II. excite the popular enthusiasm?.....	„
How many crusades were there?	110
What English and French princes chiefly distinguished themselves in these conflicts?	111
What circumstance put an end to this fanaticism?	112
Who engaged in these wars? What promises were held out to induce the ignorant? Who benefitted most by these expeditions?.....	113
What other proofs of fanaticism did those periods afford? „	„
Name some principal events between the period of the Crusades and the Invention of Printing.....	114
What were the Guelphs and Ghibelins?	„

	Page.
State some particulars concerning Zingis Khan	114
Relate some particulars about Prussia	„
What was the Hanseatic league?.....	115
What is the Sorbonne? Who were the Mamalukes? ..	„
What is remarkable of the Italian states?.....	„
What is remarkable of the early English parliaments?	116
What are the Sicilian vespers?	„
What great battle secured the independence of Scotland?	„
What circumstance originated a series of bloody wars between England and France?.....	„
Relate some particulars concerning Tamerlane	117
For what are Sweden, Denmark, and Norway famous?	118
What caused the wars between the houses of York and Lancaster?	„
What caused the darkness of the middle ages?	„
What was the state of France in the eighth century? of England, Spain, and Italy, in the ninth and tenth?.....	119
To what is the preservation of learning solely attributable?	120
Where does learning appear to have revived in the tenth century?.....	121
For what are Europeans indebted to the Saracens? ..	„
What were the <i>liberal arts</i> , how classed, and when taught?	122
When were colleges established?	„
What is the meaning of <i>university</i> ? What college first received this designation?.....	„
Relate some particulars of Roger Bacon	„
What circumstances gave an impulse to learning in the fourteenth century?	123
Who introduced Greek into Italy?	„
What events distinguished the fifteenth century?	124
Who are said to have been the inventors of printing, and who introduced it into England?.....	„
What benefits do we derive from printing?	„
What events distinguish the period between the inven- tion of Printing and the Reformation?	125
Who introduced the Turks into Persia?.....	126
What was the result? How many dynasties did the Seljukians form? Which was the most important?	„

	Page.
Who founded the Ottoman dynasty?	126
What is memorable of Othman, Amurath I. Bajazet, Amurath II. and Mahomet II.?	127
State some particulars concerning the janizaries?	„
What is remarkable of the close of the fifteenth, and beginning of the sixteenth century?	128
To what may the decay of piety in the days of the apostles be attributed?	129
What characterized the second century? the third? the fourth? the fifth? the sixth? the seventh? the eighth? the ninth? the tenth? and the eleventh?	130
Who were the Paulicians, and how were they known subsequently in Europe?	135
What is remarkable of parochial divisions in the eleventh century?	„
What distinguished the twelfth century?	„
To what is the origin of the Waldenses attributed?	„
What imposition was practiced by the popes at this age of the church?	„
What distinguished the thirteenth century?	138
What doctrine does the statute of the <i>six articles</i> explain?	„
What is the jubilee? Who its author? What its design?	139
How did the fourteenth century open?	„
Relate the conduct of pope Clement and Philip the fair of France to the templars, and the anecdote from FULLER	„
Mention some other remarkable circumstances in the fourteenth century..... (141)	140
How was the beginning of the fifteenth century distinguished?	141
How did the council of Constance behave towards Wickliffe, Huss, and Jerome of Prague?	142
What infamous declaration did they make?	„
Against what doctrines are articles xxxii, xiv, and xxx, of the church of England directed?..... (135, 138)	142
What were the consequences of the murder of Huss and Jerome?.....	143
Who headed the Hussites? Into what sects did they separate?	„

	Page.
What became of the Calixtins? Of the Taborites? ..	143
By what was the conquest of Granada followed?.....	144
Who was the first inquisitor in Spain? How was he qualified for the office? What the consequences?	„
How did the French monarchs obtain the title <i>Most Christian King</i> ?	„
What was the state of the church at the commencement of the sixteenth century?	„
What was the general character of the popes, clergy, and monks?	„
What were the usual subjects of sermons?	145
How was the privation of the scriptures compensated? ..	„
What do the duchy of Rome, the exarchate of Ravenna, and the region of Pentapolis constitute?	„
What kind of a crown is worn by the pontiff? and why? ..	„
From what abuse chiefly did the Reformation originate?	146
Relate some particulars of Martin Luther.....	„
How did the pope attempt to reconcile Luther?.....	147
What resulted from the condemnation of Luther's writings?	148
Of what perfidy was the diet at Worms guilty?	„
Who screened Luther from the malice of his enemies? ..	„
What was the grand engine employed by Luther to overthrow the papal corruptions?	„
What circumstances retarded the Reformation?	149
What were the opinions of Luther, Zuingle, and Carlostadt, about the real presence?.....	„
How did the first PROTESTANTS obtain their designation? and who were they?	150
Relate some particulars relative to the documents presented to Charles at the diet, 1530	„
Did policy or religion seem to govern Charles V.?....	151
Why was Charles eager to summon a general council? ..	„
What circumstance seemed very inauspicious to the reformers?	„
How was it overruled to promote their cause?.....	152
When were the protestants exempted entirely from papal jurisdiction?	153

	Page.
Mention some particulars relative to Charles V. and the reformation in Spain	153
Was the reformation restricted to Germany?	,,
What caused England to fluctuate between popery and reform?	154
How did the Reformation affect Scotland?	,,
Who was the champion of the Reformation there?	155
What resulted from the murder of Walter Mill, and the subsequent preaching of Knox?	,,
What is the form of the Scottish church government, and by whom was it arranged?	,,
How are the reigns of the four last Stuarts over Scotland characterized?	156
What is the true epocha of British liberty?	,,
Mention some remarkable events between the Reformation and the Revolution in America	157
What society has been banished at different periods, from every country in Europe?	,,
What remarkable events distinguished Aug. 24, St. Bartholomew's day? (152)	,,
What is remarkable of the Stuart dynasty?	,,
What are the Arundelian marbles? Where were they found?	158
Who was the founder of the present dynasty of Russia?	,,
State some particulars respecting Portugal	,,
What is remarkable of Louis XIV.?	,,
What is remarkable of the reigns of William III. and Anne of England?	159
Mention <i>nine</i> important periods of English history	,,
By what princes was Poland dismembered?	160
What is remarkable of the czar Peter the great?	,,
Who discovered America? Who gave his name to it?	,,
Who made the first attempts to colonize America?	,,
What was the conduct of the Spaniards towards the inhabitants of the newly-discovered countries?	161
Who were the chief settlers on the northern continent? and under what circumstances did they leave Britain?	,,
On what principles were the British colonies settled?	162

	Page.
When, and by whom, were the different states colonized?	162
What was the national debt of England in 1763?.....	163
What were its consequences?	„
What was the result of the stamp act?	„
How was the design of taxing the colonies resumed?	164
What observations did the colonists make on these proceedings?	„
By what statesmen in particular were they countenanced?	„
In what colony, and in what town, was the greatest opposition made?	„
What measure did the government adopt in 1769, and what were the consequences?	165
How did the colonists manifest their inflexibility?	„
What prevented the restoration of tranquillity?	166
How did Dr. Franklin interfere, and what were the consequences?.....	„
What conduct did the British government then adopt?	„
How did these measures influence the colonists?	167
How and when did the conflict begin?	168
By whom were the Americans assisted?	„
What was the issue of the contest?.....	„
Did the colonists immediately reap all the advantages they expected from independence?.....	„
What did they finally determine upon?	„
Who was the first president of the congress?	169
What political convulsion followed the American war?	„
Describe the state of France anterior to the revolution	„
What was the price of nobility?	170
What was the state of France under Louis XIV.?	„
What was it at the accession of Louis XVI.?	„
What circumstance was the beginning of the revolution?	171
What was the nature of the States-General?	„
When were they opened? What circumstances interrupted their harmony, and what was the consequence?	„
Who was Siéyes? Orleans? and Necker?.....	172
What measures did the court adopt?.....	173
In what state was the capital after July 11, 1789?	„
What happened on the 14th?	174

	Page.
How many prisoners were found in the Bastille?	,,
Of what imprudence was the king guilty?	,,
What was the condition of the provinces?	175
How many nobles and privileged persons did France contain? What was the nature of the privileges sold? ..	,,
How did the National Assembly enter upon its projects?	,,
What was the consequence of the financial distress? ..	176
Mention some enactments of the Assembly	,,
What was the <i>corvée</i> ? the <i>gabelle</i> ?	,,
What were the causes and consequences of the tumults of Oct. 5th and 6th?	177
State some particulars concerning Mirabeau.	,,
What financial expedients were recommended by Mirabeau and Talleyrand?	178
What were assignats, and why were they resorted to? ..	,,
What circumstances made the royal family, nobility, and clergy, hostile to the measures of the Assembly?	179
By what were their counter-revolutionary designs frustrated?	,,
How did the assembly alter the division of the kingdom? ..	,,
How was the anniversary of July 14 observed?	,,
What was the design of the clubs? Which was the most notorious? State its origin and nature.	180
What was the nature and result of De Durfort's mission? ..	181
What was the state of France in the spring of 1791? ..	,,
State the circumstances connected with the attempted escape of the king, June 20, 1791	,,
What was the consequence of this measure?	182
What was the design of the treaty of Pilnitz?	,,
When and how was the constitution accepted?	,,
What were the character and factions of the Legislative Assembly? To what measures did they resort?	183
What line of conduct did Louis XVI. now adopt?	,,
What were the consequences?	184
What circumstances caused a rupture between the king and the Girondist ministers?	,,
Who were the Feuillants or Moderates?	,,
What was the state of the capital at midsummer, 1792? ..	185

	Page.
What circumstances roused the Girondists to extraordinary exertions?	185
Who commanded the combined armies?	186
What became of his intended predecessor?	185
What was the nature of the duke's manifesto of July 25?	186
Did it produce the effect desired?	,,
Describe the conduct of the republicans in Aug. 1792	,,
What circumstances followed the capture of Verdun?	187
What was the issue of the campaign?	188
When did the Convention commence its sittings?	,,
What notorious character was a member of it?	,,
What was its first measure?	,,
What factions composed this assembly?	,,
Did they prosecute their legislative duties?	,,
What became of Louis XVI.?	189
Who was Marat? what his principles? what his fate?	,,
What was the consequence of the murder of Louis? ..	,,
What was the state of France from April, 1793, to July, 1794?	190
How did the republicans prepare for the attack of the confederate princes?	,,
How did the Convention treat its enemies after the capture of Valenciennes and Toulon?	191
What was the crime of the Girondists?	,,
What were the causes of the difference between the duke of Orleans and the court?	,,
Who were Madame Roland, and M. Bailly?	,,
What changes were made in the French calendar?	192
How did the Convention punish the Vendéans?	,,
What became of Madame Elizabeth and Baron Trenck?	193
What became of Robespierre?	,,
What followed his death?	,,
What was the result of the campaign of 1794?	194
How may the subsequent history of the republic be described?	,,
What changes took place in the government from the death of Robespierre until the assumption of the imperial title by Bonaparte?	,,

	Page.
What was the condition of France when he acceded to the government?	194
Where was Bonaparte born, and when?	”
What became of him after the death of his father?	195
Where did he first distinguish himself?	”
When and how did his military career commence? ..	”
Which was his first victory in Italy?	”
By what battles did he humble the Sardinians, Italians, and Austrians?	”
What was the length of the campaign against Sardinia? ..	”
How did the Directory behave to him after his successes in Italy?	”
What occurred in the passage to Egypt?	”
Where did he again display his military skill?	”
By whom did he receive a check in Syria?.....	”
What caused his return to Egypt?	”
What was the consequence?.....	”
What caused his return to France?.....	”
How was he received? How did he act?.....	196
What was the result of Bonaparte's exploits in Italy, Syria, and Egypt?	”
To what treachery was he frequently exposed?	”
How did he veil his ambitious schemes?	”
What conduct rendered him very popular?	”
By what was the tranquillity of France menaced?	”
State some particulars of the campaign of 1800	”
Name some of the things which he undertook	197
How did he conciliate the clergy?	”
By what means did he create a new aristocracy?	”
By what particular conduct did he excite the suspicion of the republicans?.....	”
When did he assume the imperial dynasty?	”
When was he crowned?	”
What power was irreconcilable to the new order of things in France? What were the consequences?.....	”
Name some victories gained by the British navy?..	”
How many coalitions were formed against France? ..	198
By what battles were these coalitions dissolved?.....	”

	Page.
What followed the occupation of Vienna by Bonaparte, May 12, 1809?	198
Where did Bonaparte encounter an unexpected opposition? what was the consequence?	,,
Name some particulars of the campaign of 1812	,,
By whom was the sixth coalition formed, and what was its result?	199
State some particulars of the campaigns of 1814 and 1815	,,
What became of Bonaparte?	200
When did the republic of Hayti commence?.....	,,
What are the various names of Hayti?	,,
When and by whom was it discovered?	201
How was it estimated for its fertility and beauty?	,,
How did the Haytians behave to the Spaniards, and how were they requited?	,,
How was the diminution of the inhabitants remedied? ..	,,
To what did the slave trade owe its origin?	,,
Relate the circumstances by which the slave trade was thrown into a regular channel?	,,
Who were the Buccaniers? whence their name? where did they dwell?	,,
When did the French Buccaniers obtain a settlement in St. Domingo? How was the colony fostered?	,,
State the amount of its population, and the number of its sugar, coffee, cotton, and indigo plantations in 1789 ..	202
How was the island governed?.....	,,
What was the condition of the mulattoes?	,,
What was the nature of the decree of May 15, 1791, and what were its consequences?	,,
What further rights were conceded April 4, 1792, and what were the consequences?	,,
Who was M. Galbaud? To what measures had he recourse, and how were they rendered abortive?	,,
What did the planters do in this extremity?.....	,,
What resulted from the interference of the British? ..	,,
Who were the most distinguished of the negro chiefs? ..	,,
Who was Toussaint? Where was he born, and when? ..	203

- Where did he acquire his education?
- How did his master distinguish him?
- What works did he chiefly study?
- By what was his junction with the negroes preceded?
- What circumstance devolved on him the *chief* command?
- How did he employ himself at the close of the war?..
- To what French general was the reduction of St. Domingo confided?
- How was his campaign in St. Domingo characterized?
- Relate his behaviour to Toussaint
- Narrate the events by which the war was terminated.
- How did the French treat their prisoners?
- What followed the expulsion of the French?
- How was Ireland represented in the British senate?..
- Name some particulars concerning the deposition of Gustavus Adolphus IV. of Sweden, and the consequences.
- Name some particulars relative to the South American republics
- How is Bolivar distinguished?.....
- Name some particulars concerning the erection of the Brazilian empire

FINIS.

