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A  
**GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL**  
**View of the World :**  
EXHIBITING  
A COMPLETE DELINEATION OF THE  
**NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL FEATURES**  
OF  
**EACH COUNTRY ;**

AND A SUCCINCT NARRATIVE OF  
THE ORIGIN OF THE DIFFERENT NATIONS, THEIR POLITICAL  
REVOLUTIONS, AND PROGRESS IN ARTS, SCIENCES,  
LITERATURE, COMMERCE, &c.

The whole comprising all that is important in the Geography of the  
Globe, and the History of Mankind.

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**BY JOHN BIGLAND,**

Author of

"LETTERS ON ANCIENT AND MODERN HISTORY," "ESSAYS ON VARIOUS  
SUBJECTS, &c. &c.

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# VIEW OF THE WORLD

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## INDIA;

CONSISTING OF HINDOSTAN AND THE DECCAN.

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### CHAP. I.

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**THIS** interesting portion of Asia extends from Cape Comorin, its southernmost promontory, in latitude  $8^{\circ}$  north\*, to the mountainous borders of Thibet, on the north of Cashmire, in about  $35^{\circ}$  north latitude; and from the river Araba, in the west of the province of Sindi, in the  $60^{\text{th}}$ , to the mountains which divide Bengal from the Birman dominions in the  $92^{\text{d}}$  degree of east longitude, being in length, from north to south, about 1620, and in breadth from east to west, on a parallel of 26 degrees, about 1500 geographical miles. This extensive region is, according to the view exhibited by an eminent geographer, equal to at least one half of Europe.†

\* M. Rennell places Cape Comorin in 8 degrees north. See his Map and Memoir, p. 21. He places Seringur, or Cashmire, in  $34^{\circ} 20' 28''$  by Acitur's measurement. The Oriental Tables place it in  $35^{\circ} 15'$  lat. Memoir of Rennell's Map, p. 135.

† Rennell's Pref. and Introduct. p. 1, and Mem p. 231.

The description of this large portion of Asia is a subject of no small perplexity, on account of the irregular nature of its political system, and the great number of nations and powers, both native and foreign, among which it is divided. Since the decline of the Mogul empire, India has constantly presented a scene of political confusion. The revolutions of states, and the change of boundaries, have been so frequent, that its political subdivisions can furnish no perspicuous system of geographical arrangement. M. Rennell, in his excellent memoir of a map of Hindostan, which required ample discussion and minute details, after exhibiting a view of the coasts, describes the country under four great subdivisions: 1st, Gangetic Hindostan, or the countries pervaded by the Ganges, and its principal branches, as far west as Agra. 2d, Sindetic Hindostan, or the tract occupied by the Sind, or Indus, and its principal tributary rivers. 3d, the central part, or the countries situated between the Kistnah river and the two former divisions. And 4th, the peninsula south of the Kistnah.\* In the present work, in which a concentrated brevity is an indispensable requisite, I shall content myself with exhibiting India under the two grand divisions which the situation seems to authorise, and which have always been recognized by the natives.† These are, first, Hindostan; and, secondly, the Deccan, or southern country, improperly called the Peninsula. The river Nerbudda, as far as its course extends, is

\* Rennell's Mem p. 2.

† India is the name by which the whole of this vast region was known to the Greeks and the Romans. Hindostan seems to be a word of Persian origin, signifying the country of the Hindoes. Rennell's Introduction p. 20. The ancient native name appears to be Medhyama. Asiatic Res. vol. 1. p. 419.

the reputed southern boundary of Hindostan Proper; and the southern frontiers of Bengal and Bahar compose the remainder. In a general view, the parallel of 21 or 22 degrees, may be regarded as the limits of the two divisions. Although the greatest part of India is subject to the Mahomedan foreigners, and to the English, the great mass of the population throughout the country is composed of native Hindoos, who can be considered as only one nation, a circumstance which tends to give an idea of unity, and renders of subdivisions less necessary.

India being considered under these two grand divisions, Hindostan will be found nearly equal in extent to France, Germany, Bohemia, Hungary, Switzerland, Italy, and the Netherlands, taken collectively; and the Deccan may be regarded as about equal to the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Spain, and European Turkey.\*

## HINDOSTAN.

*Face of the country.*—The greatest part of Hindostan Proper consists of immense plains, watered, and a great part of them annually inundated by the Indus and the Ganges, or their auxiliary streams. From Hurdwar, in about 30 degrees north latitude, where the Ganges bursting through the frontier mountains, enters the plains of Hindostan, the whole country is an uniform level, allowing a descent, imperceptible to the eye, of about nine inches per mile, through an extent of about 800 miles in a direct line, to the south-easternmost parts of Bengal.† This extensive plain gradu-

\* Rennell *ubi supra*. The Nerbudda is considered as the boundary of the Deccan, by Orme as well as by Rennell. Orme's Hist. Frag. p. 5.

† Rennell's Map.

ally widens from the frontier, and in Bengal expands to at least 250 miles in breadth. The annual inundation in Bengal extends above 100 miles in breadth, nothing appearing but villages and trees, excepting very rarely the top of an elevated spot, the artificial mound of some deserted village appearing like an island.\* To the west of Bengal the country is diversified, and in some parts mountainous. The central province of Malway is the most elevated part of Hindostan. Agimere, including, among others, the provinces of Cheitore and Oudipour, consists of high mountains, divided by narrow valleys, or of plains environed by mountainous ridges, and accessible only by narrow passes and defiles, being by nature one of the strongest countries in the world. Its dimensions are adequate to the support of a numerous population, as, notwithstanding its mountainous aspect, it possesses a sufficient quantity of arable land, and enjoys a temperate climate, being situated between the 24th and 28th degree of latitude. The country of Agimere constitutes a phænomenon in the history of Hindostan. It has always been the celebrated seat of the Rajpoots, the warrior tribe among the Hindoos, which is noticed by ancient writers; and the antiquity of the house of the Rana, their chief prince, may be traced from Ptolemy. This district, though situated so near to the centre of the Mogul government, and successively attacked by the Gaznavide, Patan, and Mogul emperors, has never been more than nominally reduced to subjection. Several of the fortresses, with which the country abounds, were indeed taken; but, as M. Rennell observes, "the spirits of independent nations do not reside in fortresses,

\* Rennell's Memoir, p. 349.

nor are they to be conquered with them." Every war undertaken against these people, even by the great Aurengzebe, ended in a compromise, or defeat on the side of the assailants.\* To the east and north-east of Agimere, the provinces of Agra and Delhi are rich and beautiful countries, variegated with a chain of hills and extensive valleys, stretching out in spacious and fertile plains towards the Ganges, and its tributary rivers. On the western side of Agimere is the great Sandy desert, extending almost 550 miles in length, from north-east to south-west, and from 100 to 150 in breadth. On the west of this is Sindetic Hindostan, or the countries pervaded by the Indus and its branches. This part of Hindostan, from the mouths of the Indus to the province of Mouttan, in about 30 degrees of north latitude, greatly resembles Egypt in its geographical features and aspect, the lower part extending into a wide delta, while the upper part is a narrow slip of country confined on the western side by ridges of mountains, and on the east by the sandy desert above-mentioned, which separates it from the provinces of Guzerat, Agimere, and Delhi. The Indus, winding through the whole length of this narrow valley, like the Nile through that of Egypt, completes the resemblance of the geographical picture. The provinces to the north of this tract, one of the principal of which is Lahore, present ridges of mountains and extensive plains, watered by the different branches of the Indus. The western parts of Guzerat are mountainous and woody. The provinces next to Persia are almost wholly unknown.

*Mountains.*]—Although the central parts of Hindostan, at a distance from the Indus and the Ganges, are

\* Rennell's Mem. p. 230 231.



in many places mountainous, none of the mountains appear to be of any remarkable height. The mountains most celebrated among the Hindoos, are only visible from their country, to which they cannot be said to belong, being the grand chain of the Thibetian Alps, covered with perpetual snow. These mountains, which, from their snowy summits, are by the Hindoos called Himmala, a name of Sanscrit origin, appear to be one of the ridges of Immaus, mentioned by Ptolemy as running in a direction from east to west; while the other, which he describes as extending from north to south, is undoubtedly the Belur Tag of Russian and Tartarian geography. The ridge of Himmala is of a prodigious height, being visible at the distance of 150 miles, in the plains of Bengal.\* M. Rennell supposes them to be equal in point of elevation to any of the mountains of the old hemisphere. The southernmost ridge of the mountains of Bootan, which form the boundary of that country towards Hindostan, although much lower than that of Himmala, is a very elevated tract, rising nearly a mile and a half in perpendicular height above the plains of Bengal, in a horizontal distance of only fifteen miles. "From the summit," says M. Rennell, "the astonished traveller looks back on the plains as on an extensive ocean beneath him."† There are not many passes through this ridge, and all are fortified. It must be acknowledged, that there is no small degree of confusion in the most recent delineations of the mountains of India; but the same orological obscurity is observable in almost every country. No part of geography is so difficult to investigate as

\* Rennell's Mem. p. 302, 336.

† Ibid. p. 202.

that

that of mountainous ranges, which are often inaccessible to the traveller; and geographers are frequently at a loss, not only for their extent and direction, but even for distinct appellations.

*Rivers.*]—Among the numerous rivers of Hindostan, and even of all India, the Indus, the Ganges, and the Burrampooter, are the chief. The Ganges, the sacred river of the Hindoos, and the vast Burrampooter, both proceed from the mountains of Thibet. The Burrampooter is the largest of the two; but the difference is scarcely perceptible: in the length of their courses they are nearly equal; and in the smoothness of their water, the appearance of their borders and islands, and their annual inundations, they bear to each other a perfect resemblance. Their sources were first explored in 1715, by the Lamas, whom the laudable curiosity of Cambi, emperor of China, employed to construct a map of Thibet; but we are far from being well informed concerning the true positions of those celebrated fountains, which yet leave ample room for investigation. Their devious courses through the mountainous regions of Thibet, cannot be well ascertained; but they pursue different directions. The Ganges forces a passage through the ridge of Mount Himmala, having undermined the bottom of the mountain, and formed a cavern, through which it precipitates itself into a vast basin worn in the rock, on the hither side of the mountain. This passage was, until the last century, regarded as the original source of the Ganges; and the superstitious imagination of the Hindoos gave to the cavern the form of the mouth of a cow, an animal held by that people in a degree of veneration almost equal to that which the Egyptians testified for their god Apis. From this passage

the Ganges winds through the rugged country of Si-  
riaagur, until it gushes through another opening in  
the mountains at Hurdwar; and after having wan-  
dered through narrow valleys and defiles for the space  
of 800 British miles, it flows through the plains of  
Hindostan, with a smooth navigable stream from half  
a mile to three miles in breadth; and after a winding  
course of about 1350 miles, through these immense  
levels, and about 2150 miles from its primitive source,  
discharges itself by numerous mouths into the bay of  
Bengal. The Ganges, in its progress through the  
plains of Hindostan, receives eleven rivers, some of  
which are as large as the Rhine, and none smaller  
than the Thames, besides many others of inferior  
note. About 220 miles in direct distance from the  
sea, commences the head of the Delta of the Ganges,  
intersected by innumerable canals. That part of the  
Delta which borders on the sea, constitutes a singular  
geographical feature. This tract, known by the name  
of the Sunderbunds, is equal in extent to the princi-  
pality of Wales. It presents a labyrinth of rivers and  
creeks, and is so completely enveloped in woods, and  
infested with tigers, that if any attempts have ever  
been made to clear it, they have hitherto miscarried;  
but it furnishes vast quantities of salt, and an in-  
exhaustible store of timber for boat-building. The  
breadth of the lower part of this Delta is about 180  
miles, which, together with the two outermost chan-  
nels, will give about 200 miles for the distance to  
which the Ganges expands its branches at its junction  
with the sea. M. Rennell, in speaking of the two  
principal passages through the Sunderbunds, says,  
“ These passages present to the imagination both a  
grand and a curious spectacle: a navigation of more  
than

than 200 miles, through a forest divided into numberless islands, by a continued labyrinth of channels, so various in point of width, that a vessel has at one time her masts almost entangled in the trees; and at another, sails uninterrupted on a capacious river, beautifully skirted with woods, and affording a vista of many miles each way. The water is every where salt; and the whole extent of the forest abandoned to wild beasts, so that the shore is seldom visited but in cases of necessity, except by the wood-cutters and salt-makers, whose dreadful trade is exercised at the constant peril of their lives; for the tigers not only appear on the margin in quest of prey, but often in the night time swim to the boats that lie at anchor in the middle of the river.\*

The Burrampooter, which has its source from the opposite side of the same mountains that give rise to the Ganges, first takes its course eastward, in a direction opposite to that of the latter river. After winding through the mountainous regions of Thibet, where it is known by the name of the Sampoo, it deviates from an easterly to a south-easterly course, till it approaches within about 220 miles of the frontiers of China, and then turning suddenly to the west through Assam, enters the north-eastern part of Bengal. Its general resemblance to the Ganges, during a course of 400 miles through the plains of Bengal, has already been noticed. But it is necessary to remark one striking feature of distinction, which is, that the Burrampooter, during the last sixty miles before it meets with the Ganges, forms a stream, which

\* The delta of the Indus resembles that of the Ganges, except that it is destitute of forests. The drier parts are covered with brush-wood, and the lower consists of noisome swamps. Rennell, p. 181.

is regularly from four to five miles wide, constituting a geographical object of grandeur almost surpassing the powers of description.\* These two vast Oriental rivers form a junction about forty miles from the sea. It is a circumstance worthy of remark, that the Ganges and the Burrampooter, issuing from opposite sides of the same ridge of mountains, and directing their courses towards opposite quarters, till they are more than 1200 miles asunder, meet at last in one point, and join their waters, after each has run a length of more than 2000 miles. It would be tedious to describe all the tributary streams that swell the Ganges: the chief are the Gagra, or Sarjoo, from Thibet; the Jumna, which issues from the mountains of Sirinagur; and the Soan, which springs from the table-land of Omercuntuc, near a celebrated place of pilgrimage, where there is a magnificent Hindoo temple.† The Ganges and the Burrampooter, with their numerous branches and adjuncts, afford a most complete and easy inland navigation, which gives employment to 30,000 boatmen. With the exception of the lands contiguous to Burdwan, Birboom, &c. which constitute only about one-sixth of the province, every other part of Bengal, even in the dry season, has some navigable stream within twenty-five miles at the farthest, and more commonly within a third part of that distance.‡

The Indus, which with its adjunct confluent streams, has derived classical celebrity from the marches and exploits of Alexander, is by the modern Hindoos called Sindé: but in the original Sanscrit, its

\* Rennell's Mem. p. 377.

† Asiatic Res. vol. 2. An. 1800.

‡ Rennell's Mem. p. 335.

name is Seendho. This river appears to rise in the mountains of Thibet; but its source is unknown: and all that has been advanced on the subject, amounts to no more than ingenious conjecture.\* Its tributary streams chiefly join it in the northern part of its course; those from the west are the Kamch and the Comul. Those from the east are the Behut, the famous Hydaspes of the Greeks, the Janaul, the Rauvec, the Beyah, and the Setlege, answering respectively to the Acesines, the Hydraotes, the Hyphasis, and the Hesudrus of ancient geography. These pervade the country of the Panjab, or five rivers, a part of Hindostan very imperfectly known to the moderns. The Indus, and its branches, afford a navigation for vessels of nearly 200 tons, as high as Moulton and Lahore, in 31 deg. north latitude.† The Patan emperor, Ferose III. who reigned in the fourteenth century, had projected a canal in order to join the branches of the Indus with those of the Ganges.‡ Had this work been completed, it would have formed an inland navigation unequalled in the world, extending from the frontiers of Persia to those of China. But to derive any benefit from a plan of this kind, it would be necessary that Hindostan should be united under a peaceable government.

*Lake.]*—This extensive country presents few lakes of any considerable extent. The delightful country of Cashmire is, by M. Rennell and others, supposed

\* The Indus is considerably inferior to the Ganges. Rennell says, that its width at Tatta is only half a mile; and observes, that in 1699. Hamilton reckoned it a mile. Mem. p. 192.

† The principal mouth of the Indus, called Ratchel river, appears to be in about 34° 14' north latitude. Rennell's Map.

‡ For an account of these canals, see Dow's Hist. of Hindostan, vol. 1.

to have been originally a large lake; and in the northern part there still remains an expanse of water above fifty British miles in circuit.

*Mineralogy.*—The mineralogy of Hindostan appears to be of little importance, or at least little known, except that it contains some diamonds. Gold is found in the rivers that flow from the mountains of Thibet into the Indus and the Ganges; but no mines of that metal, nor of silver, have ever been known in Hindostan. Copper and iron also seem to be rare. The mineralogy of this country has not yet excited the curiosity of the English in Bengal, or their other Indian possessions, and consequently it remains in a great measure unexplored.

*Soil.*—It would be unnecessary to repeat, that the soil of so extensive a country as Hindostan, must present every variety. The alluvial lands near the great rivers being fertilized by the annual inundations, are remarkable for the richness of their soil, which, in some places, consists of a black vegetable mould to the depth of six feet. In the hilly parts of the interior, the soil may be readily conceived to be of a different and much inferior quality. Fertility, however, has ever been considered as a general characteristic of the country.

*Climate.*—Throughout the wide regions of Hindostan, a general similarity of climate and seasons is found to prevail, although these are diversified by local situation, as well as by difference of latitude. The geographical position of the country indicates the general predominancy of heat, which, however, is greatly attempered in the elevated regions, and is most oppressive in the valleys and plains. In Bengal, the hot and dry season begins with March, and con-

tinues till the end of May, when the thermometer rises to the height of 110 degrees; and this intense heat is often accompanied with violent thunder storms from the north-west, the seat of the grand Thibettian Alps. The periodical rains continue from June to September, and almost deluge the country. In this season, the inundations cover the plains to a great distance from the rivers. In the northern parts, the rainy season begins at an earlier period, a circumstance owing to the vast collection of vapours wafted from the sea by the southerly or south-west monsoons, and suddenly stopped by the immense ridge of mountains that runs from west to east through Thibet. These vapours being thus accumulated and condensed, begin to descend in rains in the beginning of April, and about the end of that month, when the waters have reached Bengal, the rivers begin slowly to rise. In the month of June the rains becoming general, the water rises on a medium about five inches per day; and about the end of July the plains of Bengal, contiguous to the Ganges and the Burrampooter, are overflowed. The season of the rains and the floods in the countries bordering on the Indus, is somewhat earlier, being chiefly in the months of April, May, and June.\* The difference seems to arise from this circumstance, that the inundations of the Ganges and the Burrampooter derive a great increase from the rains of Bengal; but as scarcely any falls in the Sindy, which in this respect greatly resembles Egypt, the overflowing of the Indus is wholly owing to the rains in the northern mountains. The climate on the borders of the Indus is extremely hot and unhealthy.

\* Rennell's Mem. p. 182, marginal note.



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\* Rennell's Mem. p. 182, marginal note.

*Vegetable productions.*—The observations made on Exterior India, or the countries beyond the Ganges, are, in this particular, applicable in a still higher degree to Hindostan. No part of the surface of the globe possesses a more fertile soil, or a climate better adapted to the most luxuriant vegetation, than the well-watered tracts of this prolific region. The liberality with which nature has scattered her choicest gifts over this favored country; is boundless, and scarcely equalled in any other part of the world. Double harvests, and two crops of fruits from many of the trees, and from most of the rest a copious and regular supply during the greatest part of the year, have, from time immemorial, been the support of a numerous population; while its timber of every quality, its plants of medicinal virtue, its exquisite drugs for dyeing, its cottons, and other vegetable articles of clothing, which offer to the inhabitants the materials of enjoyment, have undoubtedly contributed in an eminent degree to their early civilization. Rice is the grain that is chiefly cultivated, and constitutes the principal food of the Hindoos. The cultivation of cotton is widely diffused. The various kinds of fruits are so numerous, and most of them so little known in Europe, even by name, that the bare mention of them would be unnecessary and tedious. The forests also surpass in luxuriance of vegetation any idea that Europeans can form: creeping plants of prodigious size and length, extended from tree to tree, forming an impervious wilderness, and an impenetrable gloom. Such are the forests near the mouths of the Ganges, and in some other unexplored parts of the country.

*Zoology.*—The zoology of Hindostan is also a copious theme. Horses are numerous; and the armies  
of

of the Hindoo princes have a large proportion of cavalry. The most celebrated Indian breed appears to be from Lahore; but the grandees are chiefly supplied from Arabia and Persia. The inferior breeds are ill-shaped, but active; and in some districts there are ponies not exceeding thirty inches in height. The horses of Thibet are often used in the countries contiguous to the Ganges; and wild asses come in herds from central Asia to the northern mountains. Horned cattle also abound, and many of them are of a large size. The sheep of Hindostan are hairy rather than woolly, except in the northern parts. The camel is not unfrequent in the vicinity of Patna. The zoology of this extensive region comprizes almost every species of wild and ferocious animal except the lion, which appears to have never been known in Hindostan. The royal tiger of Bengal, however, is not inferior to the lion in strength and ferocity. His strength is such, that he will easily carry off a man; and the distance to which he springs on his prey is almost incredible. Fatal accidents have happened to parties of pleasure on the banks of the Ganges, from the sudden appearance of this terrible animal. Elephants are common; and the rhinoceros abounds in the swamps of the Gangetic isles.\*

*Natural curiosities.*—Hindostan abounds with singular and striking features of nature. Such are the Gangetic Sunderbunds, with their impenetrable forests, the extensive inundations of the plains in the rainy season, and the grand aspect of the northern mountains covered with perpetual snow; to which may be added the numerous detached rocks, often crowned with strong fortresses. The beautiful province of

\* For a minute account of Indian zoology, vide Pennant, vol. 2.

Cashmire, in the north-west part of Hindostan, may altogether be reckoned a natural curiosity: such indeed it has ever been esteemed, and we cannot but applaud the taste of the Mogul emperors, who used to visit this delightful region, and seemed to forget the cares of government, while surrounded by the charms of nature. Cashmire is an elevated and extensive valley, of about eighty British miles in length, and about forty in breadth, according to Mr. Forster's account; but M. Rennell, from a comparison of different authorities and estimates, supposes the breadth to be not less than fifty miles. This delightful plain is surrounded by stupendous mountains, the regions of perpetual snow, which, by their height, shut out the heavy rains that deluge the rest of India. There falls, however, a quantity sufficient to feed thousands of cascades, which precipitate themselves into the valley from every part of the stupendous and romantic bulwark by which it is encircled. These numerous streams intersecting every part of the plain, contribute to form the river of Belut, the famous Hydaspes of Alexander, who appears to have crossed it about 100 miles below its outlet from the valley. This river, rising in the south-east part of Cashmire and receiving numerous rivulets, becomes navigable within a few miles of its source, and pervading the whole plain by a north-west course, finds a passage through the mountains of Barchmoolah.\* History and tradition agree that the province of Cashmire was originally a lake, formed by the rivulets descending on all sides from the mountains, and afterwards dried in consequence of the waters forcing an outlet. M. Rennell makes no doubt of the fact, of which he says

\* Rennell's Mem. p. 99.

every appearance impresses the strongest conviction.\* The soil of Cashmire is the richest that can be conceived, abounding in all the productions of the temperate zone. Many small lakes are scattered over the surface; and the whole scenery is beautifully picturesque, as a part of the romantic circle of mountains makes a portion of every landscape. The superstition of the sequestered inhabitants has multiplied places of worship. All Cashmire is holy land: and miraculous fountains abound. This delightful valley is celebrated throughout Asia for its romantic beauties, for the fertility of its soil, and for the temperate of its climate. A journey to Cashmire in the spring, was, by the Mogul emperors, reckoned the highest gratification that luxury could afford. This spot, so greatly favored by nature, in other respects is however subject to one dreadful evil. Earthquakes are frequent; and in order to guard against their terrible effects, the Cashmireans construct their houses chiefly of wood. The principal city, which, as well as the country, is called Cashmire, though formerly named Sirinagur,† is large, and built on both sides of the Behut, which glides along with a smooth current. This beautiful province, which abounds with curious manufactures, is chiefly distinguished by that of shawls, made from the wool of Thibet, and worn by the English ladies. But although the demand for that article appears so extensive, the manufacture is declined to one fourth of its former quantity, a circumstance which must be ascribed to the decline of

\* Rennell's Mem. p. 145, 146.

† Rennell's Mem. p. 135, 143. For an accurate description of Cashmire, a country so interesting to the naturalist and the philosopher, see Forster's Trav. vol. 1. p. 323, &c.

the Hindostanic and Persian empires. The Cashmi-reans have a language of their own, which is said to be more ancient than the Sanscrit.

*Artificial curiosities and antiquities.*]—Hindostan abounds with Mahomedan and Pagan monuments ; but none of them display any thing so magnificent or striking, as to merit a particular description.

**COUNTRIES TO THE NORTH OF HINDOSTAN, VERY IMPERFECTLY KNOWN.**

To the north of Hindostan, and bordering on Thibet, are the kingdoms of Asam, Nipaul, Gorca, Kemaon, and Sirinagur, countries very imperfectly known. Bootan has already been considered as an appurtenance to Thibet. Asam is divided into two parts by the Burrampooter, and separated from Thibet by a chain of mountains.\* Gold is found in the sands of the rivers ; and the country produces sugar, cocoa-nuts, pepper, and ginger, with silk, which is said to equal that of China. The Hindoo religion is unknown to the generality of the people, although some Bramins are found in the country. The natives are brave and robust. Ghargon, the capital and seat of the Rajah, stands on the south side of the Burrampooter. The palace, public saloon, &c. have a rude resemblance to those of the Birmans. The kingdom of Nipaul is an extensive plain, about 200 miles in circuit, overspread with populous towns and villages, and resembling a vast amphitheatre amidst ranges of lofty mountains. In the northern part is Catmandu, the capital, containing about 18,000 houses ; and in the south-western part, the city of Lelit Pattan, still more extensive, the number of houses being computed

\* *Asiat. Res.* vol. 2. p. 174.

24,000. Batgan, Timi, and Cipoli, are also considerable towns. In Nipaul, there are two religions, one Hindoo, the other a schismatical branch of that of Thibet. The temples are remarkably elegant: that of Banga, about three miles from the city of Lelit Pattan, displays a surprising magnificence, the great court being paved with a blueish-coloured marble, interspersed with flowers of bronze. The kingdom of Nipaul is said to be ancient, and its language peculiar.\* But it has lately been agitated by civil wars, and at length subdued by the king of Gorca, who has also extended his conquests over several other countries in the neighbourhood. To the west of Nipaul are a number of petty kingdoms, of which little is known; but of Sirinagur we have a recent description. This frontier province is bounded by the lofty ridge of snowy mountains stretching in an extensive line from west to east, at the distance of eighty miles from the town of Sirinagur. At the foot of this immense chain, and near the base of its most conspicuous summits, stands the temple of Badrinant, a celebrated place of Hindoo worship. The country is almost an entire mass of mountains, and extremely poor. The mineralogy, if industriously explored, however, might perhaps, in some measure, compensate the sterility of its rocky surface. Gold is found in the sands of the rivers; and there are mines of copper and lead. The rajah of Sirinagur and his subjects follow the Hindoo religion.†

\* Bernini. *Asiat. Res.* vol. 2, p. 307.

† See a curious account of Sirinagur, *Asiat. Res.* vol. 6, p. 209.



## THE DECCAN.

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### CHAP. II.

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Face of the Country—Mountains—Rivers—Lakes—Mineralogy—Mineral Waters—Soil—Climate—Vegetable Productions—Zoology—Natural Curiosities—Antiquities and Artificial Curiosities.

*Face of the country.*]—THE wide regions of the Deccan are extremely diversified, but the features of nature are not on so grand a scale as in Hindostan Proper.\* The plains are not so extensive, the rivers are not so large, nor does this country afford a view of any such stupendous bulwarks of mountains as those which form the northern border of India, and are seen from its plains. In this country, as well as in Hindostan, large tracts of the interior are yet unexplored. The wilderness which lies beyond the Sircars, is a blank in geography. It appears to consist wholly of high rocky mountains and forests, thinly inhabited by the Goands, a savage and ferocious race. Many other parts are very imperfectly known.

*Mountains.*]—The mountains of this southern part of India are very numerous, but none of them remarkable for their elevation. They abound, however, with precipices and intricate defiles, extremely embarrass-

\* A general idea of the extent of the Deccan has already been given in defining that of the whole of India.

ing to armies, and afford many strong situations, in which the Hindoo princes have braved the power of the Mongols, and maintained their independence. The most considerable mountains of the Deccan are the Gauts, which run through its whole length from Cape Comorin to the province of Candeish, somewhat higher than the 21st parallel of latitude.\* This famous Appenine of southern India, which runs at about the medial distance of forty, and never more than seventy miles from the Malabar coast, marks with great precision the line of summer and winter, or rather of wet and dry throughout the whole peninsula. The altitude of these mountains does not appear to exceed 3000 or 4000 feet; but it is sufficient to prevent the great mass of clouds from passing over them, in consequence of which the alternate north-east and south-west monsoons occasion a rainy season only on the windward side of the mountains.†

*Rivers.*]—The rivers of southern India are numerous; but of these the Nerbudda, the Godavery, the Kistna, and the Caveri, may be reckoned the chief. The course of the Nerbudda, which is almost due west, may be estimated at about 900 miles. The Godavery, which rises in the western Gauts, about seventy miles north-east of Bombay,‡ runs at the least, an equal course. About ninety miles above its egress into the sea, it receives the Bain Gongga, another large stream. These two rivers traverse regions very little explored, but which seem to be mostly rugged and mountainous, and covered with vast forests of teak trees.§ The Kistna, one of the sacred rivers of the

\* Rennell's Map and Mem. p. 256.

† Ibid. Mem. p. 193, &c.

‡ Asiat. Res. vol. 5. p. 1.

§ Rennell, p. 245.

Hindoos, rises a little to the south of the Poonah; and after a course of about 300 miles, discharges itself into the sea near Masulipatam. This river, with its tributary streams, runs through countries of which the plains are fertilized by its inundations, and the mountains celebrated for the richest diamond mines in the world. The Caveri, which passes by Seringapatam, the capital of Mysore, is another sacred river. Its course is comparatively short; but it forms a wide delta, and falls into the sea by several mouths. But the courses of the numerous rivers of the Deccan, as well as of Hindostan, may be much better traced in Rennell's excellent maps, than in any verbal description.\*

*Lakes.*]—In this extensive country, there are several lakes, but none that appear of sufficient consequence to merit description.

*Mineralogy.*]—The mineralogy of this southern portion of India, has, from time immemorial, been celebrated for its distinguished product, the diamond, of which the chief mines are those near Visiapoor and Golconda.† All the other metals, however, seem to be as rare in the Deccan as in Hindostan.

*Mineral waters.*]—The country is not destitute of mineral waters; but there does not appear to be any of distinguished celebrity.

*Soil.*]—The soil of this extensive country must, like its surface, be various: and although not critically examined, there are no doubt many barren tracts; but here, as in Hindostan, fertility is the grand cha-

\* The Nerbudda river is positively said by Mr. Orme to bound the Deccan. Hist. Frag. p. 5.

† The territory of Visiapoor belongs to the Maharras; that of Golconda to the Nizam.

racteristic;

racteristic; and the banks of the Kistna, and the other large rivers, where annual inundations take place, may vie with those of the Ganges.

*Climate.*]—It is easy to conceive that the climate of this tropical region must be excessively hot. It does not however appear, that the heats of the Deccan exceed, if they equal, those of Bengal and Sindy.

*Vegetable productions.*]—The vegetable productions of the Deccan are nearly the same as those of other tropical regions, and differ little from those of the southern parts of Hindostan. The countries bordering on the Bain Gonga and the Godaveri, and many other parts of the interior regions, are in a great measure occupied by immense primæval forests. The lofty trees of the palm kind, which constitute a distinguishing feature in tropical landscapes, here abound in almost all their various species. The gigantic fan palm, of which one leaf will cover ten or a dozen men, and two or three are sufficient to roof a cottage, grows in luxurious abundance, and to a prodigious size, on the lower mountains of the Carnatic. Here, indeed, as in all the tropical countries, where heat and moisture combine to excite an exuberant vegetation, the productions are too numerous to be mentioned in a general survey.

*Zoology.*]—The zoology of the Deccan so nearly resembles that of Hindostan, as to render a repetition unnecessary. Elephants are numerous; and the immense forests on the west of the Sircars, abound with wild animals.

*Natural curiosities.*]—The chief natural curiosities of this part of India, are the steep detached rocks, crowned with fortresses, which, from their situation, are impregnable to every mode of assault, and can

only be taken by surprize, or reduced by famine. Of this kind is the famous fortress of Givalior, which was so gallantly surprized and taken by Colonel Popham and Major Bruce in 1780. It stands on a vast rock of about four miles in length, but narrow, and between 200 and 300 feet in height, with all its sides nearly perpendicular. The only access is by steps running up the side of the rock, and the entrance is defended by walls, bastions, and gateways. The area within is occupied by noble buildings, wells, reservoirs of water, and some cultivated land.\* The celebrated fortress of Golconda occupies the summit of a hill of a conical form, and is deemed impregnable; but in 1687 it was treacherously surrendered to Aurengzebe.† To these must be added Severn-droog, or the rock of death, which is said to rise half a mile in perpendicular height from a base of eight or ten miles in circumference. The top of the rock being divided by a chain, forms two distinct citadels; and the whole was defended by walls and barriers wherever it was deemed accessible.‡ This stupendous fortress, however, which had hitherto been thought impregnable, was, on the 21st of December, 1791, stormed and taken by the English in the war with Tippoo Saib, sultan of Mysore. These detached rocks and fortresses, as already observed, are numerous throughout India; but most of all in the Deccan.

*Antiquities and artificial curiosities.*—The ancient monuments of the Deccan are numerous, and of various descriptions, consisting chiefly of temples, statues, &c. But none of these remains of Hindoo anti-

\* Rennell's Mem. p. 234. where see an account of this bold and dangerous transaction.

† Ibid. p. 216.

‡ M. Drom's Narrative, p. 67.

quity can bear any comparison with the ruins of Persepolis, Palmyra, or Thebes. They exhibit only very inferior specimens of art, and are far from corresponding with the exaggerated ideas which some have entertained of this celebrated country. The ancient monuments that have attracted the greatest share of attention are those of Ellora, in the vicinity of Dowlatabad, about 200 miles to the east of Bombay; and those of the island of Salsette and Elephanta, on the western coast. These consist of numerous apartments of extensive dimensions, supposed to be temples, excavated from the rocks, and decorated with columns, statues, and basso relievos. Those of Ellora are the most magnificent and extensive. Through a continued space of two leagues, nothing is seen but pagodas, in which are some thousands of figures, but of a sculpture which indicates no great proficiency in the arts.\* Deogire, which stood in this neighbourhood, was once the capital of the greatest and richest principality in the Deccan; and these elaborate monuments of superstition were probably the offspring of abundant wealth under that Hindoo government.† Mr. Rennell observes, that the principal monuments of Hindoo superstition are found in the Deccan; and that the marks of native civilization and opulence are more common here than in the northern parts of India,‡ which had been repeatedly ravaged by the Mohomedan conquerors long before their arms penetrated into the peninsula.

\* Rennell's Introd. p. 22; Mem. p. 214; Descrip. and Plates Asiatic Res. p. 6.

† Rennell, p. 214.

‡ Ibid, p. 23, 275.

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*CHAP. III.*

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Present political divisions of India.—Chief Cities.—Edifices.

**AFTER** this sketch of the geography and natural history of the two grand portions of India, the political divisions of that extensive country necessarily becomes the next topic of consideration. The principal powers being now the British, the Mahrattas, the Nizam of the Deccan, and the Seiks, their respective territories shall be specified in the order of their relative importance. The English, from their great extent of territory, equal at least to any of the native states, in conjunction with the superiority derived from European tactics, are now the preponderant power in India. The following table will exhibit a general view of the political divisions of that celebrated country.

*1. British Possessions.*

1. Bengal, Bahar, and the Zemindary of Benares.
2. Northern Circars, including Guntoor.
3. Barra Mahal, and Dindigul.
4. Jaghire in the Carnatic.
5. The Calicut, Palicanad, and Coorga countries.

*British Allies.*

1. Oude.
2. The Carnatic.
3. Travancore and Cochin.

The Mahrattas form two distinct empires, or states; the western, or that of Poonah, and the eastern; or that of Berar. The capital of the former is Poonah, and that of the latter is Nagpour. These states collectively occupy almost all the central part of Hindostan, and a considerable portion of the Deccan. Their sovereigns are little more than nominal, and their government seems to be completely feudal.\*

### 2. *Mahratta States.*

#### Poonah Mahrattas.

1. Malwa.
2. Candeish.
3. Part of Dowlatabad.
4. Visiapoor.
5. Part of Guzerat.
6. Agra.
7. Agimere.
8. Allahabad.
9. Shanoor, Bancapour, Darwar, &c.

#### Tributaries.

The rajahs of Jyenagur, Joodpoor, Oudipoor, Narwah, and Gohud; part of Bundelcund, Bobaltol, Amedabad, &c.

#### Berar Mahrattas.

Berar and part of Orissa.

#### Tributary.

Bembajee.

### 3. *The Nizam, or Soubah of the Deccan.*

The dominions of this prince are Golconda, Aurangabad, Bedar, part of Berar, Adoni, Rachore and

\* Rennell, introd. p. 124, &c.

Canoul,



Canoul, Cuddapoli, Gombam, Ganjecotta, part of Gooty, and the Dooal, and a part of the late territory of Tippoo Saib.

#### 4. *The Seiks.*

These occupy Lahore, Moultan, and the western parts of Delbi.

#### 5. *The lesser States*

Are Schauruinpoor, the Jats, the Pattan Rohillas, the Rajah of Mysore, and several others.\*

The provinces west of the Indus are possessed by the Sultan of Candahar, and make part of the eastern kingdom of Persia.

These divisions, although extracted from Rennell, and afterwards arranged in conformity to recent alterations, must not be considered as admitting of minute precision. That excellent geographer, notwithstanding his elaborate researches, confesses the impossibility of particularizing the situations and possessions of the different chiefs that compose the Mahratta States. In a country of perpetual revolutions, it would indeed be in vain to expect a precise definition of boundaries.

### CHIEF CITIES AND TOWNS.

This article may be introduced with an appropriate remark of M. Rennell, which will serve to give a general idea of the cities of this country. "Generally speaking, the description of one Indian city, is a description of all, they being all built on one plan, with exceeding narrow, confined, and crooked streets,

\* The rajah of Mysore is a lineal descendant of the ancient rajahs, whose throne was usurped by Hyder Ally. The rajah was restored by the English at the death of Tippoo Saib, in 1799.

with

with an incredible number of reservoirs and ponds, and a great many gardens interspersed. A few of the streets are paved with brick. The houses are variously built, some of brick, others of mud, and a still greater proportion with bamboos and mats; and these different kinds of fabrics, standing intermixed with each other, form a motley appearance; those of the latter kind are invariably of one story, and covered with thatch. Those of brick seldom exceed two floors, and have flat terraced roofs. The two former classes, far outnumber the last, which are often so thinly scattered, that fires, which often happen, do not sometimes meet with the obstruction of a brick house through a whole street." These general observations may spare a great deal of repetition, and render it unnecessary to enter into particular descriptions of the large Indian cities, which the plan of this work indeed would not admit.

*Calcutta.*—The chief city of Bengal, and of all the British Possessions in India is Calcutta, situated in  $22^{\circ} 33'$  north latitude, and in  $88^{\circ} 28'$  longitude east from Greenwich. I shall here subjoin M. Rennell's description of this grand capital of British Asia, which is equally clear and concise. "Calcutta is in part an exception to this rule of building, for there the quarter inhabited by the English is composed entirely of brick buildings, many of which have more the appearance of palaces than of private houses; but the remainder of the city, and by much the greatest part, is built as I have described the cities in general to be. Within these twenty or twenty-five years, Calcutta has been wonderfully improved, both in appearance and in the salubrity of its air, for the streets have been properly drained, and the ponds filled up, thereby re-  
moving

moving a vast surface of stagnant water, the exhalations from which were particularly hurtful. Calcutta is well known to be the emperium of Bengal, and the seat of the governor general of India. It is a very extensive and populous city, being supposed at present to contain at least 500,000 inhabitants. Its local situation is not fortunate, for it has some extensive muddy lakes, and a vast forest close to it. It is remarkable that the English have been more inattentive than other European nations, to the natural advantages of situation in their foreign settlements.\* Calcutta is situated on the western arm of the Ganges, at about 100 miles from the sea, and the river is navigable up to the town for the largest ships that visit India. It is a modern city, having risen on the site of the village of Govindpour about ninety years ago. It has a citadel superior in every point, as it regards strength and correctness of design, to any fortress in India, but on too extensive a scale to answer the useful purpose intended, that of holding a post in case of extremity, since the number of troops required for proper garrison for it, could keep the field. It was begun immediately after the victory at Plassey, which ensured to the British an unlimited influence in Bengal; and the intention of Lord Clive was to render it as permanent as possible, by securing a tenable post at all times. Clive, however, had no foresight of the vast expence attending it, which, perhaps, may have been equal to 2,000,000 sterling.† The commerce of Calcutta is very extensive; vast quantities of Euro-

\* Certainly M. Rennell will allow the Dutch settlement at Batavia to be an exception to this remark. In forming settlements, the Europeans in general seem more attentive to commercial, than to healthful situations.

† Rennell's Mem. p. 58 and 69.

pean goods are imported, and a considerable quantity re-exported to the neighbouring countries. English cloths and hard ware are sent from this port to Thibet, in exchange for musk, borax, and other commodities. Salt is exported up the Ganges and the Burram-pooter, to Asam, and the returns are made in gold, silver, ivory, musk, and a kind of silky cotton. The fine muslins and calicoes form a great part of the exports to Europe. Calcutta, in fine, is now one of the principal marts of Oriental Asia. In this great capital of the British empire in India, are several excellent establishments for the advancement of knowledge, and in particular for the investigation of Oriental literature. The Asiatic Society, which owes its origin to that illustrious character the late Sir W. Jones, is a noble institution, and its valuable papers will remain to future ages, a grand monument of British science, in a remote quarter of the globe. The recent institution of an university at Calcutta, is conspicuous for the extent and liberality of the plan, which comprizes the Hindoo, the Mahomedan, and the English law, with political economy, geography, history, &c. as well as the study of the Arabic, Persian, and Sanscrit languages, and of several of the modern dialects of India. The population of this vast capital, may be regarded as a natural and moral curiosity. The various complexions of the Hindoos, the Moors, and the English, exhibit a striking contrast; the luxuries of Asia are blended with the elegance and science of Europe, and this mixture of people and manners, presents a picturesque and interesting scene.

*Moorshedabad.*]—Moorshedabad, situated also on the western branch of the Ganges, was the capital of Bengal, until the establishment of the British power;

it is now in a state of decline, although it is still a very large, but ill built city, and on a plan so irregular, that it would be difficult to estimate its area.

*Dacca.*—Dacca, the third city of Bengal, and once the capital of that province, is situated about 180 miles to the north-east of Calcutta, on a large branch of the Ganges, and about 100 miles from its mouth. Few situations are better calculated for an emporium of inland commerce, as the Dacca river has a direct communication with all the other branches of the Ganges. Dacca has an extensive trade in muslins, of which the finest sorts are manufactured in that city, and the cotton is produced in the neighbourhood. The country around it is low, and covered with perpetual verdure; and it is not subject to such excessive heats as M<sup>o</sup>orshedabad, Patna, and some other places.

*Patna.*—Patna, the capital of Bahar, is a very extensive and populous city on the southern bank of the Ganges, about 500 miles above its mouth, and about 400 from Calcutta. It is a place of considerable trade. Most of the saltpetre purchased by the Company is manufactured in this province. Patna, or some place very near it, is supposed to occupy the site of the ancient Palibothra, which was the capital of a great kingdom about 300 years before the Christian *æra*.\*

*Benares.*—Benares, on the north bank of the Ganges, is rich and populous, and the most compactly built of all the Indian cities, but it is chiefly remarkable as the ancient seat of Braminical learning. It does not, however, appear to be a place of great antiquity, as it is not noticed in the works of ancient geographers.†

\* *Bennett's Mem.* p. 54.

† *Ibid.* p. 62.

*Agra.*]—Agra, which appears to have been, during the seventeenth and in the beginning of the eighteenth century, the most splendid of all the Indian cities, and which now displays the most magnificent ruins, is seated on the north bank of the Jumna, in latitude  $27^{\circ} 15'$ , and longitude  $78^{\circ} 28'$  east from Greenwich. About the year 1566, Achbar, liking the situation, made it his capital; and from a small fortified town, it soon became an extensive and well built city. It was regularly fortified according to the Indian method, and had a fine citadel of red stone. "Perhaps," says M. Rennell, "it has seldom happened that a city of such great extent and magnificence has declined so rapidly."

*Delhi.*]—The celebrated city of Delhi, which was long the capital of the Mogul empire, is seated on the west bank of the Jumna in  $28^{\circ} 37'$  north latitude, and  $77^{\circ} 40'$  east longitude. In the latter part of the seventeenth century it was said to contain 2,000,000 of inhabitants;\* but this account, like many other estimates of the population of large cities, was undoubtedly exaggerated, and the description given of it by Bernier, who wrote in 1663, does not authorise so high a calculation. This observing traveller estimated its circuit, within the fortifications, at only three leagues. He describes, indeed, several suburbs, but the whole aggregate makes no extraordinary extent for an Indian metropolis. The imperial gardens of Shalimar, are said to have cost an immense sum in canals, pavilions, and other decorations. The great mosque is a magnificent structure of red free-stone and marble, with gilded domes and lofty minarets. This famous capital of Hindostan, is now for the

\* Rennell's Mem. Introd. p. 73.

most part in ruins; but it displays many splendid remains of palaces with baths of marble.\* After the plunders and massacres to which Delhi has been exposed since the decline and downfall of the Mogul empire, particularly on the invasion of Nadir Shah in 1739, when no less than 100,000 people are said to have perished, its population must now be extremely small.

*Lahore.*—Lahore, situated nearly in 31° 50' north latitude, and 73° 50' east longitude, is a city of great antiquity in the Panjab, and was the residence of the first Mahomedan conquerors before they had established themselves in the central parts of Hindostan. It is now the capital of the Seiks, a new power, whose name was scarcely known till they rose on the ruins of the Mogul empire.†

*Poonah.*—The capital of the western Mahrattas is Poonah, a small and ill built city, quite open and defenceless. Pooroonder, a fortress on the summit of a mountain, about eighteen miles to the east south-east of the city, is the place of refuge in case of invasion, and there the archives of government are deposited.

*Nagpoor.*—Nagpoor, situated nearly in the centre of India, is the capital of the eastern division of the Mahratta empire. It is an extensive and populous city, but meanly built and open, without any fortifications but a small citadel of no great strength. The principal fortress of their rajah or chief, and the depot of his treasures, is Gyalgur, situated on the top of a

\* For an account of the present state of Delhi, see Asiatic Res. vol. 4, p. 416, &c.

† Rennell, p. 79 and 81. The famous avenue of shady trees, so much spoken of by early travellers, extended from Lahore to Agra, a distance of 500 English miles.

steep

steep mountain, about 119 English miles from Nag-poor. Each of the native princes of India has a depository of this kind, commonly at a distance from the capital, a precaution which the unsettled state of things renders necessary.

*Hydrabad.*]—Hydrabad, the capital of Golconda, and of all the dominions of the Nizam, appears to be situated about 17° 12' north latitude; and 78° 51' east longitude.\* The celebrated fortress of Golconda, already mentioned, is about five or six miles to the west north-west of Hydrabad.

*Madras.*]—After this slight sketch of the different Indian capitals, it may not be amiss to mention Madras, the second city of British Asia. This important settlement is in 13° 05' north latitude, and 80° 25' east longitude, on the coast of Coromandel, and close to the margin of the sea. Madras, or Fort St. George, is a fortress of great strength, including within its circuit a regular and well built city. There is also a second city, separated from it only by an esplanade; and although four miles in circuit, sufficiently fortified to prevent any sudden surprize. The greatest disadvantage of Madras is that of having no port for shipping, as the coast forms nearly a straight line, and is incommoded with a high and dangerous surf, which induces the necessity of using the boats of the country for landing. It is remarkable, that on the eastern coast of India, from Trincomalee to the Ganges, a space of fifteen degrees, or about 1040 English miles, there is no port for large vessels.

*Seringapatam.*]—Seringapatam, lately the capital of

\* Rennell's Mem. p. 215, 216, 248. Aurungabad was formerly the capital of the Nizam's territories. N.B. Rennell speaks with great uncertainty concerning the positions of Hydrabad, Lahore, and many other places.



Tippoo Saib's dominions, and the recent theatre of British valour, is seated on an island in the Caveri, in about  $12^{\circ} 32'$  north latitude, and  $76^{\circ} 46'$  east longitude,\* and may be considered as one of the most important cities of the peninsula. The island is about four miles in length, and a mile and a half in breadth, the western side being occupied by the fortress, distinguished by regular out-works, splendid palaces, and lofty mosques. The channel of the river, by which it is encircled, is about five feet deep, and runs over a rocky bottom. The environs were decorated with beautiful gardens; and, among other means of defence, was the bound hedge, consisting of every thorny tree and shrub that the country produces, and planted to the breadth of thirty to fifty feet. When the strength of the fortifications, and the number of Tippoo's troops and artillery are considered, the conquest of Seringapatam may be ranked among the most brilliant exploits of military history.†

*Edifices.*—The most remarkable edifices of India are the fortresses already mentioned, the numerous Hindoo temples and Mahomedan mosques, with the now ruinous palaces of the Mogul emperors. The palaces, as usual in the east, are vast assemblages of buildings, rather than compact and regular structures. The most famous pagodas, or Hindoo temples, are those of Jagernant and Seringham, which are vast masses of shapeless buildings, destitute of every mark of genius or architectural elegance.

\* Rennell's Mem. p. 269.

† The greatest part of the large and opulent cities of India, described by Tavernier, Thevenot, Bernier, &c. have greatly declined since the beginning of the eighteenth century, in consequence of the almost continual wars and revolutions which have taken place since the death of Aurangzeb in 1707. Rennell, p. 57.

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*CHAP. IV.*

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*Historical View, &c.*

**I**N delineating the geography of India, the northern and southern portions were considered as two distinct divisions pointed out by nature. In attempting an historical sketch, this country shall be treated as a whole; as the original population appears, from the uniformity of national religion and manners, to be the same throughout its vast extent. This mode of treatment will exhibit the most condensed view of a subject, on which the plan of this work does not allow room to expatiate, and which the most elaborate researches have hitherto been, and in all probability for ever will be, unable to reduce to perspicuity and precision.

The geography of India is a perplexed subject; but its history is still more embroiled and obscure. Sir William Jones and Anquetil du Perron, have made some attempts towards its investigation; but in regard to its early periods, all their laborious researches can reach no farther than vague conjecture. Either no native chronicles were written, or they were destroyed in consequence of some singular revolution. Perhaps this may have happened at the establishment of the present Braminical system, if it dates its commencement no higher than the eleventh century, as there now begins to be some reason to suspect. Be-

fore that period it is thought, on very probable grounds, that the religion of Boodha extended universally over India; and that it was not until the tenth century that it was completely rooted out of the Deccan by the Bramins.\* If this, indeed, be the case, it is not improbable that an ambitious and artful priesthood might have had reason for desiring to obliterate the remembrance of every thing antecedent to the establishment of their system and usurped authority; and as the sacerdotal order in India, as well as in Egypt and several other countries, very probably engrossed all the learning, and possessed all the libraries, such a scheme was not very difficult to carry into effect. The copious Birman library already mentioned, might perhaps afford documents for the elucidation of these dark subjects.† M. Rennell, however, says, the Hindoo, or Braminical religion was, without doubt, "universal over Hindostan and the Deccan before the time of Alexander's conquest. If we regard the notices of Herodotus and Arrian."‡ It appears indeed from these authors, that one religion prevailed throughout India, as far at least as it was known to the ancients; but it cannot, from any thing that they have left on record, be determined whether it was that of Boodha, or Brahma. From them, indeed, it is evident that the separation of tribes, or casts; their mode of living on vegetable food; and, in fine, most of the leading features of the Hindoo manners, were the same at the earliest period of Grecian intelligence concerning this country as at the present day. These, and other circumstances, induced Dr. Ro-

\* Asiatic Res. vol. 6. p. 162, 540.

† See an account of the Birman Empire from Symes.

‡ Rennell's Mem. Introd. p. 31.

bertson to say, that " what now is in India always was there," and to form his opinion of the ancient and high civilization of the Hindoos.\* It is not here a place to enter into an examination of his ingenious and elaborate work ; but it may not be amiss to remark, that the hypothesis of that illustrious writer, as well as of other eminent literati, begin to be exploded, and the illusion is likely soon to be expelled.†

The universality of religion and manners among the Hindoos, has given rise to an erroneous idea that India, before its dismemberment by foreigners, constituted one vast and united monarchy. But, as M. Rennell rightly observes, the uniformity of religion throughout India, could not, at any period whatever, imply unity of empire, as both Christianity and Mahomedanism are known to be extensively diffused over different countries which are under distinct governments. Notwithstanding the uniformity of religion, it is well known that many different languages were spoken, and that many distinct political systems existed in this extensive region. In this situation the Hindoos were found at the time of Alexander's invasion : and in this state they have always remained : nor does it appear in the least probable that India was ever, at any other period, so much united under one government as it was in the reign of Aurengzebe. A large empire, that of the Prasil, however, appears to have long occupied the principal part of that immense plain through which the Ganges takes its course. This state appears, from the strength of its armies and the number of its war elephants, to have been very powerful and rich. Rennell supposes

\* Robertson's Disquisitions, p. 257.

† See his hypothesis overturned by Mr. Bentley. Asiatic Res. p. 6.

it to have extended westward as far as the Panjab, and to have equalled the kingdom of France in dimensions.\* In the time of Seleucus Nicator, the immediate successor of Alexander, the capital of this state was Palibothra, to which Megasthenes was sent by that prince in quality of ambassador. According to Arrian, the people were good husbandmen and excellent soldiers: and the government was a mild feudal system.† The first invasion of India recorded in history, is that of Darius Hystaspes, who reduced the provinces bordering on both shores of the Indus, about 470 years A. C. Those Indian provinces constituted one of his richest satrapies. M. Rennell thinks, that from this conquest the Persians first acquired some knowledge of India, which from them was communicated to the Greeks;‡ but he supposes that from time immemorial an intercourse by sea had existed between that country and Egypt,§ although it is generally imagined that, before the reign of Pharaoh Psammeticus, the Egyptians paid little attention to maritime affairs. From the expedition of Darius Hystaspes to that of Alexander, about 328 years before Christ, there are no notices of India in any ancient writer; and the Macedonians found it divided into a number of petty states, like Gaul and Britain in the time of Cæsar. The Grecian kingdom of the Seleucidæ appears to have kept up, during only a short space of time, an intercourse with India, which was annihilated by the rise of the Parthian power, when a hostile barrier was placed between that country and Syria. The subsequent intercourse between

\* Rennell's Mem. p. 33.

† Arrian Exped. Alexandri.

‡ Geograph. of Herodotus, p. 248, &c.

§ Rennell's Mem. Introd. p. 33.

the eastern and western parts of our hemisphere was afterwards purely commercial, and kept up through the medium of Alexandria; and the Romans do not appear to have ever had any immediate intercourse with, or knowledge of India.

The Mahomedan conquests, which date their commencement from about A. D. 1000, form a new epoch in Indian history, previous to which all is impenetrable darkness. Notwithstanding, however, the eulogium which modern philosophy has bestowed upon the mild and gentle manners of the Hindoos, it is highly probable that wars and revolutions had taken place in that country prior to the invasions of foreigners. The conquests of Mahmood, or Mahomed, Sultan of Guisni, have already been mentioned.\* His first invasion of India was in the year of the Christian æra 1000. In eight campaigns, however, he advanced no farther than Moultan, the people of which province seem on this occasion to have been animated by the same spirit which they displayed in the time of Alexander.† At last all the Hindoo princes, from the borders of Thibet to the river Nerbudda, which bounds the Deccan, united for the defence not only of their country, but of their religion, the extirpation of which was, to this furious enthusiast, an object of not less importance than the aggrandizement of his power, and the acquisition of territory. The confederate Hindoos were defeated. Delhi, and afterwards Canoge, which had succeeded Palibothra as the capital of the Gaugetic kingdom, fell under the power of

\* See Historical View of the Turks.

† All our knowledge of Indian history is derived from Persian writers, particularly Ferishta, of whose work that of Colonel Dow is a translation, or rather a paraphrase.

the conqueror; and his last campaign reduced the province of Guzerat under his obedience. During the whole career of his conquests, the destruction of the Hindoo temples, with their priests and votaries, was the favourite object of this sanguinary bigot. Nothing appears more horrible than the progress of destruction, urged by intolerant zeal, which, exciting men to suppose themselves agents of the Deity, engages conscience on the side of cruelty, and removes the checks that interfere with the perpetration of ordinary crimes. At the death of Mahomed, the Ghaznian empire extended over the eastern, and by much the largest portion of Persia, and nominally over all the western part of India to the peninsula of Guzerat, although the Panjab alone was reduced under a regular government. The Rajpoots of Agimere had been repeatedly attacked, but their resolute bravery amidst their rugged mountains and valleys, had preserved their independence. The Ghaznian empire was, in 1158, separated into two distinct monarchies: the western and most considerable part still retained the ancient name, while the Indian conquests composed the kingdom of Lahore, of which the city of that name was the capital, and the first seat of the Mahomedan power in India. Their empire was gradually extended towards the east. Benares, the chief Hindoo university, was destroyed, and the bloody scenes of the first conquests were repeated in this celebrated seat of Braminical learning. About the end of the twelfth century, the vernacular tongue of Hindostan, like that of the Romans at an early period, being corrupted by an admixture of foreign words, the Sanscrit, like the Latin, became a dead language. In the year 1205 the Patan dynasty ascended the throne of

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Lahore;

Lahore; and the extension of the empire eastward induced the removal of the seat of government to Delhi. Genghis, or Zinghis Khan, amongst his extensive conquests, accomplished that of Ghazni, but left Hindostan undisturbed; and although his successors made several irruptions into the country, they formed no permanent establishment. During these calamitous times, the history of Hindostan relates only barbarous conquests, rebellions, and massacres, of which the details, if clearly authenticated, would be disgusting to humanity. It is sufficient to mark the principal revolutions that have fixed the destiny of this extensive and populous region. Till nearly the end of the thirteenth century, the Deccan had escaped the depredations of the Mahomedan conquerors. But in 1293, this southern division of India was invaded by Alla, the general of Ferose II. Deogire, the present Dowlatabad, was conquered; the booty was immense; and the treasures acquired by the commander of this expedition were so great, as to enable him to depose and murder the emperor. Alla pushed forwards his conquests; and from the year 1306 to 1312, Casoor, his general, ravaged almost the whole of the Deccan as far as the Carnatic, which, with several other provinces, were rendered tributary. At the death of Alla in 1316, all Hindostan Proper was comprehended in the Patan empire, which had now attained to the zenith of its greatness, and soon after began to decline. In the reign of Mahomed III. the princes of the Deccan resuming courage, united for the common defence, and gradually expelled the Patans from the whole of that southern division of India. The Mahomedan empire was also greatly curtailed by the revolt of the Panjab, Guzerat,



Guzerat, and Bengal; and at last restricted to the central parts of Hindostan. Ferose III. who ascended the throne A. D. 1351, endeavoured rather to improve the remains of his empire by the peaceful arts, than to extend it by arms. He took every measure for the advancement of agriculture; caused canals to be cut for the purposes of irrigation and inland commerce; and formed a project, already mentioned, of uniting the Indus with the Ganges.\* After his death in 1388, rebellions and civil wars, during the course of ten years, prepared the empire for foreign subjection. In 1398, Timur, or Tamerlane, invaded Hindostan, took Delhi, ravaged the whole country, and, in imitation of Mahmood of Ghizni, or Gazna, poured destruction and vengeance on the Hindoo temples and priests, whose religion and votaries the bigotry of this destroying monster prompted him to extirpate. Timur, however, overran, rather than conquered Hindostan; and his views on Turkey recalling him from the east, he retained possession only of the Panjab. If Hindostan was in a state of confusion before, it may well be supposed that the anarchy increased after this invasion. Revolutions followed one after another in rapid succession. The Patan dynasty ended in 1413, and the throne of Delhi was filled by Chizer, a Seid, or descendant of the prophet Mahomed. His posterity reigned till 1450, when Belloli, an Afghan, usurped the sovereignty. Hindostan was now split into separate governments, among which, that of Allahabad was the most formidable; while the king of Delhi retained only a shadow of power. About the year 1518 the empire was in a state of total confusion, which paved the way to its conquest by Sultan Baber,

\* See article Indus.

a descendant

a descendant of Tamerlane and Zinghis Khan. This prince, who reigned over the kingdoms of Balk and Bucharia, being dispossessed by the Usbecks of a great part of his dominions, resolved to attempt an establishment in Hindostan. He undertook his first expedition in 1158; and in 1525 he put an end to the reigning dynasty of Delhi. His short reign of five years in Hindostan, was chiefly employed in the reduction of the eastern provinces, and did not allow time to compose the anarchy which so long prevailed, to eradicate the seeds of rebellion, and to consolidate his new empire. The intrigues of his brothers, and the open rebellion of Sheer Khan in 1541, drove Humaïoon, the son and successor of Baber, into exile, and usurped the sovereignty. Sheer Khan being killed at the siege of Cheitore, in 1545, was succeeded by his son, Selim; but so unsettled was the state of Hindostan, that in the short space of nine years, no fewer than five emperors appeared on the throne. Every idea of regular succession, and of regular government, must indeed have been effaced from the minds of the people; for during almost two centuries, twelve years had scarcely ever elapsed without affording some example of successful rebellion. The confusion of public affairs brought about the recall of Humaïoon in 1554. He died the following year; but his reign, short as it was, proved a public blessing, in being the means of seating his son Achbar on the throne. This prince was only fourteen years of age at his accession. His long, busy, and prosperous reign of fifty-one years, has been celebrated by the pen of Abu Fazil. Eminent in abilities and virtues, he was the glory of the house of Tamerlane: he gave stability to the Mogul empire in  
India,

India, which owed its foundation to his grandfather Baber, the first of that dynasty on the throne of Delhi. The first years of the reign of Achbar were employed in reducing the revolted provinces from Agimere to Bengal; but his measures were widely different from those of the former Mahomedan victors. By wise regulations, and universal toleration in matters of religion, he gained the affections of the Hindoos, the most numerous class of his subjects, and secured the internal tranquillity of the empire.

It has already been observed that the Patans had in the fourteenth century been expelled from the Deccan, and it appears that an extensive and powerful empire had been formed in that southern portion of India. "Its emperors of the Brahminean dynasty, which commenced with Hassan Caco, A.D. 1347, appears to have exceeded, in power and splendour, those of Delhi, even at the most flourishing periods of their history."<sup>\*</sup> Like other Asiatic empires it soon fell to pieces, being split into the four potent kingdoms of Bejapour now called Visiapour, Golconda, Berar, and Amednagur. These subsisted, with a considerable degree of power and splendour, till the reign of Achbar. Candeish and the Carnatic appear also at that time to have formed distinct kingdoms. Most if not all of these were, at this period, governed by Mahomedan princes, although we are ignorant of the revolutions which had transferred their government from the Hindoos to the Mahomedans.† Achbar resolved on the conquest of the Deccan, and while one of his

<sup>\*</sup> Rennell's Mem. Introd. p. 79. It is to be supposed that M. Rennell refers only to the period preceding Achbar.

† It is probable that this change had been an effect of the Arabian conquests.

armies was employed in reducing Cashmire, he subdued Candeish, the western part of Berar, Tellingana, a division of Golconda, and the northern part of Amednagur, the capital of which, bearing the same name, was taken in 1601, after a long and bloody siege, and an unsuccessful attempt for its relief on the part of the confederate princes of the Deccan. Achbar dying in 1605 was succeeded by Selim his son, who took the name of Jehanguire. In his reign of twenty-two years the conquest of the Deccan was faintly pursued. The rebellion of his son and the intrigues of his mistress embittered his days and enfeebled his measures; but during the long and vigorous reign of Achbar, the empire had acquired a degree of consolidation that rendered it less liable to be shaken than it would have been at some other periods, by the operation of similar causes. In this reign, A.D. 1615, Sir Thomas Roe was sent as first English ambassador to the emperor of Hindostan. Jehanguire was, in 1628, succeeded by his son Shah Jehan, in whose reign the war in the Deccan was prosecuted with vigour, and a part of Golconda was subdued.\* Shah Jehan had, by his rebellion, embittered the life of his father, and his own was rendered miserable by the revolt of his sons. In 1639 the civil wars commenced between the emperor and his sons, as well as between the sons themselves, which ended in the elevation of Aurengzebe, after having dethroned his father, and murdered or expelled all his brothers.†

\* Rennell's *Introduct*, p. 59. Mr. Orme reckons Brampoor, Aurengabad, Amednagur, and Bedar, as forming the Mogul provinces in the Deccan at the death of Shah Jehan, and says that it was bounded by Golconda. *Hist. Fragments*, p. 5.

† Orme's *Hist. Fragments*, p. 4. M. Rennell places his accession in 1660. *Mem. Introduct*. p. 61.

The reign of Aurengzebe, who on his accession took the name of Allanguire, dates its commencement from the year 1660; and from that period to 1678 a profound tranquillity reigned throughout Hindoostan; but the conquest of the remainder of the Deccan was still an arduous task. In the reign of his father he had been governor of the conquered part of that region. Even at that time he had determined to annex to his dominions the rest of the peninsula, and to have no other boundaries on that side but the ocean. But while he was forming these extensive projects a new power was arising in the gloom of obscurity, which was to find him employment during a considerable part of his reign, and to retaliate on his posterity the calamities which he and his predecessors inflicted on the Deccan. This hostile and dangerous power was that of the Mahrattas, which was founded by Sevagi a military adventurer in the service of the king of Visiapour.\* His origin is obscure; but he is reported to have been a descendant of an illegitimate branch of the family of the Rana of Oudipoor, the chief of the Rajpoot princes.† Having acquired such a military reputation as gave umbrage to the ministers, he had the address to gain possession of some fortresses, and erected the standard of independence. His revolt against the king of Visiapour, and his victory over the army sent against him by that monarch, was highly pleasing to Aurengzebe, who congratulated him on his success and promised him the possession, exempted of tribute, of the territories that he should acquire. But he did not foresee the extent of the concession, nor apprehend that the man whom he intended to use as an instrument, would prove the most dangerous

\* Orme's Hist. Fragments, p. 6.

† Rennell's Introd. p. 80.

enemy

enemy of himself and his empire. After having conquered great part of the kingdom of Visiapour, he soon turned his arms against the Mogul provinces. He had defiance to the great Aurengzebe, notwithstanding his exorbitant power, and declaring himself the determined enemy of the court of Delhi, he styled himself the champion of the Hindoo gods against the sanguinary violators of their temples. By these declarations, and by the example which he gave of veneration for the Bramins, and of zeal for the Hindoo worship, he sharpened the antipathy of his troops against the Moguls, whose destruction was esteemed a religious retaliation. After a life of adventures and stratagems, in which all his conduct was marked with the most profound policy and the most dauntless intrepidity, Sevagi died, A.D. 1680, in the fifty-second year of his age.\* Sevagi has been compared to Gustavus Adolphus and Cæsar.† His circumstances, and many of his actions, however, bore a greater resemblance to those of Gustavus Vasa. He possessed all the qualities requisite for command, and all the actions of his life exhibit the consummate statesman and hero. At his death, his dominions extended from the north of Baglana, near Savat, along the sea coast as far as the Portuguese district of Goa, near 400 miles in length by 200 in breadth, besides half of the Carnatic on the eastern side of the peninsula,‡ constituting a sovereignty acquired by his own abilities, and established on a communion of manners, language, and religion, in opposition to the

\* Orme's Hist. Fragments, p. 90, where see the curious and interesting life of this bold adventurer.

† Orme's Hist. Fragments, p. 174.

‡ See the character of Sevagi in Orme's Hist. Fragments, p. 90.

tyranny of foreign conquerors. Sevagi was succeeded by his son Sambagi, who inherited the courage and policy but not the temperance of his father. His unconquerable propensity for the fair sex proved his ruin. In an unprincipled excursion, undertaken for the purpose of seizing a young lady of great beauty, he was led into an ambuscade and made prisoner by a detachment of the Mogul's troops. Being brought into the presence of Aurengzebe, that monarch offered him his life, with a high rank in his service, on condition of adopting the Mahomedan faith. To this proposal Sambagi answering by a positive refusal, accompanied by an invective against the prophet, was ordered for immediate execution. His tongue and his heart were cut out; his limbs were separated from his body, and his mangled parts were thrown to the dogs. The Hindoo hero met this fate with dauntless intrepidity, and the Mahrattas, instead of being awed into subjection, made preparations for carrying on the war with redoubled vigour.\*

Aurengzebe in the mean while had been pushing his conquests in the central parts of the Deccan. The conquest of the city and fortress of Golconda seems to have been one of the most arduous of his enterprises. But the military operations in the peninsula were often interrupted or checked by rebellions in the other provinces. The revolts of the Patans, beyond the Indus, and those of the Rajpoots of Agimere, afforded much employment to his arms. In the latter country he was once hemmed in with his whole army among the mountains, and the empress was made prisoner, in consequence of which he was obliged to grant them a peace. In 1681 the war with those

\* Orme's Hist. Frag. p. 163, &c.

mountaineers

mountaineers recommenced. Aurengzebe took and destroyed their capital, Chettore, with all the Hindoo temples and idols, but the spirit of this gallant people still remained unsubdued, and the Rajpoots, amidst the recesses of their mountains, maintained their independence. The reduction of the Deccan employed Aurengzebe from 1678 to the time of his death in 1707; and it is said that he was in the field during the greatest part of the last fifteen years of his life. He died in the ninetyeth year of his age, at Amednagur, in the Deccan, where he had fixed his winter quarters. Under his government the Mogul empire of Hindostan attained to its full measure of extent. His authority reached from the tenth to the thirty-fifty degree of latitude, and nearly as much in longitude, and his revenue exceeded 32,000,000<sup>l</sup> sterling, in a country where the products of the earth are about four times as cheap as in England.\* But this immense empire was far from being consolidated. The Mahrattas and the Rajpoots of Agimere, though sometimes humbled, were never subdued; and the vast provinces of the Deccan, as well as some of those of Hindostan, yielded only a precarious obedience while overawed by the presence of garrisons and armies. Throughout the greatest part of the empire, the native Rajahs still reigned under the condition of allegiance and tribute to the court of Delhi, and under the control of its soubahs and viceroys. So weighty and precarious a sceptre could be wielded only by a vigorous hand; after the death of Aurengzebe the heterogeneous mass began to crumble to pieces, and in about half a century a series of weak princes and wicked ministers reduced this mighty empire to a mere shadow of its former

\* Rennell's Introdact. p. 33.



greatness. Aurengzebe was a prince of great vigour and superior abilities : his military talents are difficult to estimate ; but he was certainly a profound though unprincipled politician. He made no scruple of any crime that could promote his interest, and the most bigoted intolerance may be reckoned among the dark parts of his character. His life and his death afford an important moral lesson, not only to monarchs but to men in every condition of life. No one who has perused the history of Aurengzebe is ignorant of the crimes by which he raised himself to the throne. And M. Rennell observes, that two of his letters, written a few days before his death, furnish this striking memento to frail mortality. " That however men may forget themselves during the tide of prosperity, a day of recollection will inevitably come, sooner or later. Here we are presented with the dying confession of an aged monarch, who made his way to the throne by the murder of his brothers and the imprisonment of his father, and who, after being in peaceable possession of it, persecuted the most inoffensive part of his subjects, either through bigotry or hypocrisy. Here we behold him in the act of resigning that, to obtain possession of which he incurred his guils ; and presented to us a mere sinful man trembling on the verge of eternity, equally deploring the past and dreading the future. How awful must his situation appear to him when he says, wherever I look I see nothing but the divinity."<sup>\*</sup>

The absence of Aurengzebe from his capital, during the long space of almost thirty years, while his arms were constantly employed in subjugating the Deccan,

<sup>\*</sup> Rennell's Mem. note at p. 63, Introduct. on the authority of the *Memoirs of Emdet Khan*.

occasioned many disorders in his original empire of Hindostan, and favoured the revolt of several of its provinces. The civil war which took place among his sons also greatly contributed to relax the nerves of government. Aurengzebe left four sons, Mauzuth, afterwards emperor under the title of Bahader Shah, Azem, Kaum Bukah, and Achbor. The death of their father was the signal of war between the two first, who disputed the empire with armies of about 300,000 combatants on each side. Near Agra it was decided by a battle and the death of Azem, which left Bahader Shah in full possession. The rebellion of his second brother, Kaum Bukah, was soon after quelled by his defeat and death, and the total dispersion of his followers. The arms of Bahader Shah were constantly employed against the rising power of the Seiks; till he died in 1712, at Lahore, where he had fixed his residence, on account of its proximity to the scene of action.

Bahadar Shah left four sons, among whom a civil war for the succession immediately commenced. Three successive battles, which were fatal to three of the brothers, left Jehander Shah in possession of the throne, from which he was soon after haried by Ferocksere, his nephew, and consequently a great grandson of Aurengzebe. Ferocksere owed his elevation to the Seik's Houssein Ali Khan and Abdoola Khan, two brothers, and powerful Omrahs at the court of Delhi, who, retaining in their hands the whole power of the empire, did not suffer him to sit long on the throne. In 1717 they deposed and blinded the unfortunate emperor, and raised to the nominal sovereignty Ruffich Ul Dirjat, a son of Bahader Shah. This prince and his brother Ruffich Al Dowlat were

in the course of twelve months successively advanced to the throne, and then deposed and put to death by the Seids, who had the uncontrolled disposal of the empire. In the space of eleven years after the death of Aurengzebe, five emperors of his line, and six competitors for the throne, of the same race, had terminated their short and bloody career; and the degraded state of the imperial dignity, during this period, had introduced an incurable anarchy into the empire, and excited a general disposition in the *subahs* or viceroys of the provinces to shake off their dependence on the sovereign authority. One of the most powerful of these was Nizam Al Muluk, viceroy of the Deccan, who had long been increasing his strength, and meditating independence, while the rising power of the Mahrattas furnished him a pretext for augmenting his forces.

Mahomed Shah, grandson of Bahader Shah, had in 1718 been placed on the throne of Delhi by the Seids; and being warned by the fate of his predecessors, had acquired sufficient power to get rid of those dangerous ministers. But the anarchy of the empire was too great to be reduced to order, and was daily increasing. While the Nizam was forming his projects in the Deccan, the Mahrattas directed their attacks against the middle and northern provinces; and their detachments insulted even the capital of the empire. In 1738, the Nizam came to Delhi with a number of armed followers. History does not clearly develop the motives of his journey. It seems, however, to have been his intention to effect a total change in the ministry, and it is extremely probable that his views extended to the throne of Delhi, as well as to the sovereignty of the Deccan. Finding, however,

ever, the court party, with Dowran the commander in chief of the forces of the empire at its head, too strong to be overturned, he invited Nadir Shah, the usurper of the Persian throne, to invade Hindostan. In 1739, Nadir entered on his expedition, and advancing towards Delhi, was opposed by Dowran the imperial general, who was soon after killed in a skirmish. So uncertain was the state of things at this time, that Nadir offered to evacuate the empire for the payment of 500,000*l.* sterling. But the intrigues of the Nizam, caused the weak emperor to throw himself on the clemency of the invader, who entered Delhi, and demanded 30,000,000*l.* sterling as a ransom. This unfortunate capital now exhibited a horrible scene of tumults, massacre, and rapine. No less than 100,000 of the inhabitants were massacred; the value of the plunder was immense; and Nadir Shah is said to have carried off from Delhi treasures to the amount of 62,000,000*l.* sterling,\* the greatest booty ever made in one place by any conqueror. Nadir Shah married his son to a grand daughter of Aurengzebe, restored Mahomed Shah to his throne, and having obtained the cession of all the countries to the west of the Indus, returned to Persia. The Nizam usurped the sovereignty of the Deccan. Bengal had a year before become independent under Aliverdi Cawn. The Rohillas erected an independent state near the Ganges, within 80 miles of Delhi. In fine, the invasion of Nadir Shah effected the dissolution of the Mogul empire in Hindostan. Nadir Shah and Mahomed Shah, both died in the same year, 1747. The latter was succeeded by his son Ahmed Shah. In the reign of this prince, which lasted only six years, the entire

\* Rennell's Mem. Introd. p. 62.

division of the remainder of the empire took place, nothing remaining to the house of Timar but the city of Delhi, with a small surrounding territory exposed to repeated depredations, massacres, and famines, by the contests of invaders. An extensive scene of usurpation ensued; all the soubahs and nabobs assumed independence. The rajahs, or native princes, resumed their ancient rights, and regained as much of their ancient dominions as they were able. Abdalla, king of Candahar, seized on the provinces of Lahore and Moultan. All Hindostan was in commotion from one extremity of the country to the other. All regular government was at an end, and no law was known but that of force. Perhaps in the annals of the world, there is scarcely an instance of so extensive, so powerful, and so splendid an empire, being so suddenly and so completely dissolved.

On the death of Nizam Al Maluk, in 1748, civil commotions arose in the Deccan for the succession to its throne, and for the nabobship of Arcot, one of its provinces. These contests engaged the French and the English in the quarrel, who espoused opposite sides of the question, and carried on a war in the peninsula till 1754. The English gained the point of establishing their security and influence in the Carnatic, and the French obtained possession of the northern Circars, valued at 500,000*l.* sterling of annual revenue. But among all the native powers that had risen on the ruins of the Mogul empire, none were so formidable as the Mahrattas. Sahooje had succeeded his father Sambaji, who was put to death by Aurengzebe in 1689, and as he inherited all the vigour and abilities of his ancestors, and reigned more than fifty years, for the most part in times extremely favorable to

to the aggrandisement of a state that was rising on the ruins of another, the power of the Mahrattas was carried to a wonderful height by his courage and conduct. The anarchy which prevailed throughout India, had opened a wide field for military adventurers, and particularly to this hardy and enterprising people. Their conquests under Sambaji are astonishing to those who do not know that Hindostan is so full of military adventurers, that an army is soon collected by an enterprising chief, who holds out a prospect of plunder, and appears likely to realize the expectation of his followers. At the time of his death in 1740, the empire of the Mahrattas comprized the whole central part of Hindostan, and a great part of the Deccan; and they were engaged in almost every scene of war and politics from Guzerat to the Ganges, and from Agra to the Carnatic. The reign of Ram Rajah, who succeeded Sambaji, produced a great revolution in the Mahratta state. The two principal officers, the Paishwah, or minister, and the Bukshi, or commander in chief of the army, agreed to divide the dominions of their sovereign, the former assuming to himself the government of the western, and the latter that of the eastern provinces. So singular a partition of the empire by its ministers, encouraged the usurpations of others, according to their power and opportunity, and in the course of a few years, the Mahratta state, from an absolute monarchy, became a mere confederacy of military chiefs, forming one of the loosest systems of feudal government existing in the world. Their spirit of enterprise, and avidity of spoil, however, were not diminished. From the banks of the Indus, to those of the Ganges, almost every province had either been conquered or plundered by these marauders.

marauders. Bengal alone, which was then subject to Aliverdy Caun, had hitherto escaped their depredations. But in 1743, both the Mahratta states united in the invasion of that province. One hundred and sixty thousand horsemen ravaged the plains of Bengal. Their barbarities were dreadful, and their inroad was long remembered with horror. They collected an immense mass of plunder, and imposed on the province a tribute called the chout.

Possessing vast domains and numerous armies, the Mahrattas resolved to attempt the expulsion of Abdalla, king of Candahar, from his Indian provinces, and the establishment of the Hindoo government throughout India. The principal powers of Hindostan were now arranged in two parties, the Hindoos and the Mahomedans, Sujah Dowla, the Rohillas, and other Mahomedan chiefs of less note, joined Abdalla, while the Juts, and other Hindoos, adhered to the Mahrattas. The army of the Mahomedans amounted to about 150,000, and that of the Mahrattas to 200,000 men; but the Juts deserted their confederates before the hostile parties met in the field. A decisive engagement took place in the year 1761 in the plains of Panniput. Victory declared for Abdallah, after a battle more obstinate and bloody than any other that the annals of Hindostan record. The carnage was horrible. The loss of the Mahrattas in killed and prisoners, was almost incredible; they lost the flower of their army, with all their best generals, and from that period their power has been on the decline.

The expulsion of the French, and the establishment of the British power in India are so well related by Mr. Orme, that if the plan of this work would admit  
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of particular details, they would here be unnecessary. It suffices to remark a few leading events, which effected those Oriental revolutions. The war in the Deccan, which was terminated in 1754, had been conducted with a vigor and prudence that reflected great honor both on the French and the English commanders. Hostilities recommencing between France and England in 1756, the war was consequently renewed between the two nations in India. The first object of the English was to wrest the northern Circars out of the hands of the French, and the second to drive M. Bussy's out of the Deccan. But the affairs of Bengal induced the necessity of relinquishing every plan of hostility in the Carnatic.

Aliverdy Caan, nabob of Bengal, dying in 1756, Suraja Dowla, his grandson and successor, being jealous of the rising power of the Europeans in India, resolved to expel the English from Bengal, and accordingly took their fort at Calcutta. The recovery of a station of so great importance, on which the whole trade to Bengal depended, was a measure of absolute necessity. An armament was sent from Madras, under the conduct of Admiral Watson, and Colonel, afterwards Lord Clive, who not only recovered Calcutta, but brought the nabob to terms. The sword was now drawn, and the English could enjoy no security while a nabob inimical to their interests possessed Bengal. But the famous battle of Plassey, in 1757, laid the foundation of their power, by rendering them the arbiters of the succession to the nabobship, which, by a happy turn of affairs, led to the possession of the powers of government. Jaffier Ally Caan, who had been formerly deposed, was replaced  
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on the throne, and at his death the government of the province fell into the hands of the English.\*

Since the reign of Ahmed Shah, who was deposed in 1753, the Mogul emperor had been merely a phantom of royalty. Ahmed Shah was succeeded by his son Allumguire II, in whose reign Delhi sharing the misfortunes of its monarchs, was plundered by Abdalla, king of Candahar. The emperor was reduced to the lowest degree of royal misery, lying at the mercy alternately of Abdalla, or the Mahrattas, soliciting the aid of either friends or enemies, and even relying on their generosity for the means of subsistence. Allumguire was deposed and murdered in 1760, and Shah Aulum his son was placed on the tottering and dangerous throne. This unhappy monarch threw himself successively on the Mahrattas, Nidjib Dowlah and Sujah Dowlah, for protection and assistance. From the period of Nadir Shah's invasion, the Mogul empire had been merely nominal, and the latter emperors were of no political consequence, otherwise than as their names and persons, which still retained a considerable degree of veneration among the bulk of the people, were made use of by different parties in order to forward their views. Every usurper who was diffident of his own strength, endeavoured to legalize his usurpation by a real or pretended grant from the emperor, as the paramount sovereign, in order to reconcile the transaction to popular opinion; and each daring rebel who got possession of his person, obliged him to sanction by law every act of violence committed against his authority.

\* For the rise of the British power in India, the reader must be in general referred to Mr. Orme's excellent history of the military transactions, &c. in Hindostan.

Such was the state of Hindostan, and such the condition of its wretched emperor, the miserable tool of rebels and usurpers, when Lord Clive, after a series of the most splendid successes, assumed the government of Calcutta in 1765. Jaffer Ally Cawn, nabob of Bengal, had recently died, and Lord Clive obtained from the nominal emperor, Shah Aulum, who was without power or territory, money or friends, a grant of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, with the northern Circars, on condition of paying him twenty-six lacks of rupees, about 260,000*l.* sterling per annum. Thus a good bargain was struck on both sides. The English acquired without injustice or violence, by a voluntary grant, from the only authority that could be called legal in India, a territory containing at least 10,000,000 of inhabitants, and producing a net revenue of nearly 1,500,000*l.* sterling per annum;\* while the emperor obtained the means of a comfortable subsistence, with the city and fortress of Allahabad for his residence, and the sovereignty over that and the adjacent province of Corah, under the protection of the English. It was, however, the misfortune of the restless emperor, that he could not accommodate his mind to the standard of his circumstances, although these were now far more favorable than they had ever been at any former period of his life. Being the lineal descendant of the house of Tamerlane, he aspired to possess the capital of his ancestors; and in grasping at this shadow, he lost the substance of what he already possessed; for after six years of quiet and comfortable residence at Allahabad, he ceded his provinces to the Mahrattas, and put him-

\* Rennell's Mem. Introd. p. 77 and 93. These revenues are greatly augmented since that time.

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\* Rennell's Mem. Introd. p. 77 and 95. These revenues are greatly augmented since that time.

self into their hands, on their promise of replacing him on the throne of Delhi. The English, in consequence of this alienation of the provinces from the purpose for which they had been originally granted, and the cession of them to a power inimical to them and their allies, again took possession of Corah and Allahabad, which they afterwards ceded to the nabob of Oude. The Mahrattas, however, took the Mogul to Delhi, where they kept him as a kind of state prisoner, allowing him for his subsistence the produce of a trifling domain granted him for the use of his name. After the peace of 1762, Madajee Scindia, a Mahratta chief, obtained the supreme power of Delhi; and the private distresses of the emperor were so great, that in 1784 his son came to Mr. Hastings, the governor general, to solicit the charity of the English. On the defeat of Scindia by the confederated Rajpoots, the Mogul made his escape to Golam Cawdir, a Rohilla chief, who then took possession of Delhi in 1789, and put out the eyes of the aged and unfortunate emperor.

From the time of its first establishment in Bengal, in 1765, the British power in India, notwithstanding the frequent opposition of the native princes, has been greatly aggrandized, and the territorial acquisitions of the Company extended both in Hindostan and the Peninsula. Within two years after this epoch, the English, however, were engaged in an arduous contest with Hyder Ally, Sultan of Mysore. Hyder had originally been a soldier of fortune, employed in the service of the rajah, or king of that country. He is said to have acquired the rudiments of war in the French camps, and in 1759 he distinguished himself as their auxiliary. About ten years afterwards being

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at the head of the army of Mysore, he dethroned the rajah and usurped the sovereignty. The war between him and the English breaking out in 1767, was carried on with various success during that and the following year. But in 1769 Hyder, with a strong detachment of chosen troops, chiefly cavalry, having eluded the vigilance of the British army, suddenly appeared before Madras, and dictated a peace to the government of that place, which was not in a condition to withstand an attack. The first war with the Mahrattas was glorious to the British arms, and many important conquests were made. But a second war with Hyder Ally breaking out at this time, in 1780 it was found necessary to conclude a peace with the Mahrattas, and all conquests were restored, except Salsete, and the small islands adjacent to Bombay, which were ceded to the East India Company. Hyder in the mean while expecting to be powerfully supported by the French, broke into the Carnatic with 100,000 of the best troops that had ever been disciplined by a native of India. This was an alarming crisis, and the success of Hyder in cutting to pieces Col. Baillie's detachment, with the consequent retreat of the army of the Carnatic, caused the British interests in that quarter to be given up for lost in the opinion of most people in Europe. Happily, Governor-General Hastings, and Sir Eyre Coote, beheld the danger with firmness, and formed expectations more sanguine. Under Sir Eyre Coote, Hyder was successfully combated during two campaigns; and saw the possession of his grand object, the Carnatic, so far at a distance, that he appeared sincerely desirous of peace. In this disposition of mind Hyder soon after died, and was succeeded by his son Tippoo Saib, who

long made a conspicuous figure on the military theatre of India. This prince entertained an irreconcilable enmity to Great Britain, and the war was consequently continued; but the peace of 1763 having deprived him of all hopes of assistance from France, he consented with reluctance to the termination of hostilities. Peace was concluded at Mangalore in 1764 between Tippoo Saib and the English, and matters were restored nearly to the situation in which they were before the commencement of hostilities. This treaty however secured his fidelity by very feeble ties; and the splendid embassy which he sent to France not very long after the peace, gave reason to believe that the courts of Versailles and Seringapatam had concerted some great design, the execution of which was prevented by the French revolution. Tippoo, however, entered single-handed on a war with the English. Never could a more favorable opportunity have occurred for humbling the pride and the power of the tyrant. The English were not only at peace with all the other native powers of India, but also in alliance with the Nizam and the Mahrattas, the two most formidable states of the peninsula, both of which were ready to concur in any measures that tended to crush the rising greatness of Mysore. The first campaign of this arduous contest was that of 1790, the operations of which were confined below the Gauth. The second began with the capture of Bangalore, which fixed the seat of the war in the heart of Tippoo's dominions, and concluded with the retreat of the English from before Seringapatam about the end of May 1791. The third and last campaign was marked by a vigorous and decision of conduct that surmounted every obstacle, and terminated in a manner the most glorious to  
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the British arms: Onsoor, Rayacotta, and other hill forts which commanded the Policode pass, with those on the north east of Bangalore, were successively reduced; and Nundy Droog, on the summit of a mountain near 1700 feet high, after being besieged almost a month, was carried by assault on the 18th of October.

This conquest was immediately followed by that of Penagra; but an attack made on Kistdagheri failed of success, and Coimbetore was obliged to surrender by capitulation to the enemy. These two unfavorable events, however, were soon counterbalanced by the success which attended British valour in the memorable attack of Severndroog, or the Rock of Death, which was esteemed impregnable.\* This stupendous fortress, before which the Sultan flattered himself that the Europeans would be annihilated by sickness and the sword, was taken by assault on the 21st of December, the eleventh day of the siege.† Fortunately, the garrison trusting to the strength of the place rather than to their own exertions, were negligent in its defence, a circumstance which rendered the conquest so easy, that it was effected without the loss of a man; and only one private was wounded. On the 1st of February, 1792, the whole allied army of the British, the Mahrattas, and the troops of the Nizam, began their march towards Seringapatam; and on the 5th arrived within six miles of Tippoo's camp, which was strongly situated, being fortified by the bound-hedge, of from thirty to fifty feet thick, as well as by numerous redoubts and a formidable artillery. On

\* See the description of Severndroog under the article of curiosities.

† Severndroog is not more remarkable for its magnitude and strength, than for the noxious atmosphere with which it is surrounded.



the following morning Lord Cornwallis gave orders for the attack. The plan of this operation was bold beyond all common conception of tactical science, and the result was decisive. Tippoo was driven from his camp into the city: all his redoubts were taken, and a lodgement was made on the island on which Seringapatam is situated.\* The most formidable preparations were made for the assault of that capital; and General Abercrombie arriving on the 16th with the Bombay army, posted himself on the north-west side of the city. Every thing being almost ready for the assault, a negotiation for peace commenced; and on the 24th the preliminaries were settled. The principal articles of the treaty were, 1st, that Tippoo should cede half of his dominions to the allied powers; 2d, that he should pay three crores and thirty lacks of rupees; 3d, that all prisoners should be liberated; and 4th, that two of the sultan's eldest sons should be delivered as hostages. Tippoo is said to have been prevailed on with great difficulty to submit to these humiliating conditions; but being at length overawed by the discontents of his own subjects, and the firmness of the British general, he reluctantly signed the treaty. The delivery of the children, and the endearing tenderness with which they were received by Lord Cornwallis, was a splendid, solemn, and affecting scene.†

Peace was now restored, but it was not of long duration. The ambition of Tippoo was for a while repressed by his recent defeats; and his power was diminished by the cessions which he had been compelled to make: but his animosity against the British

\* See description of Seringapatam in the preceding chapter.

† One was about eight, the other about ten years of age.

name,

name, was, if possible, increased; and desire of revenge urged his natural temerity to try once more the fortune of arms. The war which took place between England and France, soon after the revolution, seemed to afford him a favorable opportunity; and he readily listened to the suggestions of French emissaries, who persuaded him, that with the assistance of the republic, he might not only recover all that he had lost, but expel the English from India, and share their possessions with the French. In the beginning of the year 1798, it appeared that Tippoo had concluded an alliance with the Directory of France, and dispatched an embassy to the sultan, or king of Candahar, which could have no other object than to excite him to invade Hindostan. The expedition of the French to Egypt the same year, has been supposed to have had an ultimate reference to this plan; but it is difficult to conceive how they could hope to effect an invasion of India from Egypt, when, besides the difficulty of equipping a fleet in the Red Sea, a few English vessels could at any time block up the streights of Babel-mandel. Whatever might be the plan concerted between the Directory of France, and the tyrant of Mysore, it was evident at least that the whole of Tippoo's conduct denounced hostility. Lord Mornington, governor-general of Rengal, being apprized of these circumstances, sent to the sultan a letter of expostulation, which produced only an equivocal answer, containing vague professions of a wish to maintain peace and amity. As it was evident that Tippoo only wished to gain time and increase his strength, Lord Mornington determined to avail himself of the superiority of his force, and immediately directed

General Harris to enter the territory of Mysore, with the army under his command, at the same time issuing orders to Lieutenant-General Stuart to advance to the same point from the coast of Malabar. The sultan having attacked these two divisions separately, was totally defeated in both engagements, and driven from every post that he endeavoured to maintain. General Harris, with the army of Madras, proceeding without further interruption, encamped on the 5th of April, 1799, about two miles to the south-west of Seringapatam, and immediately began to prepare for the siege of that capital. On the 14th, the army of Bombay joined that of Madras before Seringapatam; and on the night of the 20th, Tippoo perceiving the formidable attack that was meditated, sent to General Harris a letter, expressive of his desire to enter into negotiations for peace. In answer to this overture, the general transmitted a draft of preliminaries. To these the sultan replied in such a manner as shewed that his intention was only to gain time; and indeed it is evident that no peace could ever have been rendered permanent but by the destruction of the tyrant. On the 30th of April, the batteries were opened against the city; and on the evening of the 3d of May, a practicable breach was effected. On the 4th, the assault was given about one o'clock in the afternoon, the hottest part of the day being deemed the most likely to ensure success, as the troops of the sultan would then least expect, and consequently be the least prepared to resist the attack. The British troops crossed the rocky bed of the Caveri, and advanced to the assault, in spite of every obstacle which the difficulty of the passage, and the resistance of the enemy, could

could oppose to their valour. Their impetuous attack was completely successful. The palace of the sultan was the last place from whence any resistance was made. Two of his sons surrendered to the troops that surrounded them; and guards were placed for the protection of the family. Tippoo, and several of his chiefs, fell in the assault of the palace; and the body of the sultan was found in one of the gates among a heap of slain. His corpse being recognized by his family, was interred in the mausoleum of his father with the honours due to his rank. Tippoo fell at about fifty years of age. In his natural disposition, he was cruel and vindictive; and although he possessed a considerable share of policy, and was not in general defective either in council or action, he fell at last a victim to ill-concerted schemes, dictated by ambition and a spirit of revenge. Immense treasures were found in the royal palace; and vast quantities of artillery and military stores were taken in the city and forts. A descendant of the ancient rajahs was re-established in a part of Mysore; the rest of Tippoo's dominions were divided between the English, the Nizam, and the Mahrattas. The English retain the city and fortress of Seringapatam.

Thus ended an important contest, which crowned the British armies with glory and freed the British empire, in Asia, from the most inveterate and formidable enemy which it has ever met with among the native powers of India. From this period the British must be considered as the predominant power both in Hindostan and in the peninsula. History does not record a similar instance of the people of a small island, situated in the extremity of Europe, establish-

ing so extensive and so powerful an empire at so vast a distance in a remote part of Asia, in countries so long occupied by populous nations. The subsequent wars with the native powers have contributed to consolidate the Oriental empire of Great Britain, in India, and to crown her commanders and armies with laurels.



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*CHAP. V.*

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Present State, political and moral — Religion — Government — Laws —  
 Army — Navy — Revenues — Commerce — Manufactures — Population —  
 Political importance — Language — Literature — Polite Arts — Education  
 — Manners and Customs — National Character.

*Religion.*]—THE mythology of the Hindoos has fair pretensions to great antiquity; but their modern religion is supposed to vary much from the ancient system, which seems to have been originally that of Boodha, yet retained by the Birmans and the neighbouring nations. The present system seems to have been introduced by the artful Bramins in order to increase their own power and influence. Among many other intelligent enquirers, Sir W. Jones is decidedly of this opinion, and cautions us against confounding the ancient Brachmans with the modern Bramins. It is well known that in the circle of human affairs contests have frequently risen between the spiritual and temporal powers. This has particularly been the case in all half civilized countries. In China and Japan the regal has obtained the ascendancy over the ecclesiastical power, while in Hindostan and Thibet the latter has acquired the superiority. An artful priesthood, by a refined policy, asserted the divine institution of the several casts, and very naturally pronounced their own to be supreme, and possessed of innate and hereditary sanctity. The different casts are supposed to originate

from Brama, the immediate agent of creation under the supreme Disposer. These casts are chiefly four, the Bramins, who are employed in the offices of religion; the Cheteree, or military cast, engaged in the affairs of war and government; the Bice, whose province it is to provide the necessaries of life by agriculture and trade; and the Sooder, or inferior class, destined to labour and servitude. The religious tenets of the Hindoos are so artfully and closely interwoven, with the whole social system and the ordinary offices of life, that, notwithstanding the revolutions of their country, they remain, and probably will for ever remain, like the Jews, a distinct people. Amidst all the absurdities, however, that compose the intricate maze of Hindoo mythology, the whole fabric appears to rest on that universal basis of ancient polytheism, the belief of one supreme Creator exalted above all human adoration, and a number of inferior agents governing the world in subordination to his will.

*Government.*—It would be an endless task to particularize the different systems of government in India. The general Hindoo constitution appears to be thus constructed: the sovereignty being left to the military cast, the monarch is considered as proprietor of all the lands, except those belonging to the priesthood: the Rayots hold their possessions by a perpetual lease, at a fixed rate, which, as in China, can only be considered as a land tax: the Zemindars are collectors of these annual land rents.

*Laws.*—The laws of the Hindoos, like those of the Mahomedans, are intimately connected with their religion; but the laws of the Veda are more complex than those of the Koran.

*Army,*

*Army, navy, and revenue.*]—Of the army, navy, and revenue of the different states into which India is divided, nothing can be said with any degree of precision. The military establishment of Bengal, &c. is always respectable, but varies according to circumstances, and a good navy might be constructed.\* The revenues of Aurengzebe's empire, as already observed, are stated by M. Rennell, on the authority of a precise calculation, at 82,000,000*l.* sterling, the largest, perhaps, that ever any monarch enjoyed, being equivalent at least to 130,000,000*l.* at this day in England. The revenue of the British provinces in India may, at this time, probably amount to 3,000,000*l.* and the expences to 2,500,000*l.*†

*Commerce.*]—The commerce of this celebrated country is a copious subject, which has exercised many pens, and interested many nations from time immemorial. A passion for Indian manufactures and products has actuated the people of every age in Western Asia and the civilized countries of Europe. It is probable that the Arabians were the first people that engaged in this traffic, and that from them it was communicated to the Egyptians and Tyrians. The Arabians seem to have been the first carriers, as the early Egyptians, like the Persians, had an aversion to the sea; but in the reign of Pharaoh Necho the Egyptians began to pay great attention to maritime affairs, and undoubtedly made voyages to India. It

\* It is to be observed, that on account of some religious prejudices the Hindoo nations have never had any navy.

† The revenue of the British provinces have been computed at 4,210,000*l.* sterling, and the public expenditure at 2,540,000*l.* sterling. Pennant, vol. 2, p. 326, but it may be presumed that they have since increased.



is extremely probable, however, that there was from time immemorial an intercourse between Egypt and India; and the similarity of customs in many instances seems to establish the fact.\* This coincidence of customs and institutions, however, seems to point out a more immediate communication than could be maintained through the medium of the Arabians, and shews that either the Egyptians made voyages to India or the Hindoos visited Egypt.† That Solomon's lucrative commerce extended to India is highly probable, as his kingdom bordered both on the Red Sea and the Euphrates, which opened to him the two great channels of communication with the East. M. Rennell observes, that M. Volney's opinion respecting the object, which Solomon had in view, in taking possession of Palmyra, namely, to use it as an emporium of Oriental commerce by the way of the Persian Gulph, is both ingenious and probable. It is certain, however, that this trade afterwards raised Palmyra, in aftertimes, to a splendid and opulent city, the capital of a powerful kingdom. There is scarcely any doubt that the Tyrians had a share in this lucrative trade, as M. Rennell observes, although in another place he advances an opposite opinion.‡ This opinion is founded on the omission of many names or description of Indian commodities in the catalogue of the different kinds of merchandise, which made up the

\* Rennell's Introd. p. 23.

† Might not this consideration give rise to a probable opinion that the casts, or tribes, together with a great part of the religious system of the Hindoos, were borrowed from Egypt, and, perhaps, in the time of the latter Pharaohs?

‡ Compare Rennell's Mem. Introd. p. 23, with Geography. Herodotus, p. 248 and 249.

commerce of Tyre.\* But as the spices of Arabia are mentioned, it is proper to remark, that, among the ancients, the products of India were often ascribed to Arabia, the mart being mistaken for the place of production, and, according to Niebuhr's account, few spices are produced in Arabia.† But whatever were the channels of commerce between the western world and India, at an earlier period, it is certain that after Alexandria became the royal seat of the Ptolemies, it also became the emporium of Indian trade, and such it continued until the Saracena conquest. In the time of Pliny, 120 ships sailed annually from the Red Sea to the coasts of Malabar, or to the island of Ceylon; and this trade was carried to so great an extent as to cause an annual loss to Rome of 800,000*l.* sterling.‡ which was the prime cost of the merchandise. But if this commerce was disadvantageous to the state, it was highly lucrative to the merchants, as Indian commodities sold at Rome for ten times their original price. And Tiberius complained, in the Roman Senate, that the wealth of the state was expended in female ornaments.§ India, indeed, has ever been a gulph which absorbed the gold and silver of the western world.¶ The Indian commerce, however, has enriched every nation that has shared in any considerable degree in its profits. After Alexandria fell into the hands of the Caliphs, a new channel of intercourse was opened between Constantinople and India, by the way of the Euxine and Caspian Seas and the river Oxus, which

\* Emkial, chap. 27.

† Niebuhr, p. 126.

‡ Pliny's Hist. Nat. lib. 12, cap. 16.

§ Tacit. Annal. vol. 3, p. 42.

¶ And. Hist. Com. vol. 1, p. 543. Pliny ubi supra, this remark is also applicable to China, And. Hist. Com. vol. 1, p. 154.

pervades the country of Great-Bucharia. The Oriental trade, however, reverted to its ancient channel of Alexandria, and enriched Venice and Genoa until the Portugueze deprived them of that grand source of wealth by the discovery of the passage round the Cape of Good Hope. The Portugueze for a short time enjoyed this profitable monopoly, which they were soon obliged to share with other European nations.\* Among these the Dutch took the lead, and were so successful as to expel the Portugueze from most of their forts and factories, and the greatest part of their trade. The French and English made rapid strides to rival the Dutch in this lucrative vein of commerce. From the year 1726 to 1754 the Oriental trade of France was very considerable, and about the latter period had attained to its greatest height: † at present it is almost annihilated. Great Britain is now predominant in Indian commerce, as well as in Indian politics. Objections have been made by theorists against the Oriental trade, on the pretence that India and China drain the wealth of Europe. But as a traffick will ever be carried on with these countries, so long as navigation and commerce exist, it is evidently more beneficial to Great Britain to purchase the Oriental commodities at the first than the second hand, and to supply other nations, than to receive supplies from their trade. ‡ The riches acquired by the Company and their servants centre chiefly in England, and experience, which in business surpasses all theory, has

\* For the vast trade of the Portugueze to India, about the year 1611, see Anderson's Hist. of Com. vol. 9, p. 246.

† And Hist. Com. vol. 3, p. 300, &c.

‡ See curious and interesting disquisitions on this subject in And. Hist. of Com. particularly in vol. 2, p. 200 and 283.

already

already proved the Indian commerce to be a source of opulence and naval strength.

*Manufactures.*]—The Indian manufactures have been celebrated from the times of remote antiquity, particularly their muslins and other fabrics of cotton, which constitute a considerable part of the exports from that country. In all their trades few tools are used, and those of the simplest kind, but the delicate touch of their fingers supplies this defect. The hand of an Indian cook wench, says Mr. Orme, is more delicate than that of an European beauty, and the skin of a porter is finer than that of a professed *pétit maitre*.\*

*Population.*]—The population of this extensive region is difficult to calculate. General estimation supposes it to amount to about 60,000,000. Sir W. Jones computes the Hindoo inhabitants of the British provinces at 30,000,000.† It is probable, however, that half the number would be the nearest.

*Political importance.*]—The political importance of this vast region is divided among so many different states that nothing determinate can be said on this subject. India may be considered as forming within itself a distinct political world.

*Language.*]—The Sanscrit is the original language of at least a considerable part of this country. It contains fifty-two characters; and is now a dead language. Many vulgar dialects, however, are spoken, which are totally different from each other. Almost every considerable division of the country has a distinct and peculiar language, and commonly a particular alphabet.

*Literature.*]—The literature of the Hindoos, like

\* General Idea of the Government and People of Hindostan, ch. 7.

† Asiatic Res. vol. 4, p. 23.

every thing else in their system, is intimately connected with their mythology. The translations of their best works, that have yet appeared, display a capricious imagination destitute of sound judgment, vigorous genius, and elegant taste. They are wholly ignorant of history; and their chronology, which reckons by millions of years, is too romantic and ridiculous to merit the least attention. The antiquity of their mythology, their literature, and their astronomy, has been a subject of enquiry among many learned writers, and seems to have misled the sound sense and excellent judgment of Mr. Bailly, Dr. Robertson, and a whole host of literati. The want of history and chronology throws a shade of uncertainty over every thing in India, and the Hindoo æras and dates are blended together in one mass of absurdity and contradiction.\* The most important books are the Vedas; but if we except some moral maxims and rules for the conduct of life, there appears a striking deficiency of good sense in Hindoo literature. A smattering of astronomy, sufficient for the calculation of eclipses, with the absurd ideas of judicial astrology, constitute the whole extent of Braminical science. The polite arts are yet in their infancy. In painting they are strangers to the rules of perspective: the images of their gods are destitute of form and symmetry: many of the temples are majestic and solemn; but without any architectural beauties. Rudeness and inlegance are seen in all the Hindoo works of wealth and magnificence.†

[*Education.*]—The Bramins confine all Hindoo science, such as it is, to their own cast, and have

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*Persons, manners, and national character.*—The Hindoos are of a good stature in the northern and mountainous parts, but lower and of a weaker frame in the plains and the southern provinces. They are, however, in general, formed with exact symmetry, and although greatly inferior to the Europeans in strength, surpass them in agility and easiness of motion. Their features are regular and their complexion either copper or olive, but both with various shades, and some are almost black.\* Their hair is always black and long; and the white part of the eye is generally tinged with yellow, which gives to the countenance but little animation. Their peculiar customs and manners have been frequently described. The horrible custom of widows burning themselves, in testimony of affection to their husbands, was practised in the times of remote antiquity, an instance of which was exhibited by the wife of a general in the army of Eumenes; and the ancient Brachmans, as exemplified in the person of Calanus, sometimes burned themselves in the same manner on a funeral pile lighted by their own hand. The continuance of practices so revolting to human nature, during the space of 2000 years, shews how seldom customs are changed in India. The Hindoos are remarkable for their abstemiousness, which excludes the use of animal food and intoxicating liquors; but they indulge in polygamy. They are of a quick and subtle genius; but mild and inoffensive in their manners.‡ Pusillanimity is considered as a

\* Orme's *Gov. and People of Hindostan*, Essay, vol. 2.

† *Diod. Siculus*, lib. 19, cap. 2.

‡ Orme's *Essay on the Effeminacy of the Hindoos*.

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distinguishing feature in their national character. But the history of Indian affairs seems to furnish numerous exceptions to this general representation. Their frequent subjection to foreign powers seems to be ascribable rather to their want of discipline than their deficiency of courage, and their behaviour, when trained and commanded by Europeans, justifies the supposition. The Moors or Mahomedans of Hindostan are a more athletic and vigorous race, and distinguished from the Hindoos by a fairer complexion. Their exterior deportment is ceremoniously polite, but their general character presents an assemblage of almost all the vices.\* The number of Hindoos exceeds that of the Mahomedans in at least a tenfold proportion.

### ISLAND OF CEYLON.

THIS valuable and celebrated island, the Taprobana of Ptolemy, is of a triangular form, with a rounded base on the south, being about 260 British miles in length, and 150 in breadth, nearly equal to Ireland in extent. The shores are flat and low to the distance of six or eight leagues within land; but the interior consists chiefly of high mountains, covered with prodigious forests full of aromatic trees and plants. These mountainous districts give rise to numerous streams, which diversify and fertilize the plains. The highest of the mountains is that called Adam's Peak by the Mahomedans, and celebrated in Hindoo fables. The rivers are small, and the narrow extent of the country

\* Orme on the government and people of Hindostan, book 2, chap. 1 and 2.

can afford them only a short course. Ceylon is opulent in every department of natural history. It possesses a rich and varied mineralogy of gold, iron, plumbago, &c. with immense fossil wealth in various precious stones, among which are enumerated the genuine ruby, the sapphire, the topaz, the amethyst, the jacinth, the peridot, and as some say the emerald, with several others of inferior note and value. The opulence of the sea also corresponds with that of the land, in a valuable pearl fishery on the north-west shore, which begins about the middle of February, and continues till about the middle of April, when the south-west monsoon commences.\* During the season of the fishery, the village of Condatchey is crowded with a mixed assemblage of people of different colours and countries; with numerous tents, huts, and shops, while the adjacent sea is covered with boats. The divers are mostly Christians or Mahomedans, who descend to a depth of five or ten fathoms, and remain under water about two minutes, each sometimes bringing up about 100 pearl-oysters in his net. The soil in the valleys and plains near the coast, is rich and amazingly fertile in rice, and other vegetable products. This island affords pepper and various other spices; but its peculiar and most valuable product is cinnamon, the best in the world. The immense forests are the haunts of innumerable elephants, which in beauty yield only to those of Siam. The buffalo is common, and wild boars numerous and exceedingly fierce. There are also tigers, bears, and various tribes of deer and monkies. The alligators are sometimes eighteen feet in length. Many other wild animals and tremendous reptiles might also be enumerated. And

\* Asiat. Res. vol. 5, p. 394.



amidst a great variety of beautiful birds, Ceylon is remarkable for the numerous peacocks that ornament its forests.\*

*Candy.*]—Candy, the capital city and royal residence, is situated on the banks of the river Mowil, nearly in the centre of the island, amidst impervious forests and lofty mountains, which render it almost inaccessible to an enemy, all the approaches being through intricate defiles known only to the natives.

The Portuguese, however, in 1590, found means to explore the labyrinth of woods and mountains, and to capture the city. Our knowledge of Candy and its king is at present obscure; but several of our brave countrymen being now prisoners in that capital, it may be hoped that on their return they will communicate interesting intelligence concerning this deep recess of barbarian power.

*Columbo.*]—The chief town of the Portuguese, Dutch, and English possessions successively, is Columbo, which is handsome and well fortified. The governor's palace is neat, but it consists of only one floor with a balcony. The fine harbour of Trincomalee, on the eastern side of the island, is of great importance, as there is none on that side of the continent. At Matura, near the southern promontory called Dondra, the Dutch used to collect great quantities of excellent cinnamon, and a variety of gems abound in the vicinity.

The natives of Ceylon, called Cingalese, are undoubtedly of Hindoo origin; but they are not so black as those of Malabar, as the exposure of the island on all sides to the sea, renders the climate more cool and

\* For the Nat. History of Ceylon, see Pennant's *View of Hindostan*, vol. 1.

salubrious than that of southern Hindostan. Their manners differ little from those of the other Hindoos. Their religion is that of Boodh, which is supposed to have originated in Ceylon, and thence to have spread to Hindostan; to exterior India, and afterward under corrupted forms to Thibet, China, and Japan. Others, however, contend that the worship of Boodh originated in exterior India. Nothing is said of the literature of the Cingalese, or of their arts and sciences, nor do they appear to carry on any manufacture. The valuable commerce of Ceylon, has always consisted of its celebrated productions, cinnamon and gems, which have long been an inexhaustible source of wealth to the Dutch, and promise to be such in future to Great Britain.

The ancient history of Ceylon is little known, and would probably be as little interesting, although its commerce, as well as that of the Indian continent, has been important and celebrated from the times of remote antiquity. It may, however, be remarked, that in the reign of Claudius an embassy was sent to Rome from a raja or king of this island.\* In 1506, Ceylon was seized by the Portoguese, who, as already observed, took the capital 1590, and retained possession of the shores till 1660, when they were expelled by the Dutch. During the late war, the Dutch settlements on the coast were taken by the English, who still remain in possession, but not without being long engaged in hostilities with the king of Candy.

\* Pliny, vol. 6, p. 22.

# PERSIA.

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## CHAP. I.

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Situation—Extent—Boundaries—Face of the Country—Mountains—Rivers—Canals—Lakes—Mineralogy—Mineral Waters—Soil—Climate—Vegetable Productions—Zoology—Natural Curiosities—Antiquities and Artificial Curiosities.

**PERSIA** having from early times been a powerful empire, and often the theatre of great revolutions, has sometimes extended its limits, and sometimes been reduced within narrower boundaries.\* The geographical outlines of its general extent, however, are strongly marked. The Caspian Sea, and the Tartarian deserts near the lake of Aral on the north, other deserts and mountains, with the river Araba which separates it from India on the east, as well as the Indian ocean which form its southern limits, are indelible features of nature; and its boundaries towards Asiatic Turkey on the west have never greatly varied. Modern Persia extends from about 25° to 44° north latitude, and from 44° to 70° east longitude, being nearly 1,300 miles in length from east to west, and scarcely less from north to south.†

\* Cluverius estimated Persia as extending above 1800 miles from the mouth of the Araxes to that of the Indus. Geog. lib. 5, cap. 13.

† Sir John Chardin ~~reduced~~ *rejoined* the extent of Persia from the river Indus to the mountains of Ararat, which cannot be less than 2000 miles. Chard. tom. 3.

*Face of the country.*]—The general face of the country is mountainous, and one of its most remarkable features is the want of rivers and wood, of which no country except Arabia is more destitute. Extensive sandy deserts likewise frequently occur in various parts, although some districts display the most luxuriant vegetation.

*Mountains.*]—The chains of European mountains, notwithstanding the modern improvements in geography, have scarcely as yet been accurately defined. No great exactness can, therefore, be expected in describing those of Asia. An accurate survey of continuous ranges, extending several hundreds of miles in countries little known and seldom visited, is indeed an arduous task, which is seldom undertaken by travellers. The Caucasian ridge extends to the west of the province of Ghilan, and then turning to the south of Mazendran, terminates on the south of the Caspian Sea.\* Another ridge runs parallel to the Persian Gulph, at the distance of about fifty or sixty English miles. A third range running in nearly the same direction, is connected with the Caucasian chain. A fourth separates the ancient countries of Assyria and Media.† Ararat is a solitary mountain, situated in an extensive plain not far from the Caucasian ridge.‡ Almost all the provinces of Persia are separated by ranges of mountains, of which geographers have in vain attempted to describe the extent and direction. This must ever be the case where materials are deficient. Geography may be arranged, but cannot be originally produced in the closet. Ac-

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† D'Anville *Geog. ancienne*, vol. 2, p. 462.

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*Rivers.*]—There is scarcely one navigable river in Persia, except the Araxes. Some of those of the north, as the Tedjeu, or ancient Oxus, the Kur or Cyrus, and some others, flow into the Caspian Sea. The Ahwaz rises in the mountains of Elwend, and divides itself into two branches, one of which discharges itself into the Tigris, above its junction with the Euphrates, and the other into the æstuary of these two conjunct rivers. The Zenderoud, the Hinmend, and indeed most of the rivers of central Persia, are lost in the sandy deserts of the interior. Such is the termination of a great number of streams in different provinces, which might be more considerable if the inhabitants were not obliged to divert their waters into small channels for the purpose of irrigating their lands, a process on which their productiveness greatly depends, and which having formerly been practised more than at present, is a circumstance that may in a great measure account for the contrast between the fertility of ancient and the barrenness of modern Persia. Tavernier says, apparently on good authority, that in the space of twenty-four years preceding his visit to Persia, no less than eighty channels had been

\* Rennell, p. 155. Foster's Trav. vol. 2.

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suffered to run to ruin, and be choked up in the single province of Tauris.\*

*Lakes.*]—The principal lake of Persia, is that of Aral in the province of Segistan. Its length is about 150, and its breadth something more than 30 miles. Its waters are fresh, and it abounds with fish. The salt lake of Bactegan, about fifty miles east of Schiras, is represented as being about forty miles in length; and ten in breadth. The lake of Urmia, in the north-west of Persia, appears to be about fifty miles in length, and more than twenty in breadth. The lake of Erivan is about seventy-miles in circumference, and has a small island in the middle.

*Mineralogy.*]—Metals of all sorts have been found in this country, and the Persian mineralogy owes much to the exertions of Shah Abbas the Great, who paid great attention to this subject. He caused the mines to be every where searched for, and when discovered to be worked with assiduity. Since his time, iron, copper, and lead, are become plentiful; and both gold and silver mines have been found, but none of them at present are wrought, as the profits have not covered the expences. Iron mines are common in the northern parts, but the iron is of a bad quality. Persia affords abundance of minerals, and sulphur, allum, and salt, are made by nature without the assistance of art. In some parts of the country are plains of many leagues in extent covered entirely with salt, and others also overspread with sulphur and allum.† Marbles of various colours and kinds are found in abundance, especially about Mount Tauria. But the richest mines in Persia are those of the Tur-

\* Tavernier, tom. 4, liv. 4, ch. 1.

† Universal Hist. ch. 41, et auct.

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 CHAP. I.
 

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suffered

suffered to run to ruin, and be choked up in the single province of Tauris.\*

*Lakes.*—The principal lake of Persia, is that of Aral in the province of Segistan. Its length is about 150, and its breadth something more than 30 miles. Its waters are fresh, and it abounds with fish. The salt lake of Bactegan, about fifty miles east of Schiras, is represented as being about forty miles in length; and ten in breadth. The lake of Urmia, in the north-west of Persia, appears to be about fifty miles in length, and more than twenty in breadth. The lake of Erivan is about seventy-miles in circumference, and has a small island in the middle.

*Mineralogy.*—Metals of all sorts have been found in this country, and the Persian mineralogy owes much to the exertions of Shah Abbas the Great, who paid great attention to this subject. He caused the mines to be every where searched for, and when discovered to be worked with assiduity. Since his time, iron, copper, and lead, are become plentiful; and both gold and silver mines have been found, but none of them at present are wrought, as the profits have not covered the expences. Iron mines are common in the northern parts, but the iron is of a bad quality. Persia affords abundance of minerals, and sulphur, allum, and salt, are made by nature without the assistance of art. In some parts of the country are plains of many leagues in extent covered entirely with salt, and others also overspread with sulphur and allum.† Marbles of various colours and kinds are found in abundance, especially about Mount Tauris. But the richest mines in Persia are those of the Tur-

\* Tavernier, tom. 2, liv. 4, ch. 1.

† Universal Hist. ch. 41, et auct.

quoise. Of this gem there are two sorts, some being much superior to the others both in the brilliancy and durability of the colours.\*

*Mineral waters.*—Persia contains many mineral waters, but their composition and virtues are little known to Europeans. Some curious springs are described by Kæmpfer and Gmelin, which produced to the khan of Baku a revenue of about 800*l.* sterling.†

*Soil.*—The soil, as in all other countries of so great an extent, must necessarily be various; but sterility may be considered as the general characteristic. The southern parts, which border on the Indian ocean, are almost entirely desert, and the middle provinces are encumbered with barren mountains and sandy plains; but the northern parts are sufficiently fertile.

*Climate.*—The climate is also various in different provinces of this extensive country. In the southern parts, from the shores of the Persian Gulph, to the mouth of the Indus, the heat, during at least four months in the summer, is so intense that the natives retire to the mountains, and none are found in the villages, but the poorest and most wretched of the inhabitants. The air is at that time exceedingly suffocating and insalubrious, and the hot wind called Samiel is often fatal to the traveller. This wind, which reigns from the mouth of the Indus to Arabia, and ascends towards the north beyond Bagdad, is frequently as instantaneously fatal as musquet shot, those who are struck with the sudden blast immediately dropping down dead.‡ The camels readily perceive its approach, and are said to give warning of the danger

\* Tavernier, vol. 1, liv. 4.

† Gmelin *Dec. Russ.* vol. 2.

‡ Tavernier, vol. 1, liv. 5, cap. 23.



by making an unusual noise, and thrusting their noses into the sand. When its coming can be perceived, the only means of escape is to fall flat on the ground until it be passed over; which is generally in two or three minutes. The insupportable heat at Gombroon, and on all the southern coast, is attested by all travellers; and the malignity of the burning atmosphere produces a variety of fatal diseases. A judicious traveller remarks, that a severer punishment could not be inflicted on a criminal, than that of confining him to such a situation; while at the same time he observes, that several persons of good sense and abilities are found there, who hazard their health for the sake of acquiring in a short time large fortunes, which they seldom live to enjoy.\* In the middle parts of Persia, the winter begins in November, and continues till March, and is commonly severe, being attended with sharp frosts. During this season, considerable quantities of snow fall on the mountains, although it is never seen on the plains.† From March till May the winds are frequently high; but from that time till September the air is dry and serene, and refreshed by cool night breezes. In September and November the high winds again prevail. About three days journey to the west of Ispahan are mountains on which the snow remains during eight months in the year. In the central and southern parts the air is so extremely dry, that thunder and lightning are uncommon; and the rainbow is a rare phenomenon, the atmosphere not containing vapours sufficient for its formation. Earthquakes are scarcely known; but hail sometimes falls in the spring, and as the harvest is then fast approaching, often damages greatly the crops. The eastern

\* *Le Brun, Voyag. tom. 1.*

† *Chardin, vol. 6.*

provinces of Persia, from the mouth of the Indus to the borders of Tartary, are also subject to excessive heats; but are not so insalubrious as the southern coasts.\* In all these parts the air is perfectly serene; it seldom rains and a cloud is rarely seen. The northern provinces bordering on the Caspian are comparatively cool, although even there the heat is sometimes almost insupportable. Moisture is in these parts a predominant quality, the vapours of the Caspian being arrested by the Caucasian mountains, and the air is scarcely less unhealthful than on the southern coasts. The insalubrity of these parts is indeed so notorious, that when a person is sent with a commission to Ghilan, it is common at Ispahan to ask whether he has committed robbery or murder.† From the end of October till the beginning of May, these northern, or rather north western provinces, are exceedingly pleasant. The Holstein ambassadors, who passed through this country in that agreeable season, describe it as a terrestrial paradise; but Sir John Chardin, Tavernier, and later travellers agree, that during the other part of the year, it is one of the most unpleasant and unhealthful places in the face of the globe.

*Vegetable productions.*]—Among the vegetable productions of Persia, may be reckoned all kinds of

\* Ghilan and Mazandran are the ancient Hyrcania, so called from being situated on the coasts of the Hyrcanica, or Caspian Sea. Ptolemy, lib. 6, cap. 9.

† Chardin, tom. 3. Tavernier, tom. 1, liv. 4, cap. 1. Nothing can more fully shew the mistakes to which travellers are liable, who passing rapidly through a country describe it as it appears at one season, without suspecting what it may be at another, thus the erroneous accounts which the Holstein ambassadors have given of Ghilan and Mazandran. Harris Collec. vol. 2.

grain : of these, wheat and rice are the principal. The former is excellent ; and the latter is esteemed the best in the world. The Persians, indeed, consider rice as a most delicious food, and are extremely careful in the mode of its cultivation ; but it can be grown only in those parts where the lands are capable of being irrigated. The richest pastures are in the ancient Hyrcania, or the provinces of Ghilan and Mazendran, adjoining to the Caspian Sea. The country is here from September to April, an entire pasture, covered with flowers of all kinds, both such as we see in Europe, and others that are peculiar to the soil and climate, displaying more vivid and beautiful colours than those of any other part of the globe. These provinces present entire forests of orange trees, and abound in fruits of all kinds, which, during the winter months, attain to their full perfection, so that the country, when viewed at this season, justifies all the encomiums of the Duke of Holstein's ambassadors ; but in summer every thing is destroyed by the excessive heat and malignity of the air. The dates and pomegranates of Persia are esteemed the best in the world. All kinds of European fruits are produced in the highest perfection. Almost every province produces grapes ; but the wine of Schiras is the best in the whole country. The botany of Persia is a copious subject. In the variety and perfection of its fruits and its flowers, it is supposed to excel all countries on the face of the globe : nor is it less famous for its esculent plants and roots, especially onions and melons. The former are exceedingly large and sweet ; the latter are so plentiful, and so greatly esteemed by the Persians, that during four months in the year, they constitute almost the whole food of the common people. So fond

are the Persians of fruit, that for one desert sometimes fifty different sorts are provided at an entertainment.\* Persia produces also great quantities of cotton and silk, as well as abundance of drugs, excellent in their kind, but too numerous and various to be here particularized. But, excepting the northern provinces, it is, as already observed, almost wholly destitute of timber. No forests are met with; and the trees which most frequently occur are the plantain, the fir, and the cornel.

*Zoology.*—The zoology of Persia is less copious and perfect than its botany. The horse is one of its noblest ornaments. The Persian horses, although less esteemed than those of Arabia, are the most beautiful and showy that are seen in the East, being higher than our saddle horses, and finely proportioned. Although they are very numerous, the great demand from Hindostan on one side, and Turkey on the other, raises their price very high. The mules are also very fine, and held in great estimation. There are two breeds of asses, one heavy and stupid, the other, which is originally from Arabia, docile and tractable, and used solely for the saddle. Camels are also numerous, much used, and greatly esteemed. Oxen, of which there are not any very great number, are generally employed in ploughing, and other kinds of labour, as little beef is eaten in Persia. Sheep and deer are common, but hogs are no where kept except in some districts near the Caspian Sea. Of wild beast there is no great number, nor in general of beasts of chase, as the country is destitute of forests; but the northern parts, where woods are more plentiful, abound in lions, bears, tigers, &c. as well as in

\* Chardin, tom. 3.

† Tavernier, tom. 1. liv. 4.

deer,

deer, and various kinds of gazelles; and the goats which furnish the Bezoar, abound both wild and tame. No wolves, however, are found in any part of the country. Persia has all kinds of fowls that are seen in Europe, although in less number. But pigeons are more numerous here than in any other part of the world, being greatly valued for their dung, which is the best manure for melons; and in no other country whatever are seen such a number of pigeon-houses. Among the birds of Persia, may be reckoned the pelican. In the mountains, between fifty or sixty miles from Schiras, are some of the finest birds of prey in the world; and the people take great pains in teaching them to fly at game. The Persian monarchs had sometimes several hundreds of them, and for each, a person was appointed as its keeper. From the dryness of the climate, there are few insects or reptiles except some large black scorpions, of which the sting is almost immediately mortal, with lizards of enormous size, and in some provinces vast swarms of locusts. The abundance of fish afforded by the Caspian Sea has already been mentioned; and the Persian Gulph supplies a quantity little inferior.\* The pearl fishery of Ormus has been long celebrated, and often described.

*Natural curiosities.*]—The natural curiosities of Persia are numerous; but our knowledge of them is not very complete; and in a country so little explored by Europeans, description is often blended with fable. The river Mahmoudker, at some distance from Ispahan, is mentioned by travellers as a curious feature of nature. Passing through certain openings in a range of rocks resembling the embrasures of a bastion, through which the winds also rush with astonishing

\* See Asiatic Russia.

violence,

violence, it falls into a noble bason, formed partly by nature and partly by art. In the ascent of the mountain, certain natural chasms shew the water at the bottom of it, like a dormant lake covered with rocks. Its depth is thought to be unfathomable; and when stones are thrown into it, they cause an astonishing noise that almost deafens the hearer. After its descent from the bason, it rolls along the plain, and at last falls into the river Zenderoud. The beraor, found in the stomach of a certain kind of goat, and once highly esteemed as a counterpoison in this quarter of the world, as it is still in the East, although now nearly expelled from the European practice of medicine, must be regarded as a natural curiosity. The rarities of Persia, whether real or fictitious, which travellers have described, are numerous, but it is difficult to make a just distinction.

*Artificial curiosities, antiquities, &c.*—Persia, however, displays some remains of antiquity, highly worthy of notice, as they exhibit lasting memorials of her ancient grandeur, and excite an interesting recollection of an important portion of the history of mankind. The ruins of Persepolis, once the capital of the Persian empire, are superior to every thing of the kind now seen in the world, except those of Rome and Thebes, and want only the mysterious antiquity of the latter to render the view of them equally impressive. The antiquity of Thebes, as already observed, lies beyond the reach of history and tradition: that of Persepolis can ascend no higher than Cyrus; but whether that monarch, or Darius Hystaspes, was its founder, is a matter which cannot now be ascertained. The plain in which Persepolis was situated, is one of the finest on the surface of the globe, being nearly

nearly sixty miles in length, with an irregular breadth of from six to twelve, and in some places near twenty miles, being watered by the Araxes, now called Bendemir, and by a great number of rivulets. The whole plain is, or at least was lately, crowded with villages, adorned with gardens, and planted with planes, and other shady trees. The entrance of the plain from the west has received as much grandeur from nature as the city could acquire from art. A range of high and steep mountains, twelve miles in length, and two in breadth, forms two flat banks, with a rising terrace in the middle, and appears to be the station where the advanced guards from Persepolis posted themselves on Alexander's approach, and from whence he dislodged them with great difficulty. In this magnificent ridge are such openings, with terraces so fine and so even, that the whole would seem the effect of art, did not the vast extent and elevation shew it to be a work that nature alone could produce. On the east and the north, the plain is defended by similar fortifications. The palace of the ancient monarchs of Persia was situated close to the foot of the rocky mountain, and its stupendous ruins, called Chilminar, or Forty Pillars, impress the mind of the spectator with the highest ideas of their magnificence, as well as of the instability of human greatness.\* The front extends 600 paces from north to south, and 390 from west to east; quite to the rock. Three of the walls are yet standing; and on the east side is the mountain. It would here be a vain attempt to describe the particulars of these interesting ruins, the numerous staircases and columns, the rich marbles, the various

\* See the descriptions and drawings of Chardin and Le Brun. Chardin, tom. 2. Le Brun, tom. 3.

sculptured

sculptured figures, some of which are of a colossal size, the grand portico, &c. These have all been described at large by various travellers and writers of different nations, but by none with such accuracy as by Sir J. Chardin and M. Le Brun.\* To their luminous descriptions and elegant drawings, therefore, the curious enquirer must be referred for a particular account of those interesting remains of antiquity. In this general view it suffices to remark, that the stupendous ruins of Persepolis must impress exalted ideas of the magnificence and taste of the ancient Persians, before public calamities had depressed the national genius. There are also curious remains of antiquity in other parts of Persia, particularly in the neighbourhood of Schiraa. Nothing, however, is seen that bears any comparison with the magnificent ruins of Persepolis.

\* Among the travellers who have visited and described the ruins of Persepolis, may be enumerated Mr. Ducket, Sir Thomas Herbert, Thevenot, and Dr. Gemell Carreri. Sir J. Chardin has perhaps given the best general account of Persia, and has described these ruins with great perspicuity and accuracy. Le Brun had the advantage of a longer stay, and being by profession a painter, he examined them with the eye of an artist. He cavils with Chardin in regard to some minutiae, but agrees with him on all subjects of importance.



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**CHAP. II.**


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*Principal cities and towns—Edifices—Islands*

**T**HE capital of modern Persia is Ispahan, a name of uncertain etymology, but often written, and always pronounced Spanhaun. It is situated on the river Zenderoud. This was originally a small brook; but Abbas the Great, who being charmed with the situation, made this place his capital about the year 1620, cut a channel, by which he introduced a more copious stream into that river. By this accession of waters, the Zenderoud is rendered as wide in the spring season at Ispahan, as the Seine is at Paris, or nearly half as wide as the Thames at London. Of all the Asiatic capitals, Ispahan has been the most accurately described by travellers, at least as it appeared about a century ago; and since that time our accounts of Persia have in general been extremely defective. Sir T. Herbert, the Holstein ambassador, Tavernier, Carreri, and especially Chardin and Le Brun, have given descriptions of this metropolis of Persia, as ample and elaborate as any that we possess of some European capitals. Ispahan stands in a beautiful, spacious, and fertile plain, surrounded with mountains, which defend it from the piercing winds of the winter season, allay the sultry heats of summer, and cause a mild and pleasant temperature of the air, which with the goodness of the waters both in the

river and the springs, renders this place a healthful residence.\* The plain, and even the city, are watered by several rivulets and branches of the Zenderoud, a circumstance extremely favorable to vegetation. Many of the streets are adorned with plantains; and almost every house having its garden well stocked with fruit trees, the whole resembles a wood, and at a distance the city can scarcely be distinguished. The circuit of Ispahan is computed by Chardin at twenty English miles. The walls consist only of a rampart of earth, so covered with houses, and shaded with trees, as not to be easily discovered; and the citadel is a mean structure, in a ruinous state, but provided with a few cannon. The houses are vile, and the streets narrow, irregular, and extremely ill-paved. The royal palace is three-quarters of a league in circumference, and has six gates. The grand market-place is large and magnificent; and the principal street called Chiar-hang, which is adorned with splendid shops, is one of the grandest ornaments of the city. The bridge of Allawerder Khan, over the Zenderoud, constructed of large stones, and consisting of thirty-three arches, commands one of the finest prospects in the world, comprizing pleasure-houses, gardens, mosques, and various kinds of structures. The suburbs of Julfa was, in the time of Chardin, very large, and inhabited by the Armenians. Various estimates have been made of the population of Ispahan. Sir Thomas Herbert computed it at 200,000. Sir J. Chardin esteemed its population equal to that of London, which in his time might contain 600,000 inhabitants. But in that age the population of great cities

\* Ispahan is situated in the south-east corner of the ancient Media. Rennell's Geog. of Herodot. p. 271.

was almost always exaggerated; and travellers could scarcely avoid being led into errors by misinformation. It is, however, to be presumed, that in consequence of the intestine commotions and frequent revolutions, which have, during the last century, taken place in this country, the metropolis has greatly declined. In 1722 it was taken and plundered by the Afghans; and Mr. Hanway, in his travels, informs us, on the authority of a Persian merchant, that it was so greatly reduced, as not to have above 5000 of the houses inhabited. Of the present state of Ispahan little is known at present in this quarter of the world; but whoever should view it at this day would certainly not find it to correspond with the description here given of it from Chardin and Le Brun.

*Schiras.*—Of Schiras or Shiraz, the second city of Persia, we have a more modern account, it having been recently visited and described by Mr. Franklin. This city, the capital of the province of Persia, or Farsistan, is seated in a fertile plain, about twenty-six miles in length and twelve in breadth, encompassed on all sides with lofty mountains. The city, which is about four miles in circuit, is surrounded with a wall twenty-five feet high and ten thick, with round towers at equal distances. The citadel is built of brick, and has in front a large square with a miserable park of artillery. The houses of Schiras are mostly built of earth, or bricks dried in the sun and whitened with lime. The streets are, in general, narrow, although some are tolerably spacious, with canals and basins. The mosque of the late Kerim Khan is a splendid structure but unfinished. The tomb of Hafiz is on the north-east side, and at the foot of the mountains, about two miles distant from the walls is the tomb of

Sadi, so that Schiras is honoured with the sepulchres of two of the greatest poets of Persia. The environs of Schiras are delightful; and Kerim Khan, the late regent, has embellished them with several villas and plantations, forming avenues of cypress and sycamore, leading to beautiful parterres refreshed with fountains. In the spring, numerous flowers perfume the air; and the feathered songsters charm the ear. The climate, though warm, is delightful, especially in the spring. The soil is excellent, and the environs of Schiras, as already observed, produce the best wine in Persia.

*Tauriz.*—The other cities of modern Persia do not appear to be of any great importance. Tauriz, in the province of Aderbijan, was, in Chardin's time, a large city. He estimates the population at 500,000; but such calculations were generally exaggerated.\* The bazars were grand and spacious, and the great square is said to have sometimes contained 30,000 men drawn up in battalia. It is situated on the western edge of the Caucasian mountains, and the quarries in its neighbourhood yield excellent white marble. By reason of the vicinity of the mountains the air is cold but healthy. This town suffered, extremely by an earthquake in the beginning of the last century; and we know little of its present state.

*Erivan.*—Erivan, on the Turkish frontier, and the capital of Persian Armenia, is a city of considerable extent; but the houses, like those of the other towns of Persia, are meanly built. Mount Ararat is thirty miles to the south of Erivan, and may be regarded as a frontier between the Persian and Turkish dominions. Georgia having, during the troubles of the last century, acquired independence, Teflis, its capital, can scarcely

\* Chardin Voyag. vol. 2.

be numbered among the Persian cities. In a country so convulsed as Persia for a long time has been, it is difficult to ascertain, in some places, its doubtful frontiers. Teflis is a large city situated on the declivity of a hill, rising from the banks of the Kur.\* It is meanly built but populous, being about two miles in circuit and containing about 20,000 inhabitants. Rashd, in the province of Ghilan, though the seat of an independent prince, is unwall'd. It contains about 2000 houses and being a staple for the silk of that province has a considerable trade. Aschraff, a favorite residence of Shah Abbas the Great, was adorned with splendid palaces and gardens, which are now in a ruinous state, and the town is greatly declined.† Asterabad, at the south-east extremity of the Caspian Sea, stands on a bay, at the foot of a chain of mountains.‡ None of these places, however, are at present of any great importance. In the eastern division or kingdom of Candahar, are Cabul, the capital, which properly belongs to Hindostan rather than to Persia; Candahar, which is about three miles in circuit, and situated in an extensive plain; and Herat, in a spacious valley intersected with numerous rivulets and full of plantations and villages.§ These cities formerly carried on a considerable commerce between Persia and India. At present we know little of this portion of Persia; and Mr. Foster's journey was too rapid to allow him to make accurate observations.

*Edifices.*—The remarkable edifices of Persia have already been mentioned.

*Island.*—There are no islands of note except Ormus, celebrated for its pearl fishery.

\* Tournefort, vol. 2, p. 234. † Dec. Russ. vol. 2.

‡ Hanway's Trav. vol. 2, p. 422.

§ Foster's Trav. vol. 6, p. 102 and 113.

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*CHAP. III.*

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*Historical View—General Progress of Society, of Letters and Science,  
of Arts and Commerce.*

**PERSIA**, as already observed, is early noticed in sacred history, under the name of *Elam*.<sup>\*</sup> But from the reign of Chedorlaomet, contemporary with the patriarch Abraham,† to that of Cyrus the Great, we have no accounts of its history. For some time previous to the reign of Cyrus, although the Persian throne was possessed by its native princes, they appear to have been tributary, or vassals to the powerful empires of Assyria, Media, or Babylon. The whole of this dark period is buried in oblivion; and the subversion of the Babylonian empire is the event which first gave importance to Persian history. The conquest of Babylon and the foundation of the Persian empire by Cyrus, whose name history, both sacred and profane, has immortalized, is the greatest revolution that marks the annals of remote antiquity. Cyrus having succeeded his uncle Cyaxerra, called in scripture Darius, issued his memorable edict for the restoration of the Jews, and having reigned seven years, in a state of prosperity and peace, died at about seventy years of age.‡ The different accounts which

<sup>\*</sup> See historical sketch of Asiatic Turkey.

† Genesis, chap. 14.

‡ Cyrus used to pass the winter at Babylon, the spring at Susa, and the summer at Ecbatana, in Media. Xenophon *Cyroped.* lib. 8.

historians

historians have given of his death, as well as of his birth, are mentioned in another place.\* He was the greatest of the Persian monarchs, and established his throne on so firm a basis that it stood more than 200 years, notwithstanding the degeneracy of his successors. The Persian empire, as he left it to his posterity, extended from the Indus to the Grecian Archipelago, and from the Euxine and Caspian Seas to the Indian Ocean.

Cyrus was succeeded, A. A. C. 529, by his degenerate son Cambyses. The invasion and conquest of Egypt, by this prince, is related in the historical sketch of that country. After this transaction, he rashly undertook an expedition against Ethiopia. Having advanced with his whole army as far as Thebes, he sent a detachment of 50,000 men against the Ammonians, with orders to destroy the famous temple of Jupiter Ammon. Cambyses, with the main body of his army, continued his march into southern Africa. The stock of provisions being consumed, the soldiers were constrained to eat their beasts of burden. They afterwards fed on herbs and grass as long as any could be found; but when the sandy deserts no longer afforded that supply, they were reduced to the sad necessity of devouring one another, and the army being decimated, every tenth man was sacrificed to the public necessity, and served as food for his famished companions. Between a retreat or total destruction, no alternative remained. The Persian monarch, therefore, was obliged to abandon his romantic enterprize, and returned into Egypt after

\* I have mentioned what relates to Cyrus under the head of Asiatic Turkey, in order to preserve the unity of his history, of which his conquest of Babylon is the most prominent feature.

having lost a great part of his army.\* On his arrival at Thebes, he caused all the temples of that ancient and magnificent city to be pillaged and destroyed. The wealth which so many ages of superstition had amassed in those temples would undoubtedly be great; but no credit can be given to the estimates of ancient historians; and the account which Diodorus gives of the enormous circle of gold encompassing the tomb of Osymandes, although it might merit a place in the Arabian tales, is inadmissible in history: While the main body of the Persian army was employed in this disastrous expedition against Ethiopia, the detachment sent to destroy the temple of Jupiter Ammon was still more unfortunate. Having arrived at the Oasis, and proceeded into the desert, its final destiny is unknown, as not a single man ever returned. Herodotus informs us, on the authority of the Ammonians, that the Persians being overtaken in the desert by a storm of wind, their whole army was overwhelmed and buried alive in the sands.† Mr. Brown, however, ridicules the idea of the sands accumulating with such rapidity as to bury an army of 50,000 men, which must have extended over a considerable surface, and cannot be supposed to have been penned up like sheep in a fold. As this intelligent traveller very judiciously observes, “The guides which the general of Cambyses must necessarily have employed, were either Ammonians or of a cognate race. With the greatest facility of deceiving, and the strongest motives for defeating the

\* Herodot. lib. 3, cap. 25, &c.

† The site of the temple of Jupiter Ammon, so famous in history, cannot at this time be ascertained. Mr. Brown after the most diligent search and enquiry failed in the attempt. Trav. p. 20. Rennell, however, makes no doubt that the ruins seen by Brown in the Oasis of Siwa were those of the temple. Geog. of Herodot. sect. 51.



success of the expedition, it is highly probable that they might have led the Persians astray. To keep them two or three days on the route, beyond the time for which their provisions and water were calculated, was in fact to annihilate their whole army, particularly as in that weak state, if some corps yet remained, they might be attacked and slaughtered with ease.\* Such was, in all probability, the manner in which the Persian army perished; but the Ammonians had the strongest of all possible motives to give a different relation of the fact.

The history of all the mad and sanguinary proceedings of this degenerate son of the Great Cyrus would be tedious and disgusting. On his return from Thebes to Memphis, he killed, with his own hand as it is said, the God Apis or deified Bull, caused the priests to be scourged, and prohibited, under pain of death, the celebration of the feast of that favorite divinity. By these impolitic violences he entirely alienated the Egyptians from his government, and laid the foundation of that inextinguishable hatred, which they afterwards entertained against the Persians.† He put to death his brother Smerdis, in consequence of a foolish dream, which induced him to apprehend that the young prince aspired to the throne. In a violent fit of anger he killed with a kick of his foot his own sister Meroe, whom he had married, and who was then in a state of pregnancy.‡ It is said that Cambyses, previous to his espousal of this young princess, being sensible

\* Brown's Trav. p. 281.

† The death of the God Apis, was by the priests carefully concealed from Cambyses, who had not killed him outright, but only had given him a mortal wound. Herodot. lib. 3, cap. 28. See historical view of Egypt.

‡ Herodot. lib. 3, cap. 31, 32.

of the novelty of procedure, enquired of the judges, whether it were permitted by the laws of Persia. These oracles of the Persian legislature, unwilling either positively to authorise such an incestuous marriage, or to expose themselves to the king's resentment, craftily answered that they did not know of any law which allowed a man to marry his sister, but that the law gave to the king of Persia liberty to do whatever he pleased. This anecdote is important only as it serves to shew the despotism of the monarchs and the servility of their courtiers, which was ever afterwards a prominent feature of the Persian government. It also afforded the first example of those incestuous marriages, which the succeeding sovereigns of Persia so frequently contracted. Cambyses proceeded so far in his tyranny and cruelty, that he is said to have caused several of the chief lords of his court to be buried alive, and to have daily sacrificed some of them to his fury. His tyrannical reign, however, was not of long duration; and an important revolution took place in the Persian throne.

Cambyses on undertaking his Egyptian expedition, had committed the administration of affairs to one of the chief of the Magi. The execution of Smerdis, the king's brother, had been a private transaction, and his death was carefully concealed from the public. The regent, however, being apprised of the fact, and knowing that Cambyses had by his cruelty rendered himself odious, placed on the throne his own brother, who in person greatly resembled the murdered prince. Cambyses, in marching from Egypt against the usurper, accidentally wounded himself with his own sword, in mounting his horse, and a mortification ensuing occasioned his death, in consequence of which, the  
counterfeit

counterfeit Smerdis was left in quiet possession of the throne of Persia. Cambyses died A. A. C. 522, after a reign of seven years and five months. This prince, who is called in scripture Ahasuerus, although he did not annul the decree of his father in favour of the Jews, was, by the insinuations of the Samaritans, induced to lay them under such restrictions as greatly impeded the rebuilding their city and temple.\*

Smerdis was, however, at length discovered to be an impostor. It is said that he had formerly been punished for some crime by the loss of his ears, and that this circumstance occasioned the developement of the whole affair. The discovery of this defect, which his tiara concealed from the public eye, having been made by one of his wives, who related the matter to her father, he with six other noblemen formed a conspiracy against the usurper, and having forced his way into the palace, slew both him and his brother. Smerdis, who is the Artaxerxes of the scriptures, put a stop to the building of Jerusalem during his reign, which was only eight months.† His death was followed by an almost general massacre of the Magi.

After some disputes concerning the form of government, some proposing to establish an oligarchy, while others gave their opinion in favour of monarchy, Darius, one of the principal conspirators, ascended the throne. This prince was the son of Hystaspes, a Persian nobleman of the royal family of Achæmenes, from which Cyrus the Great had descended. In the design of establishing himself more firmly on the throne, he married Atossa, the daughter of Cyrus, the widow of her brother Cambyses, and also of the im-

\* Ezra, chap. 4.

† Univ. Hist. vol. 5, chap. 11. Ezra ubi supra.

postor Smerdis. In the reign of Darius the rebuilding of Jerusalem and the temple was resumed, and under his patronage the work was completed.\* After the reduction of the Babylonians, whose revolt and its consequences are related under the article of Asiatic Turkey,† Darius Hystaspes undertook a romantic expedition against the Scythians, inhabiting the countries which lie between the Danube and the Don or Tanais, comprising Wallachia, Moldavia, and the southern provinces of Russia. The calamities, which the Scythians had brought upon Asia in their famous irruption about 120 years before, was his ostensible pretext, but a wild ambition could alone be his real motive for this extravagant and unpromising enterprise. Having made immense preparations, and, according to some authors, levied an army of 700,000 men, he passed from Asia over the Bosphorus by a bridge of boats into Europe, and having reduced all Thrace, advanced to the Danube which he crossed in the same manner.‡ The Scythians declining an engagement constantly retired before the invaders; who were worn out with fatiguing and useless marches. Darius, at length perceiving himself in danger of perishing with his whole army, in those unknown countries, made a precipitate retreat. The Scythians immediately dispatched expresses to persuade the Ionians to break down the bridges, which the king had left them to guard, and by this decisive measure to throw off the Persian yoke and restore the indepen-

\* Ezra, chap. 5 and 6.

† See historical chapter of Asiatic Turkey.

‡ M. Rennell traces this route of Darius, and says that he advanced as far as the great bend of the Volga, below Saratow, in Russia. *Geograph. of Herodotus*, p. 103.

dence of their cities. Had the Ionians agreed to this proposal, it is highly probable that neither Darius nor a man of his army would ever have returned to Persia. The advice of Hystæus, prince of Miletus, preserved the Persian monarch from this fatal disaster.

The enterprising genius and restless ambition of Darius prompted him to retrieve the honour which he had lost in the Scythian war, by extending his dominions to the eastward, and he accordingly projected the conquest of India. In order to facilitate his design, his expedition was preceded by a voyage of discovery. For this purpose he caused a fleet to be built and equipped at Caspatyrus, a city on the Indus. The command was given to Seylax, a Grecian, who according to his orders sailed down the river, explored the countries adjacent to its banks, entered the ocean, and having coasted along the shores of Persia and Arabia, entered the Red Sea, and, about thirty months after his departure, finished his voyage. He then repaired to Susa and gave an account of his observations to Darius, who immediately entered India with a numerous army. Herodotus gives no particulars of this important expedition; but only says that the Persian monarch received from the countries, which he conquered, an annual tribute of 300 talents of gold, a sum equivalent to about 1,095,000*l.* sterling.\* The Ionians who had lost so favourable an opportunity of cutting off the retreat of the Persian army from Scythia, were at last excited to rebellion by Aristagoras and Hystæus, two ambitious and enterprising chiefs, the latter of whom was the person whose counsels alone had prevented them from shutting up Darius in the unknown regions beyond the Danube. Their

\* Univ. Hist. vol. 5, chap. 11.

revolt gave employment for almost six years to the Persian arms; but they were at length reduced.\* Aristagoras was slain in battle, and Hystæus the most restless, ambitious, enterprising, and unprincipled character of his age, being made prisoner by the Persians, was crucified by the command of Artaphernes, the brother of Darius. The support, which the Athenians had afforded to the Ionian rebellion, particularly in shipping, gave rise to those wars, which were carried on for several generations, between Persia and Greece, and terminated at last in the subversion of the Persian empire.

Darius resolving on a war against Greece, ordered Mardonius, his son-in-law, to pass over into Europe with a formidable army. This general marched through Thrace into Macedonia, while the Phœnician fleet had orders to coast along the shores, and to act in concert with the army. Macedonia submitted at the sight of so powerful a force; but the fleet was entirely dispersed, and almost destroyed by a storm in doubling the Cape of Mount Athos. No fewer than 300 ships and 20,000 men are said to have been lost. The army of Mardonius being also surprised and defeated by the Thracians, that general was obliged to retreat into Asia.† Darius on receiving intelligence of these disasters, recalled Mardonius, and appointed two other generals, Datis and Artaphernes, to command the next expedition. Their orders were to plunder and burn the cities of Eretria and Athens, and to send all the inhabitants as slaves into Persia, for which purpose they were amply provided with chains and fetters. Some writers describe their fleet and

\* Herodot. lib. 5 and 6.

† Univ. Hist. ubi supra. Herodot. lib. 6.

army as consisting of 600 ships and 500,000 men. With this prodigious armament the Persians invaded Greece. But the Athenians instead of waiting their approach to the city, advanced against them with an army of 10,000 men under ten generals, among whom were Miltiades, Aristides, and Themistocles, names immortalized by Plutarch. The Athenians, being joined by 1,000 Platians, defeated the formidable host of the Persians in the memorable battle of Plataea. The number which the Persians brought into the field cannot be estimated from the contradictory accounts of historians. The lowest accounts make them amount to 110,000, the highest to 300,000. Their loss is computed, by some at only 6,300, by others at 200,000. It is impossible to reconcile these contradictions.\* All that is certainly known is the total defeat of the Persians, and their subsequent retreat into Asia. Darius chagrined at the unsuccessful result of those repeated expeditions, resolved to conduct in person the war against Greece. He had spent three years in making immense preparations, when he saw himself exposed to a new war by the revolt of Egypt. He did not, however, desist from his design, but intended to commit the reduction of the Egyptians to his generals, while he should march in person against the Greeks. In the midst of these plans and preparations, Darius died in the thirty-seventh year of a most active and important, and in many respects a prosperous reign. He had not only restored, but completely settled the empire, which had been shaken by the impolitic government of Cambyses, and the

\* Herodotus gives the less number, lib. 6. Justin gives the larger number, lib. 8, cap. 9. The latter author must certainly mean their whole loss during the expedition.

usurpation of Smerdis; and although his expeditions against Scythia and Greece had been unsuccessful, he had greatly enlarged his dominions by the conquest not only of a part of India, but also of Thrace, Macedonia, and the isles of the Ionian sea.

Darius Hystaspes was succeeded by his son Xerxes, who ascended the throne A.A.C. 485. Having reduced the Egyptians, he resolved to carry into execution his father's great designs against Greece. Passing over as mere conjecture the debates in the Persian cabinet detailed by Herodotus, as well as the dreams and visions with which that writer has amused posterity, (as if the whole visible and invisible world had been concerned in the mighty contest which was about to take place,\*) it suffices to observe, that the war being resolved on, Xerxes employed three years in making immense preparations through the whole extent of his vast dominions. Having entered into an alliance with the Carthaginians, and furnished them with money, they raised a numerous army of mercenaries in Spain, Gaul, and Italy. While all the nations of the East, from India to Thrace, marched under the banners of Xerxes, those of the west flocked to the standard of Hamilcar, the Carthaginian general. Historians disagree in their accounts of the numbers employed in this grand expedition, as is usually the case on such subjects. Herodotus says, that Xerxes having mustered his army, and brought his fleet to the shore, found the land forces to consist of 1,700,000 foot, and 80,000 horse, with 20,000 men to conduct the camels, amounting in all to 1,800,000.† The

\* Herodot. lib. 7, cap. 37 and 38.

† Herodot. lib. 7. Herodotus wrote not much more than half a century after the event, and on that account his authority is by the compilers of the  
fleet



fleet, which consisted of 1207 large ships, and 3000 galleys and transports, had on board 517,610 men. This prodigious army having passed the Hellespont, the nations which submitted to Xerxes on the European side, furnished 300,000 soldiers to his land forces, with 220 ships, and 24,000 men to his fleet, so that the whole number of his troops, amounted to 2,641,610, without counting the numerous followers of a Persian army, which were computed to equal the combatants in number. If any credit is to be given to these relations, Persia and her allies poured an enormous multitude of 5,283,220 persons into Greece. Notwithstanding the great extent and vast resources of the Persian empire, implicit credit can scarcely be given to these accounts. All writers, however, both ancient and modern agree, that in respect of numbers this was the most formidable armament that ever displayed the banners of war.

The Greeks on the first news of these tremendous preparations, forgetting their mutual animosities, began to unite in order to repel an invasion, which threatened them with subjugation and slavery. The different states, however, being either afraid of the Persians, or preferring their particular interests to those of the general union, left the Athenians and the Lacedemonians to contend alone with this mighty enemy. The Thebians and the Plataeans, indeed, sent small bodies of troops to their assistance, but most of the other cities remained idle spectators of this important contest. The Athenians and Lacedemonians united firmly in the common cause. Themistocles commanded the former, and Leonidas the latter. At universal history preferred before that of subsequent writers. M. Rennell also has a high opinion of his veracity.

the straits of Thermopylæ, a narrow defile through the mountains, which separates Thessaly from Greece, the Persians had the first fatal specimen of Grecian valour. In that place, sacred to military fame, the brave Leonidas, with scarcely 4,000 men, long held at defiance the whole force of the enemy, and with his 300 brave Spartans, nobly sacrificed himself to the safety and glory of his country. Xerxes here lost two of his brothers, with several other officers of distinction, and about 20,000 of his best soldiers. The same day was also distinguished by the naval engagement at Artemisium, in which, although the loss was nearly equal, the Greeks discovered that the Persians notwithstanding their numbers, were not invincible.

The death of the Spartan king, with his valiant band, had left the passage of Thermopylæ open to the Persians, who immediately entered Attica. The Athenians, on the approach of an enemy that seemed irresistible, sent their wives and children to Salamis, Træzene, and Egina, and retiring on board their fleet, abandoned the city to the invaders. Xerxes in his march destroyed the whole country with fire and sword, and advancing to Athens, burnt that city to the ground, involving the houses of the citizens, and the temples of their gods, in one general conflagration. Hitherto superiority of numbers had rendered the Persians successful. But the naval combat of Salamis, gave a decisive turn to affairs. The Grecian fleet consisted of 380, that of the Persians of above 2000 sail, and many of them larger vessels than those of the Greeks. Both sides fought with great bravery. The Greeks were actuated by every motive that could excite desperate valour. The Persians fought under the eye of their king, who from an eminence on the land

land had a view of the whole action. Skill, however, prevailed over numbers. The Greeks, after an obstinate contest, were at length completely victorious, and the Persian monarch had the mortification of being spectator of the total defeat of his navy. The Greeks lost about 40 ships, and destroyed 200 of those of the enemy, besides several others that were taken. This important victory is ascribed chiefly to the prudence and skill of Themistocles, on whom the Athenians conferred distinguished honours.\* About the same time the Carthaginian armament, consisting of 300,000 men, coming to join the Persians, was totally defeated by Gelo, king of Syracuse, the most powerful of all the Grecian colonies.

Xerxes having beheld from the shore the defeat and dispersion of his fleet, was terrified with the apprehension that the victors might secure the passage of the Hellespont, and obstruct his return into Asia. This measure was indeed proposed and debated in the council of the Grecian commanders, but was opposed by the prudence of Themistocles, who represented to them the imprudence of shutting up in the country such innumerable hosts of enemies, who seeing themselves deprived of all hopes of retreat, might derive courage from despair. It is even said, that in order to hasten their departure, he caused Xerxes to be privately informed that such a step was intended. The panic-struck monarch leaving Mardonius in Greece with 300,000 men, marched with the rest of the army towards Thrace, in order as soon as possible to cross the Hellespont. In this precipitate retreat, for which, as it was an unexpected event, no

\* For an account of the sea fight of Salamis, see Herodot. lib. 8. and Plutarch in Themistocles.

provision had been made, the soldiers suffered extremely through famine and fatigue; sickness, the usual concomitant of such distress, swept off a great part of the army. So great is said to have been the terror of Xerxes, that leaving the main body of his army behind, he advanced with a small troop and hastily passed over the Hellespont. After the departure of Xerxes, Mardonius wintered in Macedonia and Thessaly, and at the opening of the next campaign marched into Bœotia. From thence he proceeded into Attica, and the Athenians retiring as before to their ships, he again destroyed Athens, which the citizens had begun to rebuild. The Greeks being now commanded by Pausanias king of Sparta, and Aristides the Athenian general, the bloody battle of Platæa decided the event of the war. The Persian army consisted, according to Herodotus, of 350,000 men; but Diodorus Siculus makes it amount to 500,000. Among these were the Thebans, and the troops of some other Greek states, who had formed an alliance with the Persians. The combined Athenian and Spartan army did not amount to 110,000. The affair, however, was decisive;\* Mardonius, general of the Persians, was killed, and almost their whole army was cut off. The division of Artabanus, consisting of 40,000 men, having retreated to Byzantium, and crossed over the Bosphorus into Asia, was all that escaped of that numerous host, which had menaced Greece with subjugation. The Greeks then plundered the Persian camp, where they found a vast booty in gold and silver plate, costly beds, and other rich furniture, which shewed the luxury of the Persian armies. On the same day on which the

\* For an account of the battle of Platæa, see Herodot. lib. 9. and Plutarch in Pausan.

decisive

decisive battle of Plataea was fought, the Grecian fleet gained the naval victory of Mycale, which was scarcely less important. Such was the final issue of the greatest military expedition recorded in history. A reasonable presumption arises, that the vanity of the Greeks might augment the numerical calculations, amplify their own victories, and exaggerate the loss of their enemies; but consequences are the best criterion of facts, and it is certain that the battle of Plataea delivered the Greeks for ever from the invasions of the Persians, who never afterwards appeared on the European side of the Hellespont.

This tremendous invasion of Greece took place in the year 480 before the Christian era,\* and in the ensuing campaign the Persians were expelled. The Greeks now in their turn not only recovered the islands which Darius Hystaspes had conquered, but insulted the coasts of Asia. Xerxes, who during this time had remained at Sardis, not thinking himself safe so near a victorious enemy, retired with precipitation into Persia, leaving orders to destroy all the Greek temples in Asia. Whether he was prompted to this measure by the losses which he had sustained, or by his zeal for the religion of Zoroaster and the instigations of the Magi, the chief of whom attended him in this expedition, is difficult to ascertain.† But, whatever was the motive, the order was so strictly executed that not one of the temples was left standing, except that of Diana, at Ephesus.

Discouraged by a series of heavy losses and disgraceful defeats, Xerxes now laid aside all thoughts of military achievements, and addicted himself wholly to

\* Anderson's Royal General. Tab. 25.

† Univ. Hist. vol. 5 ch. 11, and anec. cit.

luxury and indolence. His court was a scene of debauchery, incest, and cruelty, in which his wife Hamestris bore a principal part. A detail of crimes disgraceful to human nature and shocking to human feelings, besides its incompatibility with the plan of this work, would afford little pleasure to the reader. Herodotus has drawn a picture sufficiently disgusting. In exhibiting a general view of the affairs of nations, it suffices to observe that Xerxes having by his vices rendered himself odious, was assassinated in his palace by Artabanus, captain of his guards, A. A. C. 456, and was succeeded by his youngest son Artaxerxes Longimanus, so called because his right hand was longer than his left. Some time however elapsed before Artaxerxes was firmly established on the throne. He had murdered his brother Darius, whom Artabanus had accused of the assassination of Xerxes; but his eldest brother Hystaspes, who was then in Bactria, legally claimed the succession. Artabanus also, who had seven sons of great abilities, and raised to the highest dignities, with a great number of partizans, had formed the design of placing himself on the throne, but was put to death by Artaxerxes. It was some time, however, before his party was crushed. Hystaspes at the same time asserting his claim to the crown, Bactria declared in his favor. A war ensued between the two brothers, which terminating in favour of Artaxerxes, that prince remained in peaceable possession of the empire. The revolt of Egypt in the fifth year of his reign is related in the historical view of that country.\* The war between Greece and Persia still continued, and on the part of the Athenians was carried on with great abilities and success, by the

\* See historical des. Egypt.

courage and abilities of Cimon their general, who defeated the Persians in several engagements by land and by sea.\* A peace was at last concluded between the two nations, after a war of fifty-one years, in which innumerable multitudes, both of Greeks and Persians, had perished. One of the conditions of this peace was the re-establishment of the freedom of the Greek cities in Asia.

The Peloponnesian war breaking out between the Athenians and Lacedæmonians, in the thirty-fourth year of the reign of Artaxerxes, both parties solicited his assistance. But the Persian monarch hesitating to engage in the quarrel, the negotiations continued until they were broken off by his death,† which happened in the forty-first year of his reign. This prince is supposed by Prideaux to have been the Ahasuerus of the book of Esther, and in this opinion he is supported by the authority of Josephus.‡ Scaliger, on the contrary, considers Xerxes as the husband of Esther. But the learned Archbishop Usher imagines the Ahasuerus, whose favours to the Jews are there recorded, to have been no other than Darius Hystaspes.§ It would be a mark of presumption to pretend to determine a point controverted by writers of such erudition; but the opinion of Prideaux seems to be supported by the best authorities, and to be liable to the fewest objections.

Artaxerxes Longimanus was succeeded A. A. C. 424, by his son Xerxes II. who after a reign of forty-five days, was murdered in his bed-chamber by his brother Sogdianus. The fratricide having seated

\* Plutarch in Cimone.

† Thucydide, lib. 1. Eng. Trans.

‡ Prideaux connect. book 4.—Joseph. Antiq. Jud. lib. 11. cap. 6.

§ Scaliger de emendat. lib. 3. Usher, ad. A. M. 3485.

himself on the throne, soon rendered himself odious by his cruel and tyrannical proceedings. Ochus, his brother, revolted against him, being joined by most of the nobility and governors of provinces. The tyrant being abandoned by his subjects, yielded himself up to his brother, who having promised him that he should not die by the sword, by poison, or famine, caused him to be smothered among ashes.\* Ochus being now placed on the throne, took the name of Darius, and is by historians commonly called Nothus, or the Bastard. The greatest part of his reign was harrassed by revolts in different provinces; that of Egypt is mentioned in its proper place. This prince died A. A. C. 404, after a reign of nineteen years, and was succeeded by Arsaces, his eldest son, who, on his accession to the throne, took the name of Artaxerxes, and by the Greeks was surnamed Mnemon, on account of his extraordinary memory.

The reign of Artaxerxes Mnemon is rendered memorable by the famous revolt of Cyrus his younger brother. This prince had been, by Darius his father, invested with the supreme command over all the provinces of Asia Minor. He had also solicited his nomination to the crown on the ground of being born after his father ascended the throne, a claim which had given the preference to Xerxes. His mother, Parysatis, favoured his pretensions; but Darius made choice of Artaxerxes, his eldest son, who was born before his accession. Cyrus, however, had resolved to render his claim effectual by assassinating Artaxerxes in the temple of Pasargarda, where the kings of

\* For a description of this kind of punishment, which is said to have been invented on this occasion, and which was afterwards frequently inflicted on state criminals in Persia, see 9d Maccabees, ch. 13.



Persia were inaugurated. Artaxerxes being informed of this conspiracy by one of the priests, caused Cyrus to be seized, and condemned him to death; but through the mediation of their mother, Parysatis, he pardoned him, and sent him to his government.\* Darius, ever watchful over the motions of the Greeks, had adopted the system of fomenting their divisions by bribing their leaders, and supporting the different states in their quarrels. Cyrus, in pursuance to this policy, had granted such subsidies to Lysander, the Lacedemonian general, as had enabled him to break the Athenian power, and terminate the Peloponnesian war. By these means he had conciliated the affections of the Lacedemonians, and had no reason to doubt of their support in the revolt which he meditated. He employed, therefore, Clearchus, a Lacedemonian general, to raise an army of Greeks for his service, but under a different pretext.† Cyrus, indeed, made the most judicious preparations for the execution of his great project. He not only raised mercenary troops in Greece, but entered into a formal alliance with the Lacedemonians, who granted him the use of their fleet, but pretended at the same time to be ignorant that these preparations were intended against the king, his brother, in the view that if the attempt should prove unsuccessful, they might justify themselves, and avoid coming to an open rupture. The cities under the government of Tissaphernes, were seduced to revolt from him to Cyrus, which gave rise to a war between them. This event, which had been brought about by the intrigues of Cyrus, afforded him a pretext for openly levying troops. Artaxerxes being

\* Plutarch in Artaxer. Justin, lib. 5.

† Justin, lib. 5, ca. 4. Plutarch in Lysand.

deceived by appearances, was induced to believe that the preparations of Cyrus were intended against Tissaphernes, and permitted him to raise what forces he pleased. This must be considered as a remarkable, although not an uncommon circumstance in Persian history; and we cannot read Plutarch, Xenophon, and Justin, without perceiving this striking defect in the Persian government, of leaving too great a power in the hands of the viceroys, and suffering them to act as independent rulers, not only without concert, but frequently in direct opposition to each other's plans.\* It seems that the wretched policy of a feeble despotism encouraged this disunion for its own security.

The preparations of Cyrus being completed, his army consisted of 13,000 Greeks, and about 100,000 of other nations. His fleet also consisted of sixty vessels, of which thirty-five were sent from Sparta; and Tamas, an Egyptian, was admiral of the whole. Cyrus communicated his design to none of his officers except Clearchus, general of the Lacedæmonians, lest the boldness of the enterprize should discourage both them and the soldiers. Having mustered his army at Sardis, he began his march for Persia, his troops being wholly ignorant of their destination. Artaxerxes, however, being at length fully convinced of his brother's designs, soon assembled a formidable army. Cyrus advanced without opposition to Tarsus; but on his arrival at that place, the Greeks began to suspect that they were marching against the king, and refused to proceed any farther, declaring that they had not engaged in the service on that condi-

\* Plutarch in Artax. in Agesias. in Lyanda, in Alcibiade. Xenophon Exped. Cyri.

tion. Clearchus employed both authority and artifice to quell the mutiny; and Cyrus assured them that they were going to attack a rebel, who was encamped on the banks of the Euphrates. The Greeks clearly perceived that he had some concealed design; but on being promised an increase of pay, they were at length induced to proceed. During the march, he conciliated their affections by his kind and engaging behaviour; and having completely attached them to his interest, by the most magnificent promises, he at last threw off the mask, and declared that they were marching against Artaxerxes. Having advanced as far as the plain of Cunaxa, near Babylon, he there found Artaxerxes with an army of 900,000 men, ready to oppose him. Both parties prepared for battle; and the important contest was here decided. The Greeks, under Clearchus, entirely routed the left wing of the royal army, which was conducted by Tissaphernes; while the right wing, commanded by the king in person, defeated the opposite wing of the rebels. Both parties for a while supposed themselves to have gained a complete victory. On the first success of the Greeks, Cyrus was, with loud acclamations, proclaimed king of Persia; but perceiving that Artaxerxes was wheeling about to attack him in flank, he advanced with about 600 horse, killed with his own hand Artageses, captain of the king's guards, and put the whole body to flight. Having discovered the king, his brother Cyrus resolved to bring the contest to a speedy decision, and spurring his horse, rushed on him with determined resolution. Cyrus is said to have wounded the king, and to have been on the point of dispatching him, when he fell under a shower of arrows discharged at once by the guards, or, as some say, pierced by a javelin.

velin. All the chief nobles, who adhered to his cause, were slain on the spot where he fell. Thus ended this memorable contest between the two royal brothers for the crown of Persia, an event so much celebrated by Grecian writers. The death of Cyrus has been variously related by historians; and Plutarch has collected several of their different reports, some of which appear sufficiently romantic.\* Their contradictions only serve to shew that none of them knew precisely in what manner he was slain. All that is certainly known on the subject is, that Cyrus having signalized [himself] by his valour, fell in the battle. He was a prince of an enterprising spirit, of distinguished courage, and extraordinary accomplishments; and he fell a victim to his boundless ambition.†

The Greeks, under the command of Clearchus, having pursued the enemy to some distance, were greatly surprised that neither Cyrus himself, nor any messenger from him appeared, for they knew nothing of his death, nor of the defeat of the rest of the army. They remained the whole night in suspense; but the next morning they received the fatal intelligence. Imagination can scarcely conceive a situation more difficult and distressing than that of the Greeks, in the very heart of the Persian empire, surrounded by a numerous and victorious army. Amounting only to about 10,000 in number, they effected a retreat of 2320 miles, through a hostile country, in spite of a powerful army, by which they were constantly harassed. The retreat was begun under the conduct of Clearchus: but that general, with most of the others,

\* Plutarch in Artax.

† This relation is taken from Xenophon de Exped. Cyri, and Plutarch in Artax. where it is circumstantially detailed.

being cut off by the treachery of Tissaphernes, it was continued under the direction of Xenophon, a young Athenian, who brought them safe to the Greek cities on the coast of the Euxine. This was the longest march, and the most memorable retreat that ever was made through an enemy's country. It is minutely described by the pen of Xenophon, its skilful conductor, who was equally eminent in letters and in arms; and his narrative amply exposed to the Greeks the internal weakness of the Persian empire.

The part which the Lacedemonians had taken in the revolt of Cyrus, involved them in a new war with Artaxerxes, which was carried on with various success. The chief support of the Persians was Conon, the Athenian, who had engaged in their service, and was appointed admiral of their fleet. On the side of the Lacedemonians, the war was successfully conducted first by Dercylidas, their general, and afterwards by their famous king, Agesilaus. The latter, indeed, after making considerable conquests in Asia Minor, was preparing to carry his victorious arms into the heart of the Persian empire. But the agents of Artaxerxes having bribed the chief men of Thebes, Corinth, Argos, and other Grecian cities, induced them to enter into a confederacy against the Lacedemonians, which obliged them to recall their king from Asia to the defence of his own country. Agesilaus being stopped in the full career of conquest, and driven out of Asia by Persian gold, Conon, the Athenian, who commanded the Persian fleet, totally defeated that of the Lacedemonians, and annihilated their naval power.\* A peace was concluded on terms

\* For an account of this war, see Justin, lib. 6. and Plutarch in Artax. Conon, and Agesilao.

equally

equally dishonorable and disadvantageous to Greece, all the Greek cities in Asia being given up to the Persians. But Greece being weakened and exhausted by intestine quarrels, was no longer able to carry on the war against a prince so powerful, so politic, and so opulent as Artaxerxes, who, if his troops were unable to conquer Greeks in the field, had discovered the method, and possessed the means of bribing their leaders, and influencing their councils.

Cyprus having revolted under Evagoras, a descendant of the ancient kings of that island, presented shortly after no inconsiderable scene of action. A change now appears to have taken place in the politics of the chief Grecian states. The Persians were assisted by the Lacedemonians, so lately their enemies, while the Athenians supported the Cypriots. Evagoras, however, having raised great numbers of mercenaries, among the Lybians, Egyptians, Arabians, and other nations, made so brave a resistance against an army of 300,000 Persians, that he obtained an honourable peace, being left in possession of the city of Salamine with the title of king, on condition of his paying a small tribute to Artaxerxes. The Persian monarch, in the next place, undertook an unsuccessful expedition against the Cadusians, a hardy and warlike nation, inhabiting the mountains between the Buxine and the Caspian Seas.\* By artful negotiations, rather than by arms, he induced them to submit to his government; but he lost a great part of his army by famine and fatigue.† Artaxerxes soon after undertook another war for the reduction of Egypt, as mentioned in the historical sketch of that country.

The latter part of the life of this prince was embittered

\* Strabo, lib. 11.

† Plutarch in Artax.

tered by the factions of his court, and the intrigues of his sons, each of them anxious to obtain the succession. By his queen he had three sons, Darius, Ariaspes, and Ochus, and several by his concubines. In order to distinguish all of dispute, he declared Darius his successor, permitting him to assume the title of king, and to wear the tiara. But the ambition of this unnatural son not being satisfied, he formed a design against the life of his father, and engaged fifty of his brothers in the conspiracy. The day was even fixed for its execution; and the conspirators were entering the palace to assassinate the aged monarch, when the plot having been previously discovered, they were all seized and put to death. Darius being thus cut off, his surviving brothers renewed their contentions, and the court was again split into factions. Ochus, however, found means to rid himself of his competitors. Ariaspes is said to have poisoned himself; and Arsames, who, although the son of a concubine, was the particular favorite of the king, was taken off by assassination. Artaxerxes, overwhelmed with grief amidst those scenes of wickedness, horror, and domestic infelicity, died in the ninety-fifth year of his age, and the forty-seventh of an active and turbulent reign, in which he had gained, by his politic system of corruption and bribery, a greater influence over Greece than any of his predecessors had possessed. He is described as a mild and generous prince, whose authority was respected throughout the whole empire.

Ochus, his son, had no sooner ascended the throne, than all the provinces of Asia Minor, Phœnicia, and Syria, erected the standard of revolt. But the principal leaders, instead of acting in concert, were each

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of them influenced by private views, and betraying the common cause, came to separate accommodations with the king. Ochus was therefore peaceably settled on the throne; and this general defection, which at first appeared so alarming, was productive of no important consequences. His whole reign, however, was marked by a series of revolts, and his court was a scene of cruelties. In order to prevent any danger that might arise from the disaffected provinces setting up competitors for the crown, he put to death all the princes of the royal house, without any distinction of age, or any regard to proximity of blood. Such of the nobility as gave him the least umbrage also fell the victims of his tyranny. By the assistance, however, of his Greek mercenaries, he reduced all the revolted countries, and successfully terminated the Egyptian war.\* Bagoas, his favourite eunuch and principal minister, being a native of Egypt, endeavoured, but in vain, to persuade him to respect the religion of his country. Ochus shewed his contempt of the Egyptian ceremonies, by killing the god Apis,† and feasting his attendants with his flesh. Bagoas, deeply resenting this insult to his religion, resolved on a horrible revenge. Having caused the king to be poisoned by his physician, he privately kept the royal corpse, and buried another in its stead. He then cut the king's body in pieces, and gave it to the cats. Such was the end of the tyrannical Darius Ochus, in the year 338 before the Christian æra: such the manner in which the monarch of Persia was sacrificed to the manes of the deified bull of Egypt.

\* Universal Hist. vol. 5. ch. 11. et seq. cit.

† In this he imitated the conduct of Cambyses. See Hist. View of Egypt.



Bagoas having now the whole power of the empire in his hands, put to death all the king's sons, except Arses, the youngest, whom he placed on the throne, reserving to himself the sole exercise of the sovereign authority. This nominal king, however, did not long enjoy his ostensible station and empty title. Bagoas, finding that Arses, apprised of his crimes, was taking measures to bring him to condign punishment, put him to death in the second year of his reign, and placed Darius Codomanus on the vacant throne, which he durst not himself ascend. Some say that this prince was not of the blood royal: but others trace his pedigree from Darius Nothus, whose grandson, Arsanes, espousing his own sister, Sysigambis, had by her Codomanus, who was now advanced to the throne. He is described as a prince of a generous disposition, of a lofty stature, an elegant shape, and great personal valour. In the Cadusian war, he is said to have killed, in single combat, a champion of the Barbarians, whom none of the other Persians durst encounter, for which gallant act he was rewarded with the government of Armenia. Soon after the commencement of his reign, Bagoas perceiving his power diminished under so active a monarch, resolved to remove him as he had done his predecessor. In this design he prepared for him a poisonous draught, of which the king being apprised, compelled him to drink it himself and thus got rid of a dangerous traitor through the effect of his own artifice.

Darius Codomanus ascended the throne of Persia A. C. 336; and had he not met with so fortunate a rival as Alexander, his abilities and virtues might have rendered his reign as happy and prosperous as those of his greatest predecessor. The project of the Per-

sian war had been formed, and all the preparations made by Philip of Macedonia; and Alexander, his son, had only to carry it into execution. Having therefore settled every thing in Greece, he immediately passed over the Hellespont into Asia. His army consisted of no more than 30,000 foot and 5000 horse; but they were unquestionably the best troops in the world, being all select men, well disciplined, and inured to a military life. Most of them had been trained to war under the banners of Philip, and all of them had been employed in various expeditions. From the Hellespont Alexander pursued his march to the river Granicus, where he found a Persian army of 110,000 foot, and 10,000 horse, ready to dispute his passage. Memnon, the Rhodian governor of the maritime provinces, is said to have advised the Persian generals not to hazard a battle, but to retreat and lay waste the country. Unfortunately for Persia, this salutary council was rejected. The battle of the Granicus ended in the total defeat of the Persians. Alexander is said to have killed with his own hand Spithrobatas, governor of Ionia, and son-in-law to Darius. But he must have fallen by the sword of Rosaces, brother of the slain commander, if Clytus, one of Alexander's generals, who, with one blow of his scy-meter, struck off the head of Rosaces, had not, by that fortunate stroke, saved the life of his sovereign. The Greek historians represent the battle of the Granicus as an obstinate contest, and yet pretend that Alexander lost no more than 115 men, but that the loss of the Persians amounted to 20,000 foot, and 2500 horse. Such relations must stagger the credulity of sensible readers.\* With so great a disparity in the

\* For a circumstantial account of the battle of the Granicus, see Plutarch in Alexander.

numbers of the slain, the victory could not have been obstinately contested.

That the issue of the battle was decidedly in favour of the Greeks, however, is evident, from its consequences. Sardis and Ephesus immediately surrendered. Memnon, the Rhodian, having shut himself up in Miletus, made a vigorous defence, and obtained an honourable capitulation. The same general afterwards threw himself into Halicarnassus, which he was at last obliged to abandon, after having sustained a long and vigorous siege. All the Greek cities of Asia now declared for Alexander; and in the second year of the war he saw himself master of all Asia Minor. Darius in the meanwhile was making immense preparations; and Memnon, the best general in the Persian service, advised him to carry the war into Macedonia. Had this been done, the Lacedemonians, and several other Greek cities, disaffected to the Macedonians, would readily have joined the Persians. Darius, sensible of the reasonableness of this advice, adopted the plan, and committed to Memnon the care of its execution. This general immediately began to muster an army; and appointing the fleet to rendezvous at the island of Cos, prepared to make Greece and Macedonia the theatre of war. But Memnon dying at that critical juncture, Darius was obliged to relinquish a project which none of his other generals were capable of executing. The death of such a commander at so critical a moment, was an irreparable loss to the Persian empire. Alexander being now freed from all apprehensions of an attack on his own kingdom, began with all possible expedition his march towards the provinces of Upper Asia. The

Persians, on his approach, abandoned the straits of Cilicia, an important pass between the mountains, where they might with great ease have stopped his progress. Darius, who had not yet appeared in the field in person now mustered his eastern forces in the neighbourhood of Babylon, and found them to amount to four, five, or 600,000 men, according to the various accounts of different authors.\* Putting himself at the head of this numerous army, he advanced into Mesopotamia. Here the commanders of the Greek mercenaries advised him to wait for the enemy, that he might engage him on these extensive plains, with all the advantage that could be derived from numbers. But instead of adopting this judicious measure, Darius marched hastily forward to the mountainous country of Cilicia, where his cavalry could not act, and where numbers could be of no service in an engagement.

The order of Darius's march merits a particular description, as it shews the luxury and ostentatious pageantry that prevailed in the Persian armies.

1. The sacred and eternal fire carried upon silver altars, attended by the magi singing hymns, and 365 youths in scarlet robes.

2. A chariot consecrated to Jupiter,† drawn by white horses, and followed by one of an extraordinary size, called the horse of the sun. All the equeuries

\* Plutarch in *Alexandro*.—*Quint. Curtius*, lib. 3. cap. 4.—*Justin*, lib. 11. cap. 9.

† From the circumstance of the chariot consecrated to Jupiter, it might be supposed that a mixture of the Grecian idolatry had crept into the Median religion. But it rather seems that this was the chariot of the sun, which was considered by the Persians as the emblem of the divinity, and that the mistake is owing to the ignorance of the Greek writers. The immortals were a body of infantry.

were clothed in white, and each of them carrying in his hand a golden rod.

3. Ten sumptuous chariots adorned with curious sculpture in gold and silver.

4. The vanguard of the cavalry, composed of twelve different nations, each body armed in a different manner.

5. The 10,000 immortals clothed in robes of gold tissue, with large sleeves garnished with precious stones, and all of them wearing collars of pure gold.

6. At the distance of about thirty paces the king's cousins,\* in number 15,000, clothed in womens' apparel, and surpassing even the immortals in the pageantry and richness of their attire.

7. Darius himself seated on a chariot resembling a throne. The chariot supported on both sides by the gods of the nation cast in pure gold.† From the middle of the beam, which was set with jewels, rose two statues of gold a cubit in height, one representing war, and the other peace, and both of them shaded by the wings of a spread eagle of the same metal. The king was clothed in robes of purple, striped with silver and enriched with gems. On each side of the royal chariot 200 persons of the royal family marched on foot, followed by 10,000 horsemen, whose lances were plated with silver and embellished with gold.

8. The rear of the army, consisting of 30,000 foot.

9. At a small distance Sisymbaris, the king's mother, and the queen, his consort, seated on lofty

\* Probably so called from several of the king's relatives being among them.

† Here is evidently another mistake of the Greek historians occasioned by their love of embellishment, or ignorance of the religion of the Persians who never worshipped image gods.

chariots, with a numerous train of female attendants on horseback, and fifteen chariots in which were the king's children, accompanied by the persons entrusted with their education.

10. The train of royal concubines, in number 300, all of them attired like princesses.

11. Six hundred mules and three hundred camels loaded with royal treasures, and guarded with a body of archers.

12. A great number of chariots carrying the wives of the crown officers and great courtiers, guarded by light armed companies of infantry.\*

This account seems only to exhibit the pompous procession of the central column, commanded by Darius in person, as the aggregate of the numbers here mentioned is far from comprising the whole of the Persian army. The description which the Greek historians have given of this pageant march, is undoubtedly mixed with some inaccuracies, owing to misinformation and some exaggerations arising from a love of embellishment; but with all the reductions that can be made, it evidently shews that the Persian armies were calculated rather for military parade than for actual service, and leaves us no room to wonder that the throne of the celebrated Cyrus was at last overturned by a handful of Greeks.

Alexander on receiving intelligence of the march of Darius, detached Parmenio to take possession of a narrow pass in the mountains between Cilicia and Syria. Having then summoned a council of war, it was resolved, that the whole army should occupy an advantageous situation, in the mountains, and wait the approach of the Persian monarch. Alexander, there-

\* *Arrian, lib. 2. Quint. Curt. lib. 3, cap. 8.*

fore, encamped on a spot of ground which only just afforded space sufficient for such an army to act, and consequently annihilated the effects of disparity of numbers. On receiving this intelligence, the Greek generals, in the service of Darius, again advised him to wait for the Macedonians in the plains, where he might have room to draw up his vast army, extend its wings, and surround the enemy, or if this measure was not adopted, to divide his army into several bodies and bring them forward in successive attacks. This salutary advice was again rejected. In vain did the Greeks represent it as contrary to all the rules of military science to attack Alexander in a position where every man of his troops might be engaged, but where a tenth part of the Persian army could not be brought into action. The courtiers persuaded themselves and Darius that Alexander was flying, and that the most eligible plan of operation was immediately to advance and attack him while entangled in the defiles of the mountains; and they even stigmatized as traitors those who gave a contrary advice. Whatever might have been the personal courage and bravery of Darius as a soldier, he appears to have been totally destitute of the qualifications of a general, and his Persian commanders, as well as the courtiers, were totally ignorant of the science of war. The whole train of operations on the side of the Persians was a series of blunders. Darius advancing to Issus; Alexander was no sooner apprised of his approach, than, having endeavoured by sacrifices to render the gods of the place propitious to his cause,\* he drew up his army on a spot of ground near that city, bounded on one side by

\* Issus was a Grecian colony, and consequently retained the Greek religion.

the mountains and on the other by the sea. In this situation, Darius, not being able to extend his front beyond that of the Macedonians, could dispose his army no otherwise than in a deep column. The Macedonians breaking the first lines and driving them upon the second, and these falling upon the third, the whole Persian army was thrown into confusion, and the greatest number of those who fell on that fatal day were trampled to death by their flying comrades. Darius, who had placed himself in the front, with great difficulty got out of the crowd, left his chariot behind and mounted on horseback the better to hasten his flight. But Alexander was checked in his pursuit by the Greek mercenaries in the Persian service, who charging the Macedonians with astonishing resolution killed great numbers of them, with Ptolemy, the son of Seleucus, and about 120 other officers of distinction. Though attacked in flank by Alexander in person, they maintained their ground till they had lost 12,000 men out of 20,000, of which their body was composed. The remaining 8000 retreated in good order over the mountains towards Tripoli, where meeting with the transports, which had conveyed them from Lesbos, they seized as many as were requisite for their purpose, and after having burned the rest in order to prevent a pursuit, they sailed immediately to Cyprus. The Macedonians plundered the Persian camp; and the mother and wife of Darius, with his two daughters and his son Ochus, not quite six years of age, were made prisoners. The loss of the Persians in horse is stated at 10,000, but in regard to the foot, historians disagree, the lowest computation makes the number of the slain amount to 80,000, the highest to 120,000; and 40,000 are said to have been made prisoners. The  
highest



highest statement gives only 300 for the whole loss of the Macedonians. This account, incredible as it may seem, is yet more probable than those which writers give of the action at the river Granicus; for the battle of Issus appears to have been a downright massacre. But, after all, if the Greek mercenaries who fought with such determined valour, and at last retreated in good order, lost 12,000 men, it is difficult to conceive that Alexander should lose only 300. The historians of the life of that hero seem willing to make us believe that his Macedonians were invulnerable. Alexander, however, made an honourable use of his victory. He treated his prisoners with humanity, and the captive princesses with extraordinary respect. They remained in his camp as in a sacred temple, the asylum of innocence. None but their attendants dared to approach their pavilion. Alexander himself having once visited them, was so struck with the beauty of the daughters and consort of Darius, that, distrusting his own frailty, he resolved not to repeat the visit. In short the royal captives were treated with the same respect as if they had still remained in the court of Persia.

Darius had, previous to the battle of Issus, sent the royal treasures to Damascus; but they were betrayed by the governor into the hands of Parmenio, whom Alexander, immediately after his victory, sent to take possession of that city. The booty was immense, and the Thessalian horse, who performed this expedition, acquired at once ample fortunes. Among the prisoners were the widow and three daughters of Ochus, who had reigned before Darius, and the daughter of Oxathres, brother of Darius, besides the wives and children of several of the principal courtiers and commanders, so that scarcely one noble family in Persia was

was without its share in this calamity. All Syria now submitted to the conqueror, and the governors of the cities and provinces surrendered themselves and their treasures. At this juncture Darius made a proposal to Alexander to treat for the ransom of the royal captives, accompanied with a challenge to decide the contest for empire, in a general engagement, with an equal number of men on each side. The whole epistle, however, was couched in the pompous style of Persian ostentation. Alexander returned him an answer in firm and dignified language. The Macedonians having become masters of Syria and Phenice, with little opposition, except at Tyre and Gaza, proceeded into Egypt. A numerous body of Egyptians met Alexander at Pelusum to make their submission. The whole Egyptian nation received him as its deliverer from the Persian yoke; and the governor of Memphis seeing the general defection immediately put him in possession of that metropolis. He then paid a visit to the temple of Jupiter Ammon, and in his way thither founded the city of Alexandria. Having settled the affairs of Egypt, he returned into Syria and began his march for the countries of Upper Asia. Advancing to the Euphrates he crossed that river at Thapsacus and continued his march towards the Tigris. Darius having assembled another numerous army at Babylon, sent a detachment to obstruct Alexander's passage over that river. The Macedonians, however, had passed the Tygris before the arrival of the enemy. They remained two days encamped on its banks, during which time an accident happened, which shews the power of popular superstition, and the advantage which artifice may derive from ignorance. An eclipse of the moon so terrified those bold Macedonians, who

who in the field of battle set death and danger at defiance, that they refused to proceed, exclaiming that heaven had declared against them, that the moon refused to lend them her light, and that the gods shewed marks of their displeasure. Alexander immediately summoned the Egyptian soothsayers, who attended the army, and consulted them on this phænomenon. It is certain that neither Alexander nor his Egyptian astrologers were unacquainted with the natural cause of eclipses; but philosophical reasoning would have been lost on the army, and something of a different nature was necessary to make an impression on the minds and calm the fears of a superstitious multitude. The issue of the enquiry was excellently adapted to the occasion. The astrologers declared that the sun being predominant in Greece and the moon in Persia, whenever the moon suffered an eclipse it portended some great calamity to the latter country. This answer being immediately circulated through the army, the soldiers felt their hopes and their courage revived; and Alexander, taking advantage of the ardour with which they were inspired, recommenced his march. The battle of Arbela as it is commonly called, although fought at Gangamela, a village about ten miles distant from that city, decided the fate of the Persian empire.\* The Greek writers of Alexander's history give a circumstantial detail of this memorable engagement. They describe the manœuvres of the two armies, telling us how bravely the Persians fought, how often they rallied after being repulsed, what prodigies of valour were displayed by the two kings, and how victory inclined sometimes to one, sometimes to the other side. But

\* Plutarch in Alexandro. Strabo, lib. 26. Quint. Curt. lib. 4. cap. 22.

after all this pompous detail, which closes with the slaughter of 30,000 according to the lowest, and 90,000 according to the highest computation, Curtius gravely tells us that the loss of the Macedonians amounted to no more than 300, and Arrian reduces their dead to less than one-third of that number.\* Such accounts are absolutely inconsistent with probability, and from such historians we can conceive no just idea of this celebrated battle. Either the disparity of loss must be greatly exaggerated, or the obstinacy of the contest strangely misrepresented. But whatever uncertainty may attend circumstantial details, the general issue of great transactions is ascertained from consequences; and those, which followed the battle of Gangamela, sufficiently prove that the action was decisive, and the victory of the Macedonians complete. Arbela, Babylon, and Susa, immediately surrendered without resistance. In those places the conquerors found an immense booty in gold and silver, both in coin and in bullion, with rich equipages, furniture, &c. Some of the provinces made a feeble opposition to their progress, but were soon reduced to subjection. And Alexander, with his army, having advanced to Persepolis, notwithstanding the submission of the inhabitants, tarnished his laurels by giving up to plunder and military execution that proud metropolis of the Persian empire, in revenge for the calamities which Xerxes had about 118 years before inflicted on Greece. A vast sum of money was found in the royal treasury, laid up for defraying the expences of the war. The booty found in this wealthy capital was immense. The vengeance of the Macedonians was not less insatiable than their avarice. They obtained great riches but

\* Quintus Curt. lib. 4. Arrian, lib. 3.

exercised horrid barbarities on the miserable inhabitants, whom they massacred without distinction or mercy.

The stay of Alexander at Persepolis was employed in feasting and drinking. The Macedonians revelled in the luxuries of this opulent metropolis of the empire of Cyrus. And the king made splendid entertainments for the principal officers. In one of these drunken revels, Alexander and his guests set fire to the magnificent palace of the Persian kings, in revenge for the burning of Athens by Xerxes. But whether this was done at the instigation of Thais, the Athenian courtesan, according to the generally received story, is somewhat problematical. The fact rests chiefly on the authority of Diodorus Siculus.\* Plutarch mentions it with diffidence;† and Arrian, Curtius and Strabo are silent on the subject.‡

Darius in the meanwhile had retired into Media, having still an army of 30,000 infantry, in which was a body of 4000 Greeks, who continued faithful to him amidst his misfortunes. He had also besides these, 4000 slingers, and 3000 cavalry, commanded by Bessus, governor of Bactria. Being informed that Alexander was advancing from Persepolis towards Media, the Persian king left Ecbatana, with a design of retiring into Bactria, for the purpose of making fresh levies. Altering however his plan, he resolved with the troops that he had, to try the event of another battle. But Bessus, governor of Bactria, and Nabazanes, a Persian lord, forming a conspiracy, brought over the troops to their interest, seized Darius, put him into a covered cart, and began their march to-

\* Diad. Sicul. lib. 17, cap. 7.

† Plutarch in Alexandro.

‡ Arrian Exped. Alexand. lib. 3. Strabo Geog. lib. .

wards Bactria. Bessus was then proclaimed commander in chief, by the Bactrian horse. But Artabazus, a Persian general, with his sons and the troops under his command, together with the Greeks under Patron, separating from the conspirators, marched over the mountains towards Parthiene. Alexander on his arrival at Ecbatana finding that Darius had departed from that place only five days before, immediately began the pursuit. Having advanced above 400 miles in eleven days and lost the greatest part of his men by the fatigues of so rapid a march, he arrived at Rages, and finding himself unable to come up with Darius, halted a few days in order to refresh his army. From Rages he recommenced his march towards Parthia, and had already entered that province before he was informed of the conspiracy against Darius. On receiving this intelligence he left the main body of the army under the command of Craterus, and pushed forward with a body of light armed cavalry. In this hasty pursuit the Macedonians marched night and day, halting only a few hours at a time. At last they were joined by two Persian officers, who informed Alexander that Bessus and his army were only about sixty miles before him, and offered to conduct him by the nearest route. Under their guidance Alexander recommenced his march, with all possible expedition. Having advanced about thirty-seven miles, he was met by the son of Mazæus, formerly governor of Syria, who brought him intelligence that he was within twenty-five miles of the enemy, whose army, ignorant of his approach, was marching in disorder, and might easily be surprised and cut in pieces. Alexander now accelerated his march, and at last got sight of the enemy. The conspirators struck with  
terror

terror at the sudden and unexpected appearance of the Macedonians, having wounded Darius and left him weltering in blood, betook themselves to a precipitate flight by different routes. Bessus fled into Hyrcania, and Nabarzanes into Bactria. Darius was found in a dying condition by Polystratus, a Macedonian, who being oppressed with thirst, was directed by some of the inhabitants of the country to a fountain not far from the highway, where he discovered the mighty monarch of Persia laid in a cart, bound with fetters, covered with wounds, and ready to expire. He had, however, sufficient strength left to ask for water, which being given him, he told the Macedonian that in his situation it was at least some comfort that his last words would not be lost. He then requested him to return his thanks to Alexander for the kindness that he had shewn to his mother, his wife, and his children. He observed that the interest as well as the glory of the conqueror, required him to pursue the conspirators, and in their punishment to avenge the common cause of sovereigns; and after expressing his wishes for the future prosperity of Alexander, he immediately expired. Alexander coming up a few minutes after, and looking on the dead body of Darius, burst into tears at so striking a spectacle of the instability of human greatness. Pulling off his own military cloak, he threw it over the corpse, which he caused to be embalmed, and sent in a magnificent coffin to Sisygambis, to the end that it might be interred in the sepulchre of the Persian monarch.\* Thus fell Darius by the hand of conspirators, in the fiftieth year of his age, and the

\* This circumstance is mentioned by most of the Greek historians, who treat of these affairs.

sixth of his reign. In him the Persian empire ended A.A.C. 330, after having subsisted 206 years from the conquest of Babylon by Cyrus.

Alexander had, from the time of his crossing the Hellespont; employed only four years in the conquest of Persia, which, on the death of Darius, might be considered as completed. All the Persian commanders and governors of provinces submitted to the conquerors, and were restored to their former honours and employments, especially Artabazus, whose fidelity and attachment to Darius had to the last remained unshaken, was particularly distinguished; and Oxathres, the brother of that monarch, was treated in a manner suitable to his high station and royal descent. The seduction of Bessus was all that was wanting to extinguish all opposition, and tranquillize the whole empire. Alexander was, indeed, prevailed on to receive and pardon Nabarzanes, one of the principal conspirators; but Bessus having retired into Bactria, and assumed the regal title, gave the Macedonians the trouble of another expedition. Early in the ensuing spring Alexander marched into that province, and captured Bactra and Aornes, two of its principal cities. A body of 8000 Bactrians now abandoned Bessus and retired to their respective homes. The traitor at the head of a few troops that yet continued faithful to his cause, passed the river Oxus, and retired into Sogdiana with a design of raising there a new army. But Alexander having with great difficulty passed that river, accelerated his pursuit of the enemy. As soon as the news of his approach reached the camp of the Bactrians, Spitamenes, in whom Bessus placed the greatest confidence, together with some others, resolved to purchase



chase their own safety by delivering up their general. Having seized his person, they tore off his diadem and royal robes, of which he had stripped his sovereign Darius, and carried him naked and loaded with chains to the Macedonian camp. Alexander having ordered his nose and ears to be cut off, delivered him into the hands of Oxathres, the brother of Darius, who caused him to be rent asunder by means of trees bent down by force, fastened to his limbs, and then suffered to return to their former position. Thus Bessus suffered the punishment due to his crimes, and his death left Alexander in peaceable possession of the Persian empire.\*

In perusing the history of Persia, it must ever be remembered that all the knowledge of the moderns on that subject is derived from Grecian writers; and their partiality to their own nation is every where conspicuous. This consideration will account for many inconsistencies observable in their accounts, especially in regard to military transactions. It has already been remarked, that some of their relations are too romantic to be credible. The great outline, as is commonly the case in history, is all that merits attention.† In this point of view we need, therefore, only draw a comparison between the resources of Greece and Persia, to be convinced that the misfortunes of the latter were owing to a weak and inefficacious, although a despotic government. The court

\* Plutarch in *Alexandro*. In what relates to this war between Darius and Alexander, I have chiefly taken Plutarch as a guide.

† It is scarcely necessary to inform the reader that the Persian history to this period is abridged from Diod. Sicul. Justin, Xenophon, Arrian, Quint. Curt. and Plutarch. Diod. is too credulous, and Curtius too historical. Plutarch is regard to those periods of which he treats, appears the best authority.

was luxurious almost beyond conception, the nobles corrupted and unwarlike; and the armies though numerous, extremely defective in discipline. The whole contest between Alexander and Darius shews the extreme ignorance of the Persian commanders in the science of war. The Persians were no longer that brave and warlike people delineated by Xenophon, and whose manners and discipline he so loudly extols. Soon after the conquering reign of the Great Cyrus, they seem to have degenerated from the virtues of their ancestors; and notwithstanding the immense population of their vast empire, the Persian monarchs from the time of Xerxes were scarcely ever successful in war, except by employing Greek mercenaries who were the very soul of their armies. A whole nation can never fall into such a state of degeneracy except through some radical defect in the form, or capital neglect in the administration of its government. One of the greatest philosophers of antiquity, has ascribed the downfall of the Persian empire to the despotism of its monarchs.\* Nothing, indeed, can more effectually contribute to extinguish the martial spirit than the despotism which has almost ever characterised the Asiatic governments. The long wars between Greece and Persia, must, however, be considered as an important feature in history, exhibiting nothing less than a contest for pre-eminence between Asia and Europe, in which the latter gained that superiority which it has ever since maintained.

After this abstract of Persian history, it may not be amiss to make some short remarks on the government, religion, literature, &c. of that celebrated empire.

\* Plato de Legibus, lib. 3.

*Government.*—The government, as just now observed, was in the last degree despotic. The monarchs of Persia, like those of Assyria, were flattered with the titles of great king,\* king of kings, &c. In addressing them, the common salutation was, “O king live for ever,” or “let the king live for ever.”† And they were approached with prostration, a custom yet observed in some Oriental‡ countries. This homage was not only exacted from their own subjects, but even foreign ambassadors were not admitted to the royal presence, unless they complied with that indispensable ceremony. The least sign of reluctance in any subject to execute the king’s commands, however difficult or unreasonable they might appear, was punished by decapitation and the amputation of the right arm.§ The magnificence of the royal palaces was incredible, and the revenues of the crown were immense, as may be seen from the sums which Alexander found in the treasury of the chief cities of different provinces.||

*Laws, civil and military.*—On the subject of their civil laws and military discipline, ancient writers have been profuse in their encomiums.¶ But these are almost every where contradicted by all that we read in their history. At least their accounts can only be referred to the reign of Cyrus the Great, and the ages preceding that period. Nothing of the kind is perceptible under his degenerate successors. The subject may, therefore, be dismissed with a few cursory

\* Ezra, ch. 7, v. 12.

† Daniel, ch. 6. Nehem. ch. 2, v. 3.

‡ Justin, lib. 11, cap. 4. Barrow’s China.

§ Strabo, lib. 15. ¶ Plutarch in Alexandro, Arrian, lib. 3.

¶ Xenophon Cyropædia passim.

remarks. The Persian children were not educated by their parents, but at public schools under the direction of men of the first quality. These seminaries were not designed for the learning of sciences, but of virtue; and those who had not been educated in them, were excluded from all honours and preferment.\* But this so much vaunted system of Persian education was either laid aside under the successors of Cyrus, or at least was productive of little effect. The same observation may be made on their military system and discipline. They are said to have excelled all nations in horsemanship: and this indeed has been their general character in all ages. All the Persians, able to bear arms, were enrolled as soldiers, and obliged, on pain of death, to repair, when occasion required, to their respective standards.† This custom was continued till the subversion of the monarchy, a circumstance which may easily account for their numerous armies. But if all the Persians were soldiers, it is evident, from the whole tenor of their history, that they rendered but little effective service in the field. Multitudinous armies indeed, without its discipline, are incumbrances rather than advantages in war.

*Religion.*—The religion of the ancient Persians has been a grand subject of discussion and dispute among many eminent literati. It seems, however, to have undergone some reforms, particularly in the reign of Darius Hystaspes, the period in which the celebrated Zoroaster is supposed to have lived. In regard to the reform of the Magian religion, said to have taken

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place under Darius, the learned are not agreed concerning the particulars in which it consisted, nor even in what relates to the person of Zoroaster.\* The ancient writers mention several of that name, who lived at different periods; and indeed the whole history of this celebrated personage is involved in obscurity, and forms a labyrinth of contradictions. But in respect of religion, it is evident, from the concurrent testimony of all writers, that the Persians ever adhered to the worship of one supreme, omnipotent, and eternal Being, without the intervention of images, or any other material representations, although they venerated the sun and fire as the pure symbols of the divinity.† Their kings, indeed, were accustomed to feed the sacred fires with precious oils and rich aromatics; but divine honours were never paid either to this element or to the sun. In the times of remote antiquity, the Persians had no temples, but erected altars on the tops of mountains, and in other solitary places, where they kept their sacred fires.‡ But after the reform by Zoroaster, they erected pyrea, or fire-temples, for keeping the sacred symbol with greater convenience.§ The Persians acknowledged an evil principle, whom they called Ahriman. Some writers suppose that they believe the co-eternity of Orimasdes and Ahriman, or the good and evil principle; while others are of a contrary opinion, and assert that this doctrine was first invented by the arch-heretic Manes||.

\* For an investigation of this subject, and the various opinions of ancient authors, see *Ancient Univ. Hist.* vol. 5, ch. 11.

† Hyde *Relig. Vet. Pers.* cap. 2, 3, 33, 2.

‡ Herodot. lib. 1. cap. 131.

§ Hyde *Relig. Vet. Pers.* cap. 29.

|| Plutarch insinuates that the Persians did not hold the co-eternity of the two Principles. *De Isid and Osirid.*

was without its share in this calamity. All Syria now submitted to the conqueror, and the governors of the cities and provinces surrendered themselves and their treasures. At this juncture Darius made a proposal to Alexander to treat for the ransom of the royal captives, accompanied with a challenge to decide the contest for empire, in a general engagement, with an equal number of men on each side. The whole epistle, however, was couched in the pompous style of Persian ostentation. Alexander returned him an answer in firm and dignified language. The Macedonians having become masters of Syria and Phenice, with little opposition, except at Tyre and Gaza, proceeded into Egypt. A numerous body of Egyptians met Alexander at Pelusum to make their submission. The whole Egyptian nation received him as its deliverer from the Persian yoke; and the governor of Memphis seeing the general defection immediately put him in possession of that metropolis. He then paid a visit to the temple of Jupiter Ammon, and in his way thither founded the city of Alexandria. Having settled the affairs of Egypt, he returned into Syria and began his march for the countries of Upper Asia. Advancing to the Euphrates he crossed that river at Thapsacus and continued his march towards the Tigris. Darius having assembled another numerous army at Babylon, sent a detachment to obstruct Alexander's passage over that river. The Macedonians, however, had passed the Tygris before the arrival of the enemy. They remained two days encamped on its banks, during which time an accident happened, which shews the power of popular superstition, and the advantage which artifice may derive from ignorance. An eclipse of the moon so terrified those bold Macedonians, who



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‡ *Heredot. lib. 1. cap. 131.*

§ *Hyde Relig. Vet. Pers.* cap. 29.

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The Persians, like the Jews, shewed their abhorrence of idolatry, by destroying the temples and idols wherever their arms were victorious.\*

*Literature.*]—Of the literature of ancient Persia no monuments remain. The Greeks had attained to the highest degree of literary perfection previous to the conquest of that empire, and perhaps thought the inferior productions of the Persians not worth their attention. The magnificent ruins of Persepolis indicate great perfection in the arts; but it is not improbable that the Persian monarchs might employ architects from the Greek cities of Asia Minor, the early seats of civilization and elegance.†

Persia being conquered by the Macedonians, fell to the share of Seleucus on the partition of Alexander's empire. About fifty years afterwards Parthia revolted, and, together with Hyrcania, and other provinces on the south-east of the Caspian Sea, formed an independent kingdom under Arsaces. As the empire of the Seleucidæ declined, the Parthians extended their dominions to the westward, and conquered Media.‡ The Parthian empire within half a century after its foundation, included all Persia, from the Euphrates to the Indus; and swallowed up the Grecian kingdom of Bactria, which at a still earlier period had rendered itself independent of the Seleucidæ.

About seventy or eighty years before the Christian æra, the Parthian kings had fixed their principal resi-

\* The modern Perses are few in number, and extremely ignorant, Chardin, vol. 2. p. 179.

† For the early advancement of the Greek cities of Asia Minor, see Bunsen's Hist. of Ancient Europe.

‡ Anderson places this revolt of the Parthians about fifty-seven years after the death of Alexander, and the accession of the Seleucids. Tab. p. 106.

dence at Ctesiphon, on the east bank of the Tigris, opposite to Seleucia, and not many miles from the present city of Bagdad.\* Their conquests, both in Armenia and Syria, met those of the Romans, and the wars between the two nations soon after commenced. The Parthians became a formidable enemy to Rome; and the first wars between the two empires, which lasted near sixty-five years, were distinguished by the defeat and death of Crassus, and the expeditions of Pompey and Mark Anthony. The Parthians at different periods extended their conquests to the westward; but the emperor Trajan, carrying his arms beyond the Tigris, attacked and took Ctesiphon, their capital. The prudent moderation of Adrian, however, relinquished those distant conquests, and restored the ancient boundary of the Euphrates. In the year 245, Persis, or Persia Proper, which had ranked only as a province of the Parthian empire, regained the ascendancy, and under Artaxerxes, put an end to the dynasty of the Arsacidæ, which had reigned about 500 years.† The ancient name of Persia was thus restored to the empire; for it must be observed, that the Parthian monarchy was in fact the Persian under a different appellation. History does not ascertain the lineage of Artaxerxes; for while some writers assert his royal descent from the ancient monarchs of Persia, others represent him as a person of low extraction; and the doubtful obscurity of his origin give an air of probability to the opinion. But whatever might be his birth, he possessed

\* For the situations of Seleucia, Ctesiphon, and Bagdad, see Historical View of Asiatic Turkey, on the authority of M. Rennell's Geograph. of Herodot.

† For a catalogue of the Arsacidæ, and the principal events of their reigns, see Anderson's Royal General. Tab. p. 32 and 105.

great talents and an enterprising spirit. He raised the Persian empire to great power and splendor, and transmitted the sceptre to his posterity.\* Sapor I. his son and successor, overthrew the Romans in several encounters, and took the emperor Valerian prisoner, whom he retained in perpetual captivity. The progress of his arms, however, was checked by Odenathus, king of Palmyra, the ally of the Romans, and husband of the famous Zenobia. The descendants of Artaxerxes reigned with splendid magnificence till Chosroes undertook that ruinous war against the emperor Heraclius, which exhausted the strength of both Persia and Constantinople, and opened a way for the conquests of the Arabian caliphs. Sapor having murdered his father, Chosroes, and all his brothers, ascended the throne, and made peace with Heraclius; but the kingdom had, in consequence of this disastrous war, fallen into a state of debility and confusion, which ushered in its downfall. In the reign of Yesdegerd, the son and successor of Siroes, who fell by the sword of the Arabians about the year 651, the throne of Persia, and the religion of Zoroaster were subverted, and that celebrated country became the province of the caliphate.†

Persia continued to compose a part of the vast empire of the Arabians, until the power of the caliphs of Bagdad declined, and their dominions were dismembered by successive revolts. Amidst these commotions, Persia became once more an independent kingdom under Tangrolipix, a prince of the Turkish

\* Anderson ranks Artaxerxes as a person of low birth. *Royal General Table*, p. 106.

† The race of Artaxerxes reigned 406 years over Persia. Anderson's *Royal General Table*, p. 106. where see the succession of that dynasty.

race, whose reign commenced about A. D. 1080. His descendants sat on the throne till 1202, when Cassanes, the last of that dynasty, was defeated and slain by Octay, the son of the famous Zinghis Khan. After the decline of the great Mongolian empire, Persia was governed by a series of Tartar princes, and still continued a powerful and united kingdom till A. D. 1317, when Ausaid, the last of that dynasty, being a minor, the chiefs and governors of different provinces assumed independence. In this state of confusion Persia remained till the invasion of Tamerlane, who, in 1385, made himself master of the whole kingdom. On the death of that conqueror in 1404, Mirza Charock, his fourth son, succeeded to the Persian throne, and commenced a new dynasty, which reigned about sixty-eight years.\* In 1472 the kingdom was conquered, and the royal race of Tamerlane expelled from the throne by Ussan Cassanes, a prince of Turcoman, or Armenian extraction, whose descendants reigned till 1499, when Alamut, the last king of that lineage, was vanquished and slain by Ismael Sophi, whose posterity reigned till the usurpation of Nadir Shah. Persia flourished many years under the Sophis, who assumed the title of Shah, by which the kings of that race are distinguished in history. Shah Abbas the Great, who reigned from 1586 to 1629, is celebrated for his encouragement of agriculture and commerce, literature and science, and for his attention to the general improvement of his kingdom. This monarch made Ispahan his capital,† and established a colony of Armenians in the suburb of Julfa.

\* For the Turkish, Mongolian, and Armenian dynasties, see Anderson's *Royal General Tab.* p. 149.

† *Ancient Univer. Hist.* vol. 5. ch. 11.

Observing that his other subjects possessed neither diligence nor an inclination for trade, he regarded the frugality of the Armenians, their vigour in performing long journeys, their credit and their commercial genius as requisite qualifications for the execution of his design. Their profession of the Christian religion, by facilitating their commerce with the European nations, was also a favorable opportunity for settling a colony of these industrious and intelligent people at Julfa. He advanced them a capital for carrying on the silk trade, on condition that the merchants themselves should go with the caravans, and pay at their return the stipulated price of the bales which they carried out, reserving for themselves all the profits. The success answered the views both of the prince and the merchants.\* The silks, and other commodities of Persia, were diffused over the western countries; and the manufactures and products of Europe and America over the regions of the East. Gold and silver, which before that period were scarce in Persia, began to shine on the return of the caravans. Ispahan rapidly increased in population, wealth, and magnificence; and Julfa itself soon became a rich and flourishing city. This grand commercial project of Shah Abbas enriched his kingdom, and gave rise to a race of merchants who have yet almost the whole trade of the Levant in their hands, and whose dealings extend, directly or indirectly, to almost every part of the old continent. The Armenians had, before that period, manifested a disposition for trade; but those opulent merchants of that nation, who are found in all the Eastern countries, owe the basis of their wealth to Shah Abbas the Great. Since the reign of that mo-

\* Tournfort, vol. 3. letter 8.

narch,

narch, however, the revolutions of Persia have been extremely unfavorable to mercantile pursuits. Ispahan and Julfa are no longer the centre of the Armenian commerce; but those opulent and enterprising merchants are spread throughout the Levant, and most of the regions of Asia, from Constantinople and Cairo, to Canton.

The successors of Shah Abbas make no distinguished figure in history. Shah Soliman II. was dethroned by the rebellion of Mercuris in 1722, and murdered by Mahmud, the son and successor of that rebel. Mahmud himself was soon afterwards assassinated by Esref, one of his generals, who usurped the throne. But prince Thamas, a descendant of the house of Sophi, having escaped from the rebels, and assembled an army, took into his service the famous Kouli Khan, afterwards known by the name of Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the towns and provinces which the Turks had seized during the late commotions. This general having restored Shah Thamas to the throne of his ancestors, and the full possession of their dominions, gave loose to his ambition. Seeing himself the arbiter of Persia, and pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded, he deposed his sovereign in 1736, and usurped the throne.\* Nadir Shah defeated the Turks in several engagements, but was not able to take Bagdad. His expedition into Hindostan, his rapine and massacre at Delhi, and the immense booty which he collected, are mentioned in the historical view of that country. He also conquered the Usbeks; but failed in his expedi-

\* For the race of the Sophis of Persia, see Anderson's Royal General Tab, p. 150.

tion against the Tartars of Daghestan, the inaccessible fastnesses of whose country preserved their independence. The grand principle of Nadir's government was to strike terror into his subjects by unrelenting severity and cruel executions. He attempted to change the religion of Persia from the sect of Hali to that of Omar, and strangled the priests who opposed this innovation. The difficulty of assigning any political motive for this measure, induced an opinion that his brain was disordered, and his whole conduct became so intolerable, that he was murdered by his own relations and chief officers A. D .1747, after a reign of eleven years. The death of Nadir Shah gave rise to a series of incessant revolutions, and to one in particular, which has perhaps for ever divided Persia into two distinct kingdoms. Ahmed Abdalla, the chief of an Afghan tribe in the mountains between Hindostan and Persia, after his country had been subdued by Nadir Shah, had been obliged to enter into the service of the conqueror. But on the death of the tyrant, the Afghan chief having found means to seize a considerable part of the royal treasures, suddenly made his appearance in his native country, and erected a kingdom, which included a considerable part of Eastern Persia, and the provinces ceded by the Mogul to Nadir Shah. He fixed on Cabut for his capital; but the kingdom has acquired the name of Candahar, from the central province. As the commotions of western Persia freed him from all apprehensions on that side, he gradually extended his dominions to the eastward, and several times visited Delhi, where his power was greater than that of the nominal emperor. His tyranny, plunders, and massacres at Delhi, are mentioned in the historical view of Hindostan, as also  
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the famous battle of Panniput, in 1761, where Abdalla, at the head of all the Mahomedan powers of that country, gained a decisive victory over the Mahrattas. The kingdom of Candahar at present includes Cashmire and the province of Moultan; being bounded on the east by the Seiks of Lahore; and M. Rennell considers it as nearly comprising the ancient empire of Gazni.\* Abdalla died in 1773, and was succeeded by Timur. The successor of Timur was Zemaun Shah, who swayed the sceptre when the last intelligence was received from that country.

While a new kingdom was thus formed in eastern Persia, the western part was agitated by the most violent commotions. The whole country was in arms; different parties, in different provinces, contending for pre-eminence, and each armed chief struggling for independence. Torrents of blood were shed: all government was dissolved; all laws were set aside; and the most shocking crimes were committed with impunity. It would be impossible to relate in chronological order the transactions of those times of anarchy and confusion, or even to enumerate the enormities that were committed, during those contests which desolated almost every province from Gombroon to the Caspian Sea, and every where left indelible marks of destruction. The reign of anarchy at last was terminated, and the government of western Persia settled by the victories of Kerim Khan, who, after having vanquished no fewer than eight competitors, assumed the sovereignty, with the title of Vakeel, or regent. Kerim Khan died in 1779, in the eighty-third year of his age, after an uncontested reign of sixteen years.†

\* Rennell's Mem. Introd.

† Pallas's latter Trav, vol. 2, chap. 10. p. 40.

The events which followed his death, shewed how important his life was to Persia. He was succeeded by Abdul Fetta Khan, the eldest of his three sons; but this prince being young and of weak intellects, his uncle Saki Khan, brother of the deceased Kerim Khan, retained all the powers of government, which he exercised in so tyrannical a manner as to excite a general spirit of rebellion. The death of Kerim Khan was, indeed, the signal of revolt. The Persian chiefs were again in arms: numerous adherents flocked to their standard; and the reign of anarchy was revived. Pallas has given us a brief recital of the principal transactions during these times of confusion: the whole consists of a series of violences, treachery, and crimes. After various revolutions, Aga Mahmet Khan, an eunuch, who had distinguished himself by his military successes, remained, in 1792, sole sovereign of western Persia. At the time of his accession, he was about fifty-four years of age, tall, and of a disagreeable countenance. He has been described as a person of great prudence; but proud and ambitious: his regard for justice, however, gained him the affections of his subjects. It is not certain whether Aga Mahmet Khan be yet living; but he had named his nephew, Baba Serder Khan, as his successor.

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**CHAP. IV.**


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Present State, political and moral—Religion—Government—Laws—  
 Army—Navy—Revenues—Commerces—Manufactures—Population—  
 Political importance—Language—Literature—Polite Arts—Education  
 —Manners and Customs—National Character.

*Religion.*]—THE religion of Persia, ever since the country was conquered by the Caliphs, is well known to be the Mahomedan. But the Persians being of the sect of Hali, adopt the mildest system of Mahomedanism, and are regarded as heretics by the Turks and Arabians, who call them *chias*, but distinguish themselves by the name of *sunnis* or orthodox. *Fakirs*, or wandering monks, abound in Persia; but they are neither so numerous nor so extravagantly fanatical as those of Hindostan. The *Persees*, or *Guebers*, the only remnant of the religion of Zoroaster, have been almost extirpated by Mahomedan zeal; and scarcely any of them remain in Persia, except a few ignorant votaries of the everlasting fire, who visit the eruptions of *Naphta*, near *Haku*, on the western shores of the Caspian.\*

*Government.*]—The government of modern as well as ancient Persia is despotic. The state of the people is deplorable, being subject to the arbitrary power of the numerous *Khans*, who are governors of provinces, or possessors of small districts, and pretend to heredi-

\* Dec. Russes, tom. 8, p. 19. Hanway's Trav. vol. 1, p. 263.

tary succession, although lying at the absolute mercy of the sovereign.

*Laws.*—The laws ought, as in other Mahomedan countries, to be those of the Koran; but it appears that in Persia, at least during the frequent seasons of anarchy, scarcely any other law is known but that of power.

*Army.*—The military strength of Persia is extremely difficult to estimate. Dr. Pallas says, that in 1784 Ali Murat had an army of 70,000 men.\* Perhaps the two kingdoms of eastern and western Persia might each muster and maintain near 100,000; but this is mere conjecture.

*Navy.*—The history of Persia affords no instance of its ever having been a maritime power. The fleets of Darius, Xerxes, &c. were manned by seamen from the conquered provinces, Egypt, Phœnicia, and Asia Minor, and not by native Persians. The aversion which that people seems always to have had against navigation, has been ascribed to some particular precepts of Zoroaster, impossible, or at least extremely difficult to be observed in a seafaring life; but whether this was the sole reason of their neglect of maritime affairs, appears somewhat doubtful. More than eleven centuries have elapsed since the religion of Zoroaster lost its influence; but Mahomedan has never, any more than Magian Persia, been a maritime power. Few Persian vessels manned with Persian mariners have in any age been seen on the sea. So great indeed is the abhorrence with which the Persians regard navigation,† that they stigmatize all seamen with the name of Atheists.

\* Pallas's *Trav.* vol. 2, p. 10, p. 18. Mr. Pinkerton is mistaken in giving this army to Aga Mahmet. *Geog.* vol. 2, p. 335.

† Saadan's *Voyage*, p. 108.

*Revenue.*]-No calculation can be made of the revenue of Persia, divided as it is into two separate kingdoms; but it must be considered as extremely small after the dreadful commotions that have desolated the country.

*Commerce.*]-The Persians have never been a commercial any more than a maritime people. The staple commodity is silk; but the trade of Persia has always been chiefly in the hands of strangers, and is now insignificant.

*Manufactures.*]-The Persian manufactures of carpets, silks, brocades, velvets, sabres, and other works in steel, braziers, leather, shagreen, earthen ware, &c. were in the seventeenth century carried to great perfection, chiefly through the encouragement given to these pursuits by Shah Abbas the Great. Except a few carpets, the manufactures of this country as well as its commerce are almost annihilated.\*

*Population.*]-The population of this extensive region has been vaguely estimated at 10,000,000, 6,000,000 for the western, and 4,000,000 for the eastern part, which composes a portion of Candahar. This is indeed only a small number for so extensive a space; but no documents exist that can serve as a basis of calculation.

*Political importance and relations.*]-The political weight of Persia, once so preponderant in Asia, and at various periods so formidable to the Greeks, the Romans, and the Turks, is now annihilated. The kingdom of Candahar has little to fear from any of its neighbours, and may probably enlarge itself at their

\* For an account of the Persian manufactures in their flourishing state, see Chardin's Trav. tom. 4. For the general decline of Persian commerce, see Hanway's Trav. passim.

expeuce. This kingdom, either as an ally or an enemy, might be of great consideration in the system of British East India politics, especially if ever, in the circle of human affairs, any attempt should be made from Europe on Bengal by the way of the Caspian and the Oxus.

*Language.*—The Persian, though less copious than the Arabic, is the most celebrated of all the Oriental languages for strength and beauty; and in melody it yields only to the Malay. Of all the languages of Asia, the Persian is regarded as the most adapted to poetry and every kind of elegant composition.

*Literature.*—It has already been observed, that no memorials of the literature of the ancient Persians, between the age of Cyrus and that of Alexander, have been transmitted to modern times. The same remark may be made on the literary monuments of the age of the Sassanides; which were probably for the most part destroyed by the Mahomedan fanatics, on their conquest of the country. One of the oldest Persian compositions is the heroic poem of Ferdusi, entitled *Shah Nama*, or the *History of Kings*. Sadi is an excellent and entertaining moralist. Hafiz is the Anacreon of the east: his tomb in the vicinity of Schiras is held in great veneration; and a splendid copy of his works is chained to his monument. In solid sense and in clearness of thought and expression the Persian writers approach nearer to the European standard than any of the other Asiatics. Yet their metaphors are too frequent and violent to bear the classical touch-stone of Greece and Rome. An eminent investigator of Oriental antiquities has disclosed some of the treasures of Persian literature.\* But the

\* *Sir W. Jones's Oriental poetry.*

sciences are little cultivated by the Persians, who are lost in superstition and bewildered in the absurdities of judicial astrology. The polite arts are almost totally neglected. The education of the Persians is chiefly military; but many of the Mahomedan priests exercise the office of schoolmasters.\*

*Persons, manners, and national character.*]—The Persians are generally of a good stature and robust, with agreeable features and a comely countenance. Their complexion, though somewhat tinged with olive, is tolerably fair, in the northern, but very dark in the southern provinces. Black eyes and eyebrows, with long eyelashes, are essential requisites to a Persian beauty. The dress of the Persians, as well as their persons, has a noble appearance. They shave the head, but the beard is held sacred and managed with great care. They wear several light dresses fastened with a belt and sash, and often throw over all a long cloak. The men wear high crimson bonnets, and the women wrap round their heads pieces of silk of various colours: in other respects the dress of both sexes is nearly similar. Among the Persians, as among the ancient Greeks and Romans, supper is the principal meal, consisting chiefly of rice boiled with meat, &c. In hospitality and politeness, the Persians are scarcely surpassed by any other nation. They are of a gay disposition and an excellent genius. Although Mahomedans they are fond of wine. The late commotions have tinged with cruelty the national character.

\* At least this was the case in the time of Chardin. Trav. vol. 10, p. 79.

## AFRICA.

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THIS vast continent, of which so little is known, extends from about 34°, 30' south to about 37° north latitude, and from 18° west to 51° east longitude. It is joined to Asia by the Isthmus of Suez, a neck of land sixty or seventy miles across between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. The greatest part of Africa has ever been unknown to the nations of Europe and Asia. A comparison of the maps of Ptolemy, Edrisi, D'Anville, and Rennell suffice to shew that conjecture and theory have frequently supplied the deficiency of information, and that, excepting the sea coasts, the geography of Africa was as well known in the second as in the eighteenth century.\* The maps which that celebrated geographer, Major Rennell, published in succession, towards the end of the last century, from the best materials that could be procured, exhibit demonstrative proofs of the uncertainty of the subject, and the variations of the author's ideas, though no one was better qualified for the inquiry.† Until the travels of Park and Brown threw light on the subject, the geography of the interior part of this vast continent seems to have been retrograde rather than progressive. The Romans appear to have

\* Ptolemy lived at Alexandria in the second century. Edrisi, the Arabian, commonly called the Nubian geographer, flourished in the twelfth century, but in knowledge and accuracy he seems far inferior to Ptolemy.

† D'Anville's map was chiefly delineated from Ptolemy.



extended their conquests almost in a direct line from Tripoli, southward through Godanus, Ferran, Taboo, and Cashna as far as the Niger,\* nearly in the meridian of thirteen degrees east longitude, but it is probable that amidst their attention to objects of greater importance, they soon abandoned those distant stations and forgot the interior regions of northern Africa, which consequently became a vast blank in geography. Although the Romans do not appear to have ever penetrated beyond the Niger, it is certain, however, that, from the intelligence communicated by the natives, they had acquired tolerably just ideas concerning the Bahr-el-Abiad, or the real Nile, and that Ptolemy had more precise knowledge of the interior geography of Africa, than has ever since been attained in any age, till the travels of Park and Brown have tended to illustrate this obscure subject. The knowledge which the ancients possessed relative to the coasts, does not appear to have ever extended farther than to the fifth degree of south latitude on the eastern, and on the western side to the fifteenth degree north, nearly about the parallel of Cape Verde. The eastern coast had, at some period between the seventh and the fifteenth centuries, been colonized by the Arabians. In the reign of John I. the Portuguese began, under the patronage of Prince Henry, to undertake their voyages of discovery. Their progress has already been related.† It suffices here to observe, that the passage of the southern promontory, by Vasco di Gama, was immediately followed by the discovery of the eastern coast, and the till then unknown region of Abyssinia. The chief geographical features of Africa are the mountainous ridges of Atlas, the great central chain,

\* Pliny, lib. 5, cap. 4.

† See historical view of Portugal.

supposed to pervade this continent from east to west, between the extreme limits of the seventh and eleventh parallels of north latitude,\* the extensive sandy deserts, the singular and fertile vale of Egypt, and the rivers Nile and Niger. The chief physical and moral distinctions of its inhabitants are, their black complexion, their perpetual barbarism, and their unhappy lot in being the prey of foreigners, who from time immemorial have dragged them away into slavery.†

The immense deserts of the interior, the most distinguishing feature of African geography, has given rise to a system of travelling and carrying on trade not indeed peculiar to that quarter of the globe; but more generally and more extensively practised than in any other part of the world.‡ As there are neither rivers nor inland seas, the art and the advantages of navigation are unknown in the greatest part of this vast continent; and the whole commerce of the interior of Africa is necessarily carried on by caravans. The physical circumstances of those sequestered regions produce a moral feature not uninteresting to

\* From Park's Travels and Boscwell's map it appears that the Gambia, the Senegal, and the Niger have their source in a chain of high mountains, in about 11° north latitude. This chain was observed by Mr. Park as far as he penetrated; and, as Mr. Brown lays down in his map, the mountains of Kauri, from which the Bahr-el-Abiad, or Nile, and the Bahr Kulla, probably the Gir of Ptolemy derive their sources, these are strong reasons to believe that this range extends across the whole continent.

† The Europeans began to purchase African slaves in 1517. Among the Egyptians and the Asiatics this traffic has subsisted from time immemorial, but not on a very extensive scale. The number of slaves annually sold at Cairo, the principal market, does not exceed 2000. *Sommier's Trav* chap. 36.

‡ The mode of travelling by caravans is used in various parts of Asia, as well as Africa; but the journeys of the Asiatic caravans are shorter and attended with fewer hardships and difficulties. *Hermann's Trav*,

the merchant and the philosopher. The business of conducting journeys through immense deserts, which insulate the few cultivable spots, requires peculiar talents and habit, and has become almost the exclusive employment of several tribes, on whose manners and characters, the effects of their peculiar mode of life are sufficiently visible.

The roads through the African deserts are not distinguished by any permanent marks, to the erection of which many obstacles exist. In such places as afford stones, the people of the caravan sometimes collect a few large ones, and raise small heaps at various distances. This contrivance is found very serviceable on their return; but in places where the sand is loose and deep it becomes impracticable.\* They are, therefore, obliged to rely chiefly on the facility acquired by habit, of distinguishing the general aspect of the country, the appearances of certain rocks, and other characteristic features of nature, which are but little varied. Their total ignorance of the compass is a great disadvantage to those rangers of the deserts; and their knowledge of the fixed stars is very imperfect. But, although they are little acquainted with the names of the constellations, they distinguish such as may guide their course in the night. Their deviations from the true line, however, are not unfrequent. The caravan which our author accompanied from Egypt to Dar Fur, a distance of not less than 1200 British miles, was three times totally at a loss for the road, although some of the people had ten or twelve.

\* Browne's Trav. p. 279. It might be supposed that posts of wood might be fixed to distinguish the roads; but if we consider the immense labour and expence of conveying a sufficient quantity of timber to so great distances, such a measure will appear almost impracticable.

times performed that journey. The people of some of the caravans take a small stock of dried meat: others content themselves with a leather bag of flour, another of hard baked bread, a leathern vessel of honey or treacle, and another of butter, the quantity of each being proportioned to the length of the journey. Water is also an indispensable article, and is carried in leather bags, seasoned with tar or oil, in order to prevent evaporation; but from the tar, the mud, and the excessive heat, it is often extremely nauseous.\* These journeys are performed chiefly with camels, which are above all other animals patient of hunger and thirst. The caravan consists of no determinate number; that with which Mr. Browne travelled was composed of about 500. Sometimes they do not exceed 200, and sometimes they amount to 2000, and carry away 1000 head of slaves. Besides their abstemious mode of living, the excessive heats, and other hardships to which those traders are exposed, they frequently run the risk of being attacked by the roving Arabs of the desert, who make robbery their profession. But Mr. Browne thinks the danger arising from the winds and moving sands greatly exaggerated, and entirely explodes the idea of caravans and armies being overwhelmed by their operation.† He judiciously supposes, that if such assemblages of people have been buried in the sands, it can only have happened after want of water, the influence of a hot wind, or other causes had deprived them of the power of motion. The number of men and animals which may have perished through such causes, and afterwards been found covered with sand, might induce

\* Browne's Trav. p. 283—285.

† See Browne on that subject *ubi supra*, p. 280, 281, 292.

succeeding

succeeding travellers to believe that they had been overwhelmed in their march, and thus give rise to those marvellous narrations. From what has already been said, it appears, however, that the real hardships and dangers are sufficiently serious, without enumerating such as are imaginary, and, together with the extent of those inland peregrinations, form a scene of trade and travelling very different from any thing that Europe exhibits.\*

The interior of southern Africa, from Dar Fur, Seennaar, and Abyssinia, to the country of the Hottentots, is entirely a "terra incognita" the geography of which is almost as little known as that of the lunar regions. The want of inland seas and rivers, a defect still more conspicuous in Africa than in Asia, has, together with the extensive sandy deserts, deprived the different parts of this vast continent of the means of easy communication, shut up the interior countries from all intercourse with civilized nations, and perpetuated the barbarism of their sequestered tribes. If imagination might be permitted to figure to itself the beneficial consequences that might have resulted from a large central sea, with extensive branches, or gulphs, the receptacles of navigable rivers, occupying the place of the sandy deserts, reasonable conjecture would scarcely hesitate to conclude that the geographical circumstances of Africa have greatly contributed to its moral barbarism.

The prevalent religions of Africa, with the single exception of Abyssinia, are Mahomedanism idolatry.

\* From Assint to Darfur the distance is not less than 1000 British miles, from Tunis to Tombuctoo it exceeds 1500 British miles. Many of the other routes are also of great length. See D'Anville's map and the map given in Browne's Travels.

The former seems to extend over all the northern countries as far as the Niger, and the intolerant fanaticism of its professors, together with their commercial jealousies, concur with physical circumstances in preventing the progress of European discovery. The various forms, under which paganism exhibits itself in the southern regions, are subjects too minute and unimportant for moral discussion. Extravagant rites and absurd ideas, among which may be reckoned a general belief in the power of witchcraft, are the general characteristics. A more important subject of physical investigation is the black complexion, which, with several variations of feature, occupies a wide extent of latitude quite across the continent. But an attempt to explain this phenomenon would require a dissertation too long for admission in this place, and at last could not reach beyond conjecture. The horrid system of the slave trade, under the oppression of which the Africans have so long and so severely groaned, will be noticed in speaking of those parts which are more particularly the theatre of this unnatural traffic.

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## EGYPT.

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 CHAP. I.
 

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Situation — Extent — Boundaries — Face of the Country — Mountains — Rivers — Canals — Lakes — Mineralogy — Mineral Waters — Soil — Climate — Vegetable Productions — Zoology — Natural Curiosities — Antiquities and Artificial Curiosities.

**EGYPT**, extending from near the tropic of Cancer to about 32° north latitude, and from 28° to 36° east longitude, is about 500 geographical miles in length from north to south, and 250 in breadth from east to west. This extent, however, is merely nominal, the habitable part of the upper Egypt being only a narrow vale, running through, the whole length scarcely ever exceeding twenty-five miles, and often not more than nine miles in breadth, which, together with the Delta, does not form an area of more than 18,900, or at the highest computation to 20,250 square miles.\* All the rest of the country, except those small and insulated spots in the western deserts called Oasis, consists only of barren sands, almost totally destitute of vegetation and water. The boundaries of Egypt are the Mediterranean on the north, the Red Sea on the east, and

\* D'Anville Mem. sur l'Egypte, p. 24. Faaw's Recherches, tom. 1. Severy computes the cultivated part of Egypt at 19,000 square miles, 8,000 for the Delta, and 11,000 for Upper Egypt, tom. 1 and 2.

on the south and the west the deserts of Nubia and Africa.

The Oasis of Sieva is generally supposed to be the place where stood the celebrated temple of Jupiter Ammon. This fertile spot, in the midst of a barren desert, is about six miles long and four and a half in breadth. A great proportion of it is covered with date trees, and it produces rice, wheat, and a variety of fruits. The climate is hot, the water bad, and the air apparently unhealthful, as strangers are often affected with agues and malignant fevers. The inhabitants of the town, and Oasis of Sieva, are governed by Sheiks elected by the people, and possessing very little authority. This sequestered spot, notwithstanding its contracted limits, is frequently the seat of factions and of intestine war.\* Mr. Browne here discovered a building, consisting of a single apartment thirty-two feet in length, eighteen in breadth, and fifteen feet high, built of massy stones of the same kind as those of the pyramids, and covered originally with six large and solid blocks, reaching from one wall to the other. The walls are adorned with emblematical figures and hieroglyphical characters, and the building does not appear to have ever been much larger than at present. Although Sieva seems exactly to correspond with the supposed situation of the temple of Jupiter Ammon, and although this edifice is evidently Egyptian, and of great antiquity, Mr. Browne appears to doubt of its being the remains of that celebrated fane.† M. Rennell, however, after a minute investigation of the subject, does not hesitate to believe that Sieva is the true Oasis of

\* See Browne's description of the Oasis of Sieva, Trav. p. 25, &c.

† Browne's Trav. p. 30, 31.



Ammon, and the structure observed by Mr. Browne a fragment of the temple.\*

*Face of the country.*]—The face of the habitable part of Egypt is uniformly level. The Delta and the district around Alexandria, the former celebrated for its fertility and its inundated meadows and fields, the latter remarkable for its sandy sterility, present an uniform plain of vast extent, while the narrowness of the vale above Cairo pervaded by the Nile, and bounded on each side by precipitous rocks or sandy mountains, affords a greater variety of scenery. The appearance of Egypt during the inundation, has, in general, been too poetically delineated, the picture being applicable only to certain parts of the Delta. In general the country is irrigated by means of canals and machines.

*Mountains.*]—The only mountains of Egypt are those which range along the eastern side of the Nile, in some places approaching close to the river, in others receding to different distances.† They are not of a great elevation, but most of them rugged and precipitous, and many of them are porphyrous and granite. On the road across the desert from the Nile to Cossir, the lofty and rugged rocks of granite and porphyry have a magnificent and terrific appearance.‡ The red granite appears in abundance, and huge rocks of porphyry, both red and green, are seen on every side. Alabaster is also met with in some places. Here is also found the beautiful green marble with white and dark spots, known by the name of Verde Antico. In fine, this part of the desert of Thebais displays a treasure of marbles that astonishes the

\* Rennell's Geog. of Herodot. sect. 24.

† Norden's Trav. in Egypt. passim.

‡ Browne's Trav. p. 156.

spectator.\* That judicious and observing traveller, Mr. Browne, supposes this road to Cossir to have been cut and levelled by human labour, and that the immense excavations have furnished the marble for all the obelisks, columns, and other monuments of that material, in every part of Egypt.† These opinions, however, are contradicted by another not less accurate observer, who does not believe that any part of the road has been cut through the rocks by human industry. "If," says he, "the opinion, that of the road from the Nile to Cossir is wholly, or in part, a work of art, had any need of refutation, it would be sufficient for to mention the multiplicity of those roads, all equally commodious, in order to prove its inconsistency."‡ The same author also, does not imagine that any considerable part of the ancient monuments, particularly the ponderous obelisks, &c. had been brought from that quarter, as he asserts, that the materials of which they are composed, may be found much nearer the Nile.§ The mountains on the western side of the plain of Egypt, are chiefly of a calcareous kind of sand stone, or what is commonly called freestone. Of this sort of stone the pyramids are generally constructed, and the level rock on which they stand is of the substance.

*Rivers.*—The Nile is the only river of Egypt, and pervades the whole length of the country from south to north. As it receives no other streams in passing through Egypt, nor even through the deserts of Nubia, it does gradually increase in magnitude like the most

\* Browne's Trav. p. 157.

† Ibid. p. 157, and append. No. 3.

‡ M. de Rosiere, Mem. tom. 3, p. 265.

§ Pliny says these immense blocks were furnished by the mountains of Syene, and conveyed down the Nile. Pliny, lib. 36, cap. 8 and 9.

of other large rivers. Its greatest breadth is about one third of a mile, and its general depth about two fathoms.\* It abounds with fish, particularly salmon and eels, and it has from the remotest antiquity been famous for its crocodiles. That tremendous monster, however, is only found in the upper Egypt, and even there seems to be less frequent than formerly. The annual swelling and inundation of the Nile, to which Egypt owes its fertility, and which was once regarded as an inexplicable phænomenon, is now well known to proceed from the periodical rains of the tropical regions, where that river takes its rise. The water is generally muddy, and when the flood is at the height it becomes of a dirty red colour.† The Abyssinian rains commence in April. About the 17th of June the river begins to rise, and in August it overflows its banks. The month of August, or in that of September, it attains to its greatest height.‡ The Nile water is asserted to be the best in the world for drinking, being exceedingly light and wholesome, and far preferable to that of any spring or fountain. It never becomes putrid, nor shews any signs of fermentation. It may be kept in a vessel for any length of time without deterioration, and in the numerous cisterns of Cairo and Alexandria it is kept during the whole year. This wonderful river, which shews in what various modes the Creator of all can provide for the inhabitants of different parts of the globe, is the great support of

\* Browne's Trav. in Egypt, &c. p. 144, 300 yards wide at Thebes, but he says its greatest breadth is one third of a mile. Trav. p. 70.

† Browne's Travels, p. 70. Antes says, that he could never perceive any thing of this red colour, and that the water is rather of a blackish brown. p. 75. Compare Antes, p. 67, with Maillet, Description de Egypt, Leth. p. 11, and Pocock Descrip. of the East, vol. 4.

‡ Antes Observat. on Egypt, p. 76, *ibid.*

existence in Egypt. Without that advantage the whole country would be an uninhabitable desert.

*Canals.*—The canals of Egypt have in all ages been numerous. Formerly several of them were navigable, especially the famous canal of Alexandria, once the means of a vast commercial intercourse between that city and the Nile. At present the canals of Egypt serve for little other purpose than that of irrigation.

*Lakes.*—The northern parts of Egypt present several lakes of considerable extent. The lake Mærotis to the south of Alexandria is now almost, if not wholly-dry.\* The Birket-el-Kurua was generally supposed to be the Mæris of Strabo and Ptolemy; but late travellers rather imagine the canal of Batben to be the artificial Mæris of Herodotus and Diodorus.† In neither case, however, will it be found possible to reconcile the extravagant tales of the ancients with modern experience.‡ The natron lakes supply the substance of that name, which is used as a substitute for barilla.§

*Minerology.*—The mineralogy of Egypt is a barren subject. This ancient country does not appear to have ever produced any kind of metals. Its porphyry, granite, and various marbles, are its most celebrated fossils. It was once famed for its excellent emeralds,|| but the mines have not of a long time been worked, and their situation is now unknown. No mineral waters have been heard of in Egypt, a natural consequence of the want of mineral substances.

\* Baldwin's Recollections, p. 203.

† Browne's Trav. p. 181.

‡ Debon's Trav. vol. 3, p. 333.

§ For a description of the Natron lakes, see Browne's Travels, p. 39, &c.

|| Pliny, lib. 37, cap. 9.

*Soil.*—The soil of Egypt has been so famed in all ages for its amazing fertility, that any thing said on the subject must now be considered as a useless repetition. It may, however, be observed, that it appears to have originally been formed by the mud of the Nile, when the surface of the country was lower than at present, as no doubt can be entertained that it has been gradually raised by successive inundations. It is in general a pure black mould of a tenacious and unctious nature, free from stones, and so rich as to require no manure.\* For the cultivation of cucumbers alone pigeons' dung is applied. The lower grounds receive the inundation without artificial means, and the trees are the only edifices seen above water. In other parts the water is conducted through innumerable canals, formed by the ancient Egyptians, to pervade the whole country. Many tracts now sterile and deserted, were evidently once covered with grain and other productions.† It is universally allowed that the sands brought from the desert by the winds, are continually making encroachments on the fertile part of the country.‡ From the times, therefore, of the first Pharaohs, not only the surface of Egypt has been constantly rising, and the exuberant fertility of its soil in all probability gradually declining, but the extent of the fertile tract has also been diminished.

*Climate.*—The climate of Egypt is excessively hot from March to November; during the rest of the year it is temperate.§ It has been erroneously assert-

\* *Flora Egyptiaca* sp. Browne's Travels, appendix No. 4.

† *Ibid.*

‡ Denon's Trav. vol. 1, p. 344, 345, 370, vol. 2, p. 4. The same observation is made by Savary, by Irvine, and almost all other travellers.

§ Browne's Trav. p. 150.

ed, that rain never falls in the upper Egypt. Mr. Browne met with a shower on the 29th of October, between Thebes and Syene.\* Denon in speaking of Tentyra, says, "it never rains in this climate." At Cophtus, however, he met with a storm of wind and sand, mixed with thunder, lightning, and rain, and says, that a vast quantity of rain had fallen in the desert between the Nile and the Red Sea.† Rain, however, is so seldom seen in upper Egypt, that it may be considered as a rare phenomenon. All authors and travellers agree, that rain falls but seldom at Cairo, and that further to the southward it is very uncommon.‡ But although this be the case in the vale of Egypt, it appears that the mountains of the Thebaid, between the Nile and the Red Sea, are sometimes exposed to heavy rains.§ A writer who resided twelve-years in Egypt, and consequently must have been better acquainted with the climate than any cursory traveller, informs us, that on an average, the whole quantity of rain that falls in a year at Cairo, could not be reckoned equivalent to a rain of an hour's duration; but that in the month of November, 1771, there were heavy showers, accompanied with some thunder and lightning during five successive nights.¶ In the winter months heavy rains often fall in the Delta, within about half a degree of the coast; but even in that part there is scarcely ever any rain in the summer. Sometimes there are storms on the coast,

\* Denon's Trav. vol. 1, p. 66.

† Denon's Trav. vol. 1, p. 329, 330. ‡ Antea Observations on Egypt.

§ Denon's Trav. ubi supra.

¶ Antea Observat. on Egypt, p. 95. See the most accurate remarks on the climate of Egypt in Antea, p. 99 to 105.

but they are neither so frequent, nor so violent as in more northerly latitudes. During the summer the north wind generally predominates quite through the whole length of the vale of Egypt.\* The south wind sometimes blows in the winter, and has always a disagreeable effect on the human frame, producing a sort of heaviness and languor. In winter the wind is colder and more penetrating than that from the north; but after the middle of February it grows hot; and when it happens to blow in the summer, it seems, from its heat, to issue from a furnace.† It would be tedious to collect all that has been said by travellers and writers on the climate of Egypt; but from a diligent comparison of their remarks, as well as from its geographical position and topographical situation, it may easily be collected that next to its dryness, heat is the most predominant characteristic, especially in the Thebais.‡

In this place it is necessary to make some remarks on the different opinions of authors relative to the salubrity of the Egyptian climate. The plague has, till of late, been considered as indigenous in this country. Our countryman, Mr. Gibbon, misled by the errors of the ancients, has adopted this opinion: "Egypt and Ethiopia," says he, "have been stigmatized in every age as the original source and seminary of the plague. In a damp, hot, stagnating air, this

\* Antea Observat. on Egypt, p. 91.

† Derosé gives a terrific description of the hurricanes from the desert. Trav. p. 326 to 330.

‡ Derosé says, that in the month of March the heat was so intense at Thebes, that his feet were scorched through his shoes, and that stones could scarcely be handled, being like burning coals. Trav. vol. 2.

African fever is generated from the putrefaction of animal substances," &c.\* This assertion, however, appears entirely erroneous. The historian seems indeed to prove, from the testimony of various authors, that the plague which so dreadfully depopulated the earth, in the reign of Justinian, made its first appearance in the Delta, near the Pelusian bank of the Nile.† From the most accurate modern enquiries, however, it appears that the plague is not indigenous in Egypt, and that it is always introduced into that country from Constantinople or Smyrna. By a series of judicious remarks, Mr. Antes seems to prove that this dreadful disorder does not proceed from any corruption in the air, that it is communicated solely by contact, and that consequently persons shutting themselves up in their houses, and avoiding the touch of any thing infected, may live without danger in the midst of a city, where the plague is making the greatest ravages. From this it is evident that it cannot proceed from the air, nor be endemial to any climate. Melancholy experience also proves that no country is exempt from its attacks. A person may have this dreadful malady any number of times. Mr. Antes knew one who died of the seventh attack. But what appears the most extraordinary is, that the extremes both of heat and cold are totally adverse to its progress. In Constantinople it is commonly suspended, and always much mitigated by the cold in winter; and in Cairo it is

\* Gibbon's *Dec. Rom. Emp.* ch. 43.

† See the numerous authorities quoted by Gibbon, *ubi supra*. Gibbon seems to rely much on Dr. Mead, whose treatise on the plague I have not seen. Browne, however, says, that Mead traces the origin of the plague to Ethiopia, where it was never known to exist. *Trav.* p. 370.



quite extirpated by the heats of summer.\* After the 24th of June, the plague, how violent soever may have been its ravages, ceases in Egypt.† After that day there is seldom an instance of any attack of that disorder. Some have attributed this to the overflowing of the Nile; but Mr. Antes shews, from authentic facts, that any extraordinary degree of heat, even at an earlier season, produces a similar effect.‡ The ophthalmia, which often terminates in total blindness, seems chiefly to be caused by the fine sand floating in the air, and perhaps still more by exposure to the nocturnal dews, and by sleeping on the ground.§ It appears, indeed, that many of the disorders which prevail in Egypt arise from an incautious exposure to cold after excessive heat. Antes even observes, that as the climate of Egypt is one of the most regular, so it is one of the most salubrious on the face of the globe, and that the inhabitants frequently attain to the age of 100 years.¶

*Vegetable productions.*]—The inundated plains of the Delta supply abundance of nouriture for cattle; and the cultivated grounds in all parts of the country are not less productive of grain. Egypt and Sicily were esteemed the granaries of ancient Rome, when that imperial mistress of the world teemed with an immense population: and until the Saracen conquest, the numerous inhabitants of Constantinople were supplied with grain chiefly from the port of Alexandria.

\* Antes Observat, p. 45.—Browne's Trav. p. 369.

† Antes Observat. p. 43.

‡ Ibid p. 44.

§ Browne's Travels, p. 361 to 366.—Antes Observat. p. 109.

¶ Antes, p. 89. Moses, however, threatened the Israelites, in case of their disobedience, with the evil diseases of Egypt, which would excite a suspicion that the country was, in his day, reckoned unhealthy; and the blot of Egypt, which he mentions, excites an idea of the plague.

But Egypt is no longer cultivated with the same skill and assiduity as under the Pharaohs, the Ptolemies, and the Romans.\* At the end of October the lands become gradually dry; the lower grounds about a month later. They are then ploughed and cross-ploughed. Wheat and barley are then sown. Rye and oats are unknown. Barley is ripe in the end of February: wheat at the end of March. To the corn-harvest, succeeds that of garden herbs; and after these, cucumbers and banica. As no respite is allowed to the land, so no space, however small, is suffered to remain uncultivated. Even the beds of the canals are transformed into gardens.† “The common increase is seventeen for one. Wheat produces ten fold: barley fifteen. The rich product is therefore the result of the crops being continued without interruption, and not of the extraordinary multiplication of the grain.” The Delta produces abundance of rice of the best quality. Egypt, especially the Thebaid, produces great plenty of the finest flax, as well as abundance of wheat.‡ The Egyptian onions, the best in the world, have been famous from the time of the egress of the Israelites, and at this day are a favourite article of food with all classes of the people.§

The various kinds of cucumbers, melons, and gourds, are brought to great perfection, and compose an important part of the food of the inhabitants. The most exquisite fruits of southern Europe, such as the al-

\* Maillet *Descrip. de l'Egypt*, lib. 1.

† *Flora Egyptiaca*. sp. Brown Appendix, No. 4. This, however, must be understood only of some particular places, as the decrease of population confirms the general evidence of historians and travellers on the decline of Egyptian agriculture.

‡ Brown's Trav. p. 135.

§ *Ibid*, p. 136.

mond, the orange, the pomegranate, the fig, the peach, &c. are cultivated with great success. The sugar-cane is also plentifully produced. But the date is the principal object of Egyptian agriculture. The trees are generally planted about eighteen feet asunder. When tender, they are covered with mats; and about the seventh year they produce fruit.\* The papyrus, famous in the annals of literature, no longer adorns the banks of the Nile; but the lotus, or water lilly, of a pure white, or cœrulean blue, which, on the retreat of the inundation, covers all the canals and shallow pools, enlivens the Egyptian landscape. Among the trees, the sycamore, which grows with vigour even on the sandy frontiers of the desert, is valuable for its fruit as well as its depth of shade. The cypress overshades the burial-grounds. In Upper Egypt, the tamarisk grows to great perfection, and to an enormous size.† The pistachia, and the Oriental plane, adorn the shores of the Delta; and, as well as the date, are cultivated in the vicinity of most of the towns. The constant repetition of these, particularly in the vicinity of Alexandria, becomes tedious; but around Rosetta, or as it is now called by the Arabs, Raschid, the orange groves present an agreeable variety. The total absence of woods is a peculiar feature in the aspect of this country. Either from the nature of the soil and climate, or what is more likely, from the early progress and assiduous pursuit of agriculture, Egypt has, in all ages, been destitute of what is properly called timber. Wood, indeed, is of less use in Egypt than in many other

\* Brown's Trav. Append. No. 4.

† Denon speaks of a tamarisk of an enormous size on the banks of the Nile, in Upper Egypt. Trav. vol. 2. p. 99.

countries, as little has ever been used in their buildings; and the heat of the climate renders only a small quantity of fuel necessary,

*Zoology.*]—The Egyptian horses are excellent, the breed being undoubtedly introduced from Arabia. The asses are also large and fine animals. On these the Christians ride, being not permitted to mount on horseback. Egypt also abounds in horned cattle, mostly black, of which great numbers are employed in working the machines for watering the ground. That useful animal, the camel, if not a native, is at least naturalized in Egypt. Dogs are exceedingly numerous. They are not entertained in the houses, but constantly prowls about in the streets, having no owners, and may therefore more properly be classed among wild than domestic animals; but cats, which are also in great numbers, are well treated. Among the wild animals may be reckoned the hyena, the jackal, and several others. The gazelle is also not uncommon, especially in the Upper Egypt. In regard to volatiles, the country abounds with pigeons and poultry. The mode of hatching chickens in ovens, without incubation, has been minutely described by numerous travellers, and, among others, with great perspicuity by Mr. Brown.\* Among the wild volatiles, the ibis was particularly noted by the ancients; but it seems now to have deserted the country, as it is no longer seen by modern travellers.

*Natural curiosities.*]—The principal natural curiosities of Egypt, are its singular topography, and the peculiarities of its soil and climate. The whole assemblage of these give a peculiar appearance to an Egyptian landscape.

\* *Travels in Egypt, &c.* p. 83.

*Antiquities.*]—

*Antiquities*—The artificial curiosities of this celebrated country, consisting of its stupendous remains of antiquity, form a copious subject, which has already occupied volumes of description. Nothing therefore can here be expected, but such a glance at these monuments of art, as may excite a kind of general idea of their magnificence, and of the grandeur of ancient Egypt. Any attempt even to exhibit in a catalogue all the monuments of Egyptian greatness, which are found from Alexander to Syrene, would lead to a tedious prolixity, and they are all described by numerous travellers. The chief monuments to be seen in any degree of perfection at Alexandria, are Pompey's pillar, and Cleopatra's needle, names which seem to be imposed with little propriety. The former is by some supposed to have been erected in honour of the emperor Severus, while others ascribe it to Ptolemy Philadelphus;\* and a late traveller seems inclined to curtail its antiquity, by assigning its erection to the time of the Byzantine emperors, or even of the caliphs.† These differences of opinion only serve to shew the uncertainty of antiquarian research. The pyramids have been so often described, that the theme has become obsolete. I may briefly say, that the largest of these enormous masses is near 500 feet in perpendicular height. The base, each side of which is equal to its sloping height, is an exact square of 660 feet, and consequently covers ten acres of ground. The top, which to a spectator appears as a point, is a platform of sixteen feet square. It is said to have been incrustated with marble, but that covering is now

\* Dr. White's *Egyptiaca*, ap. Browne's *Trav.* p. 6.

† Debon's *Trav.* vol. 1. p. 99.

stripped off, and it presents a rugged surface.\* The purpose for which these monstrous piles of stone have been heaped together, has excited some dispute among the learned. The greatest part of antiquaries and travellers have considered them as sepulchral monuments of the Pharaohs. Mr. Bryant, however, supposes them to have been solar temples.† And Mr. Gabb, in an ingenious treatise, has endeavoured to prove that the great pyramid of Memphis, with the sarcophagus, or granite chest, has been solely designed as a perpetual standard of linear measure.‡ It is not here a place to enter into a disquisition on the probabilities attached to these different opinions. Denon seems to wave all enquiry or conjecture on the subject, and says, that both the date of these monuments, and the object of their construction, are lost in the night of past ages.§ He also observes, that we cannot too much admire the accuracy of the pyramidal structure, and the permanency secured by their form and construction.|| The ruins of the temple of Tentyra may be considered as the most scientific remains of antiquity to be seen in those regions, being, of all the Egyptian monuments, the most perfect in point of execution, and apparently constructed in the happiest periods of the arts and sciences. Every thing in this superb structure is important—every thing interesting, as well as highly finished. The cœlestial planisphere, which adorns the ceiling, clearly indicates the astronomical knowledge of the ancient Egyptians; and all the hieroglyphics, besides being admirably executed, evi-

\* Maillet *Descrip. de l'Egypt*, p. 224, &c.

† Bryant's *Analys. Ancient Mythol.* vol. 3, p. 530.

‡ Gabb. *Fra. Pyramid.*

§ Denon's *Trav.* vol. 1. p. 256.

|| *Ibid.*, vol. 1. p. 271.

dently

dently relate to scientific objects.\* But of all the Egyptian ruins, the stupendous monuments of Thebes, from their number, their colossal magnitude, and the wide extent over which they are spread, strike the spectator with the greatest astonishment; and, in connection with ancient fame, excite the most sublime ideas. This abandoned place, where are seen the most magnificent monuments of ancient grandeur, surrounded with barbarism, enveloped in the veil of mystery, and the obscurity of ages, impresses the mind, as Denon says, with such gigantic phantoms, that the whole French army, which marched into Upper Egypt, “suddenly, and with one accord, stood in amazement at the sight of its scattered ruins.”† A critical account of those stupendous monuments of the earliest ages, which have employed so many learned pens and ingenious pencils, will not here be expected. In this cursory sketch of nations, such a glance must suffice as may give some general idea of this ancient metropolis of a kingdom so universally celebrated, but so little known. “The situation of Thebes” says Denon, “is as fine as can well be imagined; and the immense extent of its ruins, convinces the spectator that fame has not magnified its size; for the diameter of Egypt not being sufficient to contain it, its monuments rest upon the two chains of mountains, which are contiguous, whilst its tombs occupy the valleys towards the west, far on into the desert. Four large hamlets divide amongst them the remains of the ancient monuments of Thebes; whilst the river, by the sinuosity of its course, seems still proud of flowing among its ruins.”‡ The principal

\* Denon's Trav. vol. 2. p. 312 to 319.—vol. 3, p. 4 to 8.

† Ibid, vol. 2, p. 84.

‡ Ibid, p. 84, 85, &c.

of these are, first, the great temple of Karnac, built in the form of a parallelogram of a vast extent, with a colonnade at each extremity, and the massy columns and walls covered with hieroglyphics, a work of stupendous labour.\* This immense temple, now in ruins, requires half an hour to walk round it.† All that remains in any tolerable degree of perfection, is a small sanctuary. Of the 100 columns of the portico alone, the smallest are seven feet and a half, and the largest twelve in diameter. Besides this, there is also another, as well as numerous avenues of sphinxes, and other ruins on the east side of the Nile. On the west side are large colossal statues of sixty or sixty-five feet high; the remains of a large temple, with excavations in the rock; the magnificent edifice called the palace of Memnon, the columns and walls covered with hieroglyphics; and the celebrated caverns, known as the sepulchres of the ancient kings of Thebes, which have been visited by Pocock and Deon, and accurately delineated, as well as minutely described by both these travellers.‡ A late traveller of our own country, in speaking of Thebes, says, "The massy and magnificent forms of the ruins that remain of ancient Thebes, must inspire every intelligent spectator with awe and admiration. Diffused on both sides of the Nile, their extent confirms the classical observations; and Homer's animated description rushes into the memory. These venerable ruins, probably the most ancient in the world, extend for about three leagues in length along the Nile. East and west they reach to the mountains, a breadth of about two leagues and a half. The river is here about 300

\* Browne's Trav. p. 144, 145.

† Deon, vol. 2, p. 257.

‡ Browne's Trav. p. 115. See Pocock's and Deon's Plates.



yards broad. The circumference of the ancient city must therefore have been about twenty-seven miles.\* Pocock, Norden, Denon, and all travellers who have visited those immortal ruins, speak of them in terms of extatic admiration.† The latter of these writers observes, that nothing is seen here but temples, not a vestige of other buildings of public utility or convenience: and although travellers have given to a part of these ruins the name of the palace of Memnon, he candidly owns that he could discover no traces of a royal residence. These circumstances corroborate the testimony of ancient history in regard to the sacerdotal government of Egypt. "Notwithstanding," says Denon, "all the pains which I took in the research, I could find nothing but temples, walls covered with obscure emblems and hieroglyphics, which attested the ascendancy of the priesthood, who still seemed to reign over these mighty ruins, and whose empire constantly haunted my imagination."‡ Every thing, indeed, that relates to the history and antiquities of Egypt, indicates a gloomy and mysterious government of all-powerful priests, ruling with despotic sway an enslaved king and people. If, however, we consider that the monarch was always of the sacerdotal order,§ that every action of his life was under the control of the priests, and a great part of his time employed in religious duties,|| it is no improbable conjecture that one part of the same edifice might serve as a temple

\* Brown's Trav. p. 114.

† Denon, however, as well as several other modern travellers, entirely explodes the fable of the sounding statue of Memnon. Trav. vol. 2, p. 94, 95.

‡ Denon's Trav. vol. 2, p. 194.

§ Pline the Elder on Isis at Onisida.

|| Dion. Sicul. lib. 2.

of the gods, and another as the palace of the monarch and the apartments of his counsellors, or more properly speaking, his governors. In such case the remains of the palace cannot be distinguishable from those of the temple.\* In ancient Egypt every thing was enveloped in the mysterious veil of religion. From all that history relates of its government, we can scarcely form any other idea of the Egyptian court than that of an immense monastery. In another point of view, however, it is no wonder that, after such a lapse of ages, no vestiges of private buildings remain. The habitations of the people soon perish: in so temperate a climate as Egypt, they were in ancient times, as well as at present, in all probability exceedingly slight; and we know not in what manner the great constructed their palaces. But temples have in all ages and countries been built for durability. Their massy walls and columns are alone able to resist the assaults of time. Should modern Europe ever experience the fate of ancient Egypt, and to be buried under the wreck of her arts, her science, and her civilization, her immense gothic cathedrals would exhibit stupendous ruins to a wondering world long after the lapse of ages had annihilated the other monuments of her present splendor.†

\* This idea is rendered more probable by the modern example of the Escorial, which contains not only the royal palace, but also a church and a monastery. See Swinburne, Townsend, and other travellers.

† Denon thinks that the immense temples of Thebes, the vast colossal statues, &c. were built about the time of Sesostris, when the flourishing condition of the Egyptians first gave birth to the arts among them, and when the pride of power preferred magnitude to every other perfection. He ascribes the temples of Tenetyra and Edfu to a later period, when the arts had attained to a state of greater refinement. Trav. vol. 2, p. 256, &c.

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*CHAP. II.*

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Principal cities and towns—Edifices—Islands.

**CAIRO**, or Kahira, the metropolis of modern Egypt, is situated at the distance of less than a mile from the eastern bank of the Nile; and the two suburbs, Misr-el-Atliké and Bulak, extend quite to the river. This city stands at the north-west point of that extensive chain of mountains which runs along the course of the Nile through Upper Egypt. Towards the north a plain extends to the Delta, which it resembles in soil and productions.\* On approaching Cairo from the Delta it appears to great advantage. Numerous minarets surrounding Mount Motam, with Old Cairo, Bulac, and Roda, appearing at some distance as one continued town, gives this metropolis of Egypt an imposing aspect.† But on a nearer approach the illusion vanishes, and every thing resuming as it were its proper position and appearance, an European eye discovers nothing but a vast heap of villages collected together near an arid rock.‡ The houses in general are inelegant, the streets narrow and irregular. The narrowness of the streets, however, although disagreeable to an eye accustomed to view the elegant cities of Europe, appears necessary to an inhabitant of Cairo. A slight canopy extended

\* Brown's Trav. ch. 5. p. 51. † Denon's Trav. vol. 1, p. 258.

‡ Ibid, ubi supra.

from

from one side to the other, protecting him from the fierce effulgence of the meridian sun, affords a more substantial pleasure than could be derived from wide and uniform streets, or a grand display of architectural prospects. The houses, however, in general are built of stone, two, or sometimes three stories high, and have flat roofs. The windows of the upper stories are laticed, the ground floor being either a shop, or having no windows next to the street.\* A few of the houses have paper windows: some of the rich have them of glass. The houses of the great surround the Birket-el-fil, a sort of lake or pool, which receives its waters from the Chalige, or canal, that runs through Cairo. They are in general irregular, but substantially built and commodious. The apartments of the women are fitted up in an expensive manner; but those of the men in a plain style.† The Chalige serves as the common receptacle of all the filth of the adjacent parts of the city; and, except at the time of the inundation, its water is in a very corrupted state. During several months in the year it emits a horrible stench, which several writers have considered as one of the principal causes of the plague. Mr. Antes, however, appears to have completely refuted that opinion. All the houses of the European merchants are situated very near, and most of them indeed close to this canal.‡ But neither they, nor any of the other inhabitants who live in the same situation, are more affected with diseases than those of other parts of the city. Such a stinking canal, however would, in any European city, be deemed

\* Browne's Trav. p. 74.

† Ibid, ubi supra.

‡ Antes Observat. p. 39. The principal street of Cairo runs parallel to the Chalige. Browne, ch. 6, p. 73.

extremely dangerous, and the little effect which it seems to have on the health of the people of Cairo, can scarcely be attributed to any other cause than the excessive dryness of the climate of Egypt.\*

The mosques of Cairo are reckoned more than 300 in number.† The most magnificent is that of Jama-el-Azhar, which is adorned with pillars of marble and Persian carpets. This mosque is furnished with an extensive collection of manuscripts, and the property attached to it is immense. A schech, who is an ecclesiastic of the highest order, presides over this establishment, which supports a number of persons eminent for their skill in theology and Arabian literature. Lectures are here read on all the subjects of Mahomedan science. The new mosque erected by Mohammed Bey Abudhabab, is esteemed a chef d'œuvre of Oriental magnificence. The sumptuous reservoirs where water is given to passengers, and the baths adorned with marble and provided with every convenience, are considerable advantages to this city. The okals, or wholesale warehouses, are spacious, clean, and convenient. The bazars, or markets for retail goods, are extensive buildings, with convenient shops, and well stored with merchandise. Some considerable edifices in Cairo ought to be assigned to the times of the Caliphs. The palace and granaries of Joseph, by popular tradition ascribed to the patriarch, are evidently Saracenic structures. They bear all the marks of the Mussulman architecture of those countries, presenting an assemblage of magnificence, misery, and ignorance.‡ The castle is irregular and

\* Antes Observat. on Egypt, p. 39.

† Browne's Trav. p. 72.

‡ Denon's Trav. vol. 1, p. 281.

incapable of defence. The bashaw resides in the castle, which contains a hall where the Divan assembles. Joseph's well, which is also here, is cut in the rock 269 feet in depth. The palace, which bears the name of this patriarch,\* is in a fine style; and the antique fragments are ingeniously incorporated with Arabian ornaments. The minarets and the tombs are the only buildings about Cairo, that preserve the Arabian style of architecture in any degree of purity. The cemetery of the Mamelukes exhibits a splendid contrast with the irregularity and gloominess of the city. The palaces of the Beys, surrounded with walls, resemble fortified castles, and instead of enlivening the streets render them gloomy. The windows, where there are any, are scarcely ever opened. The daylight which they admit is darkened by coloured glasses or close lattice work, and the principal portion of light enters through a dome in the centre, as the moslems, who make little use of light, take very little pains to introduce it into their houses.† But the tombs of the Mamelukes constructed of marble, raised on columns and terminated by domes and minarets, form a lively and inviting picture; so that to use Denon's expression, it would seem that the Turks, who banish gaiety from their houses while alive, wish to bury it with them in the tomb. All ideas, however, of the convenience and beauty are comparative, and although the metropolis of Egypt has few charms to a person accustomed to view the elegant splendor of the European capitals, the natives of the country think it without any equal,

\* It must, however, be observed, that these works owe their origin not to the patriarch Joseph, but to an Arabian governor of that name.

† Denon's Trav. vol. 1, p. 274, 275.

and style it the greatest among the great, the mother of the world, and the delight of the imagination.\*

Previous to the discovery of the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, the Oriental commerce of Cairo was very extensive; but since that time it has greatly declined, and is now restricted to a few articles, which are chiefly coffee and drugs from Arabia, muslins and cottons from India, shawls from Cashmere, and spices from Ceylon. Cotton also and silk, both crude and manufactured, together with various other articles, are brought from Syria, and all sorts of metallic manufactures from Constantinople. Black slaves brought by the caravans from the interior of Africa are carried to Constantinople, and white slaves are imported from the markets of that metropolis of the Ottoman empire. Cairo is the focus of the trade of eastern Africa. Caravans pass to and from Dongolo, Sennaar, Darfur, and Fezzan, bringing slaves, gold dust, ivory, ostrich feathers, gum, and drugs. The caravan from Morocco comes at uncertain intervals, and frequently employs 5000 camels. Part of the people proceed in pilgrimage to Mecca; and the rest remain to transact business at Cairo, and await their return. The camels are chiefly supplied by the Arabs who rove through the deserts.†

The manufactures of Cairo are neither numerous nor important. The sugar cane is cultivated with success in Egypt; and sugar was manufactured at Cairo in such abundance as to supply the markets of Constantinople. But when Mr. Browne was there, the impolitic measures of the government had nearly crushed that trade. The sugar was of less strength

\* Browne, chap. 5, p. 51. Denon, p. 273.

† Browne's Trav. p. 81, &c. Antes Observat. p. 23, &c.

than that of the West Indies; but it was well refined, of a close texture, and of a pure white colour. The sal ammoniac made at Cairo is of a good quality. But the principal manufacture is that of linen from the fine Egyptian flax.\* Those of glass lamps, salt petre, gunpowder, and red and yellow leather are only for home consumption.

The population of Cairo, computed at not less than 300,000, consists of an assemblage of various nations. Of these the Arabs are the most numerous, and form the great body of the people. The rest of the inhabitants are Coptic Christians, Mamelukes, Greeks, Syrians, Armenians, Mahomedans from Arabia, Persia, &c. Turks, Jews, Muggrubbins, and free negroes from Nubia, exclusive of negro slaves in almost every house. Mr. Browne computes the number of Mamelukes at 10,000 or 12,000, although he was informed that no less than 16,000 white slaves had, during the preceding eleven years, been imported into Egypt; and at the time when that gentleman was at Cairo, there was still a great demand. This circumstance was owing to the havock made among the Mamelukes by the plague. The Muggrubbins from Tripoli, Tunis, and Morocco, who have a quarter to themselves, are remarkable for their industry and frugality, and are attracted to Cairo by the great profits of trade. The Jews are less numerous than formerly. Only a few Turks are established in Egypt, but numbers come hither on business, especially from Constantinople.†

On the east and south-east sides of Cairo, nothing is seen but arid rocks, presenting a scene of disgusting sterility, extending in continued deserts as far as the Red Sea, and the utmost limits of the Thebaid. On

\* Browne's Trav. p. 76.

† Browne ubi supra.



the other sides, the environs are pleasant, consisting of fertile plains, enlivened by the majestic Nile, and rendered interesting by the recollections of history. The sight of the pyramids and the remembrance of Memphis, are sufficient to convince the traveller, that he is in one of the most interesting spots on the surface of the globe. The suburbs of Misr-el-Attike, and Bulak, the island of Rhoda, the town of Giza, with its adjacent villages on the opposite side of the Nile, and the numerous boats, for business and pleasure, which are seen on the river, concur to embellish the modern scenery.\* The castle of Cairo, and the ruinous palace of Saladin, or Salaheddin, command a noble view of the city, the river, and the distant pyramids, which raise their venerable heads above the wreck of monarchies and the revolutions of ages.

*Alexandria.*—Next to Cairo in modern importance, and far superior in ancient celebrity, is Alexandria, once the emporium of eastern commerce, the seat of learning and elegance, and the theatre of splendid luxury. Above thirteen centuries of progressive decay have evinced its former opulence by the slowness of its fall. At present, however, it exhibits few marks of its ancient grandeur. Its wide extent is contracted, its flourishing trade is almost annihilated, and its magnificent structures are sunk into heaps of ruins. The modern city extends along a part of the Isthmus and peninsula, at the eastern extremity of which probably once stood the Pharos, and where now stands a ruinous fort, joined by a mole of stone to the continent. On the eastern side it has been sheltered by a wall, which is now also in ruins. The houses are

\* Browne, p. 86 to 89.

mostly of two stories, with flat roofs. The streets are narrow and irregular.

It is difficult, or perhaps at this time impossible, from the present ruins to ascertain the dimensions of the ancient city of the Ptolemies, of which that of the Caliphs has occupied only a diminutive portion.\* Of this, however, no more than an inconsiderable part is filled with habitations. The rest is either laid out in gardens, or left waste, serving as a receptacle for the rubbish, which covers a great part of the ground and renders it unfit for cultivation. Amongst these heaps of rubbish precious marbles, ancient coins, and fragments of sculpture are constantly discovered, and the profusion in which they are found in every quarter of the city are proofs of its ancient magnificence. Columns of granite serve as jambs and lintels for doors and supporters for walls. The buildings in which polished and sculptured marbles are blended with bricks and calcareous stone, display a confusion of epochs and a monstrous assemblage of the splendor and degradation of art. The walls of modern Alexandria are of Saracenic structure, and tolerably lofty, being in some places forty and no where so little as twenty feet in height. They afford a sufficient security against the Bedouins, who live part of the year on the banks of the canal, and often carry off the cattle, which they find in the vicinity. But recent events show that the city could make little defence against an European army. The French, however, while they had Alexandria in their possession, made very considerable additions to its fortifications. But the city is very little above the level of the sea, and Mr. Browne

\* Pliny says, that Alexandria was, in his time, about fifteen miles in circuit. *Hist. Nat. lib. 5, cap. 10.*

thinks

thinks that it would be very difficult to render it capable of making any formidable resistance against an external enemy.\*

One of the most distinguishing and disadvantageous peculiarities of Alexandria, both in ancient and modern times, is the circumstance of its being supplied with water from the Nile, from which it is so far distant. The water is conducted thither by the canal, at the time of the inundation, and kept all the year in vast reservoirs. These cisterns are connected with one another by conduits, which communicate the water to the different parts of the city. The great pool is one of the most remarkable antiquities of the middle ages. It contains a quantity of water sufficient for the whole consumption of the men and animals, in Alexandria, during the space of two years.† It has already been observed, from Mr. Antea, that the water of the Nile never putrefies, but will remain good for any length of time.‡ The French arrived at Alexandria when the water had been kept eleven months and found it very good.§

Alexandria is, next to Cairo, the most commercial city of Egypt, although its present bears no proportion to its ancient trade. All the commerce between Egypt and Europe is carried on from this port. The timber for house and ship building is imported from

\* Mr. Baldwin is of a contrary opinion, and thinks that Alexandria might be rendered almost impregnable. *Recollections*, p. 61. The facility of cutting off the supplies of water, however, must give great advantage to an enemy.

† It must, however, be observed, that Alexandria is now dwindled down to perhaps a thirtieth part of its ancient population. When in its flourishing state it required immense supplies of water.

‡ Antea. *Observations on Egypt*, p. 76, 77.

§ Denon, vol. 1, p. 194. Eng. trans.

Candia or the Archipelago. Copper, both crude and manufactured, from Constantinople. Coffee, rice, hides, &c. are exported to Constantinople and other places. The celebrated canal of Alexandria being now unnavigable, the trade of this city with Cairo is conducted by the mouth of the Nile to Rosetta in vessels of fifteen to fifty tons burden. The merchandise, being landed at Rosetta or Rashid, is conveyed in boats, of different forms and sizes, to Cairo.

The population of Alexandria is dwindled down from above 500,000 to about 20,000.\* It consists of Mahomedans of different nations, Greeks in considerable numbers, who have a church and a convent, Armenians, who have also a church, and a few Jews who have their synagogue. The Franciscans have also a church and a monastery, in which three or four of their order reside. The European consuls and merchants have their habitations near one another, on the east side of the city, and close to the sea.† The port of Alexandria has two harbours, the old and the new. The vessels of Christian nations are excluded from the former, which is the best, having a depth of water of five or six fathoms throughout, and in many places more, with a secure anchorage. The new port on the east admits only about twenty European vessels to lie at anchor, and for their security they are indebted to some precaution. The small space which they occupy, bears no proportion to the extent of the harbour; but they are confined within narrow limits

\* Brown's Trav. p. 8. Mr. Brown, however, does not pretend to speak on this subject with any degree of certainty.

† Strabo says, that the royal palace of the Ptolemies was washed by the sea; and Dannon thinks that he has discovered its site near Cleopatra's needle. Trav. vol. 1, p. 106.

by the shallowness of the water, which seems to be in some degree the effect of vast quantities of ballast discharged into it from time to time, a practice to which the government has paid no regard, although its ultimate consequences are obvious.

The environs of Alexandria are unpleasant and uninteresting. A dreary and level expanse of sandy desert presents no variety of prospect, nor any smiling vegetation. Some orange and lemon trees are found here in the gardens, but not in any great quantities. Of fruit trees, the date is the most plentiful, as it is excellently adapted to the soil, and proves the most profitable article of cultivation. The abundance of these trees relieves the eye, fatigued with the whiteness of the buildings and the sandy soil; but their constant occurrence stamps a character of dull uniformity on the scene. It is not to be doubted that when Alexandria was in its flourishing state, under the Ptolemies, and afterwards under the Romans, when the sea was covered with ships, the canal with boats, and the sandy soil moistened by irrigation, and cultivated by the industry of a numerous and active people, the environs of that celebrated city displayed a more abundant and varied vegetation; but their topography excluded all the charms of beautiful scenery.\*

On the situations of the three successive capitals of Egypt, an ingenious and observing traveller makes the following observations. "Of Thebes, the most ancient of the Egyptian capitals, the history is too remote and obscure to enable us at this day to ascertain the causes that might have led to its foundation,

\* For the description of Alexandria, see Denon's Trav. vol. 1. Browne's Trav. vol. 2, &c.

or facilitated its aggrandisement. The quarries in its neighbourhood supplied easily, and without limitation, the best materials for building. Its situation was well adapted to secure the commerce of Ethiopia, and all the interior of the African continent, as well as of the Arabian Gulph. Thebes was, moreover, capable of easy defence, not being approached but through the medium of a widely extended desert, or the narrow valley of the Nile, without difficulty to be barred against all intruders.\*

“Memphis offered the same convenience for building, almost an equal facility of intercourse with the interior and the Arabian Sea, a more easy dominion over the Delta, and superior advantages with respect to European and Asiatic commerce.”

Alexander's view in founding Alexandria, was evidently that of maintaining an easy intercourse by sea between Egypt and the other parts of his empire, together with a calculation of its commercial advantages; and the Ptolemies were undoubtedly actuated by similar considerations in making it the capital of their kingdom. The most eligible situation for an Egyptian metropolis, however, is about the head of the Delta. In that central point of the transit between the two seas, the intercourse with the east and the west becomes as expeditious as possible, and supplies of agricultural produce from the north and the south are easily obtained. These motives directed the choice of the Arabs in building Cairo for their capital; but Mr. Browne esteems Memphis a more eligible situation.†

\* Browne, p. 185, &c.

† Memphis was undoubtedly despoiled of many of its ornaments in order to embellish Alexandria; but it was still a large city at the time of

*Rosetta.* †—Rosetta, or Rashid, on the western branch of the Nile, is a town of considerable importance, but being of Saracenic origin, displays few antiquities. The houses are in general better constructed than those of Alexandria; but the streets are extremely narrow, and the projecting stories nearly meeting, render them very dark and gloomy. † Its commerce consists chiefly in the carrying trade between Alexandria and Cairo. The population is considerable, among which are some Franks, and a number of Greeks. † The environs, though level, are beautiful by reason of their fertility; and all travellers concur in describing their florid vegetation and delightful appearance. “The beauty and fertility of the country round Rashid,” says Mr. Browne, “deserve all the praise that has been given them: the eye is not, indeed gratified with the romantic views, flowing lines, the mixture of plain and mountain, nor that universal verdure that is to be observed on the banks of the Rhine or the Danube; but his taste is poor that would reduce all kinds of picturesque beauty to one criterion.” This traveller adds, that the vegetable soil of Rashid, “filled with every production necessary for the sustenance, or flattering to the luxury of man,” appeared to him, who was wearied with “the sandy dryness of the barren desert to the west,” superlatively delightful. The impression which objects make on the mind, is in a great measure determined by their contrast with those to which the eye has been previously accustomed. If this position be granted,

the Saracen invasion, and it must be supposed that it supplied materials for the building of Cairo. See Rennell's reflections on the demolition of Babylon, &c. Geog. of Herodot. sect. 14.

\* Denon's Trav. vol. 1, p. 140.

† Browne's Trav. p. 33.

and

and proper allowances made, perhaps it may not be unreasonable to suppose, that the rapturous delight with which travellers contemplate the luxuriance of the vegetable scenery of Rashid, may be in some degree owing to their previous view of the unpicturesque and barren environs of Alexandria.

*Damietta.*—Damietta, on the eastern branch of the Nile, near the site of the ancient Pelusium, is yet a place of some trade, especially with Syria.

*Assiut.*—Assiut is at present the most considerable city of Upper Egypt, and contains about 25,000 inhabitants.\*

*Girgi.*—Girgi had once the pre-eminence, but is now considerably declined. However, it has a large market place and abundance of shops. The cities of Upper Egypt have greatly decreased in number, extent, population, and opulence; but most of them display, in their magnificent ruins, the remains of their ancient grandeur.

*Assuan.*—Assuan, the ancient Syone, on the southernmost verge of Egypt, formerly the boundary of the Roman power, and the station of a Roman cohort, is now an inconsiderable town. But the opposite island of Elephantine is celebrated for its fine remains of antiquity. The Egyptian coast of the Red Sea, has Cossir and Suez, two miserable ports. Cossir is situated on a very indifferent harbour of the Red Sea. It has, however, some trade, as it is a point of communication between Africa and Asia. Corn is brought from the banks of the Nile to Cossir, and from thence exported for the supply of Mecca, and coffee is imported from Yeman. Mr. Brown, however, saw only two vessels lying in the road.† Here is a castle in

\* Browne's Trav. p. 131 and 135.

† Ibid. p. 135.



the style of the fortifications of Alexandria. The houses are wretched beyond description. The town is well supplied with fish; but other provisions are scarce, as Cossir is at a great distance from any cultivable lands. Even the butter there used is imported from Yemen. There is no water but what is purchased of the Bedouins at their own price. When the French arrived at Cossir, there was no water but what was imported from Asia. By digging, however, they found springs; but the water could neither be kept nor heated, without acquiring an intolerable bitterness.\*

The sea near Cossir is rich in fish, shells, and coral; the latter in particular are extremely abundant. The reefs and rocks of these seas are entirely coral and madepores. The coast is frightfully barren. It is scarcely possible to describe in adequate terms the severe sadness of the country, the sterile aspect of the soil, and the insupportably dazzling reflection of the solar beams from the white and shelly shore.† Except about seven or eight palm trees, at the distance of ten or twelve miles, there is scarcely a tree or shrub within almost 100 miles of Cossir. Imagination can scarcely conceive a more disagreeable situation, than that of a town separated by immense deserts from the habitable world, in a burning climate, and a barren country destitute of water, and of almost every trace of vegetation. The inhabitants of Cossir seem to be a colony from the opposite coast of Arabia.‡

*Suez.*—Suez is a small town at the head of the Red Sea. The houses are built of unburnt brick. The

\* Denon's Trav. vol. 2, p. 351.

† Ibid. p. 348.

‡ Browne's Trav. p. 155.

sea is here very shallow, but there is a small yard for ship building. When Mr. Browne was there, he saw four three-masted vessels and ten others, some with two and some with only one mast. There were also two on the stocks, one of which was pierced for twelve guns. The largest of these vessels was intended for the Indian trade, and the rest for that of Jidda. The principle article of trade is coffee. Provisions and water are as scarce at Suez as at Cosir. Meat is scarce, bread extremely bad, and the sea produces but a small quantity of fish. Water is brought from different places, and sold by the skin at a considerable price.\* From these circumstances it evidently appears, that it would require an immense labour and expence to construct a good port on the Egyptian coast of the Red Sea.†

\* Browne's Trav. p. 190.

† Mr. Browne thinks that the Red Sea may have derived that appellation from a species of weed, of a colour between scarlet and crimson, which grows in great abundance in the shallow parts near Suez. Trav. p. 191. Denon thinks that this sea may have acquired its name from the coral reefs near Cosir. Trav. vol. 2, p. 351. But the variety of conjectures on this subject is endless.

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*CHAP. III.*

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Historical View—General Progress of Society—of Arts and Sciences—  
Literature and Commerce.

THE origin and first progress of nations being covered with the shades of antiquity, in tracing their early history writers are frequently carried beyond the boundaries of accurate investigation, and led almost imperceptibly into the maze of conjecture. This is confessedly the case with Egypt; and it is a matter no less of regret than of wonder, that the history of the most learned and celebrated nation of the ancient world, is almost as imperfect as that of the most barbarous tribes. Veiled in allegory and disguised with fiction, its obscurity often sets at defiance the utmost efforts of learned research. A spirit of vanity, in conjunction with their taste for allegorical representation, prompted the Egyptians to introduce into their early records a period which they called the reign of the Gods, and to invent a fictitious chronology corresponding with a fabulous history. But while Egypt astonishes the modern world, by the display of her magnificent ruins and stupendous monuments, of which the antiquity ascends beyond the reach of history or tradition, curiosity is naturally excited to enquire into the ancient state of a country so singular, and of a nation so celebrated, which has left such striking memorials of its ancient grandeur. Instead, however, of expatiating in the immense field  
of

of conjecture, which ancient Egypt has left to the range of posterity, and in which so many writers have bewildered themselves, I shall confine myself within more contracted limits, and endeavour to exhibit the most conspicuous and generally acknowledged outlines of the curious and interesting picture.

Menes is said to have been the first monarch of Egypt, and the first legislator who regulated the religious worship and civil polity of that kingdom. The age in which he lived is unknown, for the Egyptian chronology previous to the reign of Pharaoh Psamiticus, which commenced A.A.C. 670, about eighty-two years after the building of Rome, is a mere chaos, and all the attempts of historians and antiquaries to elucidate its obscurity, have proved ineffectual. This prince, however, appears to have been well skilled in the knowledge of human nature. He made the current superstitions of the people subservient to his views; and in order to ensure obedience to his laws, he pretended to have received them from the God Hermes. We are told by Herodotus, on the authority of the Egyptian priests, that in the age of Menes, the Delta was a vast morass, or rather a shallow gulph of the sea, interspersed with islands separated by numerous creeks and lagunes.\* This description agrees with the opinions of most judicious travellers, and seems to be corroborated by the situation of that province, the nature of its soil, and its similarity in these respects to the low and level tracts of country near the mouths of the Indus, the Ganges, the Mississippi, and most other great rivers, which seem all to have been gradually formed by the mud brought down by the floods. The same historian informs us, that Menes

\* Herodot. lib. 2, cap. 4 and 5.

founded the city of Memphis, with the magnificent temple of Vulcan, and that he diverted the course of the Nile, which had hitherto taken a westerly direction not far from that city, and proceeded through the Lybian sands into the Mediterranean Sea; but being turned into the Delta filled up the Lagunes, and in process of time formed the finest province of Egypt.

In whatever age of the world the foundation of the monarchy by Menes may be fixed, from that epoch till the reign of Sesostris the history of Egypt is involved in impenetrable obscurity. In this dark period is placed the invasion and conquest of the country by the Arabian or shepherd kings, on which so much learned research has been wasted; and to fill up more effectually the chasm, historians have introduced fictitious monarchs and ideal events. In the midst of this chaos, however, five princes, Busiris II, Osymandes, Uchareus, Egyptus, and Moeris, seem distinguishable as real beings. Egyptus perpetuated his name by communicating it to the country. The others are famous in history for their magnificent works of public utility and ornament.

Busiris is said by Diod. Sicul. to have built, or at least to have greatly enlarged Thebes,† the primitive residence of the Egyptian monarchs. This city which was afterwards named by the Greeks Diospolis, or the city of Jupiter, is described as being seventeen miles and a half in circuit.‡ It is said to have

\* This is the opinion of Denon, see *Travels in Egypt*, vol. 1, p. 168 and 348, Eng. Translation.

† Diod. Sicul. lib. 1.

‡ Ibid. Browne thinks that the circuit of Thebes must have been twenty-seven miles. Browne's *Travels*, p. 144.

contained four magnificent temples, of extraordinary beauty and magnitude, one of them being a mile and a half in circumference, besides the superb mausoleum of Osymandes, with many other magnificent structures. If nothing remained of this city, so famed in the earliest ages for its wealth and magnificence, the accounts given of it by the ancients would appear exaggerated, and even incredible. But after the lapse of so long a succession of ages, its stupendous ruins, even at this day, attests its ancient grandeur, and excite the astonishment of modern travellers. The latest observations corroborate the most splendid accounts which the ancients have left of the extent and magnificence of Thebes.\* The greatest difficulty is, to discover the resources of art and opulence which enabled the Egyptians, at a period of antiquity beyond all historical memorial, to accomplish those stupendous works, which exhibit so unequivocal a proof of the wealth, power, and the greatness of the nation.

Uchareus is, by Diod. Sicul. represented as the founder of Memphis;† but Herodotus ascribes its foundation to Menes. The Egyptian history has afforded to antiquaries and chronologers an ample scope for speculation and conjecture; and a great deal of learned labour has been thrown away in attempting to illustrate its obscurities and reconcile its contradictions. But as most large cities have arisen from small beginnings, it is no improbable supposition that Memphis may have been founded by Menes, and that Uchareus may have extended its circuit, strengthened its fortifications, and given it the form

\* Browne's Trav. p. 143, &c.—Denon's Trav. vol. 1, p. 85, 96, 195, 196.

† Diod. Sicul. lib. 1.

in which it appeared, when viewed by the Grecian philosophers, who travelled into Egypt. This celebrated city is thus described by ancient writers. It was about eighteen miles in circuit, and was seated on the west side of the Nile, at the distance of a few furlongs from that river, with which it communicated by a canal. On the side towards the Nile, it was flanked with a strong rampart, which secured it from the inundation, as well as from hostile aggression. On the other sides it was not only fortified with walls, but also encompassed with a wide and deep ditch, which being always filled with the waters of the Nile, rendered this metropolis of the Egyptian monarchy almost impregnable against every mode of attack known in the system of ancient warfare.\* Memphis was therefore considered as the key of the Nile, and continued to be the capital of the kingdom, and the centre of its commerce, until Ptolemy Lagus founding a new monarchy in Egypt, transferred the seat of government to Alexandria.† But at what period the residence of the Pharaohs was removed from Thebes to Memphis, cannot be ascertained by historians. Among the principal ornaments of Memphis, was the magnificent temple of Vulcan, the building of which is by Herodotus ascribed to Menes. But by whomsoever this structure was founded, it received additional embellishments from the piety or the ostentation of succeeding princes. The writers of antiquity describe its magnificent porticos and colossal statues, and represent it as the most splendid monument of superstition that Egypt displayed.

• The name of Mœris is distinguished by one of the most stupendous works of the ancient Egyptians, or

\* Died. Sicul. lib. 1.

† Strabo, lib. 17.

rather by one of their pompous fictions. In his reign the lake Moeris is said to have been, by an astonishing effort of labour, excavated for a reservoir to receive the superabundant waters of the Nile in the time of a copious inundation, and to retain them for the purpose of irrigating the adjacent country by the means of numerous canals running in every direction. Those writers, however, who have so far exaggerated the dimensions of this vast basin, as to give it 300 feet of depth, and 450 miles of circuit, have but little claim to credit.\* Modern travellers find nothing that corresponds with those extravagant assertions which Denon ridicules with great appearance of reason. Browne estimates its length at between thirty and forty miles, and having taken its breadth in the widest part with a sextant, and found it to be nearly six miles, concludes that the utmost extent of this celebrated lake cannot exceed ninety miles. Neither the French nor the English traveller could perceive any vestiges of human art, and both consider it entirely as a work of nature.† This lake, which is now called Birket-el-Kuran, may therefore be struck out of the catalogue of Egyptian wonders. A sufficient number of such as are real, meet the astonished eye in every part of the country, without having recourse to fiction. In regard to Osymandes, although he seems to have had a real existence, all that is related of his works and his reign is too much tinged with fable to be admissible in history.

The fame of Sesostria has eclipsed that of all his

\* Herodot. lib. 2, cap. 149.—Diod. Sicul. lib. 1.—Girabe, without particularizing its dimensions, compares it to a sea. lib. 17.

† Browne's Travels, p. 179.—Denon's Trav. vol. 8, p. 353, English translation.



predecessors; yet such is the obscurity of Egyptian history, that chronologers are unable to fix the æra of his reign. He is however commonly supposed to have been the Shishak mentioned in scripture, who, in the fifth year of Rehoboam, and about 970 years before Christ, invaded Judah and pillaged the temple and royal palace of Jerusalem.\* A variety of circumstances, indeed, render this conjecture extremely probable. From the geographical situation of these countries, no Egyptian conqueror could make any progress in Asia without involving the kingdom of Judah in the sweep of his operations. But the Hebrew annals give not the slightest intimation of any king of Egypt, except Shishak, ever approaching the confines of Judæa before Pharaoh Necho, in the reign of Josiah, who was slain in attempting to oppose his passage at Megiddo.† This circumstance affords the strongest reason to believe that the Shishak of the scripture could be no other than the Sesostris of profane history. The relations, however, which most writers have given of his exploits, are replete with exaggeration, and mixed with fiction. Some have led him from the banks of the Nile to those of the Danube and the Ganges.‡ On a stricter enquiry it will be found that his conquests were confined to Syria, Asia Minor, Thrace, and some of the maritime parts of Arabia.§ But whatever were their extent, he took no effectual means for their preservation, and none of them descended to his posterity. Sesostris seems indeed to have been one of

\* 2 Chron. ch. 12.—1st Kings, ch. 14.

† 2 Chronicles, ch. 35. Anderson, however, places Sesostris 459 years sooner, Royal General Tab. p. 23. He calls him Sechothris.

‡ Diod. Sicul. lib. 1.

§ Herodot. lib. 2. cap. 102, 103.

those romantic warriors who conquer only for fame, a passion which operated so powerfully on the heroes of antiquity. An inordinate and eccentric ambition actuated his conduct; and if he did not endeavour to retain his conquests, he was careful to perpetuate the memory of his exploits. For this purpose he erected two obelisks of 120 feet high, with hieroglyphic inscriptions, describing the extent of his conquests, and the amount of his revenues.\* He is also said to have erected in front of the temple of Vulcan at Memphis, two colossal statues, of fifty-four feet in height, representing himself and his wife, with four others of thirty feet, which were the effigies of his sons. He caused to be erected in several of the countries through which he passed, his own statue, armed in the Egyptian manner, with a bow in his right hand, and a belt across the breast, on which was engraved, in hieroglyphic characters, an inscription commemorative of his conquests. Herodotus, whose veracity in regard to what he himself had seen,† is now universally acknowledged, informs us that he saw two of these statues in Asia Minor, one between Phocæa and Ephesus, the other between Sardis and Smyrna, each of which was six feet three inches in height.‡ It is nothing extraordinary that an ambitious conqueror should adopt such means of transmitting his fame to posterity; but it appears somewhat wonderful that the nations whom he had conquered, and who no longer stood in awe of the Egyptian arms, should suffer to stand, during a series of ages, those memorials of

\* *Diod. Sicul. lib. 1.* Herodorus says positively that Scæstria passed over the Bosphorus into Thrace.

† For testimonies in favour of the veracity of Herodotus, see *M. Rennell's Geography of Herodotus. Passim.*

‡ *Herodotus, lib. 2, cap. 106.*

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their subjugation and disgrace.\* Besides building a number of temples, monuments of his piety or his ostentation, Sesostris also distinguished himself by numerous works of unquestionable utility. He caused an additional number of canals to be made, which communicating with the Nile, and intersecting the country in a variety of directions, increased its fertility, and diffused abundance through all its districts. He surrounded the cities with ramparts to secure them from the annual inundation, and cut navigable canals from the river to those that were situated at a distance from its banks, in order to facilitate inland commerce. These beneficial works, performed wholly by the labour of captives, together with the influx of wealth by conquest, greatly enriched and embellished the kingdom. His name was the boast of the Egyptians, and his reign was the æra of their military glory; for, excepting that period, they had scarcely ever been a conquering or a martial people.† The history of Sesostris, like the rest of the Egyptian annals, is a mixture of truth and fiction. In a summary view it may therefore suffice to observe, that Egypt considered him as the greatest of her monarchs, and his reign as the most brilliant epoch of her national annals.

\* Several of these were also in Palestine; and M. Rennell supposes that these countries might be in some degree subject to the domination and influence of Egypt. *Geography of Herodotus*. p. 245. It must, however, be remembered, that all Egyptian power and influence was extinguished on the conquest of that kingdom by Cambysea, an event which took place A. M. 3479, or A. A. C. 525, almost half a century before the birth of Herodotus. In Asia Minor the influence of Egypt must have expired soon after the retreat of Sesostris.

† All that is here said of Sesostris rests on the authority of Herodotus and *Diod. Siculus*, but especially on that of the former, who possessed better means of information than the latter.

At the period now under consideration, the monarchy of the ancient Egyptians seems to have attained to the acme of its greatness. From the reign of Sesostriis, who, if he be identified with the Shishak of holy writ, lived about 970 years before the Christian æra,\* to the interregnum which preceded the elevation of Pharaoh Psamneticus, about A. A. C. 670, Herodotus has exhibited a regular succession of kings; but their reigns are uninteresting, and their history is constantly disguised by fables. According to that ancient writer, many of them added new embellishments to the temple of Vulcan, at Memphis, and erected several other temples, pyramids, &c. in order to serve as memorials of their reigns and monuments of their greatness. To Cheops, in particular, he ascribes the erection of the first and largest of the three great pyramids in the plain of Memphis, and informs us that 100,000 men, regularly relieved every three months, were constantly employed, during twenty years, in raising this immense pile; and as he mentions the great sums of money expended by the king in purchasing onions, garlic, and radishes, for the workmen, those vegetables seem to have constituted the greatest part of their food.† These stupendous and useless masses would scarcely ever have been heaped together had not the government been despotic and the people enslaved.‡ The

\* Anderson makes Sesostriis, or Sechois, contemporary with Josiah, which totally contradicts this hypothesis. General Table of the Egyptians. Roy. General Table, p. 23.

† Herodot. lib. 2, cap. 124 and 125.

‡ In speaking of the despotism of the Egyptians, it is not the despotism of the prince but of the College of Priests that is to be understood. Herodotus, however, informs us that Cheops had shut up the temples, probably in the view of diminishing the influence of priesthood, from which it appears that, during his reign, he had found means to advance the military above the sacerdotal power. Vide Herodot. lib. 2, cap. 124.

other pyramids are ascribed to different princes; but the fable, which attributes one of them to Rhodopis, the courtesan, is exploded by Herodotus. The reign of Anysis, who is said to have been blind, is rendered memorable by the irruption of Sabacho, king of Ethiopia, who invaded and subjugated Egypt, but ruled with such lenity that, under his government, the kingdom flourished in prosperity and peace, and had reason to regard him as a benefactor rather than a conqueror. This prince, after a long reign over Egypt, relinquished his conquest and retired into his own country. His reasons for so singular a procedure lie beyond the reach of investigation; but it is said that he took this extraordinary step in consequence of a dream. This, however, seems too trivial a circumstance to determine the conduct of a great prince and a conqueror in an affair of such importance. But it is impossible to calculate the effects of superstition on the human mind, in an age when it reigned with an uncontrolled sway.

The reign of Sethon may be considered as a remarkable æra in the history of Egyptian superstition, as well as in that of the monarchy. This king, who had been the high priest of Vulcan, and through the preponderating influence of the sacerdotal order had raised himself to the throne, depending on the same powerful support, as well as on the veneration of the people for his sacred character, carried his despotism to a pitch beyond all example. With a desperate boldness he seized on the lands appropriated to the soldiery, so that the whole landed property of Egypt was in the hands of himself and the priests.\* It is a singular circumstance that the military order, which

\* Herodot. lib. 2. cap. 141.

in the event of a contest must have proved the strongest, should have been so patient under oppression, and have suffered itself to be thus despoiled by the priesthood. Nothing in fact can more evidently shew the unlimited influence which that sacred body had acquired over the nation, and the abject superstition of the soldiery, as well as of the populace. If, however, the military men thus tamely submitted to the sacerdotal despot, it appears that they considered the seizure of their lands as a dismissal from the national service, and when Sennacherib invaded the kingdom, they refused to march under the banners of their oppressor, whom, although superstition had forbid them to resist, they did not think themselves obliged to defend. On this occasion the conduct of the holy tyrant shews the fertility of his invention, and his consummate skill in rivetting the fetters of despotism on a superstitious and ignorant people. Repairing to the temple of Vulcan and prostrating himself before the altar, he deprecated the impending calamity and invoked the assistance of the god. He then persuaded the people that he had been favoured with a vision, and ascribed the retreat of the king of Assyria to a miracle. The whole story is related at length by Herodotus, as he received it from the Egyptian priests, who were interested in the honour of Sethon as connected with that of their order;\* but, among the Egyptians, fables of religious manufacture were too common to be worth relating. Josephus, however, informs us, that the Assyrian monarch, having commenced the siege of Pelusium, abandoned the enterprise, on being informed that Tirhakah, king of Ethiopia, was advancing with a powerful army in

\* Herodot. ubi supra.

the view of intercepting his retreat.\* The prophet Isaiah, indeed, authorises a belief that Tirhakah had first been defeated, and part of Egypt ravaged by the Assyrians, a circumstance which would afford to Sethon a still fairer pretext for ascribing the deliverance of Egypt to a miracle.† The whole story which the king and the priests imposed on a credulous people, evidently amounts to no more than this, that he had privately negotiated with Sennacherib and purchased his retreat with money. By this story of a miraculous deliverance he held himself up to the nation as a favourite of heaven, protected by the gods; and by this policy, his authority and power, instead of being weakened, acquired greater stability from the Assyrian invasion. The Egyptian history is a tissue of truth and fable closely interwoven: but the whole mass of fiction and fact, of which it is composed, tends to shew how artfully and how successfully the priests acquired and maintained their influence over the kings, the soldiery, and the people.

The reign of Sethon was the period in which the sacerdotal power was in its meridian. Egypt then exhibited the curious spectacle of a priesthood possessing not only the absolute sovereignty of the most flourishing country on the face of the globe, but also the entire and exclusive proprietorship of its soil. But after the death of Sethon, it seems that the sacerdotal order could not furnish another person of equal abilities to sway the sceptre and maintain the holy despotism. Egypt was, during some time, convulsed with anarchy, until the intestine commotions at length settled into an oligarchical government of twelve

\* Joseph. Antiq. Judæ, lib. 10, cap. 1.

† Isaiah, ch. 20, ver. 4 and 5.

chiefs, each of whom superintended a separate district, while their joint authority extended over the whole kingdom. These ruled for a time with perfect concord, and built the famous labyrinth as a memorial of their union, and a monument of their power and magnificence. This extraordinary structure is described by Diod. Sicul. and Strabo, as well as by Herodotus; but the last of these writers saw it in a more perfect state. According to his description, it contained twelve spacious halls, communicating in the most curious and intricate manner with each other, and with 1500 rooms of various dimensions. There was likewise an equal number of subterraneous apartments, which, being appropriated to sacred uses, no traveller was permitted to see, and consequently no description of these sancta sanctorum is left by antiquity. The roofs and the walls of the apartments above ground, were incrustated with white marble and adorned with sculpture. The halls were encompassed with columns of the same kind of marble, highly polished. At the terminating angle of this stupendous piece of Egyptian architecture, was erected a pyramid of 240 feet in height, on which were sculptured colossal figures of various animals. This celebrated labyrinth, which was in all probability the common palace and place of congress for the twelve sovereigns, stood near the city of Crocodiles, and was esteemed the most superb monument of antiquity. Such was the idea which a view of it impressed on the mind of Herodotus himself, who had seen the most magnificent temples and public structures of Asia and Greece.\*

The union of the Oligarchs, however, did not prove permanent; but the cause of their discord is unknown.

\* Herodot. lib. 2, cap. 148.



The particulars of their contest are likewise involved in obscurity, but its issue introduced the first luminous period that occurs in the history of Egypt. Psamneticus, one of the twelve chiefs, whose district lay next to the sea coast, having in some manner excited the envy or jealousy of his colleagues, they excluded him from his share in the government. A civil war ensued, and Psamneticus having called in a foreign aid of Ionians, Carians, &c. made himself master of the kingdom,\* which he raised to a higher pitch of greatness and glory than it had ever attained since the days of Sesostris. This revolution, which happened A. A. C. 670, constitutes the æra of the true Egyptian chronology, which previous to that period is wholly conjectural.

The whole history of Egypt, previous to this epoch, has by some modern writers been considered as wholly fabulous, while others, of the greatest erudition and genius, have wasted their time and their talents in fruitless endeavours to reduce it to consistency. The attempt, however, has baffled the sagacity of Newton himself, who identifies Sesostris with Osyris, and whose mistake, in confounding the god with the hero, is learnedly combated by Warburton.† A late learned, but fanciful writer, disregarding the reasonings of the prelate, and carrying his historical scepticism still farther than that of the philosopher, regards Sesostris as a personage merely ideal.‡ The Hebrew annals, however, inform us that Egypt had, at an early period, a conquering monarch, whose power extended over the Ethiopians and various other nations, and who, leav-

\* Herodot. lib. 2. cap. 152.

† Sir Isaac Newton's Chron. Ancient Kingdom, p. 191.—Divine Leg. book 4, sect. 5.

‡ Bryant's Ancient Mythol. p. 2.

ing the banks of the Nile, displayed his victorious banners before Jerusalem, a testimony sufficiently strong to overthrow Mr. Bryant's hypothesis.\* The whole history of Egypt, in those early periods, rests solely on the authority of Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus. These two writers had their information from the priests of that country, a set of men fond of allegory and fiction, and strongly tinctured with vanity. But the primitive annals of other countries cannot boast any better foundations. Herodotus, who travelled through Egypt within a century after the Persian conquest, was prior in time and had much better opportunities of information than Diodorus, who was contemporary with Cæsar and Cicero, when the kingdom had been despoiled of its archives, and the Egyptians were ignorant of their own history.† The annals of the Hebrews attest, that so early as the time of the patriarch Jacob, Egypt was a flourishing monarchy. And in appreciating the testimony of the priests, who were the compilers as well as the keepers of the archives, and the only historians as well as philosophers of the kingdom, whatever allowances may be made for the vanity of their nation and order, it must be confessed, that the stupendous monuments and ruins, of which the antiquity ascends beyond that of all historical memorials, and probably of all written language, corroborate, in no small degree, their pompous accounts of the ancient grandeur of their country. The outlines of a magnificent picture may be traced, although, through the profusion of false colour-

\* Kings and Chronicles, *ubi supra*.

† M. Rensell observes, that the reputation of Herodotus as an historian, is rising in the world since his accounts have been illustrated by modern discoveries. *Geog. of Herodot.* p. 5.

ing, the particular features cannot be distinguished. The history of ancient Egypt will ever excite, but never fully satisfy curiosity. But in this, as in every other case, it is necessary to avoid the two extremes of weak credulity and universal scepticism, those two grand obstacles to intellectual improvement.

Psamneticus cultivated, with prudent assiduity, the friendship of those strangers by whose aid he had obtained possession of the kingdom, and established a colony of Greeks in the Delta, on both sides of the Nile, with schools for instructing the Egyptian youth in the Grecian language. This monarch added a magnificent portico to the south side of the temple of Vulcan, at Memphis. Herodotus also says, that he erected opposite to the temple a vast edifice, designed as a receptacle for the god Apis. This structure was embellished with sculptures; and surrounded with colossal statues of eighteen feet in height. Psamneticus is said by some to have been the first Egyptian king that drank wine.\* This prince opened the ports of his kingdom to all foreigners; and during his long reign of fifty-four years, Egypt enjoyed the benefits of a flourishing commerce. In his time happened the famous irruption of the Scythians into western Asia. By the efficacy of presents, he concluded a treaty with these barbarians, by which he prevented them from visiting Egypt, and prudently diverted the storm from his dominions. In his reign was first established a general intercourse between Egypt and Greece; and from that period the Egyptian history, although far from becoming luminous, begins to immerse from the gloom of its former obscurity.

\* *Edox. ap. Plut. de Isid. and Osyr. p. 333.*

Pharaoh Necho, son and successor of Psammeticus, was powerful by land and by sea, and being of an enterprising and warlike disposition, was the great enemy and rival of Assyria and Babylon. He began, but not finish, a canal of communication between the Red Sea and the Nile.\* In his reign, and under his auspices, was performed the famous circumnavigation of Africa, by Phœnician and Egyptian mariners, who sailing from the Red Sea, coasted round that continent, and returned by the straits of Gibraltar. This voyage, which is mentioned by Herodotus, although several particulars of his narrative are strongly impressed with the marks of veracity, appears to have been disregarded, or even considered as fabulous by the Roman geographers.† However, if it did actually take place, it was, considering the state of navigation in that age, a more arduous enterprize than the circumnavigation of the globe in modern times. It was in fighting against this prince that Josiah, king of Judah, fell in battle at Megiddo.‡ Having defeated the Babylonians, and taken the city of Carchemis, Necho deposed Joachaz, king of Judah, and placed on the throne Eliakim, to whom he gave the name Jehoiakim, and imposed on the Jewish nation an annual tribute.§

\* Pliny ascribes this undertaking first to Sesostris, lib. 6. cap. 29.

† Pliny ascribes the circumnavigation of Africa to Hanno, the Carthaginian, and seems ignorant of this Egyptian voyage, lib. 5. cap. 1. Ptolemy either disbelieved, or was ignorant of the fact, lib. 5. cap. 4. The same may be said of Ptolemy. M. Rennell, however, seems to make no doubt of the reality of the fact. That judicious and critical geographer employs this whole section in elucidating this curious subject; and establishes, by the most apposite arguments, not only the possibility, but the probability of the circumnavigation. *Geography of Herodotus*, sect. 24 and 25.

‡ 2 Chronicles, ch. 25.—Joseph. Antiq. lib. 10, ch. 6.

§ 2 Kings, ch. 23.

Necho,

Necho, however, did not long enjoy this extensive power; for about three years afterwards he was totally defeated by Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, who recovered Carchemis, and all the neighbouring provinces. The Egyptian monarch being stripped of all his conquests, confined himself within the limits of his own kingdom, and died about eight years after his defeat by the Babylonians. Psamnis, his son, next ascended the throne; but his reign affords nothing that is worthy of historical notice. He was succeeded by his son Apries, the Pharaoh Hophra spoken of, in the Scripture.

The commencement of this prince's reign was brilliant and happy; but its termination was extremely unfortunate. He entered into a treaty with Zedekiah, king of Judah, whom he promised to support in his rebellion against Nebuchadnezzar. When Jerusalem was besieged, the king of Egypt marched his army into Syria, but not daring to hazard a battle with the Babylonians, he retreated into his own country, and left the Jews to the mercy of their enemies. Soon after this transaction, Amasis, an artful and ambitious courtier, rebelled against Apries, and almost all the Egyptians favoured his revolt, while the king was supported only by his foreign troops. During the civil war, which on this occasion convulsed Egypt, Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, having completed his conquests of Tyre and Jerusalem, entered that country, which, in its divided state, was far from being capable of resisting so warlike and powerful an invader. Profane history makes no mention of this event; and all we can gather from scripture is, that the Babylonian monarch ravaged the country, and

Pharaoh Necho, son and successor of Psammeticus, was powerful by land and by sea, and being of an enterprising and warlike disposition, was the great enemy and rival of Assyria and Babylon. He began, but not finish, a canal of communication between the Red Sea and the Nile.\* In his reign, and under his auspices, was performed the famous circumnavigation of Africa, by Phœnician and Egyptian mariners, who sailing from the Red Sea, coasted round that continent, and returned by the straits of Gibraltar. This voyage, which is mentioned by Herodotus, although several particulars of his narrative are strongly impressed with the marks of veracity, appears to have been disregarded, or even considered as fabulous by the Roman geographers.† However, if it did actually take place, it was, considering the state of navigation in that age, a more arduous enterprize than the circumnavigation of the globe in modern times. It was in fighting against this prince that Josiah, king of Judah, fell in battle at Megiddo.‡ Having defeated the Babylonians, and taken the city of Carchemis, Necho deposed Joachaz, king of Judah, and placed on the throne Eliakim, to whom he gave the name Jehoiakim, and imposed on the Jewish nation an annual tribute.§

\* Pliny ascribes this undertaking first to Scæstris, lib. 6. cap. 29.

† Pliny ascribes the circumnavigation of Africa to Hanno, the Carthaginian, and seems ignorant of this Egyptian voyage, lib. 5. cap. 1. Ptolemy either disbelieved, or was ignorant of the fact, lib. 3. cap. 4. The same may be said of Ptolemy. M. Rennell, however, seems to make no doubt of the reality of the fact. That judicious and critical geographer employs this whole section in elucidating this curious subject; and establishes, by the most opposite arguments, not only the possibility, but the probability of the circumnavigation. Geography of Herodotus, sect. 24 and 25.

‡ 2 Chronicles, ch. 25.—Joseph. Antiq. lib. 10, ch. 6.

§ 2 Kings, ch. 23.

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carried off an immense booty.\* What convention might take place between this conqueror and Amasis, is unknown: all that is left on record is, that the usurper having vanquished Apries, and, according to the denunciation of the prophet, delivered him into the hands of those who sought his life, the unfortunate king was strangled by his rebellious subjects. Historians have assigned to Amasis, who now became sovereign of Egypt, a prosperous reign of forty-four years, and assure us that the kingdom was never more potent and flourishing than during this period. According to their relations, he shewed a great predilection for the people and manners of Greece. He encouraged the Greeks to settle in Egypt, and to construct temples to the honour of the Grecian gods. Solon, the celebrated legislator of Athens, paid a visit to this prince, by whom he was graciously received. Amasis adorned the great temple of Vulcan at Memphis, and several others, with colossal statues and superb ornaments. He is said to have exceedingly enriched his kingdom by trade; and the Grecian historians assert, that Egypt never displayed greater wealth and magnificence than during his reign. These accounts would induce us to believe that the country had soon retrieved the losses sustained by the Babylonian invasion. They are, however, far from corresponding with the predictions of the Hebrew prophets, relative to the desolate state of Egypt during forty years under the lash of foreign oppression. But the prophetic denunciations, although not explicit in that respect, seem to allude to the Persian rather than the Babylonian conquest of that kingdom. The period, however, which elapsed between the revolt of

\* Jeremiah, ch. 61.



Amasis, and the conquest of Egypt by Cambyses, is extremely confused and obscure; and the relations of historians in regard to the events which took place during that interval are perplexed and contradictory.\* But whatever might be the prosperity of the reign of Amasis, it is certain, that the glory and splendor of ancient Egypt expired with that monarch. His son, Psammenitus, had no sooner ascended the throne than the kingdom was conquered by Cambyses, king of Persia, and felt all the weight of his merciless hand. The body of Amasis was dragged from the sepulchre, torn in pieces, and reduced to ashes; and Psammenitus, the reigning king, was put to death by the command of the conqueror. - Egypt, which had so long flourished in splendor, in power, and celebrity, now saw her cities pillaged, her temples prophaned, and her gods destroyed.

• These violent proceedings gave rise to that inextinguishable hatred which the Egyptian nation ever after entertained against the Persians. This implacable animosity was religious as well as political, and was kept up by a variety of moral circumstances which in a particular manner distinguished the two nations. The disciples of Zoroaster despised and abhorred the idolatry of Egypt; and the Egyptians being zealously attached to their ancient superstitions and prejudices, were beyond measure exasperated at the contempt which the Persians shewed for their gods, their religion, and laws. They were therefore incessantly occupied in forming schemes for throwing off so insupportable a yoke, and in the reign of Darius Hystaspes

\* The compilers of the universal history have taken great pains in elucidating this confused period of the Egyptian annals, without being able to reduce it to consistency. See Univ. Hist, vol. 2.

broke out into an open rebellion, in which they persisted till the second year of Xerxes, when they were again reduced to obedience, and experienced, in a still greater degree, the rigour of the Persian government. Wearied out with oppression, they revolted a second time in the reign of Artaxerxes Longimannus, placed Inarus, king of Lybia, on the throne of Egypt, and called in to their aid the Athenians, the declared enemies of Persia.\* The Athenian fleet attacking that of the Persians, captured and destroyed a great number of their vessels. The combined army of the Athenians, Egyptians, and Lybians, also totally defeated the Persians, killed an almost incredible number, and drove the rest into Memphis. But the Persians being hard pressed by the close pursuit of the victors, took refuge in a strongly fortified quarter, while the Egyptians remained masters of the rest of the city, and kept the Persians besieged in their fortress during the space of three years. So long were the different quarters of the Egyptian metropolis divided between two hostile powers. Inarus being apprised of the march of a formidable Persian army, redoubled his efforts on their fortress in Memphis; but met with so vigorous and persevering a resistance, that he was at length obliged to relinquish the enterprise and evacuate the capital. After suffering a defeat from the Persian army, he retired into the isle of Prosopotis, which was formed by two branches of the Nile, where he in his turn had the mortification to see himself besieged. The Persians at last having, by means of a canal, drained that branch of the Nile in which the Athenian fleet was stationed near the island, Inarus, with his Egyptian adherents and Grecian con-

\* Thucydide's Hist. lib. 1.

federates,

federates, was obliged to surrender on conditions, which were afterwards inhumanly violated by the Persians. Through the solicitations of the mother of Artaxerxes, Inarus was crucified, and the rest of the Egyptian and Athenian prisoners were beheaded.\* Such was the disastrous termination of the war which Inarus, king of Egypt and Lybia, undertook against Artaxerxes. The Egyptians were again reduced to subjection; but their spirit of independence was not extinguished. Amyrtaeus, one of their chiefs, retired with a chosen band into the marshes and other inaccessible situations, until the tenth year of Darius Nothus, when a general revolt of the kingdom taking place, he issued out from his retreat, and putting himself at the head of the patriots, expelled the Persians, and placed himself on the throne of Egypt.† Those revolts of the Egyptians had been constantly favoured by the Greeks, the declared enemies of the Persian power‡.

Egypt having at last thrown off the Persian yoke, was again governed by a succession of native princes, who seem to have been sometimes independent, sometimes tributary to the kings of Persia. In general, however, a hostile system subsisted between the two nations, and Egypt joined in almost every confederacy that was formed against the Persians. After thirty years of this hostile independence, during which period the Egyptians neglected no opportunity of shewing their irreconcilable aversion to the Persians, Artaxerxes Mnemon at last resolved to make a grand effort for the reduction of Egypt. Achoris, who at that time swayed the sceptre of that kingdom, per-

\* Univ. Hist. vol. 2 and 3.

† Euseb. Chron.

‡ Plutarch in Cimone.—Thucydides, ubi supra.

ceiving the impending storm, made the most vigorous preparations for averting the danger with which he was threatened. Before the commencement of the contest, however, Achoris died. The reign of Psammethis, his successor, lasted only a year. After him Nepherotes reigned no more than a month; and Nectanebus then ascended the throne. During this time the Persian preparations had been slowly carried forward; but at length their whole army, consisting of 200,000 Persians, commanded by Pharnabazus, and 20,000 Greeks, under Iphicrates, the famous Athenian general, entered Egypt. Since the Peloponnesian war, the Athenians had changed their system of politics, and were extremely desirous of cultivating the friendship of the great king, in order to counterbalance the power of the Lacedemonians, and the enmity of other Grecian states. They had therefore not only recalled their auxiliary troops from the Egyptian service, but sent to the Persian king the ablest of their generals to command the Greeks, whom he entertained in his pay. The differences, however, which arose between the Persian and the Athenian general, crippled their operations, and they were finally expelled from Egypt.\* After the lapse of twelve years, Artaxerxes, notwithstanding the miscarriage of his former attempt, made preparations for another expedition. Tachos, who had succeeded Nectanebus in the throne of that kingdom, concluded a treaty with the Lacedemonians, who sent him a powerful force under the command of their celebrated king Agesilaus, whom the Egyptian monarch had promised to make generalissimo of his forces. But Tachos, in his first interview with Agesilaus, formed so disadvantageous an idea of that great

\* Univ. Hist. vol. 5, ch. 41.

man, that he never had any regard for his person or counsels. He had expected to see a man of a noble and majestic presence, the splendor of whose dress and equipage, as well as the dignity of his personal appearance, should correspond with the fame of his exploits, and was disgusted, as well as surprised, when he found an old man of a mean and vulgar physiognomy, and clothed in plain apparel. This capricious contempt for the Lacedemonian king, and the consequent neglect of his counsels, however, caused the ruin of Tachos. Having, contrary to the advice of Agesilaus, marched to attack the Persians in Syria, the Egyptians revolted, placed on the throne another king of the name of Nectanebus, and expelled Tachos from the kingdom.

Nectanebus was no sooner seated on the throne, than a powerful competitor, a native Egyptian, at the head of 100,000 men, was ready to dispute with him the possession of the kingdom. Egypt now became the theatre of a civil war, in which Nectanebus was reduced to the last extremity. This prince had for some time been extremely jealous of Agesilaus, and even suspicious of his fidelity to his cause, but found himself at last obliged to confide implicitly in his counsels, and committed to him the whole conduct of the war. Agesilaus soon after defeated, and made prisoner the rival of Nectanebus, who, in consequence of that event, was left in peaceful possession of the kingdom.\*

Nectanebus afterwards entering into a league with the Phœnicians and Cypriots against the Persians, Darius Ochus finding the operations of his lieutenants so ineffectual a remedy for these disorders, resolved

\* Plutarch in Agesilaus,

to take the command of his army in person, and to make one powerful effort for the reduction of Egypt. The army of Nectanebus, consisting of about 20,000 Greeks, and as many Lybians, with 60,000 Egyptians, in all about 100,000, was not equal to a third part of that of the Persians, from which was detached three vast bodies. The first, commanded by Lachares, a Theban, encamped before Pelusium; the second, under Nicostrate, embarking on board the fleet, ascended the Nile, landed in the heart of the country; while Mentor, the Rhodian, who commanded the third division, advancing into the country, every where proclaimed mercy, on condition of submission; but total extermination in case of resistance. Darius, with the main body of the army, remained near Pelusium, in order to regulate the operations according to the events of the war. The Egyptians having made an attack on the entrenchments of Nicostratus, were defeated with great loss, and the garrison of Pelusium, on hearing of this disaster, surrendered on advantageous conditions. The Greeks and Egyptians every where submitted to Darius; and Nectanebus, who had prepared to defend Memphis, seeing the kingdom lost beyond all hopes of recovery, took refuge in Ethiopia.\* This conquest, which terminated the national existence, concludes the history of the ancient Egyptians, who, according to the prediction of the prophet, have never, since this period, had any native king, but have constantly been subject to foreign rulers.† It may therefore not be improper, in this place, to exhibit a sketch of the government, religion, laws, and other social circumstances of this celebrated and extraordinary nation, which constitutes

\* Univ. Hist. vol. 2.

† Ezekiel, ch. 33, ver. 13.

so remarkable, so singular, and in many respects, so mysterious a feature in the history of the world. Every thing, indeed, that relates to a people so celebrated, but so little known, must be interesting, if it could be considered as authentic. But facts are so frequently mixed with fable, and disguised by allegory, that we must often be contented with doubtful information, or loose conjecture. The general outlines, such as are here concisely given, are all that can merit attention; and though volumes have been written on the subject, perhaps this very short compendium comprises all that really is, or can be, known of Egyptian history.

If, however, the historical events of ancient Egypt be for the most part involved in obscurity, or buried in oblivion, we possess much better information relative to the civil, political, and religious economy of that celebrated kingdom. The revolutions in courts, and the operations of armies, are things of a transient nature: when once passed over without accurate observation, or misrepresented through mistake or design, they can no more be brought forward to inspection, and error is perpetuated. But legal institutions, established customs, and general manners, are of a more durable nature, and more exposed to the eye of observation. The government of the ancient Egyptians was ostensibly monarchical, but actually sacerdotal. The king was revered as a god by the people, but kept as a slave by the priests. The employment of his time was exactly regulated: his hours of sleeping and waking were marked out by the laws. The priests assigned him the quantity and quality of his food, and dealt out his wine by measure.\* He was obliged to rise at the break of day to peruse all dis-

\* *Diod. Sicul. lib. 1.*

patches, and issue the necessary orders. He then bathed himself, and being arrayed with the ensigns of royalty, among which was a cap adorned with the figure of a bull, a lion, or a dragon, he went to the temple, where he sacrificed to the gods, and heard read by the priests, the meritorious acts of such of his predecessors as had reigned with strict conformity to the laws, to the end that he might adhere to their maxims, and imitate their example.

The whole landed property of Egypt was divided into three portions,\* of which one was allotted to the priests, another to the soldiery, and the third to the king, out of which he defrayed the expences of government. The sovereign, and the two privileged orders, let out their lands to husbandmen, and none but the king, the priests, and the soldiers, could have any property in the soil.† The crown appears to have been hereditary; but in case of any failure in the royal line, the king could be elected only from the sacerdotal, or the military order; but if from the latter, he was obliged to procure his admission into the priesthood, before he could ascend the throne,‡ so careful was that sacred body to preserve the preponderancy of its influence. The power of the priests indeed was unlimited. They filled all the offices of the state; and the public administration was wholly in their hands. They alone knew all the secret springs, and moved the whole machine of the government. Their sacred functions, as well as their civil authority, secured their dominion over the prince and the soldiery, as well as over the people; for being the sole

\* Dio. Sic. lib. 1.

† Plutarch de Iside and Osirid.

‡ Clemens Alexandrinus Strom. lib. 6.

interpreters



interpreters of the will of the gods, their influence and power rested on the immoveable basis of superstition.

One of the most extraordinary engines that craft ever devised to facilitate the exercise of unlimited dominion over ignorance, was the awful tribunal instituted by the laws of Egypt, for the examination of all claims to funeral honours, which no Egyptian could hope to enjoy but by a decree of the court of judicature, composed of forty judges; and all the judges of Egypt were priests. Before this tremendous jury, the dead were, previous to their interment, brought to trial; and their conduct, during the period of mortal existence, was strictly investigated. From this awful scrutiny, and the consequent sentence, the monarch himself was not exempted. On the day appointed for the royal funeral, this sacred inquest took place, and all complaints and accusations brought forward against the deceased prince were heard and examined. If it was found that he had been a good king, i. e. obedient to the priests, his obsequies were performed with the most solemn pomp; but if his conduct had been refractory, he was deprived of funeral honours, his body was delivered to popular insult, and his name condemned to the execration of posterity. This was the fate of several Egyptian monarchs, who had been so unfortunate or so imprudent, as to incur the displeasure of these holy despots.\*

By so refined a system of policy, the priests of Egypt established and maintained their dominion over the minds of both princes and people; and in the name of the gods extorted obedience from men, Candour, however, must confess, that they seldom

\* Diad. Siculus, lib. 1.

abused their power. Justice was impartially administered, but the laws were not tinctured with cruelty. Although the great body of the people appears to have been in a state of abject depression, personal liberty was respected. In most ancient nations, personal slavery, often including that of wives and children, was the consequence of insolvency. In Egypt, the creditor could seize the property, but not the person of the debtor. The strictest attention was paid to social order, as well as to individual security. Every man was obliged to give in annually to the governor of his province, an attestation of his name and profession, in order to prove that he lived by the exercise of some lawful calling; and to exhibit a false certificate was a capital offence. Perjury was punished with death; and adultery with the infliction of forty stripes on the man, but the woman was exposed to public infamy, by the loss of her nose. Death was invariably the punishment of wilful homicide, whether the person killed were a freeman or a slave. Among the Greeks and the Romans, every master possessed, during many ages, the power of life and death over his slaves. But in Egypt, as no person, however elevated, had in his own hands the power of vengeance, so no person, however abject and mean, was destitute of the protection of the laws. In these respects the legislature of Egypt was far superior to that of ancient Greece and Rome.

The institution of hereditary professions is a striking feature of the social system of Egypt; and its effects have been variously estimated. Some of the Grecian writers, struck with the incessant commotions of their own turbulent republics, have bestowed the

the highest applause on this regulation.\* It has been represented as excellently calculated to repress aspiring ambition, and to promote the perfection of arts, by directing the efforts of ingenuity and industry to certain fixed points; and maturing their productions by the accumulated experience of successive generations. Nothing, however, could more powerfully tend to the depression of genius, than the restraint imposed on its versatility, by this perpetual confinement to the same beaten track; from which any deviation was impossible.† Among the Egyptians, all talents and qualifications, not immediately adapted to the profession of the possessor, were useless to himself and the community. The greatest ingenuity could not convert the son of a husbandman into a mechanic: The greatest strength and courage could not procure him admission into the military order; nor could the most enterprising spirit raise any one above that station in which he was fixed by an irrevocable law of the national constitution.

This division of the people into distinct classes, perpetuated in hereditary descent, is by some considered as having a tendency to create political dissensions; but this appears to be an erroneous estimate of the operation of that singular and enslaving system. It must indeed have in some measure tended to destroy that general union, which ought to subsist among the members of the same community. But this seems to have been the purpose for which it was instituted. The priests of Egypt, and the bramins of India, most probably established these hereditary divisions, separated by the strongest barriers, both civil and religious, that policy could devise, or authority impose, in order

\* *Diod. Siculus, ubi supra.*

† *Ibid, lib. 1.*

to prevent the great body of the people from uniting against the superior orders, in whom all power and property resided. Their success, corresponding with their views, proved how well they were skilled in enslaving mankind; for those countries have invariably displayed an uniform scene of implicit obedience on the part of the people, scarcely ever interrupted by any revolt against priestly power.

The constitution of Egypt, considered in a general view, was certainly oppressive; but the sacerdotal order ruled the nation with a mild and steady despotism, in which no feature of barbarian tyranny can be distinguished. Many of their laws were extremely well calculated for the regulation of society in the first ages of civilization. We cannot, indeed, but consider the priests of that country as profound politicians, perfectly skilled in the knowledge of human nature, and masters in the art of acquiring and exercising power over men. A jealous attention to their own authority and interest, was the leading principle of their politics; but they governed with prudence, as well as with lenity, and power might have been placed in worse hands. By their management, Egypt, which was by nature well fortified by foreign invasion, enjoyed a greater share of internal tranquillity than any other country of the ancient world.

*Religion.* }—Whether Zabaism was communicated from Chaldea to Egypt, or whether in the latter, as well as in the former country, it took its rise from the visible splendor of the celestial orbs, no researches can now ascertain; but that it was the most ancient religion of the Egyptians is generally allowed.\* The heavenly bodies, indeed, seem to have every where

\* Warton's *Divine Legation*, book 4.

been the first objects of idolatrous worship. Man must, even in the rudest state, perceive that the fortuitous events of life, as well as the operations of nature, are beyond the reach of his regulation or control. Conscious of his own inability, he is naturally inclined to suppose the existence of superior powers,\* the arbiters of mundane affairs, and to offer up his homage in order to deprecate their wrath, or conciliate their favour. But the nature and attributes of those rulers of the world is difficult to discover. The untutored mind is bewildered in the investigation of subjects so much above its comprehension; and in proportion as simple reason, or active imagination preponderates, visible or invisible beings become the objects of adoration. In a state of unenlightened nature, the celestial bodies seem to be the objects most likely to impress on the mind of man ideas of majesty and power. The notion of one Supreme and Universal Being, the Creator and Governor of the universe, requires an elevation and compass of thought, inconsistent with the narrow conceptions of uncultivated minds. An idea so sublime must be formed by philosophy, or instilled by revelation. Among all Pagan nations Theism was the religion of philosophers, Polytheism that of the multitude: the latter, indeed, was among the enlightened part generally admitted in subordination to Theism, while among the vulgar it degenerated into gross idolatry.†

The deities, which were worshipped with the most profound veneration in Egypt, were Osiris and Isis, names originally given to the sun and moon, which the Egyptians in the rude ages, after tradition had

\* Thorne's Hist. Nat. Relig. sect. 3.

† See what is said on this subject under the article of Babylon.

lost, and before reason had regained the idea of one Supreme God, had probably regarded as the rulers of the universe.\* In later times, when the physiological system was introduced, they seem still to have been used as titles, under which the Supreme Being was worshipped. Various theories of the Egyptian mythology have been formed, and volumes have been written, in order to ascertain the ideas affixed to these mythical names.† Some have considered them as princes, whom superstition had deified; but the most learned inquirers suppose them to be allegorical personages, and the reign of the gods a mythical legend. The various application of names used to designate the supreme Being considered in the exercise of his different attributes, and in the different elements, with a variety of physiological circumstances, not marked with accuracy, and obscured by the changes of language and the revolution of human ideas, is one of the principal causes of the unintelligibility of most of the systems of Pagan theology. The religion and philosophy of the Egyptians constituted a tissue of allegorical representation. They allegorized the early periods of history, and threw a mystical veil over the operations and appearances of nature. The Greeks attempted to unravel the intricate network; but not distinguishing between real and mythical beings, they have formed confused and unintelligible systems, and involved succeeding inquirers in a labyrinth of difficulty.

The use of symbolical representations among the Egyptians, as well as in other Pagans, introduced the

\* Diod. Sicul. lib. 1.

† Plutarch, de Iside et Osiride, who gives their whole history. Univ. Hist. vol. 2, et seq.

grossest idolatry. But the idolatry of Egypt was distinguished from that of every other people, by a peculiar feature, which has excited the astonishment of posterity. Their physiological theology induced them to make use of different animals as emblems of the Divine attributes, and of the phenomena of nature. This gave rise to that monstrous system of brute worship, which exhibited in so degrading a point of view the superstition of that celebrated people. The serpent appears to have been adopted as the emblem of eternity, as well as of the origin of evil, by the most ancient nations, and to have been frequently introduced into the mysteries of Paganism.\* But among the Egyptians alone the living reptile was deified. For the worship of the sacred bull, called Apis, who, on the death of his predecessor, had the honour of a solemn deification in the temple of Vulcan at Memphis, writers both ancient and modern have assigned different reasons; but the powerful influence of the sun in Taurus, seems to point out the most rational mode of explaining this famous symbol, so long the object of Egyptian veneration. The fable of the soul of Osiris passing into that animal was probably invented to express, in an allegorical manner, the genial and vivifying spirit which animates all nature when the sun enters that constellation. As the meaning of these symbols was entirely unknown to the vulgar, an ignorant and superstitious people regarded them as the ultimate objects of adoration. Not only the serpent and the bull, but almost every beast, bird, fish, and reptile, was the object of Egyptian idolatry. But all the sacred animals were not worshipped in the same

\* *Ælien, hist. animal, lib. 17. Arnobius, contra gentes, lib. 8. Divus Legation, book 4.*

part of the kingdom. Each city had its peculiar animal, the object of its religious veneration; and that which one district adored, another detested. From this circumstance arose a perpetual antipathy among their votaries, which concurred with the hereditary division of classes to prevent any combination of the people against the privileged orders. Such were the artifices by which sacerdotal policy maintained unlimited power and dominion.\*

Nothing can exhibit a more striking picture of Egyptian superstition, than the fanatical fury with which the people were transported against any person who happened, although unintentionally, to kill any of their sacred animals, and their extravagant sorrow when any of them died by disease or accident.† When Ptolemy Auletes was negotiating a treaty of amity with the Romans, the Egyptians, conscious that they were entirely at the mercy of that conquering people, loaded the Roman deputies and their attendants with caresses, and took every care to avoid any cause of quarrel or disgust. During that season of solicitude and apprehension, however, a cat happened to be accidentally killed by one of the Romans. As soon as the affair was known, the populace of Alexandria, transported with fanatical fury, ran to his lodgings, and neither the officers whom the king sent to quell the riot, nor the dread of the vengeance of Rome could prevent the man from being torn in pieces by the enraged multitude. Of this Diodorus Siculus informs us that he was an eye witness during his travels in Egypt. Various instances of this kind are met with on record; and it is well known that, in the whole

\* Diod. Sicul. lib. 1.

† Herodot. lib. 2. cap. 65, and 66.



mass of the Egyptian populace, there was scarcely a man or a woman, who would not have braved the greatest dangers to protect the life of the sacred bull, or to avenge his death. A modern reader is astonished at contemplating such a picture of human superstition, which so strikingly shews what extravagant notions the mind may imbibe, when neither tutored by philosophy, nor enlightened by revelation, those two great luminaries of the intellectual world.

Without attempting to account systematically for all these absurdities, or entering into a detail of religious creeds and ceremonies, it suffices to observe, that the Egyptian priests, like all other enlightened pagans, acknowledged one supreme Being, the great first cause of all; but this doctrine was studiously concealed from the people. The learned Bishop Warburton exhibits an exact delineation of the outlines of the religious system of Egypt, in these words. "One of the chief maxims of Egyptian wisdom, as applied to religious matters, was, that the government of the world was committed, by the supreme Ruler, into the hands of subordinate, local, and tutelar deities; that these were the proper objects of public and popular religion; and that the knowledge of the only one God, the Creator of all things, was highly dangerous to be communicated to the people; but was to be secreted and shut up in their mysteries; and that these were only to be communicated to a few, and those only the wise and learned, and ruling part of mankind."\* The motive which induced them to consider the promulgation of this fundamental principle of all rational religion as dangerous to

\* Divine Legation, book 4, sect: 6.

the state, seems difficult to ascertain. Perhaps they might think that such a revolution in popular ideas could not take place, without being productive of political commotions; but it is more probable that they might regard this doctrine as too simple for a public religion, and apprehend that their influence would be diminished, if the multitude were informed that an omnipresent and omnipotent Being existed, who could at all times hear their petitions, and grant their requests; and who might be invoked without those mysterious rites, of which their priests and politicians were the sole regulators: It seems to have been for such reasons that the grand object of the Egyptian, as well as the Babylonian, and after them the Greek and Roman priests, was to conceal from the people the practicability of having any communication with the Ruler of the universe, except through their intervention.

*Arts, Learning, Commerce, and Popular Manners.*

—The Egyptians were esteemed a scientific people; and their learning excited the admiration of the ancient world. The primitive sages of Greece travelled into Egypt in order to learn the principles of religion and philosophy from the priests,\* whom they regarded as the first masters of divine and human knowledge. Any estimate, however, of their literature can only be conjectural. None of their productions have descended to us; and all that we know of their history, their religion and civil polity has been communicated to the world through the medium of Greek writers. But whatever was the extent of their learning and philosophy, these attainments were wholly

\* Strabo, lib. 17.

confined to the sacerdotal order, and enveloped in a veil of allegory, unintelligible to all who were not initiated in their sacred mysteries.\* The priests were the depositaries not only of religion, but also of science; and their vanity was at the least equal to their knowledge. They claimed the honour of being the inventors of every art and science, as well as of letters, by which knowledge is so easily communicated. They pretended to be the first people who erected temples for the worship of the gods, appointed festivals to their honour, and induced them to speak by oracles, which delusive art they carried to the highest perfection. In regard to the invention of letters, it is no weak argument in favour of their claim, that Moses was acquainted with their use, which he appears to have learned in Egypt, although Sir Isaac Newton rather supposes him to have made that acquisition during his residence among the Midianites.† The Phœnicians, however, have some claim to that invention, the noblest effort of human genius; for it is generally supposed that Cadmus introduced the Phœnician alphabet into Greece, A. A. C. 1519, and twenty-nine years before the egress of the Israelites from Egypt. But it is not improbable that the Phœnician characters were no other than those used in Egypt, and imported from that country into Phœnicia. In fine, it appears from a variety of circumstances, that the Egyptians have the best claim to the honour of that invention. Strabo allows to them also the invention of geometry; but ascribes to the Phœnicians that of arithmetic, as well as the discovery of

\* Clemens Alexandrinus, Strom. lib. 5.

† Newton, Chron. ancient kingdoms, p. 212.

the use of the pole-star in nocturnal navigation.\* That the Egyptians had made a considerable progress in astronomical knowledge, is proved beyond contradiction, by their computation of the year to 365 days and six hours, and by their calculation of eclipses.† A little reflection on the machinery requisite for the erection of their wonderful obelisks and stupendous edifices must also convince us that they were well skilled in the principles of mechanics. The genius of the Egyptians appears to have been acute and steady, rather than elevated or brilliant. Their works of ingenuity and labour, which they carried on with astonishing perseverance, and often at an enormous expence, were distinguished by mathematical exactness, rather than by elegance of taste. Their architecture displayed a bulky magnificence, but wanted that beautiful symmetry, which afterwards characterised the Grecian orders.‡ Their statues also, which were mostly colossal, displayed neither elegance of figure, graceful attitude, nor animated expression. Their paintings, so remarkable for the brilliancy and durability of the colours, were destitute of every other excellence; and it does not appear that they ever cultivated poetry or music, although both these were, on some occasion, employed in celebrating the rites of religion.§

\* Strabo, lib. 16. Dioñ. Sicul. lib. 1.

† Their calculation of eclipses is not certain, for Pliny informs us that Thales of Miletus was the first who made that calculation, Pliny, lib. 2, cap. 12. It is, however, presumed that Thales learned his astronomy from the Egyptians.

‡ Strabo, lib. 17. Winkelmann de l'Art de l'Antiq. liv. 2, chap. 1, 2, and 3. Denon's plates. Norden's and Pocock's ditto.

§ Herodot. lib. 2, cap. 79.

Of the commerce of ancient Egypt, few particulars are known. The situation of their country, almost in the centre of the old continent, was peculiarly favourable to commercial pursuits. Their proximity to the Red Sea, opening to them the nearest route to India, afforded an easy communication with the rich countries of the East. To the south they had almost the exclusive possession of the means of communication with the interior of Africa, which the ancients included under the general appellation of Ethiopia. On the north they had a still greater facility of intercourse with Phœnicia, and the maritime countries of Asia Minor. From the natural fertility of its soil, and the perfection of its agriculture, Egypt must have furnished a redundancy of indigenous produce. A people so powerful, and so opulent, must have had a considerable trade to procure a supply of such materials as their country did not produce, especially of metals, an article so necessary for every purpose of life. Whether the primitive trade with oriental countries was carried on by the Egyptians themselves, or through the medium of the Arabians, is unknown. In the time of Jacob, the Ishmaelites and the Midianites traded with their caravans into Egypt,\* and probably the Arabians long continued that kind of intercourse. The ancient Egyptians had, for a long time, a superstitious aversion to the sea, and even against sea-faring people. They were strongly attached to their own country;† and the Egyptian leaders who established colonies in Greece, seem to have been violently expelled, rather than voluntary emigrants. It is generally supposed that the Egyp-

\* Genesis, chap. 37.

† Plutarch de Iside et Osiride. Clemens Alexand. Strom. lib. 3.

tians never applied themselves to maritime affairs before the reign of Sesostris, although we cannot give implicit credit to what Diodorus Siculus says of his navy.\* From that time, however, it appears extremely probable that the Egyptians applied themselves to maritime affairs, although no intercourse was opened with Greece until the time of Pharaoh Psamniticus, 670 years before the Christian æra; and it is almost certain that, previous to his reign, no Egyptian vessel had ever appeared on the Mediterranean.† Egypt, from its early population and splendour, may be reasonably presumed to have been one of the first countries that gave rise to commerce. Herodotus, in his division of the Egyptian classes, expressly names the merchants; although Diodorus Siculus, who, from posteriority of time, must be regarded as an inferior authority, does not make the same distinction, but seems to include the traders with the mechanics. The early Egyptians, however, seem to have made agriculture their primary, and trade only their secondary object of industrious pursuit. In the former, perhaps, they have never been excelled; in the latter, however, they were soon surpassed by the Tyrians. Under the latter Pharaohs, maritime affairs began greatly to attract the attention of the ruling part of the nation, as it appears from the circumnavigation of Africa by the vessels of Necho; if the fact, which rests on the authority of Herodotus, be considered as authentic. But the Egyptian mariners appear to have been unequal to such distant voyages; and those of Tyre were

\* Diod. Siculus, lib. 1.

† Sir J. Marsden seems to think that the Egyptians never applied themselves to navigation till the reign of the Ptolemies. Chron. sect. 14.

employed

employed in this perilous expedition.\* The canal begun by that prince for the purpose of connecting the Red Sea with the Mediterranean, although left incomplete, was also an indication of extensive commercial views. But how defective soever history may be, in regard to the progressive details of a pacific system, or how much soever they may be enveloped in the shades of antiquity, the geographical position, and local circumstances of Egypt, and still more her early civilization, and the magnificent remains of her ancient grandeur, afford a just presumption, that even in times of remote antiquity, her trade must have been considerable.

The philosophical observer of human affairs, who delights to contemplate man in the lower, as well as the more elevated stations of life, and under the different modifications of system, opinion and prejudice, will, perhaps, from this view of the religion and civil polity of Egypt, find it not difficult to make a more exact estimate of the popular character, and to delineate in his mind a more accurate picture of the general state of society, in that celebrated country, during the ages now under consideration, than might, at this distance of time, be expected. The great mass of the people, destitute of landed property, debased by ignorance, bewildered with superstition, and confined to the narrow track of hereditary professions, by which genius was depressed, and the spirit of enterprize extinguished, presents the uniform and

\* It may here be observed, that Solomon, in fitting out his fleets, employed Tyrian, not Egyptian mariners; although if the latter had been equally skilful, they might have been readily procured, through his affinity with the king of Egypt, whose daughter he had married. It must also be remarked that Solomon was prior to Sesostris, if that prince be the Shishak of the Scripture.

pacific spectacle of a numerous assemblage of men enjoying the sweets of tranquillity, the fruits of industry, and perhaps most of the conveniences of life, in a state of political slavery and mental degradation. When, therefore, we find the Egyptians represented as a learned and scientific nation, the instructors of the Greeks, the description must be considered as exclusively appropriated to the priests, and in no respect applicable to the people, who were held in a state of intellectual darkness, the blindfolded slaves of a degrading superstition, which precluded the exercise of reason, and the radiance of philosophy.

In such a state of degradation, it is no wonder that the human mind, divested of its energy, and of its reasoning powers, should acquire a particular cast. Nor is it surprising that ideas so long current, should be difficult to eradicate, or that fetters so strongly riveted on the mind by the force of religion and laws, should be difficult to break. The Egyptians were, by their gloomy system, tinged with melancholy, and noted for a sullen inflexibility of temper.\* Numbers of the inhabitants of Alexandria, of whom the chief part were of Grecian descent, had, at an early period, embraced Christianity; but it was difficult, even in the time of Origen, about the middle of the third century, to find an Egyptian, of the native race, who had surmounted his prejudices in favour of the sacred animals of his country.†

Egypt being finally reduced by Darius Ochus A. A. C. 350, remained subject to the Persians, and in the most abject state of depression, until the subversion of their empire by Alexander, whom the Egyptians

\* Ann. Marcell. 23, cap. 16.

† Origen, contra Celsum, lib. 1. 40.



received as a deliverer rather than a conqueror.\* On the partition of Alexander's empire among his generals, this country was seized by Ptolemy Lagus, and erected into a Grecian kingdom. Under the government of its Grecian monarchs, Egypt once more became a flourishing kingdom, illustrious in science, and powerful in arms; and Alexandria, its new capital, which Alexander had founded about two years before his completion of the conquest of Persia, rapidly increasing in commerce, in wealth, and population, was, after the destruction of Carthage, the greatest emporium in the world. Ptolemy Soter, the second of this dynasty, founded the famous Alexandria college and library, the management of which he committed to Demetrius Phalereus, a noble and learned Athenian.† His successor, Ptolemy Philadelphus, was one of the most illustrious and munificent patrons of science and letters, that ever took the Muses under protection. He caused the Hebrew scriptures to be translated into Greek by seventy-two interpreters, whom he sent back to Jerusalem loaded with magnificent presents,‡ and collected books at a vast expence from all quarters. The Alexandrian library is said by some to have contained 500,000, by others, 700,000 volumes. The numbers are probably exaggerated; but the concurrent testimonies of successive ages agree, that this was the noblest and most ample collection of literature ever known in the an-

\* The parok of Egypt from the Persians had continued sixty-four years, during which period eight Egyptian kings had swayed the sceptre. Eusebius Chron.

† Ptolemy Soter, the son of Lagus, began his reign 306 years A. Christian, and was succeeded by Ptolemy Philadelphus in the year A. C. 279. And. Tab. p. 99.

‡ Josephus Antiq. Jud. lib. 12.

cient world. The patronage of this illustrious prince was with equal liberality extended to the arts, in which he himself was excellently skilled, and has left behind him many splendid palaces, magnificent temples, and other superb edifices, as memorials of his reign. His court exhibited a galaxy of learned men, among whom, four famous poets, Theocritus, Callimachus, Aratus, and Lycophron, have left some specimens of their talents. As a learned prince and a patron of letters, the name of Ptolemy Philadelphus will ever be illustrious in history. He was succeeded A. A. C. 217, by Ptolemy Euergetes, who imitated his example in patronizing learning, and adorning the Alexandrian library.\* Ptolemy Euergetes was a politic and successful prince. Having subdued all Syria, and extended his conquests as far as the Tigris, he gave sacrifices to be offered in the temple of Jerusalem, in thanksgiving for his victories, and returned to Egypt laden with spoils, among which were 2500 images of the Egyptian gods, which had been carried away by Cambyses, and which Ptolemy restored to their ancient temples.† By this act of liberal condescension to their religious prejudices, he completely gained the affections of the native Egyptians, who gave him the name of Euergetes, or the Benefactor. This was the last good prince of the race of the Ptolemies. The succeeding monarchs of that dynasty were in general monsters of wickedness and cruelty. Of all these, Ptolemy Physcon was the most detestable. His tyrannical conduct drove great numbers of the inha-

\* And. Royal Genral. tab. p. 29.

† It is somewhat surprising that these idols had not been destroyed; but perhaps Cambyses had caused them to be preserved as monuments of his conquest.

bitants of Alexandria to forsake the city. Among these were many learned men, who fled into Greece and Asia Minor, and revived all kinds of learning in those countries. It is here worthy observation, that in consequence of the violent convulsions which followed the death of Alexander, learning had greatly declined among the Greeks, both of Europe and Asia, and might perhaps have been totally extinguished, had it not been revived by the fugitives of Alexandria. Such were the important effects of the literary efforts of Ptolemy Soter, and of his son, the celebrated Ptolemy Philadelphus, in establishing the Alexandrian college and library. Physcon having caused the youth of Alexandria to be massacred by his mercenary troops, excited a general revolt of the citizens, who obliged him to flee into Cyprus. The tyrant then sent for his son, who was governor of Cyrene, and put him to death, through the apprehensions that the Alexandrians might place him on the throne. He also murdered another of his sons, whom his wife, Cleopatra, who was also his sister, had borne to him: and having caused his body to be cut in pieces and put in a box, sent it to the unhappy mother, to be presented to her among the dishes of entertainment on the approaching festival of her birthday. After committing unparalleled cruelties, and almost depopulating Alexandria by repeated massacres, Ptolemy Physcon died in the year 117 before the Christian æra.\* The race of the Ptolemies reigned in Egypt till it became extinct in the celebrated Cleopatra, who was equally famous for her accomplishments and her vices. From the commencement of

\* And, Royal Genesl. Tab. p. 34.

the reign of Ptolemy, the most striking features of the history of this Grecian kingdom of Egypt, are the vices of its princes, and the repeated revolts of Alexandria. The people of that vast city, formidable by their wealth and numbers, were not less turbulent than their princes were tyrannical; and almost every reign was agitated by their seditions. Besides the tyrant Ptolemy already mentioned, three others of these Egyptian monarchs, Ptolemy Alexander I. Ptolemy Alexander II. and Ptolemy Auletes, were expelled by the Alexandrians, although the crown was always continued in the same royal race.\* Ptolemy Dionysius, and the celebrated Cleopatra, his sister and wife, began their joint reign about fifty years before the Christian era. But Cleopatra being expelled by Ptolemy, fled for protection to Julius Cæsar, who, after the battle of Pharsalia, had pursued Pompey into Egypt, that kingdom being in alliance with Rome, and was then in Alexandria, with a Roman legion.† Ptolemy raised the Alexandrian populace: Cæsar was closely besieged in his quarters: Achilles, the Egyptian general, advanced at the same time to Alexandria; and an attempt was made to seize the Roman fleet in the harbour. But Cæsar having seized the tower of Pharos, burned the Egyptian fleet; and the flames being communicated to the buildings that were close to the shore, a great part of the famous Alexandrian library was unfortunately destroyed by

\* Ptol. Alexander I. was expelled about the 89th; Ptolemy Alexander II. about the 65th; and Ptolemy Auletes about the 57th year before the Christian era. *And. Roy. Genal. Tab.* p. 32, 35.

† It is scarcely necessary to mention that Pompey had already been slain, and that his head was presented to Cæsar on his arrival. *Pistarch* in Pompeio, and in Cæsare.

this disastrous conflagration.\* Cæsar being still besieged in Alexandria, and the supplies of water cut off by the Egyptian army, was obliged to dig deep wells in order to obtain that necessary article. At last leaving the city, he sailed to Libya, in order to bring fresh forces, having previously secured the port, and fortified that quarter of the city which was held by the Romans. Returning with a veteran legion, he defeated the Egyptian fleet commanded by Ganimedes; but having landed at the tower of Pharos, he met with a repulse, and with great difficulty effected his retreat. It was on this memorable occasion, that in making his escape to the fleet, he swam with one hand, and in the other carried some valuable manuscripts. The war was now carried on with great vigour, till at last the Egyptian army being totally defeated in the field by Cæsar, Ptolemy was drowned in attempting to escape in a boat across the Nile, and Cleopatra, in conjunction with her younger brother, then only eleven years old, was constituted sovereign of Egypt † A. A. C. 47. She repaired the damages that Alexandria had received, made great collections of books for the library which had suffered so dreadful a loss, and reigned in the most luxuriant splendour. Her subsequent transactions, in conjunction with Mark Anthony, are amply related by Plutarch, and universally known. ‡ Their disastrous war with Octavius, afterwards Augustus, and their final catastrophe, are stories familiar to all readers of history. Egypt,

\* Plutarch mentions in express terms the destruction of the library. *Vita Julii Cæsaris.*

† For the account of this war, see *Hist. de Bello Alexandrino*, and *Plutarch in Cæsare.*

‡ Their interesting and curious history is related in *Plutarch Vita M. Antonii.*

after

after having constituted an independent monarchy during the space of 294 years, was reduced to a Roman province, in which state it continued till it was subdued by the Arabians under Amron, the lieutenant of the caliph Omar, A. D. 641. Egypt was one of the most potent kingdoms that had risen out of the fragments of Alexander's dominions, and the last existing portion of that mighty empire, which the Greeks had erected on the ruins of Persia. The Ptolemies reigned not only over Egypt, but also over Cyprus, and a considerable part of Syria. Alexandria was, after the fall of Carthage, the greatest commercial city in the world; and after its subjection to the Roman dominion, it still maintained that rank, being the great mart of Indian trade. It was fifteen miles in circuit, being inferior only to Rome in extent; and before the building of Constantinople, was the second city of the empire.\* Famed for learning and philosophy, not less than for commerce and wealth, Alexandria rivalled Rome and Athens in the number and celebrity of her schools and literati. The inhabitants, however, retained their seditious character, and the same proneness to revolt that distinguished them under their native princes. The seditions of Alexandria often affected the tranquillity and subsistence of Rome, of which Egypt and Sicily were the two granaries. In one of these revolts, Alexandria supported a siege of eight months against the emperor Dioclesian, who having rendered his camp impregnable to the sallies of the besieged, and cut off all their supplies of water from the Nile,† at last reduced

\* Pliny's Hist. Nat. vol. 5, p. 10. s. Strabo, lib. 17.

† This facility of cutting off the supply of water seems to be the grand defect of the situation of Alexandria; although Mr. Baldwin thinks that it might be rendered almost impregnable. Recollections, p: 61

the city by blockade, and almost wasted it by fire and sword. But Alexandria, from its commercial situation, commanding the trade between Europe and India, had always the good fortune to retrieve, in a short time, its misfortunes. After the fall of the western empire, Egypt remained a valuable appendage to that of the east, and of which Alexandria was the second city, being in extent, magnificence, wealth, and population, next to Constantinople, and the principal granary of that metropolis, as it had formerly been of Rome. After Christianity had made a considerable progress in Egypt, the schools of Alexandria were not less celebrated for the abstruse speculations of theology, than for philosophical studies. In this city were born or educated many of the most learned fathers of the church, as well as a multitude of theologians, whom orthodoxy has stigmatized with the title of heretics. A very considerable proportion indeed of those fanciful opinions and theological controversies, which so violently agitated the church during the third and fourth centuries, originated in the seminaries of this city; and Alexandria was equal, if not superior, to Constantinople itself, as a distinguished theatre of civil and religious factions.\* These, however, were not productive of any important revolution, till religious persecution drove them to favour the Saracen invasion.

In this state, as a province of the Greek empire, Egypt remained till the year 698, when it was destined to undergo a revolution, as important and extraordinary as any that it had ever experienced. Pales-

\* Clemens Alexandrinus, Origen, Arius, and a multitude of other Christian theologians, both orthodox and heterodox, were natives of Alexandria, or pupils of the Alexandrian schools.

tine and Syria had already been subjugated by the victorious arms of Abu Obeidah, Caled and Amrou, the lieutenants of the caliph Omar. Amrou, who from his camp in Palestine marched to the conquest of Egypt, is said to have anticipated the orders of his sovereign. The forces with which he undertook this great enterprize, are said to have amounted to no more than about 4000 Arabs. Pelusium was his first acquisition. From thence he proceeded to Memphis, which, although in a declining state, displayed some remains of ancient magnificence, and was still a place of such strength as to arrest the progress of the conquerors during a siege of seven months, in the course of which they were sometimes surrounded and threatened by the inundation of the Nile.\* Having received a reinforcement of 4000 Arabians, with battering engines, from Syria, Amrou at length carried the city by assault. The small army of the Saracens, however, would have been totally inadequate to the conquest of Egypt, had not the people been alienated from the government of Heraclius by religious persecution, which is always calculated to convert subjects into rebels. The polemical controversy of monothelism, or the unintelligible dispute concerning the existence of one or two wills in Christ; in other words, whether the Divine and human wills were united in his person, had produced a general disaffection. The emperor considered and treated his Egyptian subjects as heretics, while they, on the contrary, regarded him not as the protector, but as the persecutor of Christianity. Thus, unintelligible controversies and incomprehensible creeds, which reason would rank among metaphysical fancies, acquiring from human folly a

\* Gibbon's *Dec. Rom. Emp.* vol. 9. ch. 51.

religious



religious and political importance, become fertile sources of persecution, of treachery, and rebellion.\* The Egyptians were not less ardently attached to their monotheitism than their ancestors ten centuries before were to the worship of the god Apis: such are the revolutions of human ideas. At the period of the Saracen invasion, the Greeks, who persecuted them on account of a Christian controversy, were not less detested than the Persians, who sacrilegiously feasted on the flesh of the sacred bull, had formerly been; and the disaffection of the Egyptians to their government promoted the designs of Amrou as much as they had before advanced those of Alexander. The Copts unanimously favoured the Saracen invasion, and swore allegiance to the caliph, who required only obedience and tribute as the price of religious liberty and protection. The Greeks, whose numbers were scarcely equal to one-tenth of the native Egyptians, were overwhelmed in the general defection. They retreated from the Upper Egypt; and the Saracens advanced to Alexandria, which was then the first commercial city of the world, and abundantly replenished with the means of subsistence and defence. The native Egyptians attached themselves with ardour to the service of Amrou. Strong reinforcements arrived in his camp. The tribes of the desert, and the veterans from Syria, flocked to his standard, and the merit of a holy war was recommended by the value of the prize. On the other hand, a numerous population, fighting for religion and property, made a resolute defence. The almost daily sallies of the Alexandrians were constantly repulsed by the besieg-

\* For the history of the monotheite controversy, see Gibbon's *Decl. Rom. Emp.* ch. 47.

ers, who, in their turn, made incessant attacks. At length, in the year 640, after a siege of fourteen months, and the loss of about 23,000 men, the Saracens made themselves masters of Alexandria,\* perhaps the most difficult, but without doubt the most valuable of their conquests. The Greeks were at this time masters of the sea; and if Heraclius had been animated with the same spirit as in the Persian war, fresh armies pouring in from Europe, might have baffled all the efforts of the enemy, and saved the capital of Egypt. In the succeeding reign, however, the clamours of the people of Constantinople, of which this country had been lately the granary, as formerly of Rome, compelled the court to attempt the recovery of Alexandria. The Byzantine fleets and armies twice occupied the place, but were as often expelled by the valour and conduct of Amrou, who thrice made himself master of the capital of Egypt before the conquest was confirmed.

The famous and apparently fabulous story of the destruction of the Alexandrian library, is known to every man of learning, and almost to every school-boy. It appears, however, an extremely doubtful fact, and rests on the sole authority of Abulpharagius, who says, that this magnificent literary monument of the reigns of the Ptolemies, which Amrou would gladly have spared, was destroyed by the command of Omar, who assigned, as a reason for this procedure, "that if the books agreed with the koran, they were useless, and need not be preserved; but if they disagreed, they were pernicious, and ought to be destroyed." Mr. Gibbon, however, professes himself

\* For the siege and capture of Alexandria, see Gibbon's *Dec. Rom. Emp.* vol. 9, ch. 51, on the authorities of Eusebius, Elmacin, and Rossetus.

inclined to doubt of the fact; and judiciously balances against the solitary report of a stranger,\* who wrote on the confines of Media 600 years after the event, the silence of two annalists of a more early date, both Christians, both natives of Egypt, and the more ancient of whom, the patriarch Eutychiüs, has amply described the conquest of Alexandria.† Indeed, it is somewhat surprising, that neither Eutychiüs, Elmacin, Abulfeda, nor Murtadi, mentions so remarkable a fact, and that it should be found in no other author, Christian or Mahometan, but only in the dynasties of Abulpharagius, who was so posterior in time, and so distant in place, from the scene of the transaction. The historian here quoted, is rather inclined to think that the famed Alexandrian library, which had been partly consumed in Cæsar's Alexandrian war, had partly perished through the zeal of the Christians for the destruction of books of idolatry; and deduces from ancient writers strong presumptive proofs, that only the fragments of that famous collection existed at the time of the Saracen invasion.‡ If, therefore, the world were less fond of a marvellous tale, Omar and Amrou might perhaps be acquitted of the destruction of these monuments of the learning, the arts, and the genius of antiquity.

Egypt being now completely subjugated, the Arabians had nothing left to do but to secure and improve their conquest. Under the prudent administration of Amrou, the canals and dykes were annu-

\* Abulpharagius.

† See Gibbon, *ubi supra*.

‡ Mr. Gibbon founds this probable supposition on Aulus Gellius Noctes Atticæ, vol. 6; and Ammianus Marcellinus, who scarcely leaves a doubt on the subject. See Plutarch also in Vita Julii Cæsaris.

ally repaired. The fertility of Egypt supplied the barrenness of Arabia; and strings of camels, loaded with corn and provisions, covered almost the whole length of the road from Memphis to Medina.\* The plans of inland navigation, which had been attempted or executed by the Pharaohs, the Ptolemies, and the Cæsars, were revived by the genius of Amrou; and a canal was opened from the Nile to the Red Sea. Of the state of the country in regard to its population and opulence at this period, some sketch might here be expected; but the wild exaggerations of writers, who make the number of inhabitants amount to 20,000,000, and the revenues of the caliphs to 300,000,000, calculations so contrary to the more sober estimates of ancient and modern times, serve only to display the romantic folly of historians.† This subject must therefore be thrown into the class of uncertainties.

From the Arabian conquest the history of Egypt becomes a less curious and interesting feature in that of mankind. The subjugation of the northern parts of Africa, and afterwards of Spain, had followed in succession, and given to the empire of the caliphs a greater extent than those of the Persians, the Macedonians, and the Romans had ever possessed. But this enormous empire, like most others of a similar origin and construction, after being agitated by numerous revolts and violent commotions, at last split asunder, and formed itself into separate and often hostile states. About the year 800, under the cali-

\* Eutychius and Elmacin, apud Gibbon, vol. 9, ch. 51.

† Josephus assigns 7,500,000 to Egypt when in its most flourishing state as a Roman province under Vespasian, de Bello Judaico, lib. 2. cap. 16: but in this calculation he does not include Alexandria.

phate of the famous Harun-el-Rashid, Africa was erected into an independent empire by its viceroy Ibraim-ben-Aghleb, who maintained himself in his revolt, and transmitted the sceptre to his posterity. Zindet, his successor, subjugated Sicily; but the conquest of that valuable island does not appear to have been completed, or at least secured till A. D. 877, when the great commercial city of Syracuse was taken, after a siege of nine months, and all the inhabitants put to the sword. The conquerors found there an immense booty. This dynasty ruled over eastern Africa, from Egypt to Morocco, till A. D. 908, when Obeid-Ullah usurped the sovereign authority. This prince having expelled Ziadet-Ullah, the last of the Aglabites, founded the Fatimite dynasty. This family, which had arisen among the Arabs of Egypt, pretended to deduce its origin from Fatime, the daughter of Mahomet, and wife of Ali. Abul Cassim, his son, made an attempt to add Egypt to his dominions, and actually made himself master of Alexandria. But his armies being totally defeated by those of the caliph of Bagdad, his design was frustrated. Aber-Tummin, one of his successors, however, was more fortunate. He sent a formidable army into Egypt, under the command of Jeuhar, a Greek, who succeeded in making a conquest of the country. This general is said to have laid the foundation of Cairo, to which he gave the name of Kahira, or the victorious, by which it is yet called by the Arabs. Aber-Tummin fixed his residence at Cairo, which he made the capital of his kingdom. Thus was Egypt wrested from the caliphs of Bagdad about 300 years after it was conquered by Amrou. It was now erected into an independent caliphate; and Dahir, the fourth caliph,

carrying his arms into Syria, made himself master of Aleppo, which, however, he was obliged to abandon; and in the reign of his successor most of the Egyptian possessions in Syria were lost. In the year 1098, the Egyptian caliph, Mostali, conquered Jerusalem from the Turks; but the croisades now taking place, that city was captured soon after by Godfrey, earl of Boulogne. The dynasty of the Fatimites terminated in Aded, who died in 1171: and Salah-ed-din, the famous Saladin of the Christian writers, a Kurd by nation, and a soldier of fortune, having usurped the sovereignty, assumed the title of sultan of Egypt. This monarch having formed the design of adding Syria to his empire, proved a terrible enemy to the croisaders. In 1177, he was defeated by Raimond de Chatillon; but five years afterwards he captured Aleppo. In 1187, he gained a decisive victory over the Christians; and in the same year made himself master of Jerusalem. The croisaders, however, having, after a siege of two years, captured Akka, or Acre, the ancient Ptolemais, Salah-ed-din concluded a truce with Richard I. king of England. By this treaty the Christians were left in possession of Acre and Jaffa, almost the only remains of their conquests in the east. Salah-ed-din died in 1193, in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and the twenty-second of a glorious reign. Although this great prince left sixteen sons, his posterity was soon hurled from the throne, which, about seven years after his death, was usurped by Adel-Sief-ed-din, his brother. Under the successors of this prince, the croisaders made several attempts on Egypt. In 1249, St. Louis, king of France, seized on Damietta; but in the following year was captured, with his whole army of about 20,000 men, by the  
sultan,

sultan, Turan Shah. In 1250, Turan was massacred by the Mamelukes, who placed on the throne a youth of the royal line; but afterwards themselves usurped the sovereignty. These Mamelukes were originally Turkish slaves, whom Malek, the father of Turan Shah, had purchased from the Tartars of Kaptschak. Of these he had formed a guard and a marine, and had advanced many of them to the highest employments. This military corps established an elective monarchy, and raised one of their own officers to the throne, a system to which they ever after adhered. They are styled in history the Baharite Mamelukes, from having been employed as mariners on board the sultan's fleet. Most of the reigns of those sovereigns were short, and most of them fell by assassination. They performed, however, considerable feats of arms: they finally expelled the Christians from Syria; and during several reigns contested the possession of that country with the successors of Tschinghis Khan, when the Mongolian empire was in the height of its power, and in the full career of its conquests. The last of the Baharite sultans was Hadgi Salah, who being a minor, was deposed by Barkuk Daher, his atabek, or governor. Barkuk having seized the throne, founded the dynasty of the Borgite Mamelukes, A. D. 1389. These were Circassian slaves, who had been purchased by the Baharite sultans, and were in number about 12,000. They derived their name from the word borge, which signified a tower, because their residence was in the castle of Cairo, where they kept guard, and went through their education. Being favoured by the sultans, they rose to the first dignities, engrossed all the powers of government, and having supplanted the Baharite, or Turkish Mamelukes, succeeded

ceeded to their empire. The system of government, however, continued the same: the sceptre was transferred to the hands not of a different class, but only a different race of men. Barkuk, the first sultan of this line, having twice defeated the troops of the victorious Timur, or Tamerlane, had the honour of checking the progress of the Mongols in Syria. In the year 1442, the Mameluke sultan of Egypt conquered Cyprus, took its king and most of his nobility prisoners, and rendered the kingdom tributary. Nothing further of any great importance occurred till the beginning of the sixteenth century, when the Mameluke and Ottoman powers came into contact. In 1516, the sultan, Kansu-el-Ghuri, being defeated and slain in battle by Selim II. emperor of the Turks, Syria was annexed to the Ottoman empire, after having so long been an appendage to the Mameluke kingdom of Egypt. Toman Bey was elected sultan by the Mamelukes; but his reign proved of short duration. Selim II. undertook in the following year his grand expedition against Egypt, having first made immense preparations for ensuring success. The Mamelukes, on their side, were not neglectful in providing the means of defence. The contest was arduous and bloody. Toman Bey displayed the talents of a sovereign and a general; but being defeated by Selim in two decisive engagements, he was made prisoner, and hanged at one of the gates of Cairo A. D. 1517, after a reign of about one year. Thus ended the singular monarchy of the Mamelukes in Egypt, which, during the space of 263 years had exhibited the extraordinary political phenomenon of a small body of military slaves, ruling an extensive, populous, and powerful kingdom.

But although the monarchy of the Mamelukes was abolished,



abolished, their aristocracy was, for political reasons, retained, and this military body subsisted without any alteration. A convention was made with the Ottoman emperor, who confirmed to the Mamelukes their former privileges; on conditions of allegiance and tribute, and also of acknowledging the spiritual jurisdiction of the Mufti of Constantinople. The power of the Beys, however, has of late almost entirely set aside that of the Porte; and Egypt, strictly speaking, has, during a great part of the last century, been a military aristocratical republic, acknowledging a merely nominal allegiance to the Ottoman emperor. Since that period Egypt presents no memorable occurrence till 1770, when Ali Bey, taking advantage of the distressed situation of the Porte in the Russian war, threw off its yoke, assumed independence, conquered the adjacent coasts of Arabia, with a great part of Syria, and seemed about to revive the empire of the great Salah-ed-din. His conduct and views tended to render Egypt once more the seat of commerce and wealth. The assistance of a small foreign force would have enabled him to execute all his designs; and the non-interference of Russia, on this occasion, appears a political mystery. His views, however, were rendered abortive by the treachery of his brother-in-law, Mohammed Abudahab. His troops were defeated, and he himself, being mortally wounded and made prisoner, in the month of March 1773, soon after died, and was honourably buried at Cairo. Mohammed Abudahab received from the Porte the office of Sheik-el-Bellet, or governing Bey, which he held during the remainder of his life. Egypt was, for some time convulsed with civil wars among the Beys; but  
in

in 1785, the contending parties came to an accommodation.

This country, however, in 1798, exhibited a novel scene, and became a splendid theatre of French and British valour. The French army, amounting to between 30 and 40,000, commanded by the present emperor, took Alexandria by assault on the night of the 5th July, with the loss of little more than two hundred men. On the 21st the French appeared before Cairo. On the 23d that metropolis was attacked and carried by assault. And the battle of the Pyramids may be said to have completed the conquest of Egypt. The fugitive Mamelukes retreated into the Thebaid. The French pursued them the whole length of the country as far as Assuan, the ancient Syene, and drove them into the deserts. The arms of Britain, however, soon wrested from France her splendid, but transient conquest. The memorable battle of the Nile, August 1st, in which Lord Nelson, with his brave commanders, gained fresh laurels, entirely altered the position of the French, and changed their ideas of conquest into thoughts of defence. "On the morning of the 1st of August," says Denon, "we were masters of Egypt, Corfu, and Malta; and the security of these possessions annexed to France, seemed, in a great measure, to depend on the thirteen ships of the line that we had with us."\* This author adds, that General Buonaparte would have brought the fleet into the old port of Alexandria; "but," says he "the evil genius of France persuaded the Admiral to moor his ships in the bay of Aboukir; and thus to change in one day the result of a long train of successes"† This was

\* Denon's Travels, vol. 1. p. 159. † Idem, Travels, vol. 1. p. 160.

the beginning of the British triumphs: the moment at last arrived for their completion. On the 8th March, 1801, the brave Sir Ralph Abercrombie landed his army, in spite of the opposition of the French, and the tremendous fire of their batteries.\* On the 19th and 21st, two obstinate and well fought battles took place near Alexandria, both terminated to the advantage of the English; but in the last the gallant general was mortally wounded; and out of Buona-parte's invincible legion of 900 men, 650 bravely fell by the British bayonets. On the death of Sir Ralph Abercrombie, General Hutchinson took the command, and shewed himself neither in courage nor skill inferior to his predecessor. He insured his own glory, and the gratitude of his country, by completing the conquest of Egypt.

\* Denon relates the operations of the French in Upper Egypt. For an account of the British expedition, see Sir B. Wilson's narrative.

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**CHAP. IV.**


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Present State, political and moral — Religion — Government — Laws —  
 Army — Navy — Revenues — Commerce — Manufactures — Population —  
 Political importance — Language — Literature — Polite Arts — Education  
 — Manners and Customs — National Character.

*Religion.*]—THE predominant religion in Egypt is the Mahomedan; but the Coptic Christians are numerous, and have their churches and monasteries. There are also in some of the towns several Greeks, and some Roman Catholics.\*

*Government.*]—The government of Egypt is singular. This country is little more than nominally subject to the Grand Seignior; or, at the most, can only be called a tributary state. On the conquest of Egypt, by Selim II., 1517, that sultan, considering the distance, the local circumstances, and refractory spirit of that country, thought it a measure of policy to compromise with the Mameluke beys, in order to secure their subjection, as well as to counterbalance by their power that of any rebellious Pasha, whom the secure situation and resources of the province might inspire with ambitious designs.† A convention was therefore made with the Beys, according to which, a great part of the sovereign power was left in their hands. The Grand Seignior nominated a Pacha, or governor, to

\* Of the latter Browne reckons only about 1800 in Upper Egypt. Trav. p. 139.

† Browne's Travels, p. 52.

preside in their councils, to receive the annual tribute, and manage the affairs of the Porte. The authority of the Pacha at first was extensive; but, in process of time, the ambition and intrigues of the Beys have reduced it to a mere name. They obey the mandates of the Grand Seignior only as it may suit the present occasion; and are, to all intents and purposes, the real sovereigns of Egypt.\* Mr. Browne says, that, since the year 1791, no tribute had been remitted to Constantinople.

The Mamelukes are, as they have ever been, military slaves, children of Christian parents; and, for the most part, natives of Circassia, Georgia, and Mingrelia. Among them are also some Austrians and Russians, who, having been made prisoners in the late wars, have embraced the Mahomedan religion, and entered into the Mameluke corps. This body is kept up by an annual importation, agents being employed by the Beys to purchase Mamelukes at Constantinople, and when the supply is found insufficient, black slaves from the interior of Africa are substituted; and, if found docile, armed and trained with the rest. As the individual power of each Bey, as well as their united strength in resisting any encroachments of the Porte, consists, principally, in the number of Mamelukes, they are careful to keep up their number. Particular attention is paid to the education of those favoured slaves. They are generally distinguished by the gracefulness of their persons, and are instructed in every exercise of agility and strength. Such of them, also, as shew a disposition for learning, are taught the use of letters, and

\* Baldwin's Recollect. p. 50. The Beys could at any time depose the Pacha. Browne's Travels, p. 52. Baldwin's Recollect. p. 49.

of them are excellent scribes. The gratitude of the disciples is equal to the favour of their masters, whom they are scarcely ever known to abandon in the hour of distress and danger.\* They constantly wear the military dress, with a cap of a greenish colour, round which is wreathed a turban; and are commonly armed with a brace of pistols, a sabre, and a dagger. In battle many of them wear an open helmet, with a coat of mail under their clothes, which costs about forty pounds. Their horses are of the finest Arabian breeds, and are frequently purchased at the high price of 150*l.* or 200*l.* sterling. Each Mameluke receives a present of a horse and arms from his master, with a suit of clothes, which is renewed every year; but has no regular pay, being provided with food by his master. The generosity, however, of the masters, with various modes of extortion from others, afford the Mamelukes supplies of money for the cravings of avarice, or the purposes of debauchery. They are gay and thoughtless, fond of shew, unprincipled in their morals, and highly satisfied with their condition. Such of them as are in particular favour with the Beys, or are advanced to offices in their service, acquire great wealth. Few of the Mamelukes marry till they have obtained some office; and what is particularly remarkable, though they are such strong and personable men, the few who marry seldom have children. Hardy, capable of every fatigue, of undaunted courage, and eminent skill in horsemanship and the use of the sabre, the Mamelukes must be regarded as the best soldiers in the East; but in regular engage-

\* This is from Browne. Baldwin, however, gives a less favourable account of the fidelity and bravery of the Mamelukes. *Recollections*, p. 60.

ments, and skilful manoeuvres, they are far inferior to European troops. Recent events have demonstrated their inferiority to those of France.\*

From this singular body of men the Beys are elected. They are twenty-four in number, and in their hands the whole government of Egypt is vested. When a vacancy happens, a successor is nominally chosen by the survivors; but, in fact, appointed by the most powerful. Each of them appoints all officers within his own district. The power and possession of the Beys do not pass to their posterity; and their children are not honoured with any particular consideration. On this account Mr. Browne suspects that their women frequently procured abortion. Being distinguished by favouritism, or merit, the Mameluke becomes a Cachef, or governor, and in time a Bey. The chief cause of promotion arises from a political adherence to some powerful leader. The Beys are frequently at war among themselves; yet, as in regard to external power and influence, their interests are inseparable, they constantly unite as one man against any foreign aggression, or any encroachments of the Ottoman Porte. Such is, or at least lately was the singular government of Egypt, and such the remarkable class of men by whom that country was governed. But the aristocracy of the Beys seemed to be extinguished by the French invasion, and we are ignorant how the government has been settled.

*Laws.*—The legislature of Egypt is extremely defective and corrupt. In the courts of justice every thing is determined by bribery, and every kind of

\* Denon every where bears honourable testimony to the valour of the Mamelukes, and confesses them inferior only in skill to the French. Travels, and account of the campaign in Egypt.

extortion and oppression is practised. But the omnipotent influence of gold shortens litigations; and justice or injustice is speedily administered.

*Army, Navy.*—The military force of Egypt consisted of the Mamelukes, amounting to about ten or twelve thousand men.\* But there was no navy distinct from that of the Ottoman empire; and the revenue is a subject totally unknown.

*Commerce.*—The commerce of Egypt has, in a great measure, been described in treating of its principal cities. It is, therefore, unnecessary to repeat what has been said of its trade from Cairo, with the interior of Africa, from Alexandria to Europe, and the different ports of the Turkish empire; and from Suez and Cossir to Arabia. But it may not be useless to observe, that, from its central position, and the quantity of its natural productions, Egypt would, in the hands of an industrious or enterprising people, be one of the most commercial countries in the world; and might, in a great measure, monopolize the oriental trade.†

*Manufactures.*—Such of the Egyptian manufactures, as are worthy of notice, have also been mentioned, and need not here be enumerated. Indeed they are not of any great importance.

*Population.*—The population of Egypt has greatly declined from 7,500,000 exclusive of Alexandria, as estimated by Josephus in the reign of Vespasian; to 2,500,000, according to Mr. Browne's

\* This account of the Mamelukes, being a subject not generally known, as well as a various circumstance in the history of mankind, is given, at some length, from Browne. See the various instances related by Antea and Browne in their Travels. Baldwin in his Recollections, and various others. Browne's Travels, p. 76.

† Baldwin's Recollect, p. 43, 44, 45, 46, 79. Brougham's Colonial Policy, p. 2. book 3.

calculation,



calculation;\* the melancholy effect of an oppressive and enslaving system of government, which extinguishes genius and cripples industry.

*Political importance.*]—Nature has formed Egypt for the greatest degree of political, as well as commercial importance; and for the most extensive relations in both these departments of human affairs. Her moral circumstances alone annihilate her physical advantages; and during many ages this country has been buried in obscurity, and almost forgotten in the history of the modern world, though naturally formed for extending its commercial and political influence to every part of the globe. Recent events have given it a second celebrity, and it has lately been a subject of general attention. In regard to the political importance which it might acquire, if possessed by an enlightened and enterprising people, so much has been said by a number of intelligent writers, that it would be difficult to throw any new light on the subject; and as it is also discussed at some length in one of my former productions, it would be useless to trouble the reader with repetitions.† From the considerations of geographical position, topographical situation, and intrinsic resources, the conclusions are easy and obvious; and for further illustration the reader may consult the numerous and intelligent travellers and writers who have made Egypt the subject of their inquiries.‡

*Language.*]—The general language of Egypt is now the Arabic; the Coptic no longer existing but in manuscripts.

\* Joseph. de Bell. Judaic. Browne's Travels, p. 76.

† Letters on the political aspect of Europe. Second edition, 1806.

‡ See particularly Baldwin's Recollections. chap. 7. and 8.

*Literature.*]—Whatever might be the learning of the ancient Egyptians, in a comparative point of view with that of other nations of remote antiquity, their successors can, in that respect, claim no rank in the modern world; their highest literary and scientific attainments reaching no further than to an accurate knowledge of the Arabic language, and of the Mahomedan theology.

*Arts.*]—In regard to the elegant arts, the modern are inferior to the ancient Egyptians; and also to the Arabians under the Caliphate. Depressed by oppression and ignorance, they have no taste for architecture or the other ornamental arts. Every thing is defaced and dilapidated: nothing is restored.\*

*Education.*]—The education of youth extends no farther than to the Arabic language, writing, and accounts; at which some of them, especially the Copts, are tolerably expert.

*Manners, customs, and national character.*]—The manners and customs of the Egyptians have been accurately observed and amply detailed by numerous travellers. It suffices, therefore, in this summary, to glance at a few leading features. The modern Egyptians pretend to various kinds of magic. These pretensions, indeed, appear to have descended from the remotest antiquity; for so early as the days of Moses, both their princes and people were under the influence and direction of jugglers. The psylli, or charmers of serpents, have been noticed by most travellers, which have given rise to different opinions concerning their secret. When a serpent enters a house, the charmer is sent for, who uses a certain form of words. "I have

\* Denon's Travels, p. 276.

seen," says Mr. Browne, "three serpents enticed out of the cabin of a ship lying near the shore. The operator handled them, and put them into a bag. At other times I have seen the serpents twist round the bodies of these psylli in all directions, without having their fangs extracted or broken, and without doing them any injury."\* Denon, however, who examined the matter with a penetrating acuteness, seems convinced that the whole mystery is no more than a juggling trick, and the philosopher will certainly coincide with his opinion.† Cairo, and other large towns, swarm with rope-dancers, jugglers, and vagabonds of various descriptions. On their festivals, particularly in the month Ramadin, the lower class of people shew considerable activity and vigour in wrestling. At the entertainments of the great and opulent, the company is amused first by male singers, by story tellers, who recite a variety of romantic adventures with wonderful readiness and volubility of utterance; and by wits, who contend together with droll and unexpected sallies. All these are dismissed with presents. The female singers afterwards appear, and frequently accompany their voices with a musical instrument resembling a guitar. These women are highly valued for their talent of amusing the public, and often handsomely rewarded. The plaintive vocal music of Cairo, and the agreeable sensations which it excites, have often been remarked by travellers. The dancing girls are last introduced. These form a distinct class, and are always attended by an old man and woman, who play on musical in-

\* Browne's Trav. p. 89, 90.

† Denon's Trav. vol. 1. ch. 9.

struments, and watch over their conduct, lest they should bestow their favours for an inadequate reward. Their forms are elegant, and their faces rather expressive than beautiful. Their dances exhibit all that the most luxurious imagination can conceive. They fascinate, by their ordinary exertions, the eye of the multitude in the public street, and display the most laboured blandishments of their art in the palaces of the great.\* The Cophts and the Arabs compose the bulk of the population: the former, the descendants of the ancient Egyptians, are an ingenious people, but of a very swarthy complexion, and in general without any claim to beauty.† The Arabs are also swarthy, which is indeed an unavoidable consequence of the heat of the climate. These are divided into two classes, the Arabs settled in the towns and villages, and the rambling Bedouins, who have no home but the deserts; no possessions, but their flocks and herds; who are robbers by profession; and whose hand, like true descendants of Ishmael, is against every man, from whom they can expect any booty, although, notwithstanding their rapacity, they do not appear to be either vindictive or cruel. It is not amiss to observe, that in Egypt, the cultivators of lands are properly farmers, and not attached to the soil.‡

*National character.*—The Egyptians, as already observed, were always noted by the Romans for a sullen inflexibility of temper.§ Their history shews how reluctantly they submitted to a foreign yoke. But sub-

\* Browne's Trav. p. 90, 91.

† Deyon's Trav, vol. 1, p. 206.

‡ Browne's Trav. p. 68. Volsey has exhibited an obscure and inaccurate view of this subject.

§ Ammian. Marcellin. lib. 22.

jection has been, during so many ages, their destiny, that the present Cophts have lost all idea of independence; and the Greeks and Arabs, who have been successively their conquerors, have long groaned under the same galling yoke of oppression. The national character of the Egyptians is now described as rapacious and treacherous, the natural consequence of their degradation.

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## STATES IN THE NORTH OF AFRICA.

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 CHAP. I.
 

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Situation—Extent—Boundaries—Face of the Country—Mountains—Rivers—Canals—Lakes—Minerology—Mineral Waters—Soil—Climate—Vegetable Productions—Zoology—Natural Curiosities—Antiquities and Artificial Curiosities.

**NORTHERN** Africa, extending from Egypt along the Mediterranean as far as the Atlantic Ocean, comprehends the States of Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco, reckoning in a direction from east to west. Their respective limits, however, are little known, and ill defined. Extensive deserts intervening between Egypt and Tripoli, no precise boundary seems to have ever been settled. In the midst of barren deserts, a few miles of frontier is of little value; and the sands of Barca seem to be abandoned to the wandering Bedouins. The inhabited country shall be displayed in a general view, as all the circumstances, both physical and moral, of the different states, are nearly similar. They have generally shared the same fortune, and their affairs are included in one portion of history.

*Face of the country.*]—Except near the coasts, those regions have been little explored. The country, as far as it is known, is a diversified champaign, without any feature particularly striking, containing neither  
 mountains

mountains of extraordinary elevation, nor rivers of great magnitude or length of course.

*Mountains.*—The famous Atlas of antiquity, fabled by the ancients as supporting the heavens, appears to be a chain of no great elevation. Its general direction is north-east and south-west, extending from the kingdom of Tunis, where it is a ridge of inconsiderable height,\* to Cape Geer, on the Atlantic Ocean. The highest part pervades the kingdom of Morocco; and a branch called the lesser Atlas, seems to extend from Cape Cantia to the district of Tangier.†

*Rivers.*—None of the rivers of northern Africa are any more than inconsiderable streams descending from Mount Atlas, and running into the Mediterranean on the north, and into the Atlantic on the west. Of the former, the chief is the Majerda, in the kingdom of Tunis, the Bagrada of classical antiquity; the latter are in Morocco. No canals are mentioned by travellers.

*Lakes.*—There are several small lakes, and one of considerable extent in the south of the Tunisian territory. In the country of Algiers, is seen a sandy plain, which absorbs five small rivers, and being sometimes overflowed, presents the appearance of a lake.‡

*Mineralogy.*—Of the mineralogy of northern Africa, little can be said from modern information; nor does it appear to possess any ancient fame. Iron, copper, and lead, however, are found in Mount Atlas.

*Soil.*—The soil partakes of the general character of Africa, being light and sandy, except the vallies of

\* Shaw's Trav. p. 20, &c.

† Strabo mentions Mount Atlas only as situated to the south of the pillars of Hercules, lib. 17. Lampriere, p. 163.

‡ Shaw's Trav. p. 116.

Mount Atlas, and the lands bordering on the rivolets, which present in many places a deep and rich mould.

*Climate.*]—The climate in these countries between Mount Atlas and the Mediterranean, is in winter temperate and pleasant: but in summer the heats are sometimes excessive. In general it is reckoned salubrious.

*Vegetable productions.*]—In the Roman times, Northern Africa was famed for its never failing fertility. At present agriculture is greatly declined, and the quantity of productions consequently diminished. They are, however, far from being inconsiderable. Morocco is the most fertile of all those regions, and, together with Algiers, supplies the garrison of Gibraltar with considerable quantities of provisions. Corn of all kinds is plentiful; and the wheat is of an excellent quality. All these countries produce excellent fruits, as well as flowers of the greatest beauty and fragrance.

*Zoology.*]—The domestic animals are in general the same as in Europe, with the addition of the camel and dromedary. The cattle of Tunis and Algiers are small and slender; and the horses are degenerated.\* In Morocco, the cattle and sheep are small, but their flesh is excellent. Fowls and pigeons abound; but ducks are scarce, and geese and turkies unknown. Various kinds of wild beasts infest the interior of the country, especially the southern ridges of Mount Atlas, and the borders of the great desert. From these countries the Romans were chiefly supplied with lions, leopards, &c. for their public exhibitions in the circus.

*Natural curiosities.*]—We hear of no natural curio-

\* Some of the sheep of Tunis produce wool little inferior to the Spanish; but it is much longer, and has a silky appearance. Jackson's *Comm. Mediter.* p. 71.



sities of such importance as to merit a description; and of such as are said to exist, the accounts that we possess are obscure and doubtful.

*Artificial curiosities and antiquities.*—These countries exhibit no specimen of modern art; and the monuments of antiquity that still remain, are mostly in a state exceedingly ruinous.\* The ruins of Carthage, a few miles north-east from Tunis, have been carefully surveyed and accurately described by Dr. Shaw.† In other places are seen some remains of the Roman magnificence, and also of that of the Saracens; but nothing striking is presented by these remains of antiquity, their history being obscured by time, and their grandeur defaced by barbarians. They only serve to excite a faint recollection of the ancient splendour of those countries in their flourishing state; first as the seat of the Carthaginian power, and afterwards as a Roman province.

\* Some remains of Roman temples and a triumphal arch are yet seen at Susefula, 150 miles to the south of Carthage. Shaw's Trav. p. 118, &c.

† Except some arches of an aqueduct, scarcely any remains of Carthage are now to be seen. Shaw's Trav. p. 80.

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**CHAP. II.**

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Principal cities and towns—Edifices—Islands.

**I**N proceeding from east to west, a direction followed in speaking of the different kingdoms, Tripoli must be first mentioned among the cities, being the most easterly, and the nearest to Egypt. This city, the capital of the state of the same name, which extends to the borders of Egypt, and comprises the ancient *Lybia*, is situated in a low plain, bounded on the south by hills and plantations of dates, which in some degree enliven the environs.\* In the time of the Romans Tripoli was a considerable city, and its strong fortifications enabled it for some time to resist the assaults of the Arabian conquerors. At present it is greatly declined; and although about four miles in circuit, contains only a small population.

*Tunis.*]—The next city of note on this coast is Tunis, not far from the site of the ancient Carthage. It is about three miles in circuit, and is said to contain about 50,000 inhabitants, although perhaps the calculation may be exaggerated. Tunis is the most commercial town on the African coast, and its inhabitants the most polished of all the Mahometans of that quarter.† This town had some time ago a considerable trade with France.

\* Lucas in *Proceed. Afric. Society*, p. 48.

† Jackson on the *Comm. of the Mediterranean*, p. 55, &c.

*Algiers.*—Proceeding towards the west is that noted nest of pirates, Algiers, which, according to Dr. Shaw's account, must be considered at present as the principal city on the African coast.\* This city is not more than a mile and a half in circuit; but its population is computed at above 100,000, a number absolutely inconsistent with probability. The deys of Algiers have never given much encouragement to trade; Piracy has always been the principal object of public attention, and of individual enterprize. They have several stout cruizers at sea, but seldom pass the straits to cruize in the Atlantic.† Some instances, however, have been found of their cruizers proceeding into that ocean, especially in search of American vessels. The whole number of their ships of war does not exceed twenty, of from ten to forty guns.‡ With this contemptible fleet they maintain a war with most of the states within the straits, and exact a tribute from various nations, while two or three European ships of war might block up their port, and annihilate their marine. Nothing but the mutual jealousies of the Christian nations prevents the extinction of this piratical state, of which the existence is a disgrace to Europe. Tripoli, and Tunis are also piratical states; but their piracies are much less frequent than formerly.§

*Morocco.*—Morocco is the capital of the kingdom of that name, which comprises the greatest part of the ancient Mauritania; the rest, together with Numidia, forming the territory of Algiers. It is charmingly situated in a fertile plain, which is variegated

\* Shaw's description of Algiers. Trav. p. 66, &c.

† Jackson on the Com. of the Mediterranean, p. 51, &c.

‡ Ibid. ibid.

§ Ibid. p. 53, &c.

with groves of palm-trees; and watered by several streams descending from the ranges of Mount Atlas, of which the principal ridges are at the distance of about twenty miles to the east and south of the city.\* Morocco is a city of very considerable extent, and surrounded with a strong wall of stone, cemented with a hard and durable kind of mortar. The royal palace is constructed in the oriental style, being composed of detached pavilions. Next to the palace, the principal buildings are the mosques; but none of the edifices display any great degree either of taste or magnificence.† The dress of the people is somewhat singular. The ladies paint their cheeks and chins of a deep red colour, and make a long black mark on their foreheads, another on the tip of the nose, and several on the cheeks. The different ideas of beauty which prevail in different countries, might furnish a curious subject of contemplation to the philosopher. Besides the capital, this kingdom contains Fez, and Mequinez, both of them very considerable cities. Fez was once an independent kingdom, although now annexed to Morocco. Mequinez is sometimes the royal residence.

*Edifices.*]—The modern edifices of those countries are but little worthy of remark.

*Islands.*]—There are no islands of note that can be said to belong to any of those states.

\* Lempriere, Morocco, p. 173. Lempriere says it would be difficult to form any estimate of the population of Morocco. *Tour to Morocco*, p. 184.

† The streets of Morocco are narrow, dirty, and irregular; and the houses mean and ruinous. Lempriere, p. 184, and 186.

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**CHAP. III.**


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Historical View—General progress of Society—of Arts and Sciences—  
Letters and Commerce.

**T**HE countries of Northern Africa may be reckoned among those, of which the history presents a lamentable decline from a state of civilization and prosperity, to a state of barbarism and depression. The original population of those regions appears to have been derived from Syria : at least the best historical documents, and the general voice of antiquity, represent the Carthaginians as a Phœnician, or Tyrian colony. According to Sallust, however, the Medes, the Persians, and the Armenians, had peopled some of the maritime provinces ; but that opinion seems founded rather on conjecture than certainty. We know little of the Carthaginian history till their military transactions involved them in successive contests with the Greeks and the Romans. Sicily was the first point of contact between the civilized nations of Europe and Africa. The conquests of the Carthaginians reaching the Grecian colonies, established in that island, excited the Greeks to succour the Sicilians ; and this circumstance gave rise to successive contests, in which the Carthaginians, though often vanquished, were ultimately victorious.\* Other causes brought

\* For some of the most remarkable contests between the Greeks and Carthaginians in Sicily, see Plutarch in Timoleon.

Rome and Carthage into contact; and produced that rivalry, and those destructive wars, which eternized the name, but ultimately annihilated the power, and even the national existence of the greatest commercial empire of antiquity.

Of the history of Carthage we have no accounts, except those transmitted to us by Greek and Roman writers, all the Punic records having long since perished: had they yet existed, they might have afforded valuable information on the subjects of ancient navigation and commerce. From what has been handed down to us by their rivals and enemies, it appears that the Carthaginians were equally greedy of power and of gain; and aimed no less at universal dominion than universal commerce. It is certain that, before her fatal contest with Rome, Carthage was extremely opulent and powerful, having extended her sway over almost the whole of Northern Africa; and conquered a great part of Spain, as well as all the isles of the Mediterranean. It would be useless to enter into details of the gradual progress of those conquests, which are confusedly related by historians; and it is equally unnecessary to narrate the particulars of those wars with the Romans, of which the events are so minutely recorded by Polybius and Livy; and so well known to all who are conversant with Roman history. Carthage is supposed to have stood about 737 years, and during a great part of that time had been the dominating power in Africa and on the Mediterranean. In commercial greatness, Carthage, at that time, surpassed every other nation on the globe; and the exploits of some of her generals raised her military as high as her mercantile fame. The government of Carthage, like that of Rome, was republican; but we  
have

have no precise account of its particular model, nor in what manner the aristocratical and democratical powers were balanced, and their rights defined.\* It appears, however, that, like all other opulent republics, the administration was extremely corrupt, and the state constantly agitated with factions. A party in the Carthaginian senate, inimical to the interests and fame of Hannibal, effected the ruin of that celebrated commander, and saved Rome from destruction. In the Carthaginian system of politics one characteristic feature is to be remarked. That great and powerful republic seems to have been peculiarly averse to diminishing its population. It purchased its conquests, and provided for the national safety; not by the sacrifice of men, but of money. Its wars were carried on, and its domination extended by foreign mercenaries, levied from different quarters; and the numerous Carthaginian armies presented an assemblage of needy and desperate adventurers, from all the countries round the Mediterranean. The employment of mercenaries has frequently been assigned as the principal cause of the downfall of Carthage. Politicians and modern historians may amuse themselves with such conjectures; but ancient history exhibits no facts that can authorize the opinion. These foreign mercenaries were seldom found deficient in the field of battle. The troops of Hannibal, chiefly composed of Spaniards and Gauls, performed wonders, and nearly annihilated the Roman name.† The discordant factions in the senate of Carthage,

\* Polybius says, in general terms, that these were kings as at Sparta, but that the democracy had the principal sway. Polyb. lib. 6. Ext. 3.

† For the different nations of which Hannibal's army was composed; see Livy and Plutarch. Polyb. lib. 11. Ext. 6, and Id. lib. 3, cap. 4.

caused the ruin of that commercial and conquering republic, which the Roman arms, according to every probability, could not otherwise have accomplished. It cannot indeed be concealed, that, through this system of employing mercenary troops, or rather through her ingratitude to those valiant bands who had fought her battles, and maintained her power, Carthage was once brought to the verge of ruin. In the intervals between the first and second Punic wars a dreadful revolt of the mercenaries took place, in consequence of the disability or unwillingness of the republic to pay their arrears, which had long been accumulating.\* Spendius, a fugitive Roman slave, and Matho an African were the ring-leaders; and the mercenary troops having chosen them for their generals, declared open war against Carthage. Almost all the African provinces being driven to despair by Carthaginian oppression, espoused the cause of the rebels, and furnished Spendius and Matho with ample supplies. Under these two desperadoes, the mercenaries carried on, during the space of three years and four months, a most furious and bloody war against the republic; and the metropolis being closely blockaded, was reduced to the greatest extremity. In this war, every citizen of Carthage capable of military service was obliged to bear arms. At last, after one of the most desperate and sanguinary contests recorded in history, the republic was finally victorious: the mercenaries were annihilated, and Carthage was saved by the abilities of her generals, and the vigour of her citizens.†

\* Polybius expressly says, that the republic wished them to make abatement from the stipend that had been promised them. Hist. lib. 1. cap. 6. §

† See the narrative of this war, in Polybius, hist. gen. lib. 1. cap. 6.



It is well known that the third and last Punic war terminated in the capture and total destruction of Carthage, A. A. Christum, 146. No remains now exist to attest the magnificence of this celebrated city; but the narrative of its destruction by the Romans, indicates its immense population and opulence; and history informs us of its extent. Not knowing its form we cannot estimate its area; but its circuit was twenty-one miles, and about 367 yards English measure.\* Carthage was, therefore, one of the largest cities in the world, and probably the richest, as it was both warlike and mercantile, and had accumulated wealth both by conquest and commerce. Rome was only rising to greatness, Athens had long been declining; and it seems, that, in magnitude and opulence, Carthage would be rivalled only by Alexandria.

From this time Carthage and its dependencies became an appendage to Rome. The war with Jugurtha also added Numidia and Mauritania to her dominions; and the Roman power extended from the confines of Egypt, to the coast of the Atlantic. Mauritania, the present Morocco, however, was never any more than partially explored and colonized.† But Africa Proper became a flourishing province. A new Carthage arose from the ruins of the ancient seat of

\* "Carthage in circuitu viginti tria millia passus patens. Carthage was 23,000 passus, or paces, in circuit. Livy, Epit. 51. The Roman passus bring four feet ten inches, 1,278 English measure, 23,000 passus, twenty-one miles 367 yards. By comparing these dimensions with those assigned to Alexandria by Pliny. Hist. Nat. lib. 5. cap. 10, and to Athens, it seems that Carthage was larger than either of these cities, and as extensive as Rome in the days of Aurelian.

† Pliny, Hist. 5. cap. 1. This was the last of the Roman provinces that received the gospel. Tillemont, Mem. Ecclesiast. tom. 1.

Punic power; and became one of the principal cities of the Roman empire. Carthage, and the whole of northern Africa, now subject to Rome, shared her fortunes, partook of her prosperity, and were involved in the calamities which occasioned her downfall. About the beginning of the fifth century, the Vandals passing from Spain into Africa, made themselves masters of that province; and founded a kingdom which continued till the reign of Justinian. But that emperor having sent out from Constantinople, a formidable fleet and army under the command of the celebrated Belisarius, the Vandalic kingdom of Africa was, after a short duration of less than half a century, subverted and annexed as a province to the eastern empire.\* From this time till the Arabian conquest, Africa remained subject to the eastern emperors, and was considered as one of the fairest jewels in their diadem.

The seventh century was marked by the extraordinary revolutions effected by the Arabians, throughout so great a portion of the globe. In the year 647 only seven years after the capture of Alexandria, and the establishment of the Saracen power in Egypt, Abdallah, the lieutenant of the caliph Othman, undertook the conquest of Northern Africa. With an army of 20,000 Arabians from the camp at Memphis, joined by the same number from Medina, he began his march towards the west; but met with a vigorous resistance from the Greek prefect at Tripoli; and, after a campaign of about fifteen months, retreated to Egypt with rich spoils, and a great number of captives, but without making any permanent establishment.†

\* For an account of the conquest of the Vandalic kingdom of Africa.

See Gibbon's *Decline Roman Empire*, p. 7. chap. 41.

† Gibbon, vol. 9. chap. 51, p. 453.

During

During the space of more than twenty years the dissensions which prevailed among the Saracens, prevented any new expedition against Africa. But, after the establishment of the house of Ommyyah, the project was resumed. In the reign of the caliph, Moawiyah, Akbah, his general, marched from Damascus at the head of 10,000 of the bravest Arabs, together with a numerous assemblage of troops, raised from the nations already conquered and converted. It would be difficult, as well as inconsistent with the present purpose, to trace the accurate line of his progress. It must, however, be observed, that it was confined within the interior. The first permanent establishment made by the Arabians in Northern Africa, appears to have been the town and fortress of Cairoan,\* about fifty miles to the south of the present Tunis, and the ancient Carthage. Here Akbah founded, about A. D. 672, a citadel that might overawe the barbarous natives, and serve as a place of retreat to the Arabians, in case of any disaster. Advancing through the interior, to the utmost limits of Mauritania, on the shores of the Atlantic, he is said to have spurred his horse into the waves, declaring that, had not his progress been stopped by the ocean, he would still have proceeded into unknown countries, preaching the unity of God, and exterminating with the sword all the nations that should persist in idolatry. This zealous conqueror and converter, however, soon found that he had already advanced too far. An universal defection of the natives recalled him from the shores of the Atlantic. But although it was impossible to retain his conquests, he found an honourable death, being surrounded and

\* Ockley, Hist. Sar. vol. 2. p. 129, &c.

overpowered by the multitudes of the insurgents. His successor, Zubeir, avenged his death, and vanquished the natives in several engagements. This general, however, experienced the fate of his predecessor in an unsuccessful encounter with an army sent from Constantinople. The western expeditions of the Arabians were again suspended by the discord which prevailed in the caliphate; but the return of domestic tranquillity allowed the Caliph Abdalmalek, to resume the conquest of Africa. Akbah had carried his victorious arms through the interior, in a line from the Nile to the Atlantic. But most of his conquests had been lost almost as rapidly as they had been made; and the sea-coasts had always remained in the hands of the Greeks. In the year 692, the standard of the caliph was delivered to Hassan, governor of Egypt; and an army of 40,000 men was destined for the grand expedition against Africa. The arms of this general were more fortunate than those of his predecessors. He took and pillaged Carthage, the metropolis of the whole province; but was soon obliged to retire, by the appearance of a formidable armament from Constantinople and Sicily. The Arabians retreated to Cairoan and Tripoli, and the Christians immediately landing, took possession of Carthage. They were obliged, however, in their turn to evacuate that city. The commander of the faithful prepared against the ensuing spring, a more formidable armament. A decisive battle was fought near Utica: the Greeks were totally defeated; and Africa was irrecoverably lost. Carthage was delivered to the flames, and although a small part of its former site was afterwards re-peopled, it never more acquired any political or commercial importance, but gradually dwindled

to

to an insignificant village; and few remains of the celebrated metropolis of Africa are now discoverable.

The expulsion of the Greeks, and the possession of their cities, however, did not render the Arabians masters of the country; and they still found great difficulty in completing their conquest. The Moors, or Berbers, a savage race, who inhabited the interior provinces, and appear to have been the aborigines of the country, still resisted the power of the conquerors. Under the auspices of their queen, Cahina, who, by assuming the character of a prophetess, commanded their veneration, and secured their implicit obedience, these barbarians acquired some degree of union, and attacked the invaders with an enthusiasm equal to their own. The insurrection was general. The veteran bands of Hassan, everywhere overpowered by innumerable hosts of barbarians, were inadequate to the defence of their new conquests. The Arabian chief being obliged to give way to the overwhelming torrent, retired to the confines of Egypt; and five years were spent in waiting for succours from the caliph. This tremendous insurrection of the Africans is represented as dreadfully destructive; and it is said that the whole country, from Tangier to Tripoli, exhibited one general scene of desolation. Mr. Gibbon very justly suspects that ignorance and love of the marvellous may have given rise to some exaggerations among the Arabian historians; but it is not difficult to suppose that so violent an insurrection of such numbers of furious barbarians, whose impetuous vengeance was roused by enthusiasm, and encouraged by their royal prophetess, must have been attended with dreadful disorders. Hassan, however, resolved on

another attempt to restore the Arabian empire in Africa. All the cities, all the friends of civil society, Christians as well as others, received the Mahomedan general as the saviour of their country; and united against barbarous Moors. A battle was fought, the royal prophetess was slain, and her baseless empire was overturned. Under the government of Hassan, the successor of Musa, the same spirit of universal revolt again revived; and was finally quelled by that general and his two sons. In this last revolt and final reduction of the Moors, the number of prisoners is said to have amounted to no less than 300,000, of whom 60,000, the caliph's fifth, were sold for the benefit of the public treasury. If this statement be correct, it may enable us to judge of the extent of the insurrection, and the number of the insurgents. By the extinction of this rebellion, the conquest of Africa was rendered complete. About 30,000 of the Moorish youth were enlisted in the troops of the caliph. The Moors, who in their manners and habits of life, resembled the Bedouins of the desert, embraced the religion of the conquerors, and were proud to adopt the language, and assume the name of Arabians. The blood of the strangers and natives was insensibly intermingled; and, as a judicious historian observes, "From the Euphrates to the Atlantic, the same nation might seem to be diffused over the sandy plains of Asia and Africa."<sup>o</sup> The deserts of Arabia, however, could never supply colonies that could bear any proportion to the number of the natives; and the aboriginal Moors must always have constituted the great mass of the population.

<sup>1</sup> Till the time of Musa the vicereignty of Africa had

<sup>o</sup> Gibbon, Decline Roman Empire, p. 9. chap. 51.

remained

remained an appendage to that of Egypt. But the caliph Walid I. erected it into a separate province, and assigned to Musa an independent authority. This governor, in the year 710, sent Tarik, his lieutenant, into Spain; and four years afterwards completed in person the conquest of almost the whole kingdom. His eminent services, however, were rewarded by the caliph with extreme ingratitude. But Musa himself had acted in an ungrateful and unjust manner to Tarik, by whom the most arduous part of the conquest of Spain was achieved. The friends of Tarik so effectually pleaded his cause at the court of Damascus, that Musa was recalled and disgraced. Stripped of his wealth, as well as his honours, this enterprising and successful general, overwhelmed with the weight of his afflictions, died broken-hearted at Mecca.\*

The Africans once more attempted to throw off the yoke of their conquerors, and nearly effected their expulsion, having made themselves masters of Cairoan, the capital. Hantele Ben Seffran, governor of Egypt, was, in 741, sent by the caliph Hakim against the insurgents, whom he subdued with great slaughter, and regained possession of Cairoan. The courage of the Africans, however, was not extinguished, nor their resources exhausted. They again assembled a numerous army, but were a second time defeated by the governor of Egypt. This contest is represented by historians as one of the most sanguinary in the annals of the world, and attended with a prodigious slaughter of the insurgents. In 749, Abd-El-Rachman, governor of Africa, threw off his allegiance to the caliph, and assumed the sovereign authority; but

\* Gibbon, vol. 9. chap. 51.

the rebel being slain by his brothers, a civil war between the fratricides ensued, which proved the ruin of their short-lived dynasty. The caliph, Abu Mansur, in 772, sent his lieutenant, Yerid, into Africa, who succeeded in reducing the province, and restoring tranquillity. About A. D. 800, under the reign of the celebrated Haroun-El-Rashid, Ibraim Ben Aglab, renounced the authority of the caliph, assumed the style and state of sovereign of Africa, maintained himself in his usurpation, and transmitted the sceptre to his posterity. Under the dynasty of the Aglabites, Sicily was subdued. Syracuse, after having sustained a siege of nine months, was taken A. D. 877, and all the inhabitants were put to the sword. This great commercial city was given up to plunder, and the booty was immense. In 908, a revolution took place, which raised a new family to the sovereignty of Africa, and eventually to that of Egypt. Ziadet Ullah, having murdered his brother Abu-el-Abbas-Abd-Ullah, seized the African sceptre. A revolt arising, Ziadet was obliged to abandon his dominions, and take refuge in Egypt. With this prince expired the dynasty of the Aglabites, which, during the space of 108 years, had reigned over Africa from Egypt to Morocco.

On the expulsion of Ziadet, Obeid-Ullah assumed the sovereign authority, and founded the dynasty of the Fatimites. This Arabian family, which had been settled in Egypt, pretended to deduce its origin from Fatimé, the daughter of Mohammed, and wife of Ali, Abu-el-Cassim, son and successor of Obeid-Ullah, displayed great talents for politics and war. The dominion of the Aglabites had not extended over the ancient Mauritania. That western region of Africa was ruled by the Edrissites, another Arabian family,  
who



who had established an independent sovereignty, and built the city of Fez. But Abu-el-Cassim, in the first year of his reign, subdued the Edrissites, and united, under his dominion, all the Mahomedan part of Africa, from Egypt to the Atlantic. His unsuccessful attempt to add Egypt to his dominions, as well as the actual conquest of that country under the reign of the more fortunate Abu-Tummin, with the removal of the Fatimites to the newly built city of Cairo, are transactions that have already been mentioned.\*

The transplantation of the Fatimites to Egypt gave rise to a new dynasty in Africa. Abu Tummin, before his departure for Cairo, resigned the sovereignty of Africa, on condition of homage, to Yussef Ben Zeira, of a family which sprang from Arabia Fœlix, and is known in African history by the appellation of the dynasty of the Zeirites. The reign of this prince is distinguished by the suppression of several dangerous revolts, and some other successful enterprises. Abu-el-Cassim-Mansur, his son, who ascended the African throne in 983, reigned with great splendour, and built, at an extraordinary expence, a magnificent palace at Cairoan. In perusing the annals of the Arabians since the time of Mahomed, it affords some pleasure when we can turn from the history of their bloody conquests, to a view of their progress in the arts of civilization and elegance. Even in the sands of Africa, these at last took root; and Cairoan, which stood in the midst of a desert, displayed the magnificence of its sovereigns and its grandees. This city, the capital

\* See Historical View of Egypt. The following part of the African history, to the extinction of the Elmohad dynasty, is wholly taken from Cardonne *Hist. de l'Afrique, de l'Espagne, &c.*

of the Arabian empire in Africa, was in the most disadvantageous situation than can be conceived.\* All its vegetable food was brought from a considerable distance; and the scarcity of springs constrained the inhabitants to collect, in cisterns and reservoirs, precarious supplies of rain-water. These disadvantages, however, were in some measure counterbalanced by the security which its inland situation afforded against the fleets of Constantinople, a consideration which must have had a predominant influence on the mind of Hassan, its founder, at a time when the conquest of Africa was far from being complete; and the Greeks being masters of the sea, could always annoy a maritime city. In this barren spot a citadel was erected, and a colony planted; and in the space of a few years the palace of the governor was surrounded with a number of private habitations. Under the dynasty of the Aglabites and the first princes of the Zerites, Cairoan became the seat of letters and arts, as well as of empire, and was adorned with magnificent structures, among which, besides the royal palace of Abu-el-Mansur, was a spacious mosque, displaying 500 columns of porphyry, granite, and marble. A war, however, which broke out A. D. 1050, between Moaz, the sovereign of Africa, and Mostansir, the Fatimite caliph of Egypt, was fatal to its grandeur. Moaz was defeated in the field, and the Egyptians gained possession of Tripoli, and afterwards of Cairoan, where they stopped the springs, and destroyed the magnificent palaces of the monarchs of Africa. Moaz, overwhelmed with misfortunes, sank under their weight, and terminated a long and prosperous reign in the greatest misery.

\* Shaw's Trav. p. 115.

From this time the empire of the Arabians in Africa began to decline. The conquest of Sicily by the Normans, gave a military impulse, severely felt on that continent. The power of the Zeirites was also abridged, and their empire contracted by the defection of western Africa, where a new family, called the Marabuts, arose, and founded an independent monarchy. They acquired dominion through a pretended zeal for religion: and the appellation of Marabut implies that of saint. This revolution took place about A. D. 1060; and in 1069, Yussuf, the second prince of that race, founded the city of Morocco. The Zeirites were unable to re-establish their dominion in the west, and were frequently exposed to the attacks of the Greeks and the Sicilians; who frequently harassed the maritime parts of Africa. The Sicilians in particular made themselves masters of all the coast from Tunis to Tripoli. Foreign wars and intestine commotions terminated the dynasty of the Zeirites. It was succeeded by that of the Elmohads, who retrieved most of the losses which the empire had suffered under the Zeirites. Tomrut was the founder of the dynasty of the Elmohads. He was succeeded by the celebrated Abd-el-Mumin, originally a doctor in theology, whose talents were adequate to the management of a contest in the field, as well as in the schools. He reduced Oran, Fez, and Morocco; and having put an end to the Marabut dynasty, was acknowledged sole sovereign of all Mahomedan Africa. About the year 1150 he sent formidable armies into Spain to the assistance of the Moors, who were hard pressed by the Christians; and about nine years afterwards he expelled the Sicilians from Tunis, and the rest of their stations on the African coast. The succeeding

ceeding princes of this dynasty afforded powerful support to the Mahomedans of Spain; and several of them made war in person in that kingdom, with various success. On the fall of the dynasty of the Elmhads, about the year 1266, Africa was divided into all those petty states, which, with little variation, subsist to this day.

About the year 1347, Abu-el-Hassan, sultan of Morocco, reduced under his dominion all the other African states; but his power was only transient: his empire soon fell asunder, and the different states resumed their independence. From this time the history of Northern Africa is sufficiently replete with unimportant revolutions, conspiracies, murders, and usurpations, among its petty princes; but can be little interesting to the reader till the beginning of the sixteenth century, when a revolution took place, which renders it more worthy of attention. This singular event was brought about by persons whose rank and circumstances seemed to preclude them from acting any important part on the theatre of the world. Horuc and Hayradin, the sons of a potter in the isle Lesbos, in the Archipelago, impelled by a restless and enterprising spirit, forsook their trade, and joined a crew of pirates. In their new profession, they soon distinguished themselves by their valour and activity; and becoming masters of a small brigantine, they carried on their piracies with such conduct and success, that they soon assembled a fleet of twelve galleys, besides several vessels of smaller force. Horuc the elder, called Barbarossa, from the red colour of his beard, was admiral, Hayradin being second in command; and their names soon became terrible from the  
the

the Hellespont to the straits of Gibraltar. Together with their fame and their power; their views were extended; and while acting the part of corsairs, they adopted the ideas, and acquired the talents of conquerors. The convenient situation of the ports of Africa, so near the great commercial states of Christendom, suggested the advantages that might be derived from an establishment on that coast; and an opportunity of attaining this object presented itself, which they took care to improve. Eutemi, king of Algiers, having made several unsuccessful attempts on a fort, which the Spanish governors of Oran had built near his capital, solicited the aid of Barbarossa, whose valour the Africans considered as irresistible. The corsair gladly accepted the invitation, and marched to Algiers at the head of 5000 men, a force which gave him the absolute command of the town. Perceiving that the light-armed troops of the Moors were incapable of opposing his disciplined veterans, he murdered the monarch whom he came to assist, and caused himself to be proclaimed king of Algiers. He next attacked the neighbouring king of Tremescen, and having vanquished him in battle, annexed his dominions to the Algerine kingdom. At the same time he harassed the coasts of Spain and Italy with fleets that resembled the armaments of a great monarch, rather than the squadrons of a corsair. The devastations which they committed, attracted the attention of Charles V, who, in the beginning of his reign, furnished the Marquis de Cornaro with a force sufficient to make an attack on Tremescen and Algiers. That officer, assisted by the dethroned king of Tremescen, having defeated Barbarossa in several engagements, obliged him to shut himself up in Tremescen,

mescen, where he was immediately besieged. After defending the place to the last extremity, he was overtaken in attempting to make his escape, and slain, while fighting with an obstinate valour worthy of his former fame and exploits. His brother, Hayradin, who was not his inferior either in ambition or abilities, assumed the sceptre of Algiers, and displayed great talents for government. His reign being undisturbed by the Spaniards, whose arms had full occupation in the wars of Europe, he regulated with consummate prudence the interior police of his kingdom, carried on with great vigour his naval operations, and extended his conquests on the continent of Africa. But perceiving the extreme reluctance with which the Arabs and Moors submitted to his government; and apprehending that his continual depredations might at last draw upon him the arms of the Christians, he put his dominions under the protection of the Grand Seignior, and received from him a body of Turkish soldiers sufficient for his security against both domestic and foreign enemies. The fame of his exploits also induced Solyman to constitute him the admiral of the Ottoman fleet, as the only person whose valour and skill enabled him to oppose Andrew Doria, the greatest naval commander of his age. Barbarossa repaired to Constantinople, and, with an extraordinary versatility of genius, mingling the arts of a courtier with the boldness of a corsair, gained the entire confidence both of the sultan and his vizier. Here he developed a scheme which he had formed, of seizing on Tunis, the most flourishing kingdom on the African coast, and obtained all that was requisite for carrying it into execution.

The kingdom of Tunis was at that time rent by  
2 intestine

intestine divisions. Mahmed, the last king, having thirty-four sons by different wives, had appointed Muley Hascen, one of the youngest, his successor: This weak and vicious prince first poisoned his father, that he might sooner obtain possession of his inheritance; and then, for his further security, put to death all his brothers whom he could get into his power. Alraschid, one of the eldest, was so fortunate as to escape, and found a retreat among the wandering Arabs. But perceiving their inability to afford him any effectual assistance towards ascending the throne, and dreading their natural levity, which might dispose them to deliver him up to his merciless brother, as his last refuge, he fled to Algiers, and implored the protection of Barbarossa, who immediately perceiving the advantages that might be derived from supporting his title, received him with every possible demonstration of respect and friendship. Allured by promises of effectual assistance from the Turkish emperor, Alraschid was easily persuaded to accompany Barbarossa to Constantinople. But on their arrival, the treacherous corsair, regardless of his promises, proposed to the sultan a plan for annexing Tunis to the Ottoman dominions, by using the name of the exiled prince. Solyman approved the proposal, which, though perfectly consistent with the character of its author, was highly disgraceful to that of a great monarch. A formidable armament was immediately equipped, and Alraschid flattered himself with the hope of soon entering Tunis in triumph. But at the moment when this unhappy prince was about to embark, he was arrested by the order of Solyman, and shut up in the seraglio. He was never more heard of; but his fate,

though unknown to the world, is no difficult subject of conjecture.

Barbarossa sailed with a fleet of 250 vessels from Constantinople towards Africa; and after ravaging the coasts of Italy, appeared before Tunis. Having landed his troops, he declared that he came to assert the right of Alraschid, whom he pretended to have left sick on board of the admiral's galley. The fort of Goletta, which commands the harbour, was delivered up. The inhabitants of Tunis took up arms, and declared for Alraschid with such unanimity and zeal, that Muley Hascen was obliged to save himself by a precipitate flight. The gates were immediately opened to Barbarossa, as the restorer of their lawful sovereign. But when Alraschid did not appear, and when, instead of his name, that of Solyman resounded among the Turkish soldiers, the people began to suspect some treachery. Their suspicions being soon converted into certainty, the Tunisians ran furiously to arms, and invested the citadel, in which Barbarossa had placed his troops. But the corsair having foreseen such a revolution, was prepared for the attack. By a brisk discharge of artillery he dispersed the numerous, but irregular assailants, and compelled them to acknowledge Solyman as their sovereign, and himself as his viceroy.\* Having thus gained possession of the kingdom of Tunis, his next care was to put it in a proper state of defence. He strengthened the citadel, which commands the towns and having fortified the Goletta in a regular manner, made it the principal station for his fleets, and his

\* This account of the origin of the piratical states of Barbary, is taken from Dr. Robertson's excellent Narrative, which I have closely followed. See Hist. Ch. V. vol. 3, book 1.



arsenal for military and naval stores. Being now possessed of so extensive territories, and a port so well fortified, he carried on his depredations against the Christian states to a greater extent, and with more destructive violence than before, till daily complaints of his outrages drew upon him the formidable arms of the emperor, Charles V, whose memorable expedition against Tunis has already been related.\* This expedition, though it considerably checked, did not annihilate the power of the African corsairs, who have, ever since that time, been more or less formidable to the Europeans on the Mediterranean. They have sometimes been chastised by the Christian powers, especially by the French under Louis XIV: and since his reign they seem to have particularly dreaded the arms of France. They have still greater reason to stand in awe of the naval power of Great Britain: and of all the European flags, those of England and France are the most secure from their insults and depredations. The Spanish expedition against Algiers in 1705, and its unsuccessful termination, have already been mentioned. The piracies of Tripoli have been greatly checked by the Maltese; and the Tunisians begin to be sensible of the superior advantages of commerce. Algiers is now the focus of the piratical system, which, to the disgrace of Europe, is yet suffered to subsist.

\* See Historical View of Germany.

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*CHAP. IV.*

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Present State, political and moral — Religion — Government — Laws —  
 Army — Navy — Revenues — Commerce — Manufactures — Population —  
 Political importance — Language — Literature — Polite Arts — Education  
 — Manners and Customs — National Character.

*Religion.*]—THE religion of all the African states on the coast of the Mediterranean is the Mahomedan; and the aversion against Christians is carried to a greater height in these than in any other Mahomedan countries.

*Government.*]—In all these states the government is despotic. The despotism of Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers, does not reside solely in the deys, but in the soldiery, by whom they are elected, and frequently deposed. Their election is usually confirmed by the Porte; and while the Ottoman empire continued in the splendour of its greatness, they professed an implicit obedience to the grand seignior. Even the sheriff of Morocco, whom the European writers often dignify with the title of emperor, used to acknowledge his paramount sovereignty. But since the decline of the Turkish power, the allegiance of those states is merely nominal; and though we have no accurate information concerning their present relations with the Porte, we can scarcely consider them as any thing less than virtually independent.

*Laws.*]—Scarcely any such thing as law can be said to exist in these countries: every thing is decided by arbitrary

arbitrary power. In Morocco, the sovereigns frequently act the part both of judges and executioners; and the despotism of the monarch being diffused through every branch of the government, is shared by a number of inferior officers, the agents, and often the victims of tyranny.

*Army.*]—The military forces of these states are far from being numerous. But of these no modern information enables us to pretend to exhibit any estimate approximating to truth. Those of Algiers, the most powerful of the piratical states, are not supposed to exceed 7000 foot, many of whom serve on board the cruizers as marines; and about 2000 Moorish horse, which, in case of emergency, may be greatly augmented. The sheriff, or Emperor of Morocco, might bring into the field a considerable number of men; but the negro cavalry constitutes the chief strength of his army.\* These negro slaves brought young from the interior of Africa, trained up to a military life, and knowing no other master or parent than their king, are the firmest support of his despotism. They seem to be nearly what the Mamelukes of Egypt were before they had usurped the sovereign authority. The soldiers of Algiers bear a near resemblance to the same class of men after they had seized on the government.

*Naval force.*]—The naval force of Algiers has already been described as not consisting of more than twenty vessels of from ten to forty guns. That of the other states is greatly inferior. The whole maritime strength of all these African states is contemptible.

*Revenues.*]—Of their revenues several vague esti-

\* Lempriere states the army of Morocco at 36,000 mostly negroes.

mates have been made; but we have no such precise and authentic information on the subject as can be entitled to attention.

*Commerce.*—The commerce carried on between the Christian states on the northern coasts of the Mediterranean, and the territory of Tunis, is very considerable. In this trade the French have the greatest share; and in time of peace the merchants of Marseilles have, in one year, loaded 300 vessels in the kingdom of Tunis with corn, wool, olive oil, and various other commodities.\* Large quantities of wool are annually exported from Tunis, most of which is shipped by the French. The importation of Barbary wool into the ports of France, chiefly into Marseilles, has always been considered as one of the most gainful articles of the French commerce. They manufactured it into cloth for the Barbary market, from which their merchants derived an immense profit. The trade of Morocco is inconsiderable; that of Algiers, which is not of much greater importance, is chiefly in the hands of the French. The exportation of provisions, of which the chief produce of Algiers consists, is prohibited by the dey, except from Oran for the English garrison at Gibraltar, which is always permitted by a subsisting treaty. Sometimes a licence is granted for the exportation of corn, &c. for the same purpose from Bona. But Great Britain has no direct trade with the states of Barbary. Corn, cattle, hides, wool, &c. are among the principal exports from the African ports on the Mediterranean.† The greatest part of the imports from Tunis are from France and Leghorn.‡ Through these channels,

\* Jackson on the Mediterranean commerce, p. 61.

† *Ibid.* p. 51, 52, 53, 71, 72, &c.

‡ *Ibid.* p. 81.

especially

especially the latter, are received the British manufactures, of which the consumption is considerable. It will not be thought uninteresting to mention, in this place, the trade carried on between Tunis and Tombuctoo, that large and commercial city in the central part of Africa, which no European traveller of credit has yet been able to reach. It is carried on by caravans, across the immense deserts of the interior. These caravans set out for Tombuctoo and Guinea in October, and in June arrive again at Tunis. They take out coarse woollens, fire-arms, gun-powder, watches, hardware, &c. In return they bring back slaves, ivory, and gold-dust. The two latter may be reckoned among the exports of Tunis.\*

*Manufactures.*]—In the states of northern Africa, the manufactures are neither numerous, nor conducted on an extensive scale, unless we may except that of red caps, of which incredible quantities are made at Tunis, and dyed of a beautiful scarlet colour.† Soap is also a considerable article of African manufacture.

*Population.*]—Of the population of those countries so little is known to European writers, that any thing said on the subject can amount to no more than idle conjecture.

*Political importance and relations.*]—The political importance of those states merits little attention. They have no relation to Europe except by commerce or piracy. They may considerably annoy the Mediterranean trade of any nation that has not a naval force sufficient to command respect for its flag.

*Language.*]—The language is, in general, a corrupt kind of Arabic, spoken in various dialects, and inter-

\* Jackson on the Commerce of the Mediterranean, p. 76.

† *Ibid.* 75.

mixed with words derived from the Moors and other nations, of which the population is composed.

*Literature, &c.*]—Except at the city of Tunis, scarcely so much as a shadow of literature or the arts can be said to exist in any of the states of Barbary.

*Manners, Customs, National Character.*]—With the same exception of Tunis, these countries are in a state of barbarism, in manners as well as in learning. The people, as already observed, are a mixed race; and although the Arabian religion and manners have prevailed, the original Moorish blood undoubtedly still predominates. The soldiers and mariners of Tripoli, Tunis, and especially of Algiers, are an intrepid class of men; and often fight desperately on board their piratical vessels. The Arabs are said to be a hospitable people, and the most inoffensive of all the inhabitants. The Brebers or ancient Moorish tribes, who reside in the mountainous districts, and are governed by their own elective sheiks, are an obstinate, fierce, and savage race. The Dey of Tunis is obliged to send annually a large army to collect his tributes.\* A horrible character is given of the Moors by Brisson.† The people of northern Africa, in general, are robust and hardy, but unprincipled, treacherous, and cruel.

#### UNKNOWN COUNTRIES OF AFRICA.

Except the already described countries of Egypt, Abyssinia, the states on the coast of the Mediterranean,

\* Jackson, *commerce of the Mediterranean*, p. 75.

† Brisson, p. 474. For the manners and character of the Moors, see Lempriere, chap. 11.

the Cape colony, and the other particular spots on the sea-coast in which European settlements and factories are thinly scattered, all the rest of Africa may be considered as an unknown region. Of the greatest part of this quarter of the globe we have no manner of knowledge; of a few particular kingdoms and states of the interior, some vague information may be collected. Some of them have been visited, but scarcely any of them explored by intelligent travellers.\* The maritime parts have also been frequently visited, but little examined by traders, whose observations have been solely confined to the coasts, or if they have occasionally penetrated to some distance into the interior, their residence has not been sufficiently long, nor their opportunities sufficiently favourable, to obtain any considerable knowledge of the country. It would, therefore, be an insult on the reader's understanding to amuse him with a fancied description of a terra incognita; and to pretend to fix the boundaries of barbarous tribes and unexplored kingdoms, amidst immense deserts, where the savage rulers are ignorant of the limits of their own domains, which are frequently determined only by the extent of their predatory excursions, or the precarious obedience of unsettled hordes on an undefined frontier. And it would be equally ridiculous to attempt a description of the political and moral state of those countries, a subject still more obscure than their geography. As we possess no documents that can constitute the basis of a methodical description, it must therefore suffice to exhibit such a view as a few slight notices, collected and compared, may afford. In this mode

\* Herodotus knew more of Africa than Ptolemy and Strabo; and nearly as much as the moderns. Rennell, Geog. Herodot. 4, and 5.

of proceeding, it will not be improper to begin with the maritime parts; which, being visited by traders, and interspersed with European settlements, are somewhat better known than the vast recesses of the interior. The African coast, which remains to be described, may be viewed in three divisions;—the Western, the Eastern, and the well known Cape colony, which forms their junction at the southern extremity of this vast continent.

#### WESTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

On the western coast of Africa, in proceeding southward from Morocco, a number of Moorish and Arabian tribes are spread over those sandy and sterile regions, almost to the river of Senegal. On that river and on the Gambia we meet with the Jalofs and the Foulahs. The former are an active and warlike race, and esteemed the handsomest of the negro nations; the latter are of a tawny complexion, with pleasing features; and are probably a fugitive tribe from Mauritania. The maritime part of Guinea, distinguished by the appellations of the Grain, the Ivory, and the Gold coast, extends from about 12° west to about 8° of east longitude; and is mostly comprised between the parallels of 5° and 9° of north latitude. At the western extremity is the English settlement of Sierra Leone, formed in 1787, under the patronage of a very respectable society of gentlemen, for the laudable purpose of promoting the civilization of Africa. In September, 1794, a French squadron attacked and destroyed this settlement; which, however, has, through the prudent measures of the directors,



tors, already recovered from its misfortune; and the colonists make great progress in clearing and improving their lands. To the east of Sierra Leone are the Foulahs of Guinea, a race totally different from the nation of the same name near the river Gambia. The Foulahs of Guinea are a powerful people. It is said that they can bring into the field 16,000 cavalry. They profess the Mahomedan religion; and being surrounded by pagan tribes, think themselves authorised to make war for the sake of procuring slaves. They have some mines of iron, which they work, and some manufactures of silver and leather. Teembo, their capital city, is said to have about 7000 inhabitants. The Mahomedan religion extends along the western coast of Africa as far as the Gambia, where paganism commences; but the former system gradually gains ground, and begins to prevail among several of the negro tribes.

The kingdoms of Dahomy and Benin are powerful and extensive states on the coast of Guinea. Dahomy including Whidah, is supposed to extend from the coast about 150, or 200 miles within land; but this is only conjecture, as no European has penetrated half so far into the interior. The country, as far as it is known to Europeans, is flat; the soil, in general, a deep rich loam; but in some places a little light and gravelly. There is not, however, to be seen in the whole country, a stone so large as an egg. The Dahoman territory is represented as extremely fertile. The inhabitants cultivate maize and millet, yams and potatoes. Oranges, plantains, bananas, pine-apples, melons, and a variety of tropical fruits likewise abound. The country also produces indigo, cotton, tobacco, the sugar cane, and a variety of spices. Among the  
animal

animal productions are sheep, goats, hogs, buffaloes, and elephants. The religion of the Dahomians consists of an inexplicable mass of superstitions. The government is one of the most despotic on the face of the globe. There is no intermediate degree between the king and the slave. No subject whatever can approach the royal presence without prostration; and in that posture every minister and courtier must receive his majesty's commands. The king keeps on foot a considerable standing army commanded by an Agow, or general. But the most singular spectacles which the Europeans meet with in Dahomy are the reviews of female troops, commanded by a female general and subordinate officers of the same sex. Some thousands of women, immured in the royal palaces, are said to be regularly trained and exercised to arms. They serve as body guards to the monarch; and when any extraordinary emergency obliges him to take the field in person, they accompany him in his expeditions. The Dahomian dress is not unbecoming: that of the men consists chiefly of a pair of white or striped cotton drawers, over which they wear a square piece of cloth, differing in size and quality according to the rank and opulence of the wearer. The grandees often use for this purpose fifteen or sixteen yards of silk or velvet. This robe is wrapped about the loins, and tied on the left side by two of the corners, the others hanging down, and sometimes trailing on the ground. The head is covered with a hat of felt or beaver. The upper part of the body, the arms, and the feet are bare. The women use a number of cloths and handkerchiefs, which they wrap about the loins, and occasionally throw over the breasts or shoulders. They also adorn the neck,  
arms,

arms, and ancles, with bracelets, and wear rings of silver or baser metals on their fingers. The Dahomians have several useful arts and manufactures for home consumption, and appear to be in a higher state of civilization than any of the other negro nations with which the Europeans are acquainted. They are also extremely fond of the manufactures and merchandise of Europe. Courteous to strangers, and cruel to their enemies, their national character appears strongly marked with that mixture of politeness and ferocity which is not uncommon among people in the first stages of civilization. Abomey situated in about 8° north latitude, and about 3° east longitude, is the capital of the kingdom. The houses, and even the royal palaces, are meanly built. The principal historical event which has come to the knowledge of the Europeans, is the conquest of Whidrah and Ardrah, about the year 1726, which have ever since composed a part of the kingdom of Dahomy.

Proceeding towards the east the kingdom of Benin next attracts the notice of the merchant and the geographer. It stretches along the coast from about 7° north to about 1° south latitude; and European conjecture, or the vague accounts of the natives, give it a very considerable extent of inland territory. The face of the country is level, the soil fertile, and entirely without stones; and all the physical appearances are similar to what is seen in Dahomy. The climate is hot, and extremely unhealthy. The capital city, called also Benin, is situated on the river of the same name. This river is of considerable magnitude; and divides itself into several branches.\*

\* BOSMAN, p. 399.

The city is said to be spacious and well peopled, and to contain thirty streets, which are kept tolerably clean. But the houses are only low hovels built of clay. The government is monarchical; but with this strange singularity, that the sovereign power is placed in the hands of three chiefs, who have the controul over the king. In regard to the religion of Benin, it seems to be as little known as that of Dahomy. The inhabitants of this country, and probably all the other nations of Guinea, seem to acknowledge a Supreme benevolent Deity, but far above all human worship; and they offer sacrifices to inferior and malignant beings, in order to appease their anger, and avert their malevolence.

Further to the south is Loango, a country of considerable extent. It was formerly possessed by the Portuguese; but they appear to have been expelled. The principal exports are elephants' teeth, tin, lead, copper, and iron. The people are industrious, and exercise many of the useful arts. The soil is chiefly a compact clay. Even the mountains are said to consist wholly of clay, without any mixture of rock. The climate is hot, and extremely insalubrious. The heats are the greatest during the rainy season, which begins with the month of November, and ends with that of March. The country, however, is fertile, and abounds in the same tropical productions as the kingdoms of Dahomy and Benin.

Congo is on the south of Loango. Of this country, however, we have no authentic account since the year 1687; and amidst such a scarcity of information description cannot be too concise. It suffices to say, that Congo, both in its physical and moral state, greatly

greatly resembles the other countries already mentioned.\* The Portuguese have a settlement at St. Salvador, the capital city, which is seated on the top of a considerable mountain. The king appears to be entirely under their influence; and the whole country virtually under their dominion. But a late writer says, that 200 regular troops would conquer all the South of Africa.† He certainly does not include the Cape colony; but even with this exception, he appears to have made a random estimate of such an enterprize. The Congoese have the negro complexion; but their features rather resemble those of the Europeans.

Contiguous to Congo on the south is the country of Angola, which is said to be governed by several petty princes. The Portuguese have several settlements, and are masters of the coast, although other European nations trade with the natives. The unhappy countries, situated on this extensive coast, which stretches from the river of Senegal, to the south of Angola, have, during the long period of nearly three centuries, been a scene of the most infamous commerce ever encouraged or practised by Christians.‡ Ever since the year 1517 the slave trade had been a disgrace to the civilized world and the Christian name. The French revolution, amidst all its atrocities, produced one happy effect, the abolition of negro slavery, so far as France was concerned. The

\* In the 12th and 13th volume of the Modern Universal History, is a good description of Congo, compiled from original, though not recent authorities.

† Proyart, p. 167.

‡ Slaves are also procured by the Portuguese on the Eastern coast, as well as by the Egyptians and Moors, from the interior; but the number is trifling in comparison to those carried from Guinea, &c.

British senate was not to be outdone in generosity by the national assembly of France. The measure had been already brought forward by the friends of humanity. But innumerable obstacles presented themselves in the way of its execution. Important interests, and apprehensions of consequences, were considerations which had their due weight with a wise legislature. After successive parliaments had, by judicious regulations, prepared the way for the completion of this great purpose, the final question was proposed. The advocates for the abolition and opponents of the measure, actuated by sentiments equally pure equally patriotic, impartially discussed all the arguments which benevolence on one side, and prudence on the other could adduce. The result was favourable to the cause of humanity and national glory. Britain was rescued from infamy, and a considerable portion of mankind from slavery. This was certainly the most acceptable sacrifice that Britain, the native land of liberty could offer to the Sovereign of the universe, the universal parent of mankind, in grateful return for the numerous favours received from his hand. This will be considered as one of the most glorious events in her annals: future generations and distant regions will commemorate with gratitude and rapture the reign of George III. and the benevolence of the British legislature.

The American congress at the same time vying with the British senate in philanthropy, abolished the slave trade throughout the territories of the United States. This iniquitous traffic in human flesh being now abolished in the dominions of France, England, and the American republic, is nearly restricted to the Spanish, Portuguese, and Dutch colonies, the Danish being

being inconsiderable. If not wholly extirpated, it is therefore exceedingly curtailed, and no doubt can be entertained that its final extinction among all the nations of Europe is no very distant event.

From Angola almost to the Cape colony, the coast is little known. From Cape Negro to the parallel of about thirty degrees south latitude, it presents a vast extent of desert, scarcely inhabited. The Hottentots, whose savage life has been often described, and is almost become proverbial, are spread over the southern part of the narrowed continent.

#### CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

The celebrated Cape colony which occupies the southern extremity of Africa, is about 550 British miles in length, and 233 in breadth;\* but in this extent of territory there are many large tracts, consisting of ranges of rocky mountains, and level plains of hard clay mixed with sand, which, being absolutely unimproveable, are doomed to perpetual sterility. The mountainous chains run from west to east. The first ridge is from twenty to sixty miles from the coast; the second, called Zwart Berg, or the black mountain, is more lofty and rugged, and about the same distance from the first: the third is the Nieuveld, which, with the first, incloses a vast karroo, or desert of clay and sand, rising like a terrace, and extending about 300 miles in length from west to east, and about eighty in breadth from north to south.† The country is more fertile towards the Indian than towards the Atlantic

\* Barrow's Trav. p. 9. For a more minute description of this colony, consult Barrow, Sparman, and Paterson,

† Pinkerton's Geog. vol. 2, p. 752.

Ocean Behind Cape Town the ground rises gradually into mountains, distinguished by different appellations, as the Table Mountain, the Lion's Head, Charles Mount, and James Mount. The view from the summit of Table Mount is extensive and picturesque, and the valleys display a number of fine plantations. This colony, which produces various kinds of grain, and in some places good pasturage, might have been in a much more flourishing condition, had not the Dutch, from particular motives, discouraged settlers, by refusing grants of land, and imposing various restrictions.\* There are farms, however, in several remote districts; and to the south-east of Cape Town are the vineyards, which produce the celebrated wine of Constantia. The natural history of this colony has been ably explored; and the gay variety of its botanical productions surpasses all the efforts of the pen or the pencil. The zoology also is curious; the oxen are extremely well trained to the draught. The inhabitants generally travel in carts drawn by oxen, a mode well adapted to the roughness of the country. But the governor and principal people keep coaches drawn by horses in the English style. There are wolves, hyænas, antelopes, &c. about the Cape; and more inland, all the ferocious animals of Africa; and the hippopotamus, which Sparman regards as the largest of all animals next to the elephant, abound in the rivers. Among the birds, the eagle, the vulture, and the huge condor, the spread of whose wings sometimes reaches ten feet, are enumerated. Cape Town is regular and handsome, the streets being broad, and intersecting each other at right angles.

\* Brougham's Col. Policy, vol. 1. p. 330, and Ancr.



The European population is computed at about 5000, and that of the whole settlement is supposed not to exceed 20,000. The natives are of different tribes, among whom the most numerous are the Hottentots, a nation that has been often and minutely described. The climate, though subject to frequent storms, is cool and salubrious. And the importance of this settlement, as a place of refreshment to the East-India fleets, is too generally known to be here made a subject of discussion.\* The events of its history have already been mentioned in different parts of this work.

## EASTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

The eastern coast of Africa being visited chiefly by the Portuguese, is still more imperfectly known than the western. On leaving the territory of the Cape, we first meet with the Caffers, or properly Koussis, Caffer being not a national appellation, but an Arabic word, signifying in general terms an unbeliever, and consequently of no precise meaning in geography. The Caffers, or Koussis, are of a bright black colour, tall and stout, and their features are not disagreeable. The clothing of both sexes consists only of hides of oxen, rendered pliant as cloth; but most of them go nearly naked, and are in general tattood. According to M. Vaillant, they believe in a Supreme Being and a future state of rewards and punishments: but they have no external worship, no sacred rites, nor any priests. Instead of these, however, they have con-

\* It is unnecessary to mention that this valuable settlement is now in the possession of Great Britain, and will probably be no more ceded to the Dutch.

jurors, whom they greatly distinguish and revere. They are governed by a chief, whose power is very limited. He receives no taxes, but has a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed, in order to support his family and maintain his dignity. He has no troops at command; and has no other authority than that which arises from his being revered as the father of a free people.\* M. Vaillant enters into minute details of the manners of the Caffrees, as well as of the nature of their country, for which his amusing work may be consulted. After passing the unknown coast of Natal, and the bay of Dongola, in advancing towards the north is the country of Sofala, where the Portuguese have a settlement and a fort. The country is said to be fertile, and to contain mines of gold of considerable value. The original natives are black; but a colony of Arabs has been settled on the coast, and their descendants retain the Arabian complexion, with a dialect of the language.

On the north of Sofala is the extensive kingdom of Mocaranga, preposterously called Monomotapa, which is the title of the monarch, not the name of the kingdom. According to D'Anville's map, the large river Zambezi, encircles the kingdom on the west and the north. This river is said to derive its source from a vast lake in the interior, and to be in some places above a league in breadth. At the distance of about 90 or 100 miles from the coast, it divides into two large branches, forming a delta, and again subdividing,

\* Vaillant's Trav. are written in a pleasant style, and contain some curious observations; but unfortunately they have too much the air of romance to command implicit credit.

viding,

viding, falls into the sea by five mouths, the principal stream being called the Luabo. In the month of April the Zambezi inundates the low country. A chain of high mountains, called the spine of the world, stretching from north to south, and covered with perpetual snow, is said to pervade the interior. The plain country, however, is exposed to excessive heats; but the soil is in general said to be fertile. Some of the mountainous parts abound in gold. The Portuguese, who engross all the commerce, have a station near the mountains of Fura, about 600 miles within land, where the largest quantities of that metal are found. They have also some fortresses on the coast. According to the imperfect accounts which are given of this country, the government seems to resemble the disorderly feudal system which once prevailed in Europe. The king is acknowledged as paramount sovereign; but the country appears to be under the immediate government of numerous petty chiefs, whose children are retained at court as hostages, in order to ensure their fidelity. The monarch's guards are said to consist of females slightly armed, a circumstance which, if true, exhibits a striking analogy with the system of the far distant court of Dahomey. If our accounts be correct, a feature so similar, and regarded by Europeans as so singular, in the political institutions of countries on the opposite sides of this vast continent, between which no intercourse can subsist, and which are in all probability totally unknown to each other, would induce a conjecture that the system of retaining female guards is an ancient and general practice among the princes of southern Africa. It must, however, be observed, that all our accounts of this exten-

sive and naturally important region, are very imperfect, and none of them recent.\*

The same observation may be extended to the countries of Mosambique and Zanguebar, stretching northward from Macaranga. Although the Portuguese possess the important stations of Mosambique and Melinda, they do not explore, or at least they do not publish any accounts of those regions, which, excepting the coasts, present only a blank in geography. The Portuguese city of Mosambique, situated on an island about two miles from the continent, in  $15^{\circ} 8'$  latitude, and  $40^{\circ} 10'$  east longitude, is large and populous, containing many churches and monasteries. The harbour, which is safe, spacious, and commodious, is defended by a citadel, in which the Portuguese keep a garrison. The trade consists chiefly in gold, elephants' teeth, and slaves.

Melinda, the capital of the kingdom of that name, is also in the possession of the Portuguese, who have a fortress and several churches in the city. Melinda is a Mahomedan kingdom, founded by an Arabian colony; but the inhabitants are a mixture of Pagans, the original natives of the country, Mahomedans of Arabian descent, and Christians, converted by the Portuguese. The productions of this kingdom are rice, sugar, cocoa, and the other tropical fruits. It also affords gold, ivory, ostrich feathers, various kinds of drugs, and other articles common to the equatorial regions of Africa. The coast of Zanguebar is represented in general as marshy and unhealthful. The lit-

\* All our accounts of those countries are by Portuguese authors of the sixteenth century, and all of them are replete with exaggeration and fiction.

the kingdom of Quiloa, with that of Mombaza, and the small aristocratical republic of Brava are also dependant on the Portuguese. In proceeding still towards the north, the coast of Ajan presents an extensive tract of sandy deserts, thinly inhabited by a few scattered Arabian tribes. The kingdom of Adel is an Arabian colony, extending from the deserts of Ajan northward to the entrance of the Straits of Babel-mandel and Cape Guardafui: the prince and most of the people are Mahomedans. From Sofala, northward as far as to the Red Sea, Arabian colonies are every where found; but the period of their establishment is not recorded in history. The Portuguese, under the famous Vasco di Gama, were the first Europeans who visited these parts; and soon after reduced them under their dominion. At present they may be justly considered as masters of all the eastern coasts of Africa, from Sofala, to the kingdom of Adel, a vast extent of maritime territory, comprising many rich and fertile countries; which, in the hands of an enterprising people, as the Portuguese were in the sixteenth century, might receive incalculable improvements, and afford vast supplies of national wealth. If the spirit of industry, investigation and enterprize, were resuscitated, and properly encouraged in Portugal, her subjects, being masters of Congo and Angola, Mocuranga, and Mosambique on the opposite coasts of Southern Africa, might open an immense field of geography and natural history. A company of scientific men, attended by 300 or 400 regular troops, might, with safety, explore the whole intervening interior.

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# ABYSSINIA,

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## CHAP. I.

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Situation—Extent—Boundaries—Face of the Country—Mountains—Rivers—Lakes—Mineralogy—Mineral Waters—Soil—Climate—Vegetable Productions—Zoology—Natural Curiosities—Antiquities and Artificial Curiosities.

**ABYSSINIA** is situated in that part of the torrid zone that lies within the northern hemisphere; but its extent and boundaries are so imperfectly known, and so differently defined in books of geography, that the parallels and meridians, within which it is included, cannot be fixed by accurate information. One of our popular works on this science, places Abyssinia between 6, and 20° north latitude, and between 26, and 44° of east longitude; and gives it 920 miles in extent from north to south, and 900 from east to west.\* Another, without mentioning the parallels, assigns to this country eleven degrees of latitude, and eight degrees of longitude, on the middle parallel of ten degrees, making a length of 660 geographic, or about 770, or rather by a more exact computation, of 765 British miles from north to south, and a breadth of about 548 of the same miles from east to west.†

\* Gutbrie, Art. Abyssinia.

† Pinkerton says 572 geographic, or 550 British miles, which is a manifest error; for eight deg. of longitude in the tenth parallel of latitude, is only 472. Pink. Geog. vol. 2. p. 721.

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Such disagreements and uncertainties, in regard to countries so little known, ought not, however, to excite our surprise. In regard to its boundaries, which, except to the east, may be considered as undefined, it may suffice to say, that, towards that quarter, Abyssinia has the Red Sea and the kingdom of Adel, on the north the deserts of Nubia, and the unknown parts of Africa on the west and south.

*Face of the country.*—According to Bruce's account the face of the country is magnificently diversified with the grand features of nature, and with all the beauties of variegated scenery, mountains and vallies, hills, forests, and plains, exhibiting almost all the variety of landscape of which the surface of the terraqueous globe is susceptible.

*Mountains.*—The mountains of Abyssinia appear to be scattered in irregular groups. Many of them are high and precipitous, resembling castles and towers. In the eastern parts of the kingdom are the heights of Tarenta, in the south those of Ganza; but the mountains of Lamahnon, towards the centre of the kingdom, have the greatest elevation. In or near the latter group are those of Amhara and Samena, reckoned the loftiest in all Abyssinia. Many of these mountains present tremendous, and truly Alpine precipices.

*Rivers.*—The principal river is the Bahr-el-Azrek, or Abyssinian Nile, of which the sources were, in the seventeenth century, visited and accurately described by Payz, a Portuguese missionary; and recently by our countryman Bruce, who has, by some, been suspected of having been wholly indebted to the former for his intelligence, and of having borrowed his description. But two merchants, one an Armenian, the other

other of the kingdom of Bergoo, both of whom had been at Gondar during the time of Bruce's residence in that city, assured Mr. Browne of the high estimation in which the English traveller was held at the court of Abyssinia. Both these persons, however, asserted that Bruce had never visited the Abyssinian source of the Nile. But as their residence at Gondar had only been short, and that of the English traveller of much longer duration, they seem to have been scarcely competent to give evidence on the subject. They confirmed, however, several of Bruce's narratives, which would appear far less probable.\* The French traveller, Sonnini also, while in Egypt, met with an Abyssinian priest, and some others of that nation, whose relations convinced him that more credit was due to Bruce than some of his enemies were willing to allow.† On the whole, it seems highly improbable that so enterprising a traveller should, unless prevented by insurmountable obstacles, return without accomplishing one of the principal purposes of his painful and perilous journey. The Bahr-el-Azreh, or Abawi, the Abyssinian Nile, has its principal source in a small hillock of a circular form, rising to the elevation of about three feet, in the middle of a marsh.‡ There are also at small distances from this principal fountain, two inferior springs, all which Bruce appears to have measured and described with minute exactness. His observations fix the geographical position of this interesting spot in  $10^{\circ} 5'$ ,  $25''$ ,

\* Mr. Browne met the former of these merchants at Suez, and the latter in Dar Fas. Preface to travels in Egypt, &c. p. 17.

† Sonnini's travels in Egypt, p. 1.

‡ Mr. Bruce says, that the source of the Nile is two miles above the level of the sea, consequently Abyssinia must be a very elevated country. Trav. vol. 3. p. 642, and 652.



lat. north, and  $36^{\circ}, 55', 30''$  east from Greenwich. The Agows pay divine honours to the Nile, and offer sacrifices of cattle to the spirit supposed to reside at its source. The hillock, which contains the principal fountain, is surrounded by a shallow trench, and a bank of turf, which serves as an altar for the performance of their religious rites. Bruce gives an interesting account of the venerable appearance of the priest of the Nile. The river begins its progress towards the east, turns to the south, then to the west, and afterwards to the north, forming a kind of semicircular course, and receiving several other streams, some of which, as the Tacuzzi and the Malig, are of considerable magnitude. In the kingdom of Sennaar, about  $16^{\circ}$  north latitude, it joins the Bahr-el-Abiad, or white river, which is the true Nile; and according to the information received by Mr. Brown, rises in a mountainous country called Donga, about ten days journey to the south of Abu Telfin in Dar Bergoo.

*Lakes.*]--Among the lakes of Abyssinia, the principal is that of Tzana, or Dembea, which the Nile pervades in its progress. This lake is about sixty miles in length, and thirty in breadth; but its extent differs greatly in wet and dry seasons. This lake contains several islands, from one of which called Tzana, its name is supposed to be derived. The next is the lake of Zawaja, the principal source of the Hawash.

*Mineralogy.*]--The mineralogy of so mountainous a country as Abyssinia would certainly be interesting, was it not neglected by the ignorant natives. Gold is found in the sands of the rivers; and there are some trifling mines. There does not appear to be any gems; and it is said by some that the Abyssinians forbear

forbear to search either for these or for gold, lest the Turks should be instigated by avarice to invade their country. Fossil salt is found in some parts of Abyssinia.

*Soil.*]—In so extensive and mountainous a country, the soil must display every possible variety. A great part of it in the valleys is a rich black mould. In other parts it is sandy, marshy, or rocky.

*Climate.*]—The climate of Abyssinia, being tempered by the mountainous surface of the country, and the heavy rains, which fall from April to September, is cooler than might be expected from its situation within the torrid zone. This rainy season, however, is succeeded by a cloudless sky, and a vertical sun. The days are consequently hot; but even in that scorching season the nights are cool. The ground is almost perpetually cold, and often feels disagreeably so to the soles of the feet. This remarkable coldness of the earth must be attributed partly to the moisture imbibed by the periodical rains, and partly to the length of the nights; as between the tropics the nights and days are at all seasons nearly equal. According to the observations of Mr. Bruce, whose long residence at Gondar enabled him to become well acquainted with the subject, the sun in his progress northward seemed, on the 7th of January, two years together, to have extended his influence as far as the atmosphere of Gondar. On that day the sun being  $34^{\circ}$  from the zenith, there appeared, for the first time, pale, thin clouds, the sky having till then been perfectly serene. On the 1st of March the sun approaches to within  $5^{\circ}$  of the zenith of Gondar; and a small quantity of rain then falls at that place. It descends in large drops, and lasts but a few minutes.

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But the quantity increases every day, and the rainy season seriously commences at every place when the sun becomes vertical. These rains continue constant and increasing as the sun advances northward; and seem to descend like a deluge when he approaches the tropic. In April, all the rivers in the provinces of Amhara, Begember, &c. begin to swell and join the Nile in different parts of its course. In the beginning of May the low countries are inundated, and innumerable streams from the adjacent provinces pour themselves into the lake of Dembea, which now supplies a vast quantity of water to the Nile. The month of June, when the sun in his progress and his returns continues during some time, without receding far from the tropic of Cancer, is the time of the heaviest rains in Abyssinia. On the return of the sun they gradually diminish, following his progress to the south, and after his transit over the equator, the rainy season begins in the southern hemisphere.

*Vegetable productions.*]--The vegetable productions of this country are numerous and abundant, but imperfectly described. Various kinds of grain are produced, the wheat in particular is excellent, but the use of wheaten bread is chiefly confined to the higher ranks. A grain called teff, which, from its thriving on almost every kind of soil, is greatly cultivated throughout all Abyssinia, is generally used for bread by the middle and lower classes of the people. The country abounds in many of the productions of the tropical climates, and most of them might be rendered plentiful by cultivation. An esculent herbaceous plant, called by Bruce ensete, seems analogous to the banana; and serves as an excellent substitute for bread, being wholesome, nutritive, and of easy diges-

tion. It is cultivated in several parts of Abyssinia, and attains to great perfection at Gondar; but it seems chiefly to abound in some parts on the west side of the Nile, where it constitutes almost the sole food of the inhabitants. The papyrus, for which Egypt was formerly so famous, is found also in Abyssinia. The sycamore, the date tree, the fig, and a large tree which Bruce names rack, and which is used for the building of boats, as well as the trees which yield the Balm of Gilead, are described as natives of the country. To these may be added a shrub which Bruce denominates *Bruca antidysenterica*, and celebrates it for its medicinal virtues in curing the dysentery. Coffee is also an Abyssinian as well as an Arabian production.

*Zoology*].—Abyssinia surpasses most countries on the globe in the number and variety of its quadrupeds, its volatiles, and its insects. The horses are small, but spirited. Horned cattle and buffaloes are numerous. The former present a great variety of breeds, differing in size and characteristic distinctions. Most kinds of wild animals are numerous. Among these are the elephant, the rhinoceros, the lion, the panther, and as it is said, the camelopardalis. The wild boar is also common in the woody swamps. There are also great numbers and several varieties of the gazelle, or antelope kind. Jackals, and various tribes of monkeys, likewise abound. The hyænas are exceedingly numerous, and equally bold and ferocious. Bruce says, that they exceed the sheep in number, and are a plague in every situation, in the city as well as in the country. The streets of Gondar, from the commencement of darkness to the dawn of day, are full of those fierce animals which prowl about the city in search of the  
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the slaughtered carcasses left without burial, a circumstance which shews the defect of the police. The extirpation of wild beasts may be difficult in so mountainous a country, in a vast continent where their abundance in all parts would afford a constant supply; but their extraordinary numbers in Abyssinia, indicate a great defect in population, as well as in police; for it is observed, that in all countries the number of wild beasts diminishes as that of the human species increases. The hippopotamus and the crocodile are frequent in the lakes and rivers. The birds are equally, or even still more numerous than the quadrupeds, and present an astonishing variety. They abound both in the high and low countries: in the former they are chiefly of the carnivorous kinds. Various species of the eagle and hawk, and still more of the vulture kind, swarm in those regions. The most remarkable of these is the golden eagle, the largest bird of the aequine species, and one of the largest in the whole class of volatiles. The owls are few in number, but of extraordinary size and beauty. Water fowl are rare; and no geese, either wild or tame, are seen in Abyssinia, except the golden goose, or goose of the Nile, which is common in southern Africa, and builds its nest on trees. The insects are also numerous; but the most remarkable is a large fly, the sting of which is so terrible, that even the thick hide of the camel is unable to resist its violent puncture. As soon as this tremendous fly appears, or its buzzing is heard, all animated nature is agitated with terror: even the lion himself flies with trepidation. For a more particular account of those subjects, the reader may consult Mr. Bruce's elaborate descriptions. This summary view  
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may be concluded with observing, that Abyssinia displays an immense field of natural history.

*Natural curiosities.*]—The natural curiosities of this country are numerous. The principal of these are the stupendous Alpine scenes, the precipitous detached rocks, especially that of Geshen, in the province of Amhara, where the princes were formerly confined; and the great cataract of Alata, where the Nile, falling in an unbroken sheet of water of half an English mile in breadth, from a height of forty or fifty feet, with a noise that stuns the spectator, presents a scene, which Mr. Bruce considers as the most magnificent that he ever beheld.

*Antiquities.*]—The principal remains of antiquity are those of Axum, which is supposed to have formerly been the capital of Abyssinia. These ruins are extensive, and furnish a proof that this country was once in a far more flourishing state than at present. In a square, which appears to have been the centre of the city, there are forty obelisks of granite without hieroglyphics; and on the top of one which is standing, is a patera, extremely well carved in the Grecian taste, which shews that in some age, the arts have been cultivated in Abyssinia.

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*CHAP. II.*

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Principal cities and towns—Edifices.

**T**HE catalogue of Abyssinian cities is short, and few of them are deserving of notice.

*Gondar.*—Gondar, the present capital, is described by Bruce as containing 10,000 houses, built mostly of clay, and thatched with reeds, the roofs being of a conical form. It is situated on the level summit of an eminence of considerable elevation, in latitude  $12^{\circ} 34' 30''$  and  $37^{\circ} 33'$  longitude east from Greenwich. On the west side of the town stands the royal palace, which appears to have formerly been a considerable structure, but is now in a ruinous state. It is surrounded by a strong stone wall, comprising within a square of about an English mile and half in circuit, not only the palace itself, but all the contiguous buildings. This wall, which is thirty feet high, has battlements and a parapet, on which is a walk round the whole inclosure; but there is no appearance of embrasures for cannon. The palace is a quadrangular edifice, flanked with towers of the same form, and was formerly four stories high, commanding, from its summit, an extensive and magnificent view of the southern country as far as the lake of Danbea. Though the upper stories are in ruins, the two lowermost contain apartments sufficiently spacious for every purpose; and the chamber of audience is above 120 feet in length.

*Axum.*—Axum is, as already observed, generally understood

understood to have been the ancient capital of Abyssinia. The relics of its ancient splendour have already been mentioned. There is also a large Gothic cathedral, which is falling to decay. Axum is watered by a small rivulet, which flows from a spring in the narrow valley where the obelisks are seen. The water is received into a large bason of 150 feet square, and from thence is conducted at pleasure into the neighbouring gardens, which produce little fruit except pomegranates, and those not of the best kind. The town itself is now inconsiderable.

*Dixan.*—Dixan is chiefly remarkable for its singular situation, and the infamous traffic carried on by its inhabitants. It is seated on the summit of a hill, of a perfectly conic form, which is surrounded by a deep ditch. A road winds spirally up the hill to the town, and forms its only approach. Dixan is well peopled. The inhabitants are a mixture of Mahomedans and Christians, and their only trade is that of selling children. The Christians bring higher such as they have stolen in Abyssinia; and the Mahomedans receiving them, carry them to the market at Masuah, from whence they are sent into Arabia, and other countries. The priests in the province of Tigré are openly concerned in this abominable traffic.

*Masuah.*—Masuah is the only port in Abyssinia. It is situated on an island of the same name, in the Red Sea, at a very small distance from the shore, and contains about twenty houses of stone, a few of which are two stories high. The rest of the houses are constructed of poles, and covered with grass. The town, however, carries on a considerable trade.

*Edifices.*—The churches are round and encircled with a portico: the houses are of a conical form, and built of clay.



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*CHAP. III.*

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Historical View.—Progress of Society, &c.

**ALTHOUGH** Mr. Bruce has given an ample detail of the Abyssinian history, our present view of the subject shall be confined within narrow limits. The obscure, broken, and dubious annals of an uncivilized nation, which has never had any influence on the politics, and scarcely any connection with the commerce of this quarter of the globe, cannot be very interesting to an European reader. Geographical situation and physical appearances afford a strong probability that Abyssinia was originally peopled by colonies from the opposite shores of Arabia. Similarity of features seems to establish the fact, for which proximity of situation alone might afford a probable conjecture. The physiognomy of the Abyssinians, notwithstanding the darkness of their complexion, is evidently Asiatic, and totally different from that of the other African nations, by whom they are almost surrounded.\*

The Abyssinian monarchs, whether from history or tradition, from ignorance or vanity, derive their lineage from Solomon by the famous queen of Sheba. Historians, however, have never been able to ascertain the country over which that princess reigned; but the most general, and perhaps the most probable

\* Buffon's Hist. Nat. tom. 3.

opinion, fixes it in Arabia Fœlix rather than in Africa. Josephus gives us a story of her and her son, and places them in Ethiopia; but he does not determine the situation of that country; and it is well known that the moderns are often misled by translators, who affix to southern Africa the name by which the Hebrews used to designate Arabia. If the queen of Sheba actually reigned in Abyssinia, and if her long and tedious journey was compensated by the blessing of a son and heir to her dominions, as Josephus, Ludolphus, and Bruce relate, the circumstance may account for the introduction of Judaism into that country.\* The Abyssinian annals assert, that her return from the court of Solomon was followed by the conversion of her kingdom. The religion of Moses was established on the ruins of Paganism; and the church of Abyssinia was modelled according to the institutions of Jerusalem. From various documents of ancient history, it appears that in early times, the Ethiopians were considered as a powerful nation; but whether this appellation denoted the people on the Asiatic, or the African side of the Red Sea, or whether it comprehended both, is often problematical. It is scarcely to be doubted, however, that both were originally the same people; and it is certain that the Abyssinian monarchs sometimes extended their dominion over the neighbouring parts of Arabia. In later times, they have been exposed to invasions from the same countries. If the historical events of this remote corner of the globe in the dark ages of antiquity, can excite any interest, modern curiosity may find suffi-

\* Joseph. Antiq. Jud. lib. 2.—Lodolp. Hist. Ethiop. lib. 1, p. 96.—Bruce Trav. vol. 2.

cient gratification in the voluminous writings of Bruce, who has amply unfolded the Abyssinian annals.\*

This empire continued the seat of Judaism more than two centuries after the extinction of that system in Palestine; and the most authentic documents assign the 333d year of our æra as the period of its conversion to Christianity. The supposition of the introduction of that religion into Abyssinia in the time of the apostles, is now generally exploded; and it is almost universally allowed that this event was brought about by the evangelical labours of Frumentius, the disciple of St. Athanasius, who then sat in the chair of St. Mark at Alexandria. The religion which the Abyssinians received, was consequently the christianity of the age of Constantine; but in the sixth century they adopted the Monophysite schism of Egypt. In those times they appear to have had a considerable commerce with India and Ceylon. Their negus, or king, formed an alliance with the emperor Justinian; and from their intercourse with Egypt, and other parts of the Eastern empire, they seemed to have imbibed the rudiments of the arts and sciences.† Abyssinia displays no ancient monuments like those of Egypt: no temples, no pyramids, no hieroglyphical sculptures. It seems, therefore, that the Abyssinians had adopted none of the arts of ancient Egypt; and that the introduction of Christianity, opening a more frequent intercourse with the civilized world, had contributed, more than any other event, to raise them above the ordinary level of African barbarism. But after the Arabian conquest of Syria and Egypt, the Ethiopians, surrounded by the enemies of their religion, and shut up

\* Bruce's Trav. vol. 2, where the reader will see a complete view of this subject.

† Gibbon's Dec. Rom. Emp. ch. 48, et auct. cit.

in a remote part of Africa, remained above 800 years forgotten by the world. In this sequestered situation, their Christianity was gradually corrupted, their arts and commerce extinguished, and they had almost relapsed into a savage state. In this condition they were found about the commencement of the sixteenth century, by the Portugueze, who appearing among them as if descended from a distant planet, conciliated their esteem by the similarity of their religion, and by their superiority in learning and science, in arts and arms, commanded their admiration. The common name of Christians, and the common profession of the religion of Christ, was at first considered as a bond of union. The Portugueze, in that age of commercial enterprize and of eastern conquest, promised themselves great advantages from the alliance of the Christian emperor of Ethiopia, who might, on his part, expect their aid against the Mahomedans. An intercourse was opened between Abyssinia and Europe, and an interchange of embassies took place between the shores of the Red Sea and the banks of the Tagns and the Tyber. The Abyssinians, conscious of their defects, formed the rational project of introducing the arts and ingenuity of Europe, and solicited a colony of carpenters, smiths, masons, printers, surgeons, &c. for the use of the country and the instruction of the people. The public danger also called for the effectual aid of the disciplined soldiers of Europe to defend an powarlike people against the inroads of the Barbarians, who ravaged the inland parts of the country, and the invasions of the Turks and the Arabs from the coasts of the Red Sea. In this important crisis, about 450 Portugueze troops, who displayed in the field the valour of Europeans, and the power of fire-

fire-arms, repulsed the invaders, and saved Abyssinia. But all the projects of advantage which both nations might rationally have hoped to derive from their alliance, were defeated by theological disputes, from which neither could obtain any substantial benefit; and armies were slaughtered to decide the pious question, whether the Roman Pontiff, or the Alexandrian Patriarch, should be the head of the Abyssinian church. The emperor was converted to the faith of Portugal and Rome; but lost his crown and his life in a revolt of his subjects. Segued, his successor, avenged his death, and adopted his measures. The emperor, the court, and the clergy, acknowledged the supremacy of the Pope. Alhouso Mendez, a Portugueze jesuit, was constituted patriarch of Abyssinia, and his clergy erected their churches in every part of the empire. The religious and political alliance between Ethiopia and Portugal, seemed now to be confirmed; but it was soon dissolved, or rather violently broken, by the rash indiscretion of the ecclesiastical chief, who equally forgot the mild doctrines of the gospel, and the profound policy of his order. Instead of conciliating the affections of his new converts, and gradually eradicating their prejudices, the new patriarch established a system of persecution, and hurled out excommunications and anathemas against all who remained attached to any of their ancient rites. Those violences excited a general spirit of revolt against the Portugueze religion and the emperor's government. Successive rebellions, excited by the Abuna and his Abyssinian clergy, were extinguished in the blood of the insurgents. But the constancy of the nation at last prevailed. After more than half a century of contest, in which both spiritual and temporal arms were employed,

the Portugueze were finally expelled from Abyssinia; and the gates of that sequestered realm were, as an elegant writer observes, for ever shut against the religion, the arts, and the science of Europe. From that time the Abyssinians, again secluded from all intercourse with the civilized world, appear to have been in a state of rapid decline towards barbarism. A very small portion of learning, of art, and of science, is left: and although the Abyssinian church exists under the superintendance of the Abuna, and the supremacy of the Coptie Patriarch, its doctrines, as well as its morals, are extremely corrupted.

This general sketch of Abyssinian history, may not be uninteresting as a particular feature in that of the human race. Its political and military transactions are similar to those of all semi-barbarous nations. Wars carried on with cruelty, but without skill, against the Arabians and the savage tribes of the African interior, perpetual contests between the emperor and the powerful and refractory nobles, frequent rebellions, multiplied treasons, and bloody executions, mark its disgusting pages. The most distinguishing feature of the history of Abyssinia, is the singular spectacle of a Christian empire existing for so many ages in the midst of Pagan and Mahomedan nations, and totally forgotten by the rest of the Christian world.

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*CHAP. IV.*

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Present State, political and moral — Religion — Government — Laws —  
 Army — Navy — Revenues — Commerce — Manufactures — Population —  
 Political importance and relations — Language — Literature — Polite  
 Arts — Education — Manners and Customs — National Character.

*Religion.*]—THE religion of Abyssinia is, as already observed, the Christian, agreeing in doctrinal principles and hierarchy in general with the Coptic church, but distinguished by several peculiar forms too minute to be here particularized, and mixed with many Jewish, and some Mahomedan practices. It may, however, be observed, that the Abyssinians retain circumcision without omitting the use of baptism. They receive the Eucharist in both kinds in a sort of marmalade, compounded of unleavened bread, and grapes bruised with the husk. Their fasts, especially that of Lent, are rigorously observed. The clergy, and monks in particular, are by their rules subjected to great abstemiousness. The Abuna is the principal ecclesiastic.

*Government.*]—The government is absolute monarchy, and the king, or emperor, as he is styled in Europe, is saluted with prostration, and regarded as sole proprietor of the soil, all private property being restricted to moveables. His authority, however, appears to be greatly circumscribed by the great nobles, who frequently set his authority at defiance. Abyssinia, on these occasions, which often recur, pre-

sents a scene of anarchy. The contest is commonly decided by the sword; and when the monarch proves victorious, the royal prerogative is asserted with bloody and vindictive severity. From Bruce's account, it appears that the Abyssinian government presents a picture of the worst times of the feudal system in Europe. The crown is hereditary in the house of Solomon, but admits of an election, restricted to the princes of the royal family. The education of these princes, in a place of sequestered confinement on the top of a lofty, precipitous, and solitary mountain, was a striking and romantic singularity, resulting from the jealous policy of the Abyssinian government; but this practice has been long since discontinued.

*Laws.*—Concerning the laws, little can be said. Every thing seems to be determined chiefly by force, and by the arbitrary will of the sovereign. It may, however, in general, be observed, that in Abyssinia the punishments, especially in cases of treason and rebellion, are extremely severe. The criminals are commonly flayed alive, or, after having their eyes torn out, are turned out to starve in the woods; or suspended alive upon gibbets.

*Military force, &c.*—According to Bruce, it would be difficult to raise the royal army to above 30,000 men: it is almost unnecessary to add, that any thing like a navy is unknown.

*Revenues.*—The royal revenues, consisting of the rude products of the various provinces, cannot be estimated with any degree of precision. One of the principal articles is cattle, which are numerous, and of a low value.

*Commerce.*—As money is unknown in Abyssinia, that circumstance sufficiently indicates the low state



of commerce, which is chiefly confined to the small port of Masuah, on the Red Sea.

*Manufactures.*]—The manufactures are also contemptible. The Portugueze had introduced several of the European arts; but since their expulsion, these improvements have been neglected, and seem to be forgotten. Although Cosmo di Medicis, among other artisans, sent a number of glass manufacturers into Abyssinia, the people seem total strangers to that useful and elegant art, as well as to many others that are common in Europe. Their earthen-ware, however, is carried to a tolerable degree of perfection.

*Population.*]—No travellers exhibit any documents that can enable us to form an estimate of the population. In so barbarous a state, and under a government so inefficient, although so despotic, nothing can be concluded on this subject, from the state of the armies. A variety of circumstances indicate that the country is thinly peopled: but from its extent and natural fertility, a less number than 2,000,000 or 3,000,000 can scarcely be assigned to its population.

*Political importance and relations.*]—Abyssinia cannot be said to possess any political importance; nor can any thing that can be denominated political relation be ascribed to this sequestered kingdom. Having no longer any thing to apprehend from the declining power of the Turks, the Abyssinian government has no other concern than the prevention or suppression of domestic rebellion, and the defence of its dominions against the barbarous tribes of the African interior.

*Language.*]—The language, although little known to the literati of Europe, is, with great probability, supposed to be an offspring of the ancient Arabic. It is  
divided

divided into various dialects, and is probably allied with the Coptic; both Abyssinia and Egypt having without doubt been originally peopled from Arabia.

*Literature, &c.*]—In developing the ancient and present state of this country, enough has already been said to shew, that literature, science, and the arts, do not constitute a feature in its moral picture.

*Persons, manners and national character.*]—The Abyssinians are of a good size, well proportioned, and of a dark olive complexion. Their dress is a light robe girt with a sash, and they cover the head with a sort of turban, or cap. Their whole history shews that the government has paid little attention to the progress of industry and civilization; and fifteen centuries of Christianity have had little influence on their morals and manners. Among these Christians polygamy is frequently practised; and their princes have often several wives and concubines. One of their most singular customs is the punishment of the wife if her husband proves false. Like some other barbarous nations, they appear to have a predilection for raw flesh; and if we may credit Bruce, it is cut from the live oxen at an Abyssinian banquet; which generally terminates in the most riotous debauchery.

From this general view of their manners, and particularly of their punishments, the national character of the Abyssinians, like that of their African neighbours, appears to be strongly marked with profligacy, and the most unfeeling cruelty.\*

\* The reader need scarcely be informed, that in this account of Abyssinia, I have taken Bruce for my guide, as there does not appear to be any better, or indeed scarcely any other authority.

## CENTRAL AFRICA.

The vast central regions of Africa have recently excited a considerable degree of public curiosity. The African Society has laudably promoted a spirit of inquiry; and its liberal patronage has encouraged and enabled intelligent and enterprising travellers to make bold attempts towards exploring this widely extended scene of geographical obscurity. This celebrated association, which deserves to be commemorated in the history of science, was composed of several learned and illustrious individuals. Its object was to promote discoveries in the interior of the African continent; and persons every way qualified for the important and arduous undertaking were selected and employed. The first of these geographical missionaries was Mr. Ledyard, who undertook, at his own request, the difficult and dangerous task of traversing from east to west, in the latitude assigned to the Niger, the broadest part of the continent of Africa. On this bold adventure he set out from London on the 30th July, 1788, and on the 19th August reached Cairo. From that place he transmitted accounts to his employers; and informed them that his next communications would be from Sennar; but death soon after put an end to his discoveries, and disappointed the hopes that had been founded on his enterprising genius.

The second bold adventurer in this unexplored track of discovery, was Mr. Lucas, who embarked on the 18th October of the same year for Tripoli. His plan was to proceed over the Zaara, or great desert, to Fezzan; and after having collected among the people  
of

of that country, and the traders who resorted thither from various parts of Africa, as much information as possible concerning the interior, to return by the river Gambia, or some part of the coast of Guinea. Unfavourable circumstances, however, prevented his progress any further than Masurata; and he found himself obliged to return without visiting Fezzan. Being thus disappointed, Mr. Lucas could communicate only such intelligence as he collected from the traders accustomed to traverse the deserts. He obtained indeed from one of the shereefs an ample description of the kingdoms or districts of Fezzan, Bornou, and Cashna; but the intelligence communicated by the Arabian chief seems too much tinged with exaggeration and fiction to be deemed satisfactory.

Under the patronage of the same illustrious society Mr. Mungo Park undertook to penetrate by a new route into the interior of Africa. His great object was by traversing the country nearly in the direction of the Niger, to proceed to the great central city of Tombut, or Tombuctoo, which is well known to exist, although never yet seen by any European traveller. In the month of December, 1795, Mr. Park set out from the British factory of Bisania, on the banks of the Gambia, and taking his route through the kingdoms of Woollie, Boudou, Kayaaga, Kasson, Kaarta, and Ludamar, penetrated as far as that of Bambara, where the town of Silla, in longitude  $1^{\circ} 30'$  east, was the boundary of his progress. He describes several of the countries through which he passed as beautifully diversified with gently swelling eminences, forests, and valleys, displaying, in some parts, a beautiful and picturesque scenery, an abundant fertility,  
and

and a state of cultivation far superior to what might be expected in the interior of Africa. From the summit of a high hill in the kingdom of Kasson, Mr. Park had an extensive and enchanting prospect of the country, where the number of the towns and villages, and the excellent cultivation, surpassed every thing he had yet seen in Africa. In most of those countries cotton, tobacco, and various kinds of grain, are produced in tolerable plenty. But the most singular of the African productions described by this enterprising and intelligent traveller; and indeed one of the greatest curiosities in the whole vegetable kingdom of nature, is the shea tree, which is an important object of cultivation in Bambara and the neighbouring countries, and furnishes a considerable article of inland commerce. This tree resembles an American oak, and bears a fruit like a Spanish olive, the kernel of which being first dried in the sun, and afterwards boiled, produces butter. Mr. Park says that this butter is whiter, firmer, and, to his taste, of a richer and finer flavour than the best that is made from milk. It may also be kept good the whole year without salt.\* The chief geographical objects that occurred in the route of this adventurous traveller, are the river Joliba, or Niger, and the city of Segou, the capital of the negro kingdom of Bambara. After encountering innumerable difficulties and dangers, and suffering extreme hardships, Mr. Park thus beautifully describes his sensations on discovering the Niger. "I saw," says he "with infinite pleasure the great object of my mission, the long sought for majestic Niger, glittering to the morning sun, as broad as the Thames at Westminster, and flowing slowly to the

\* Park's Trav. p. 302, and 303.

eastward, I hastened to the brink, and having drunk of the water, offered up my fervent thanks to the great Ruler of all things, for having thus far crowned my endeavours with success." His description of Sego, the capital of Bambara, is likewise so animated, as well as so clear and concise, that the reader will not be displeased to peruse it in the author's words. "Sego," says Mr. Park, "properly speaking, consists of four distinct towns, two on the northern bank of the Niger, and two on the southern. They are all surrounded with high mud walls: the houses are built of clay, of a square form, with flat roofs: some of them have two stories, and many of them are white-washed. Besides these buildings, Moorish mosques are seen in every quarter; and the streets, though narrow, are broad enough for every useful purpose, in a country where wheel carriages are entirely unknown. From the best inquiries I could make, I have reason to believe that Sego contains, altogether, about 30,000 inhabitants. The view of this extensive city, the numerous canoes upon the river, the crowded population, and the cultivated state of the surrounding country, formed altogether a prospect of civilization and magnificence which I little expected to find in the bosom of Africa.\* Sego is situated, as nearly as can be ascertained in north latitude  $14^{\circ} 10'$ , west longitude  $2^{\circ} 20'$ . Tombuctoo is, according to the best information, near 300 miles farther to the north-east, being about a day's journey to the north of the Niger.†

\* Park's Travels, p. 195, 196.

† From a comparative view of the different accounts, Major Rennel places Tombuctoo in  $16^{\circ} 30'$  north, longitude  $1^{\circ} 33'$  east. Map of Africa.

CENTRAL AFRICA.

In Ludamar Mr. Park met with a shereef, who resided at Walet, the capital of the Moorish kingdom of Beerou, situated to the north of Bambara; and who had visited Houssa, and lived some years at Tombuctoo. From this man he learned that Walet is larger than Tombuctoo, but being remote from the Niger, and its trade consisting chiefly of salt, it is not much frequented by strangers. The shereef also said that Houssa was the largest city he had ever seen; and that many Jews resided at Tombuctoo.\* Mr. Park exhibits in the following words, a summary of the information which he collected at Silla, and in other places during the course of his journey, relative to those celebrated cities of central Africa. "To the north-east of Masina, a kingdom on the northern bank of the Niger, and at a short distance from Silla, is situated the kingdom of Tombuctoo, the great object of European research, the capital of this kingdom being one of the principal marts for that extensive commerce which the Moors carry on with the negroes.† The hopes of acquiring wealth in this pursuit, and zeal for propagating their religion, have filled this extensive city with Moors and Mahomedan converts: the king himself, and all the chief officers of state are Moors; and they are said to be more severe and intolerant in their principles than any of the Moorish tribes in this part of Africa. I was informed by a venerable old negro, that when he first visited Tombuctoo, he took up his lodging at a sort of public inn, the landlord of which, when he had conducted him into his hut, spread a mat on the

\* Park's Travels in Africa, p. 140, 141.

† See also Jackson on the Commerce of the Mediterranean, p. 81, before quoted.

floor, and laid a rope upon it, saying, ' If you are a Mussulman you are my friend, sit down; but if you are an infidel you are my slave, and with this rope I will lead you to market.' The present king of Tombuctoo is named Abu Abrahima. He is reported to possess immense riches. His wives and concubines are said to be clothed in silk; and the chief officers of state live in considerable splendor. The whole expence of his government is defrayed, as I am told, by a tax upon merchandise, which is collected at the gates of the city.\*

" The city of Houssa, the capital of a large kingdom to the eastward of Tombuctoo, is another great mart for Moorish commerce.† I conversed with many merchants who had visited that city, and they all agreed that it is larger, and more populous than Tombuctoo. The trade, police, and government, are nearly the same in both; but in Houssa the negroes are in greater proportion to the Moors; and have some share in the government."

From these accounts of the intolerance of the Moors in those countries where their fanatical zeal is fomented by avarice; and their enmity to Christians heightened by their jealousy of European interference in their lucrative and exclusive commerce, it is easy to perceive the difficulty and danger that must attend a journey into the central parts of Africa. The traveller must be under the indispensable necessity of passing for a Mussulman; and in order to act this part with safety, he ought to be previously acquainted with the Moorish manners and language.‡ The only

\* Park's Travels in Africa, p. 215. † *ibid.*

‡ Caravans go both from Tunis and Morocco to Tombuctoo. Jackson's Commerce of the Mediterranean, p. 81. Lempriere's Morocco, p. 343, &c.



practicable method of accomplishing such a journey by a person so qualified, seems to be that of travelling in the character of a merchant with the caravan from Tunis to Tombuctoo.\*

Having continued his journey along the banks of the Niger to Silla, a large town about eighty miles to the eastward of Sego, Mr. Park found his farther progress impracticable.† The tropical rains set in; his finances were exhausted, and a variety of difficulties absolutely insurmountable to a traveller in his circumstances, obliged him reluctantly to terminate his expedition at a point somewhat more than sixteen degrees to the eastward of Cape Verd; and precisely in the same parallel, at the distance of about 1000 British miles within the continent of Africa; but 200 miles short of the desired station of Tombuctoo, the grand object of his perilous journey. This adventurous and indefatigable traveller, after a lapse of several years, again undertook the Herculean task of exploring central Africa. It appears, however, that this expedition has unfortunately terminated in his death. According to the information received he was destroyed by the Moors, after having proceeded a considerable way on his journey. The circumstances of this calamitous event seem not to be precisely ascertained! but the fact itself appears unfortunately not to admit of a doubt. Geography will feel the want, and deplore the loss of her adventurous missionary.

The plans of the African Society for investigating the physical and moral state of the interior of this

\* The trade carried on by these caravans, and the periods of their departure and return, are specified by Jackson, *Commerce Méditerranéenne*, ubi supra.

† Park's Travels, p. 212.

vast continent; and for eventually promoting the civilization of its remote and barbarous tribes, are more worthy of historical commemoration than many of the great, but mischievous schemes of politicians; which too often tend only to disturb the tranquillity of mankind, and to desolate the globe. The adventurous undertakings of its geographical missionaries, their solitary expeditions in those distant and unknown regions, are more arduous and difficult tasks, and surer indications of enterprising fortitude, than the exploits of conquerors at the head of victorious armies. An equal degree of praise is due to those adventurers whom curiosity alone, without patronage, has excited to enlarge the boundaries of human knowledge, by exploring the recesses of geographical obscurity. Among these, Mr. Browne has greatly contributed to improve our knowledge of the eastern part of the interior of Africa, not only by his own observations in Dar Fur, but also by his diligent inquiries, and the intelligence which he collected from traders accustomed to traverse the deserts to a vast distance in various directions. On the 25th May, 1793, this curious and enterprising traveller set out from Assiut in Egypt with the Soudar caravan.\* Striking immediately into the desert, they left the lesser Oasis on the right, and proceeded to the greater Oasis, where they passed through several villages. They then crossed the great southern desert by the springs of Shel, Selime, and Leghea. The water at Selime was the best which they found on the route: at Sheb and Leghea

\* The same route as far as Selime appears to be frequently used by the caravans to Abyssinia. Poncet travelled thither by this route in the beginning of the last century.

† Browne's Travels, p. 196, 206.

it was very indifferent. On the 23d of June they reached the confines of Dar Fur.\* Mr. Browne's view of this country lay in a nearly direct line from north to south, of about 100 miles in length.† A chain of mountains extends along the eastern side: the rest of the country is a plain of different levels, interspersed with abrupt rocks of rugged form, and of various sizes, consisting chiefly of grey granite. The soil is of various qualities; but its general character is sterility. In the north are large uncleared tracks overgrown with low and thorny shrubs, from which gum is gathered; and there are numbers of large trees, so that wood is not a scarce article. There are no meadows. The periodical rains fall from the middle of June, till the middle of September, and the face of the country is then intersected with numerous rivulets, and invested with a delightful verdure; but it soon re-assumes its former dusky appearance. During the rest of the year the whole northern part of the kingdom is parched up by the sun.‡ In the south, water is more abundant, and the country more fertile.§ Mr. Browne gives a long enumeration of the plants and animals of Dar Fur. Maize, cotton, and hemp, are among the common productions; and the gardens afford great plenty of melons, cucumbers, &c. Wheat is ripe in about three months after sowing.¶ The date trees are few in number, and their fruit of an inferior size and quality. Mr. Browne says, that except the tamarind, there is no fruit in the country that is worth gathering. Among the quadrupeds, the horses are few in number, and of an indifferent breed. The only good horses in Dar Fur are bred in Dongola, and by

\* Browne's Travels, p. 199, 206.    § Id. 288, 291.

† Id. 306.    ¶ Id. 290.

the Arabs on the east of the Nile. The asses are the same as in England, but they have a superior breed from Egypt, much used for the saddle. There are sheep and goats: horned cattle also are plentiful, being fed by the tribes which inhabit the vicinity of the rivers, and the beef is good. The camels are of mixed breeds, and of all sizes and colours. The Darfurians have many fine dromedaries; but those of Sennar are the most celebrated, being of extraordinary strength and swiftness.\* The wild and ferocious animals are chiefly the lion, the leopard, the hyena, the wolf, the jackall, and the wild buffalo. In the more cultivated parts of the country, however, few of them are seen except the hyenas, which, during the night, enter the villages, and carry off every thing they can master. In some of the neighbouring countries, where water is more abundant, the various kinds of ferocious animals are numerous, and greatly dreaded by travellers.† Elephants are seen in great herds, and their flesh is highly esteemed among the inhabitants as an article of food. To these may also be added the rhinoceros, the camelopardalis, the hippopotamus, and the crocodile. The antelope and the ostrich are exceedingly common throughout the whole country: in the catalogue of birds, our author remarks vast numbers of guinea fowl, and a white-headed vulture of extraordinary strength and ferocity. He likewise mentions several reptiles and insects; and says, that, in the rainy season, the musquitoes are

\* Browne's Travels, p. 293. 293.

† Mr. Browne here seems to speak of the countries to the east and south of Dar Fur, and consequently not from observation but report. Neither his description nor his map exhibits any rivers in Dar Fur likely to harbour the hippopotamus or the crocodile. Browne's Travels, p. 298.

exceedingly

exceedingly troublesome. In regard to mineralogy, he mentions no metals but iron. The Darfurians appear to be ignorant of the art of extracting it from the ore, negroes from the neighbouring Pagan tribes being employed in this process. Great quantities of the finest copper are brought by the merchants from the adjacent countries. The silver, lead, and tin, are brought from Egypt. The countries on the east and west abound with gold;\* but little comes to Dar Fur.

Cobbé, considered as the capital of Dar Fur, is in  $14^{\circ}, 11'$  north latitude, and  $28^{\circ}, 8'$  east longitude. This town is situated in an extensive plain. Each house stands in a wide inclosure, and the town, which is two miles in length but very narrow, is full of trees of various kinds. There is only one mosque, which, like all the other buildings, is only of clay. The inhabitants are all merchants and foreigners, consisting of Egyptians, a few natives of Tunis and Tripoli, and the rest from Dongola, Sennaar, Kordofan, &c.† These last are indefatigable in commerce, but so daring, restless, and seditious, that the present Sultan has been induced to use some efforts to banish them from his dominions. In Cobbé markets are held two days in the week, in which are sold provisions of every kind, with all the different sorts of commodities produced in the country, or brought from Egypt. There are four or five schools in the town, in which boys are taught to read and write; and the children of the poor are gratuitously instructed. The population does not much exceed 6000. From this account of

\* Travels, p. 305. It is evident that Mr. Browne speaks here from report.

† Mr. Browne, who, from his long residence at Cobbé, was perfectly acquainted with the place, says, "There are very few houses, perhaps, inhabited by natives of Fur." Travels, 267.

the capital, the state of the inferior towns may be easily conjectured.

The religion of Dar Fur is the Mahomedan, marked with all the features of intolerant zeal. The government is a despotic monarchy. The sovereign has no council to direct him, and is under no controul but that of the koran. The present Sultan Abd-el-rachman, is an usurper, having dethroned his nephew, after defeating him in battle; and it appears that there is as much competition for the sovereign authority in this petty kingdom, as in the most powerful and opulent empire. Abd-el-rachman is described by Mr. Browne as a person of the middle size, about fifty five years of age,\* alert and active, with eyes and features abounding in fire and expression. His complexion was perfectly black, but his countenance very different from that of the negroes. He is honoured with the most profound veneration; and wherever he passes, all the spectators are obliged to appear bare-footed, and commonly kneel. His subjects bow down to the ground, but this ceremony is not required from foreigners. He generally wears a red silk turban. At a public audience Mr. Browne saw him seated on his throne, under a lofty canopy of various kinds of stuffs of Syrian and Indian fabric. The Melcks, or ministers, were sitting in a respectful posture, bending down their heads, and behind them was a line of guards, who had caps ornamented in front with a small piece of copper, and a black ostrich feather. Their other dress consisted only of a cotton shirt of the manufacture of the country. Each bore a spear in his hand, and a target on the opposite arm. Behind the throne stood fourteen or fifteen eunuchs,

\* It must be observed that this was in the year 1793, or 1794.

splendidly arrayed in habiliments of cloth or silk, but awkwardly adjusted. The space in front was filled with more than 1500 petitioners and spectators. During the whole ceremony an encomiast stood on the left hand of the monarch, crying out with all his strength. "See the buffaloe, the offspring of a buffaloe, a bull of bulls, the elephant of superior strength, the powerful sultan, Abd-el-rachman-el-Raschid. May God prolong thy life, O master! May God assist thee and render thee victorious."\* Such is the barbaric pomp of the petty monarch of Dar Fur.

The military force does not exceed 2000 men, and yet this number is greatly missed out of the population, and is spoken of as a large army. From this, and a variety of other considerations arising from the state of agriculture, the quantity of produce, and the general appearance of the country, our author, who resided three years in Dar Fur, does not estimate the whole population of the kingdom at a greater number than 200,000 souls. The people being of different tribes, have different languages: several of which are dialects of the Arabic. Their dress is a cotton shirt, blue or white; and they wear on the head a small cotton cap, the white turban, which in the Turkish dominions is permitted to all, being in Dar Fur restricted to those who have performed the pilgrimage to Mecca. The women wear a slight cotton cloth round the waist, and another thrown over the shoulders. Those of superior rank use a very ornamental head-dress, from each side of which a silver chain hangs down on the shoulders, and their legs are adorned, or rather encumbered, with large rings of silver or brass, sometimes of the weight of four or five

\* Brown's Travels, p. 236.

pounds.\* The original inhabitants of Dar Fur are a collection of various tribes. Their complexion is for the most part perfectly black, and their hair short and woolly; but their features are very different from those of the negroes of Guinea.† The Arabs, who are numerous, retain their native distinctions of feature, complexion, and language. The disposition of the Furians appears to be more cheerful than that of the Egyptians. They are fond of dancing; and in spite of the law of Mahomed, for which they pretend so much zeal, they are not less attached to drinking. A fermented liquor called buza, procures them the enjoyment of intoxication, in which they indulge with the most riotous excess. In 1795, the sultan prohibited the use of this liquor under the penalty of death; but even the edicts of despotism have not been able to extinguish their strong propensity to inebriation, which is still indulged, though with less publicity. Polygamy is extensively practised; and the licentious intercourse of the sexes is indulged with little restraint or regard to decency. Thieving, lying, and cheating in trade, are vices almost universal.‡ In a word, the moral picture of the people is more disagreeable even than the physical circumstances of the country. This description of Dar Fur, by an intelligent traveller, after a residence of three years in that kingdom, might in all probability be, with little variation, applied to most of the petty

\* Browne's Trav. p. 330, 337.

† Ibid, p. 540.

‡ It is worthy of observation, that although Dar Fur is a great mart of inland trade, especially for slaves, there is no current money. Every thing is transacted by barter. Even the gold and silver coins brought by the caravans from Egypt, are used for ornaments of female dress. Browne's Trav. p. 332.



Mahomedan states in the northern part of the interior of Africa, such as Fezzan, tributary to the dey of Tripoli, Bornou, Cashna, Beerou, Dar Kulla, and several others, known from the reports of the traders, who come with the caravans to the various commercial stations.

After reviewing the laborious and perilous attempts of those adventurous travellers, it will not be amiss to examine how far they have succeeded in illustrating the geography of Africa. Mr. Park, from personal view, has brought to light several Negro and Moorish kingdoms in the western part of the interior, and decided a curious geographical question, by ascertaining the course of the Niger from west to east. From information extremely probable, he has also nearly determined the situation of the great central cities of Tombuctoo and Houssa, and developed several important particulars relative to their politics and commerce. Mr. Brown has not only given a minute description of Dar Fur from his own observations, but has also collected from the Jelabs, or travelling merchants, much important intelligence concerning many countries to the south and the west of that kingdom, their situation, distances, &c. according to the method of computation used by the caravans, as well as relating to the origin of the Bahrel-Abiad, or real Nile.\* Mr. Park's travels on the western side terminated at  $1^{\circ} 30'$ , and those of Mr. Brown, on the eastern part, at  $28^{\circ} 8'$  longitude east from Greenwich. The intelligence obtained by the former extended to  $4^{\circ}$ , that collected by the latter reached to about  $17^{\circ}$  east longitude. So far the rays of modern intelligence throw a faint light upon cen-

\* See the itineraries containing distances, bearings, and other remarks. Browne's Trav. Append. No. 6.

tral Africa. Between these meridians is found a deficiency of  $19^{\circ}$ , or 876 English miles, concerning which all is vague and conjecture.\* But between the limits of their actual observations, is an interval of twice that extent, or of 1752 miles, a space comprising the cities of Tombuctoo and Houssa, the termination of the Niger, and, in fine, the most interesting part of central Africa, the knowledge of which still remains a desideratum in geography.

### AFRICAN ISLANDS.

IN describing the African islands, it may perhaps appear the clearest arrangement to begin with those that are the nearest to Europe, and to proceed to those that are the most remote from our quarter of the globe, advancing round the continent from the western to the eastern coast.

Madeira, belonging to Portugal, is about fifty miles in length, and twenty in breadth. Funchal, the principal, and indeed the only town of note in the island, is situated in latitude  $32^{\circ} 37'$  north, and in  $17^{\circ} 01'$  west longitude. This island is remarkable for its excellent wine, which constitutes the chief article of its commerce. The annual produce of this commodity is computed at 18,000 pipes, of which above 10,000 pipes are annually exported to England. The interior consists of high mountains, visible at the distance of sixty miles; and at the time of its discovery by the Portuguese, the whole island was one continued forest. Funchal, situated in a fertile valley on the south

\* The distances are calculated on the parallel fourteen degrees, nearly the latitude of Sago and Cobba.

side of the island, is a handsome city, the seat of the governor and the bishop, and contains about 11,000 or 12,000 inhabitants.\* The population of the whole island is estimated at 64,000. The principal merchants are English and Irish Catholics. Porto Santo, to the north-east of Madeira, is a small but fertile island.

The Canary, or Fortunate islands, belonging to Spain, form an interesting groupe. Seven of these are inhabited, of which Teneriffe is the most remarkable, on account of its celebrated peak. The summit of this mountain is inaccessible, by reason of the snows, except from the middle of July to the end of August; and the cold is always extreme, so as to cause the hands to swell, and the nails to turn black. The peak resembles a cone standing on a small base, and can only be ascended by a zig-zag path on the south side. In the middle of the summit is a conical bason called the caldron, of about 100 yards in diameter, and 50 in perpendicular depth. It is bordered with calcined rocks, some of which are red, and others white. Around are many little mouths from one to four inches in diameter, which exhale at intervals a thick and foetid smoke. The largest hole, about eight inches in diameter, is within the crater, and emits an extremely hot smoke, accompanied with a noise resembling the bellowings of a bull. About the midway in descending the crater, is a cave, which seems to penetrate to a considerable depth, and to be paved with ice, covered with a depth of above two feet of extremely cold and pure water. In winter, the summit of the peak is covered with a thick snow, of a

\* For the description of Madeira, see *Voyage de Vertun*, vol. 1. p. 57, &c.

dazzling

dazzling brightness resembling polished silver. These islands have an excellent soil, with a pleasant and salubrious climate.\* They produce wheat, barley, and oats. The celebrated Canary wine is chiefly the product of Teneriffe and Palma, which also afford considerable quantities of sugar. Gomera is noted for the produce of silk, and the tree which yields the gum called dragon's blood. Laurels, wild olives, cypresses, and pines, are common: but the old tale of the tree in Ferro, which was said to supply the island with water by the dropping of its leaves, may be ranked among those fables, or at least those exaggerations with which geographers, historians, and travellers, have often amused a wondering world. The zoology of the Canary islands presents most of the domestic animals seen in Europe. Palma, in the island of Canary, is the chief town of the whole, but the governor usually resides in Teneriffe, the most considerable island of the whole groupe. The inhabitants of the seven islands are computed at 140,000, of whom about 64,000 are assigned to Teneriffe.

The Cape de Verde islands belonging to Portugal, are opposite to that African promontory, from which they have derived their name. They are ten in number, of which St. Jago, in latitude  $14^{\circ} 34'$  north, and longitude  $23^{\circ} 26'$  west, is the chief, containing Ribira, the principal town and seat of the bishop.† The air of these islands is hot and unhealthful, the soil in general stony and barren, and their products and commerce of little importance. Advancing towards the

\* For an accurate description of the peak of Teneriffe, see *Voyage de Verdun*, tom 1. The latitude of the peak is  $28^{\circ} 17'$  north longitude,  $16^{\circ} 23'$  west. W. Ham. Moore's Tables.

† Hamil, Moore's Tables of latitude and longitude.

line,

line, we meet with the Portugueze island of St. Thomas, in  $0^{\circ} 42'$  north, and longitude  $8^{\circ} 30'$  east.\* The soil of this island is remarkably fertile; but the climate is hot, and the air foggy and extremely unhealthful. The produce of sugar is prodigious; and the island abounds in domestic animals. Pavoasan, the principal town, and a bishop's see, is on the eastern side of the island. The isle of Ascension, at a vast distance from the continent, is only a barren rock, but it has an excellent harbour, and is frequently visited by the homeward-bound ships from India. St. Helena, in latitude  $15^{\circ} 55'$  south, and longitude  $5^{\circ} 41'$  west, is a small, but delightful and healthful island, inhabited by about 300 English families, who live here sequestered from the world, and are occupied solely with their cattle, their hogs, and their poultry, without any communication with the rest of mankind, except on the arrival of the East-India shipping, when every house becomes a tavern. There is only one harbour and landing-place: in every other part the isle is inaccessible. There is also a fort, where the governor resides with a small garrison. Far to the south is the isle of Desolation, so named by Captain Cook, with many others to the east and the west towards the Antarctic circle. Those regions of perpetual frosts, fogs, and storms, in which all vegetation is bound up in unimproveable sterility, must be for ever lost to mankind.† Leaving those scenes of eternal desolation, and proceeding to the north, the large and fertile isle of Madagascar presents an object of greater importance.

\* Hamil. Moore's Tables of latitude and longitude.

† For a particular description of these remote southern regions, see Cook's last voyage.

The extensive and fertile island of Madagascar is situated between  $12^{\circ}$  and  $25^{\circ}$  north latitude, and between  $44^{\circ}$  and  $31^{\circ}$  east longitude.\* Its length is about 900 British miles, by about 220 of medial breadth. The face of the country is beautiful: the scenery is strikingly grand and picturesque, being diversified with mountains and valleys, precipices, cataracts, and immense forests. A chain of mountains approaching much nearer to the eastern than the western coast, runs the whole length of the island. The two highest summits are those of Vigagora in the north, and Botistmeni in the south. From this interior ridge issue numerous rivers and rivalets, running to the east and the west.† The soil and the climate are excellent, and the productions abundant and various. The island abounds in flax, sugar canes, cocoa nuts, bananas, tobacco, indigo, and in fine almost all the productions of the tropical countries. The zoology is equally abundant and various. Horned cattle, buffaloes, and sheep, are extremely plentiful; but there are no horses, nor any lions, tigers, or elephants. Madagascar yields many of the most valuable minerals, among which are several beds of pure rock crystal near the bay of Antongil, and in the mountains in the northern part. The French settlement of Fort Dauphin is in the south-eastern extremity of the isle. The villages of the natives are generally built upon eminences, and surrounded by double rows of pallisades, within which is a parapet of earth four feet in height, and sometimes there is also a ditch of about ten feet in breadth, and five or six in depth. This

\* Arrowsmith's Map of Africa.

† This account of Madagascar is extracted from Rochon's voyage to that island.

tice of universally fortifying the villages, is strongly indicative of a state of intestine discord and insecurity. The natives are somewhat above the middle stature, and their different complexions indicate their different origin. Some are entirely black, others tawney, but the olive is the most general complexion. According to the account of a late writer, there exists in this island a singular race of men, a nation of dwarfs, who live in a rocky and inaccessible district, and seem to be a distinct and original species.\* The whole country is divided among a great number of petty chiefs, who are distinguished by their red caps, such as are worn by the lower sort of Moors. Their authority is only small; but they are generally regarded as the proprietors of the land, and receive a trifling quit rent. The Madagascarians are industrious, bold, and ingenious. Letters are not unknown among them. They have some books in the native languages; but their Ombiasses, or learned men, use the Arabic characters. The magicians are numerous, and greatly dreaded by the ignorant people.

The original population of Madagascar is undoubtedly African; and the native blacks are considered as the descendants of the ancients. But it is equally evident that the Arabians have, at an early period, made settlements on the coast, and that their descendants constitute the ruling part of the people. This appears from the prevalence of a corrupt dialect of the Arabian language, the use of the Arabic characters, and some faint traces of the Mahometan religion. The intermixture of Hindoo traditions, and the division of the people into casts, might also induce a belief that colonies from India had formerly settled

\* Rochon Voyage de Madagascar, p. 162, &c.

on the island. The early migrations, settlements, and intermixtures of the human race, constitute a curious, but extremely perplexed subject of history. The whole island of Madagascar is said to have been conquered between three and four centuries ago by the Arabs. From the present state of the country, however, it does not seem that their conquest has been complete. The French have repeatedly made settlements in the island, which they afterwards abandoned. Benyowsky, a polish adventurer, lately made a bold and singular attempt to unite the natives, and erect in Madagascar an independent monarchy. But being attacked by a detachment from the isle of Bourbon, he was defeated and slain in the month of May, 1786. His design was grand, and promised important consequences. The philanthropist, and the lover of enterprising genius, will regret the failure of a plan, which tended to civilize so important a region, and to raise its barbarous tribes to a rank in the scale of nations.

To the east of Madagascar are the well-known isles of Mauritius and Bourbon, belonging to the French, and the centre of their Oriental commerce and power. Mauritius, known also by the name of Isle de France, is situated in 20° south latitude, and 58° east longitude,\* about 400 miles from the coast of Madagascar. It is about 140 miles in circuit, and its form approaches to that of a crescent. The interior presents several mountains of a considerable height. In the vallies and plains, however; the soil is fertile, producing annually two crops of wheat and Indian corn; and the climate is pleasant and healthful. This island has an excellent harbour, in which a fleet of ships of war may ride with the greatest safety. Mauritius was

\* Arrowsmith's Map of Africa.



first possessed by the Dutch, who abandoned it in 1712; and 1734, the French, under M. de Bourdonnois, established their colony.

The isle of Bourbon, lately named L'isle de Reunion, is situated in  $21^{\circ} 52'$  south latitude, and  $55^{\circ} 35'$  east longitude, about 300 miles to the east of Madagascar.\* This island is about 150 miles in circuit, and being of nearly a circular form, is somewhat larger than that of Mauritius. The central part rises in high mountains; and at the southern extremity, about a league from the sea, is a remarkable volcano, of difficult access, the eruptions of which are continual. The isle of Bourbon produces sugar canes; and in 1766, M. de Poivre, the governor, introduced the bread-fruit tree, as also the nutmeg and cinnamon. Both Mauritius and Bourbon, especially the latter, are subject to frequent and tremendous hurricanes. These islands, however, are extremely well-watered by numerous rivulets descending from the central mountains, and both of them abound in cattle. This, with other advantages, renders them excellent places of rendezvous for shipping; and in time of war the English East-India trade is often greatly annoyed by their privateers and frigates. The island of Bourbon being surrounded with sunken rocks, presents a difficult object of attack; but all its roads and harbours are more or less exposed to the hurricanes. Mauritius, from its excellent port for the reception of a fleet, is therefore the central point from which the French make their offensive operations. As the Red Sea has no harbour in which a fleet can be constructed, and as the countries adjacent to its shores afford no timber fit for that purpose, if the French had re-

\* Arrowsmith's Map—Moore's Tables.

mained in possession of Egypt, this island would have been of incalculable importance in the system of oriental warfare and commerce. Mauritius would have been the grand point from which the navy of France must have co-operated with her military force in Egypt.

The Comorro islands, situated in about 18° south latitude, nearly in the parallel of the northernmost extremity of Madagascar,\* and in about 44° east longitude, between that large island and the coast of Mosambique, are pleasant, picturesque, and extremely fertile in rice, sugar, cocoa, oranges, lemons, &c. The inhabitants are Arabians, tributary to the Portuguese.

The isles Pemba, Zenziba, and Monsia, lie opposite to the coast of Zanguebar. Pemba is in 4°, 32' south latitude, and 40°, 45', east longitude; † and said to be near 100 miles in circumference. These islands are peopled chiefly by the Arabians, and governed by their own chiefs, who are tributary to the Portuguese. The island of Socotra is, by some geographers, assigned to Africa, but by others to Asia. As Cape Guardafuy, on the former continent, is the nearest land, geographical propriety must connect it with Africa, while moral circumstances point it out as an Arabian island. It lies in about 11° 50' north latitude; and appears to be about eighty miles in length, by about twenty in breadth. It is chiefly famed for its aloes, which are esteemed the best in the world. This island seems to have been originally peopled from Arabia, and its present population is entirely Arabian.

The isle of Babelmandel, in the strait of that name,

\* Arrowsmith's map.

† Hamilton Moore's tables.

might, with equal propriety be assigned to Africa or Arabia, from each of which it is only about four miles distant. This island, situated in  $12^{\circ} 50'$  north latitude, and  $43^{\circ} 50'$  east longitude, is only a sandy barren spot of earth, scarcely five miles in circumference. But as it commands the entrance of the Red Sea, it has frequently been an object of contest between the Arabians and the Abyssinians; and such it would be among the Europeans, if Egypt should ever become an appendage to any powerful European state.\*

\* In our course round the extensive continent of Africa, innumerable small islands are omitted as too unimportant for a work of this general nature.

## AMERICA

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THE southern limit of this extensive continent is clearly defined by the strait of Magellan, which separates it from the island Terra del fuego; but its extent towards the north is not ascertained with the same precision. As no traveller or navigator has ever proceeded to its northern extremity, its extent can be computed only so far as it has been imperfectly explored. In this view it suffices to estimate its length from 72° north latitude, to 54° south latitude, comprizing an extent of 126°, equal to 7,560 geographical, or nearly 8,800 British miles. The greatest breadth of North America, from the eastern part of Greenland, to the western promontory of Alaska, may be computed at about 3,900, and the greatest breadth in South America, from Cape St. Roque in the east, to Cape Blanco in the west, cannot be reckoned at less than 2,850 geographical miles.

The peculiar circumstances of this continent, emphatically styled the new world, require some deviation from the plan hitherto followed. Previous to any geographical description, it seems necessary to exhibit a short historical view of the events which extended the boundaries of European knowledge to the American continent, and gradually unfolded its immense

mense and opulent regions to the eye of science and commerce.

#### DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

For the discovery of the new continent, the world stands indebted to the enterprising genius and scientific errors of one of the greatest of men. Christopher Colon, more generally known by the name of Columbus, a native of Genoa, who had acquired as extensive a knowledge of cosmography as could be attained in that age, conceived the adventurous design of sailing to India by the west. This project was founded on the erroneous structure of the maps of that age, which represented the oriental countries of Asia as extending vastly farther to the east than their actual position has been found. The whole trade to the east had, till then, been in the hands of the Venetians and the Genoese, who, from its lucrative monopoly, had acquired a degree of wealth and power that astonished all Europe. Venice, however, having obtained the preponderancy, the naval force of Genoa was greatly weakened, and her commerce considerably curtailed by her powerful rival. Columbus submitted to the Genoese government the adventurous project which he had formed of opening to his country a new route to India, the great source of opulence. The Genoese, however, treated the proposal as absurd, and the idea as chimerical. Columbus, thus disappointed in his own country, applied to foreign courts, in order to procure the means of realising his plan. His first application was made to Henry VII. of England; but the cautious politics of that

prince were averse to the encouragement of a great, but uncertain design, which must incur some expense, with little probability of compensation. He then proposed his project to the court of Portugal, which, in that age greatly encouraged the spirit of discovery along the African coast, but could entertain no idea of so bold a design as that of Columbus. Spain was now his only resource. He laid his scheme before the Spanish court, where, after eight years of tedious application and repeated disappointments, he at last succeeded through the interest of Queen Isabella. Under her liberal patronage, and at her expence, he set sail in the year 1492, from the port of Palos, in Andalusia, with three small vessels on the most adventurous and important expedition ever undertaken by man, an expedition destined to operate a total change in the political and commercial state of Europe and America. In this enterprize he had to contend with various difficulties, unknown to former navigators. All the chief incidents of his voyage across the unexplored Atlantic are elegantly related by Robertson.\* It will, therefore, in this place, suffice to observe, that his sailors, despairing of success, and apprehending nothing less than total destruction, broke out into open mutiny, and threatened to throw him overboard, unless he would immediately consent to return to Europe. The firmness of the commander, however, repressed the mutinous spirit of his crew, and the discovery of land, after a voyage of thirty three days, extinguished every cause of discontentment. Columbus first landed on one of the Bahama islands; but, from the poverty of the inhabitants, he soon discovered that this was not the rich country of India, the object of

\* *History of America*, vol. 1.

his search. He next discovered the fertile island of St. Domingo, which, from some samples of gold that he received, promised to be of great consequence, and to insure him a good reception at home. Here he left a few of his men in order to form the ground-work of a colony, and returned to Spain to procure the necessary reinforcements. Columbus being landed in Spain, proceeded from Seville to Barcelona, where the court then resided. He travelled through the country amidst the acclamations of the people, and attended by some of the inhabitants with the gold, the arms, utensils, and ornaments of the newly discovered countries. And his entrance into Barcelona was a day of triumph, more glorious indeed than the triumphs of conquerors. The glory and advantage which promised to result from so unexpected a discovery rendered the court eager to forward his designs. A fleet of seventeen sail was immediately equipped and furnished with every thing necessary for discovery or conquest; and several persons of fortune and rank prepared to visit this new field of enterprise. Columbus being now appointed viceroy of all the countries that he should discover, immediately sailed for Hispaniola, erected forts for the protection of the new colony, and sailing from island to island, visited the coasts of Cuba, and discovered Jamaica.

The success of this great man had at first excited admiration; but by its continuance admiration was changed into envy. His enemies at the court of Spain put every engine of intrigue in motion against him. An officer was sent to act as a spy over his actions; and Columbus soon discovered the necessity of returning to Europe, in order to confute the calumnies, and defeat the cabals of his enemies. This, however,

however, he found to be no easy task; and it was not without difficulty that he obtained leave to set out on his third expedition, in which he discovered the continent of South America. Sailing south from Spain as far as to the equator, he then directed his course to the west, and steered with the trade wind across the Atlantic. At the end of seventeen days of a westerly course, land was discovered, which proved to be the island of Trinidad. He then sailed to the mouth of the great river Orinoco, where he was surprised by an appearance which he had never before seen. This was the tumultuous agitation of the waves, occasioned by the conflict between the tides of the ocean, and the rapid current of that immense river. Proceeding a little further he found that they were in fresh water; and judging it impossible that an island should contain so vast a river, he concluded that he had discovered the continent. After leaving the mouth of the Orinoco the continuance of the land to the westward confirmed the fact; and satisfied with this conviction he returned to Hispaniola. This continent, however, was supposed to be a part of Asia; and it was not till long after the death of Columbus that another vast ocean was known to exist between the newly discovered countries and India.

The glory of Columbus, and the envy which that glory excited were now at their height. The grandees and courtiers of Spain were now sensible of the importance of the new world, and viewed with an envious eye the honours and emoluments of an obscure Italian. As there is no difficulty in finding grounds of accusation against those who are employed in the execution of an extensive and complicated plan, their intrigues were at last successful. Columbus was superseded



superseded in his government, treated as a traitor, and sent home in irons. He justified himself, however, in spite of his accusers, was restored to favour, and died at Valladolid in 1506, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, leaving behind him a name that will be immortal.

A spirit of discovery and adventure was now universally excited. In 1499, Ojeda, who had accompanied Columbus in his second voyage, sailed with a small squadron to the new world, but made very little addition to the recent discoveries. One of the adventurers, however, in this expedition, more fortunate than the commander-in-chief, acquired a lasting celebrity by transferring his own name to that extensive portion of the globe, which the adventurous spirit of Columbus had first disclosed to European research. This was Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, a man of science, and a skilful navigator; who, on his return, published the first description of the new discoveries that ever appeared; and through the effects of public gratitude, or the caprice of fame, had the honour of indelibly impressing his name on the new continent. The year 1500 was distinguished by the important, although accidental discovery of Brazil, by Alvarez de Cabral, the Portuguese admiral, in consequence of being driven too far to the westward in his voyage to the East Indies. In 1502, Columbus made his fourth and last voyage, in which he discovered the harbour of Portobello, and a considerable part of the continent.

During these first periods of discovery, it was always supposed that America was a part of the continent of Asia, and it was a long time before this idea was exploded. But in 1513, the Pacific ocean being descried from the mountains of the isthmus of Darien,  
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by Vasco Nunez de Balboa, this chimera began to vanish, and was finally dissipated by succeeding discoveries. Hispaniola and Cuba, however, still continued the chief seats of the Spanish power in the new world, and from the first voyage of Columbus, twenty six years had elapsed before the existence of the great empires of Mexico and Peru was known to the adventurers of Europe. Of these two extensive states, the former was conquered by Cortez in 1521, the latter by Pizarro in 1540.

In North America this progress was much slower than in the southern half of this continent. So early, however, as the year 1497, Giovanni Gaboto, a Venetian, whose name has been anglicised into John Cabot, having received a commission from Henry VII. of England, to trace out a shorter way to India, the view in which most of those early expeditions were undertaken, discovered the island of Newfoundland and the coast of America as far as Virginia. But this extensive track of land, forming a grand obstacle to the accomplishment of his design, he returned to England; and during a long space of time no attempt was made to improve these discoveries. About three years afterwards Corte de Real, a Portuguese captain, engaged in a similar search after a north-west passage to India, hit upon the coast of Labrador. And in 1513, Florida was discovered by the Spaniards. Till the year 1524, France had taken no part in this new scene of adventure; but in this year Francis I. who could not long overlook any scheme that afforded a prospect of glory for himself or his kingdom, commissioned Verazano, a Venetian, to sail on a voyage of discovery. This navigator explored a great part of the coast of North America. The same monarch, in 1534, sent  
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out a fleet from St. Maloes for the purpose of establishing a settlement in North America. Cartier, the commander of this expedition discovered on the St. Laurence's Day, the great gulph and river to which he gave the name of that saint. In the year following, he sailed 300 miles up that large stream, built a fort, and gave to the country the name of New France. This important discovery made by the French, and from which, about the year 1756, they expected to extend their empire over all North America, was, by the fortune of arms, transferred to Great Britain, and now constitutes the seat of her power in that quarter, while her own extensive dominions have rejected her authority, and established an independent federal republic, which, in all probability, will one day be in the new, what Rome was in the old continent, and disseminate its language, its laws, and its manners, through an immense tract of territory. Such are the revolutions of human affairs.

The extensive country of Florida, although discovered, had not yet become the seat of any European settlement. Extensive coasts, and vast countries, presenting themselves in almost a constant succession, colonization could not keep pace with the rapidity and extent of discovery. In 1539, Soto, a Spaniard, set out from Cuba for the conquest of Florida. He advanced into the continent as far as the thirty-fifth degree of latitude, but died on the banks of the Mississippi during his expedition. The French, about the year 1562, attempted to form a settlement in Florida; but they were shortly after expelled by the Spaniards. The English, during this period, had made various discoveries on the North American coast, but had not attempted to make any settlement. Sir Humphrey Gilbert, in 1578, first obtained

tained a patent for this purpose. In 1583 he took possession of the harbour of St. John, but was lost on his return from his voyage. The practicability of a north-west passage to India was a phantom which still haunted the imagination of European adventurers. In the search after this chimera, Frobisher had, in the year 1576, discovered the straits that bear his name. The circumnavigation of the globe by Drake, roused the spirit of adventure in England; and Raleigh obtained a patent for forming a settlement. The situation, however, was ill chosen, and the attempt proved unsuccessful. At the death of Elizabeth, in 1603, at a period when Spain had already established in America an empire more extensive than Alexander or the Cæsars had ever possessed, there was not one Englishman settled on that vast continent. The first permanent settlement established by the English was at Jamestown in Virginia, in 1610; and from this epoch colonization went rapidly forward. Vermont, the last of the British colonies, was formed in 1764, by emigrants from New England. Tennessee, and the state on the north-west of the Ohio, were not colonized till 1787, three years after the establishment of the American republic. At various periods several discoveries have been made towards the north, especially by Davis, who, in 1575 explored the straits which bear his name, and also those of Cumberland by Hudson in 1607, and 1610, who, in those years, advanced along the coast of Greenland to eighty or eighty-two degrees of latitude, and discovered the narrow passage and the inland sea, called Hudson's Straits and Bay. To these may be added the discovery of Baffin's Bay in 1616, by Captain Bilot, and William Baffin. But of this voyage the accounts seem unsatisfactory and mysterious;

rious; and even the existence of Baffin's Bay is questioned by geographers.\* In the last century Cook, Vancouver, and the Russian navigators, seem to have completed the discovery of the western coast of America. Hearne and Mackenzie have also penetrated by land to the latitude of seventy degrees, and explored a part of what they regarded as the coast of the arctic ocean.

Various estimates of the population of America have been made by different writers: some assign 12,500,000 to North, and 13,000,000 to South America; while others allow scarcely 15,000,000 to the whole continent. The native tribes are thinly scattered over an immense extent of territory. Their number has been computed, or rather guessed, at 2,500,000, and is supposed never to have exceeded 3000,000.† These numerical calculations, however, can only be considered as vague conjectures, incapable of any tolerable degree of approximation to truth.

## NORTH AMERICA.

This division of America extends to the vicinity of Panama: its northern, eastern, and western limits have been noticed in the general view of that continent. The general features of North America, which cannot be brought within the descriptions of particular countries, are chiefly the vast lakes, or inland seas, and the extensive rivers which pervade this portion of the globe.

Hudson's Bay, one of the largest of those inland

\* Pinkerton, vol. 2, p. 533.

† Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 704.

seas, considered in its full extent from the entrance of the strait in longitude  $65^{\circ}$  west, to the western extremity of the Gulph in  $95^{\circ}$  is about 1050 British miles in length, and affords a considerable whale and sturgeon fishery. The extensive tract of country on the southern side belongs to the Hudson's Bay Company, and abounds in furs, which furnish an important article of commerce. The shores are rocky; and except in the month of June, when the heat, though short, is violent, the climate is the reign of perpetual winter. On the western side, in the latitude of about  $65^{\circ}$  north, adjacent to Chesterfield inlet, is a level district, rich in pasture, and abounding with deer.\* The regions to the north of Hudson's Bay, are a scene of geographical obscurity, where perpetual ice presents an insurmountable barrier against discovery, and a rigorous climate precludes the possibility of colonization.

The lake Superior, with those of Huron and Michigan, which may be regarded as its two great branches, forms an inland sea of very considerable extent. That part which is known by the name of the lake Superior, is about 350 miles in length, and above 100 at its greatest breadth. The greatest part of the shores consists of rocks and hilly grounds: it receives above thirty rivers, and contains several islands, which the savages of the adjacent countries suppose to be the residence of the Great Spirit.† It opens into the lake of Huron, by the straits of St. Mary, about forty miles in length, and in the narrowest part less than two miles

\* Pennant's Arctic Zool. p. 295.

† One of these islands is 100 miles long, and in some places 40 broad. This lake is supposed to be the largest expanse of fresh water in the world. Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 127.

in breadth. This large expanse of water is subject to storms as dangerous as those of the ocean. The circumference of lake Huron is not less than 1000 miles; and its communication with that of Michigan is by a short strait, which is navigable for ships of any burden. There are others larger, particularly those of Erie and Ontario, and that called the Slave Sea, 200 miles in length, and 100 in breadth. The lake of Winipic is likewise of considerable extent; and many may probably exist in the western regions which have not yet been explored.\*

The rivers are on a greater scale in the new than in the old continent. In length of course the Mississippi is the most distinguished of the North American streams, From its source in 47° north latitude, to its entrance into the sea in latitude 29°. its winding course cannot be less than 1300 or 1400 British miles; and if we reckon to the rise of the Missouri, the principal stream, 600 miles may be added to the number. From the source of the Missouri, to the mouth of the Mississippi, the course of this vast river cannot be computed at less than 2000 miles. Besides the Missouri, and other streams from the west, the Mississippi receives the Ohio, the Illinois, and their numerous branches from the east. The Missouri is both longer, wider, and deeper than the Mississippi, and affords a more extensive navigation.† Their confluence, at the distance of above 500 miles from the sea,‡ forms a magnificent inland feature.§ Each of these rivers is about a mile and a half in breadth;

\* All the lakes here mentioned contain numerous islands, some of which are of considerable extent. See Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 126 to 130.

† Hutchins apud Lmley, p. 389.

‡ Arrowsmith's Map.

§ Charlevoix, vol. 2, p. 218.

but the Missouri is somewhat the widest, as well as the most rapid. The Ohio is a beautiful river. Its current is gentle, and its navigation easy and uninterrupted, except at the rapids. Its general breadth is about 600 yards, but it varies from 300 in the narrowest, to 1200 in the widest part. This river, and the Mississippi, are each about half a mile wide at their junction, in latitude  $36^{\circ} 46'$  at almost 1100 miles distant from the sea. The course of the Ohio from Fort Pitt to its junction with the Mississippi, following all its windings, is, by the American geographers, computed at 1188 miles.\* The Ohio is formed by the union of the Monongahela and the Allegany, which are both navigable streams. The Mississippi being swelled by the coalition of so many large rivers, forms a vast expanse of water, interspersed with numerous islands. During the spring floods, which commence in April, and subside in July, the rapidity of the current increases from two to five miles an hour, and the waters overflow the low lands on each side in approaching towards the sea. Here also various streams divide the country into numerous deltas and islands. This vast river, rolling its floods through immense forests and plains, brings down astonishing quantities of wood. Vast collections of trees are daily seen floating down, and being cemented together by the mud, form points and islands, which perpetually change the bed of the river and the face of the country. The island of New Orleans, and the opposite lands, are evidently of recent formation. In every part water and great numbers of trees are found in digging to the smallest depth below the surface. The voyage up the Missis-

\* Morse's Amer. Geog. From the same place to New Orleans, is computed at 2100 miles. Michaux's Trav. p. 63.



issippi, from New Orleans to the Illinois, is performed in spring and autumn in eight or ten weeks, in boats carrying above forty tons, and rowed by eighteen or twenty men.\* The navigation of this important river is capable of great improvements. Its course is so crooked, that from the Ohio to New Orleans, a distance which does not exceed 460 miles in a straight line, is not less than 856 by water, although by cutting across eight or ten necks of land, some of them not about thirty yards broad, it might be reduced to about 600 at the most moderate computation. Several points have already been cut off, and the river diverted into different channels: as population and commerce increase, it will undoubtedly be reduced to its shortest line.

The majestic river of St. Lawrence is justly regarded as the second in North America. It is not less than ninety miles wide at its mouth, and about five miles wide at Quebec, to which place it is navigable for ships of the line, although at the distance of 400 miles from the sea: Even as far as Montreal, it is from two to four miles in breadth. This noble river, although impeded with some rapids, affords a navigation of 740 miles from its mouth as far as the lake Ontario. It is difficult to ascertain its source; but the name of St. Lawrence is confined to its course below the lake Ontario, although the Niagara might perhaps, without impropriety, be considered as the same river passing through the lake; like the Nile through that of Daubea. Names are arbitrarily im-

\* The voyage from Pittsburg to New Orleans, a distance of 2100 miles down the Ohio and the Mississippi, is performed in the spring by barges in forty or fifty days; but by an Indian pirogue, with only two or three persons, in twenty-five days. Michaux's Trav. p. 63.

posed; but they make no changes in natural objects. The breadth of the river St. Lawrence is its grand characteristic. From the lake Ontario to its junction with the sea, its length cannot much exceed 740 British miles.

The extensive inland seas and majestic rivers of North America, are the most distinguishing and important characteristic of that portion of the globe. They may be considered as geographical circumstances, which, in a future period, when population shall be increased and diffused towards the interior, will greatly influence the moral state of that continent.\* The shores of the Canadian lakes, and the banks of the St. Lawrence, the Ohio, and the Mississippi, will one day become the seats of powerful states and flourishing cities, of letters and science, of arts and commerce. "Whoever," says a late writer, "will for a moment cast his eye over the town of New Orleans, and the immense country around it, and view its advantageous situation, must be convinced that it, or some place near it, must, in process of time, become one of the greatest marts in the world."† The view which the American geographer here presents, may be extended to wider dimensions. It may be added, that whoever will cast his eye on the map of the whole North American continent, and view its geographical advantages in connection with its existing moral circumstances, will see an immense field opened to probable, almost indeed to infallible conjecture. Fancy, perhaps, can scarcely delineate a

\* Vessels of 250 tons are built at Pittsburg, which, by the course of the Ohio and the Mississippi, is 2100 miles from New Orleans. Michaux, p. 63, 64.

† Morie's Amer. Geog.—Michaux expresses nearly the same opinion, Trav. p. 42.

more magnificent picture than this portion of the globe may one day realise. The philosophical reader may here compare the geography of America with that of Africa, and investigate the influence, which the contrast must have on the nations of those vast continents.

The extraordinary importance of these inland seas and rivers of the new world has seemed to call for a small deviation from the plan of descriptive arrangement generally adopted in this work. The mountains must be considered as occupying an inferior rank among the grand features of North American geography.

*Mountains.*]—The Appalachian, or Allegany mountains, form the most celebrated chain. As they are laid down in the best maps, they seem to commence on the north of Georgia, and to expire in the territory of New Brunswick. The several collateral ridges are distinguished by different names, as the iron mountains, the bald mountains, the white mountains, the blue mountains, &c. with the Cumberland mountains, which form a sort of exterior skirt on the northwest. The breadth of these successive ridges is in some places not less than seventy miles. The Appalachian chain appears to extend not less than 900 miles, a length unequalled by any of the European ridges, except the Norwegian mountains; but their elevation is not very considerable. Though the height of the principal summits is not precisely ascertained, various circumstances concur to shew that they cannot exceed 3000 or 4000 feet above the level of the sea, as they are in many places clothed with forests; and even, on the highest, the snow melts during the

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summer.

summer.\* The central part of North America appears to be a vast and fertile plain, watered by the Mississippi, the Missouri, and their numerous auxiliary streams.† On the west of this immense level a range of high hills proceeds from New Mexico, and joins the stony mountains, which extend almost to the arctic circle, forming altogether a chain of about 2400 British miles in length. The elevation of this extensive ridge, however, does not, from the best accounts, appear to be greater than that of the Appalachian mountains already described. According to the accounts given in Cook's Voyages, and those of other navigators, the western coast resembles that of Norway, presenting a wild alpine country, with shores indented by numerous creeks, and bordered with islands. The isthmus of Darien is almost entirely an assemblage of mountains; and there are ridges of considerable extent in Mexico; but their elevation is not ascertained. The mountain of Orizaba, the snowy summit of which is visible from Mexico, a distance of sixty miles, is supposed to be the highest in that region.‡ From this general view, which exhibits all that is known with certainty on the subject, it appears that the North American mountains can scarcely boast a greater elevation than those of Snow-

\* Kalm's Trav. vol. 2, p. 352.

† It must, however, be observed, that Tennessee, Kentucky, and the territory on the Ohio, present in most parts a beautiful diversified champaign, rising in undulating swells, though not of any great elevation, Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 506.—Michaux's Trav. p. 156.

‡ D'Aucleroche Voyage to California, p. 35. Morse describes this mountain, which he also calls Pojanbtcal, as of a conical form, higher than the peak of Teneriffe, and ninety miles distant from the city of Mexico. Amer. Geog. p. 574.

den, Skiddaw, Wharnside, Crossfell, and several others in Great Britain, being mere hillocks in comparison of the Alps, or even of the Pyrenees.\*

\* Dr. Cütler computed the height of the Allegany mountains at 5500 feet above the plain below, and 10,000 above the level of the sea. Morse, p. 294. Michaux supposes them to be highest in Carolina, about 360 miles from Charlestown. Trav. p. 261.

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# UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

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## CHAP. I.

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Situation — Extent — Boundaries — Face of the Country — Mountains — Rivers — Canals — Lakes — Mineralogy — Mineral Waters — Soil — Climate — Vegetable Productions — Zoology — Natural Curiosities, &c.

*Situation, extent, boundaries.*]—THE territory of the United States extends from the Atlantic on the east, to the boundary of Spanish America on the west. On the north and south it is limited by two lines, of which one is partly, the other entirely ideal: the former pervading the lakes of Canada, is continued along the river St. Lawrence, to latitude 45°; it then stretches due east; and after following a ridge of mountains in a north-easterly direction, diverges to the south-east till it coincides with the river of St. Croix, which falls into the bay of Fundi. The southern line runs nearly along the parallel of 31°, and divides the United States from the Spanish territories of east and west Florida. The greatest length of the united territory from east to west, exclusive of the newly-acquired province of Louisiana, is about 1350 British miles; the coast along the Atlantic presents nearly the same extent; and the breadth from the Canadian lakes to the southern limits, is about 1000 miles. The square acres have been computed at 640,000,000, of which those covered with water being supposed to amount to 51 millions, 589 millions will be the remainder.

The northern states are those of Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. The middle states are those of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and the territory on the north-west of the Ohio. The southern are those of Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, North Carolina, Georgia, and Tennessee.

*Face of the country.*]—The face of the maritime part of the country is but little diversified. The whole united territory, for seven or eight hundred miles, is flat near the coast, and exhibits a scene of dull uniformity, where the constant succession of woods and barren fields, without a single elevation, or any diversity of prospect, fatigues the eye and mind of the traveller. This vast level extends in some of the provinces sixty or seventy, and in others above 150 miles within land. Being entirely free from stones, and scarcely presenting a single eminence, it has by some been considered as alluvial land, formed by earth washed down from the interior mountains, or brought up by the gulph stream out of the bay of Mexico, and lodged on the coast, or else left by the recess of the ocean, occasioned by changes in some other part of the globe.\* Various appearances, too numerous to

\* The gulph stream is a curious phenomenon in the hydrography of the globe. This current, issuing from the Gulph of Mexico, proceeds along the coasts of Florida, and the United States, as high as the banks of Newfoundland. It then takes an easterly direction, quite across the Atlantic, to the coast of Africa, where it turns to the south, and runs along that coast till it reaches the tropical climate, and supplies the place of those waters which the trade winds constantly impel towards the west, thus keeping up a constant circulation. This remarkable current appears to be generated by the vast accumulation of water in the Mexican gulph, and by the constant operation of the trade winds, a circumstance which authorizes a conjecture that the level of the sea is much higher on the eastern than on the western coast of Mexico. This gulph stream runs at the  
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be here admissible in detail, corroborate this opinion. It may, however, in general be observed, that, throughout the low country, at the depth of eighteen or twenty feet, marine shells, and other substances peculiar to the sea shore; as also brackish water, and other appearances of a salt marsh, are invariably found. The banks of the rivers, to the distance of 80 or 100 miles from the sea, appear to be, at the depth of from fifteen to twenty feet, almost wholly composed of layers of sand, leaves, and trunks of trees, and other vegetable substances, which seem to indicate that the face of the country has undergone some great revolution.\* In Pennsylvania the level country extends to the distance of fifty or sixty miles; and in Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia, as far as 150, or nearly 200 miles from the coast. Besides the cultivated grounds, it presents numerous and extensive forests, chiefly of pines, with vast swamps, which contribute to render the atmosphere humid, and the climate unhealthful.† Two of these morasses are distinguished by the name of the Dismal Swamps; one is in North Carolina, the other partly in that state, and partly in Virginia. In the first, which lies on the south side of Albemarle Sound, is a lake of about eleven miles long, and seven broad, from which a canal of five miles and a half in length is cut to the head of Skuppernong river. By this passage the water is now carried off, and being let into the adjacent

distance of about seventy-five miles from the shores of the United States, and is from forty to fifty miles in breadth. Its course is about three miles per hour. In advancing northward, it gradually recedes from the coast, and increases in breadth. See Morse's American Geography, p. 53, 54.

\* Morse's American Geography, p. 133.

† See Michaux's, description of the low part of the Carolinas and Georgia. Travels, chap. 32.

grounds



grounds at pleasure, about 10,000 acres of this swamp are now converted into one of the most valuable rice-estates in America.\* The Great Dismal, on the dividing line between Virginia and North Carolina, occupies a space of more than 140,000 acres; and is entirely covered with cypress and juniper trees in the moister parts, and in the drier with oaks and pines of various species, which here grow to a prodigious size. The thick brushwood in many places render the swamp impervious; and not only deer, but bears, wolves, and other wild beasts, abound in this sequestered retreat. Some parts of this extensive tract are sufficiently firm to bear a horse, but others too boggy to be traversed on foot. Some parts also are wholly overflowed with water. This vast morass has a lake in the middle, and is pervaded by a navigable canal.† The lake, or rather marsh of Ouaquafenogaw, in the state of Georgia, is nearly 300 miles in circuit. In wet seasons it resembles an inland sea, and contains several fertile islands, concerning one of which the Creek Indians relate marvellous tales, representing it as a terrestrial paradise, inhabited by a particular race, whose women are of incomparable beauty. From their uncertain, but however more probable traditions, it appears that these islanders are the remains of an Indian tribe, whose name and power were extinguished by the Creeks. The fugitive remnant, who had escaped the massacre of an exterminatory war, probably found in the recesses of this immense swamp, a solitary, but secure asylum. Besides these already mentioned, innumerable lakes and swamps of

\* Morse, p. 517.

† The swamp, called the Great Dismal, is very concisely described by Morse, p. 517, and more fully by Weld. Travels, vol. 1. p. 179.

inferior dimensions are interspersed throughout the whole extent of level country lying between the Alleghany mountains and the Atlantic ocean.

The northern states have a surface more diversified than that of the southern provinces. Although not mountainous, they are almost every where hilly, presenting variegated and pleasing landscapes. The back parts of the middle and southern states, rising towards the mountains, exhibit a magnificent scenery. Between the successive ridges, the intervening spaces are filled with lower elevations, displaying a variety of delightful views. "Being on the summit of one of those lofty ridges," says a late traveller, "the inequality of this group of mountains, crowned with innumerable woods, and overshadowing the earth, afforded nearly the same picture that the troubled sea presents after a dreadful storm." Such is the view which this writer gives of the Pennsylvanian mountains.\* The passage of the Potowmack through the blue ridge is described as one of the most stupendous scenes in nature. The spectator, placed on a high elevation, sees on the right the Shenendoah, and on the left the Patowmack, both running along the foot of the mountains in quest of a passage. At the point of their junction this passage is found, having probably been forced by the accumulated force of their united waters. The view excites an idea, that these having been dammed by the blue ridge, had formed an ocean in the valley below, and continually rising, had at last forced a passage over, and worn down the mountain to its base. The piles of rock on each hand, with the evident marks of their disruption, by the most powerful agent of nature, greatly corre-

\* Michaux in crossing the Pennsylvanian mountains. Trav. p. 37.

borates this impression. The distant finishing is a strong contrast to the foreground of the picture, being as delightful and placid as that is sublime and terrific. A glance of the smooth blue horizon, at an immense distance in the level country, seen through the cleft of the ruptured mountain, relieves the eye, and seems to invite the spectator from the stupendous scenes, and tumultuous roarings above, to partake of the calm below: "Such a scene," says our author, "is worth a voyage across the Atlantic."\* Perhaps we may allow something to the partiality of an American enamoured of his country, in the first enthusiastic moments of independence. There is no doubt that scenes not less magnificent may be viewed within a much shorter distance. The whole territory, west of the Allegany mountains, however, is undoubtedly beyond all comparison more agreeable than that which borders on the Atlantic, and which prejudice itself could scarcely consider as either pleasant or salubrious. The countries adjacent to the Ohio are finely diversified with swelling eminences and fertile plains: in some parts they might, without any great impropriety, be denominated mountainous.† In general they are picturesque, and display a great variety of landscape.‡ Kentucky is also finely diversified, but as well as Tennessee, labours, at some seasons, under a scarcity of water.§ Throughout the united territory, the numerous and extensive forests are a striking feature in the aspect of the country, which the increase of population, however, will gradually obliterate.

*Mountains.*]—The Appalachian, or Allegany chain,

\* Morse's American Geography, p. 482.

† Michaux, p. 24.

‡ Id. 113.

§ Id. 157, 158.

already mentioned in the general description of the North American continent, comprize, under various denominations, all the mountainous ridges, which at different distances from one another, and in the general direction of south-west and north-east, pervade the greater part of the United territory.

*Rivers.*]—No part perhaps of the world is so well furnished with navigable rivers as the United States, especially the eastern part of their territory. The great rivers, Ohio and Mississippi, in the western part, have been noticed in the general description. The various rivers which pervade the level country between the mountains and the shores of the Atlantic, as well as the numerous bays and creeks which are not less conducive to the facility of navigation and commercial intercourse, are too numerous to admit of a particular description in a work which can aim only at a general representation. By these various streams and gulphs, almost the whole eastern part of the United territory is chequered and divided into islands and peninsulas. A few of the principal can only be named. The Susquehanna is a large body of water, which, after a long and circuitous course, falls into the bay of Chesapeak, the receptacle also of the Patowmak, the Rappahannock, and the York and James' rivers, which are all of them navigable. The Chesapeak is one of the longest bays in the world. Its entrance, in latitude 37. 12', is twelve miles wide, and it extends 270 miles into the country, dividing Virginia and Maryland. Its breadth varies between the extremes of seven and eighteen miles: it is generally about nine fathoms deep, affording a safe and easy navigation, with many commodious harbours. The Delaware, which washes Philadelphia, is joined by numerous streams,

streams, and falls into a bay of the same name, a vast æstuary, sixty miles in length, and twenty-two in width at its entrance into the sea. The Patowmak, a fine navigable river, is distinguished by having the new capital of the United States seated on its banks. Many streams flow into the Mississippi; and the Ohio receives from the north the Wabash, with the Great and Little Miami; and from the south, the Great Kenneway, the Kentucky, the Green river, the Cumberland, and the Tenesée.\* Besides the great inland seas noticed in the general description of North America, and the smaller collections of water in the level country on the east of the Allegany mountains, there are other lakes in the interior, which are of considerable extent, and may at some period become of great importance in commerce. The chief of these is Lake Champlain and Lake George, which are separated only by an interval of a mile and a half. On the banks of the former, near the southern extremity and not far from the northernmost shores of Lake George, are situated Crown Point and Ticonderago, both of them famous in the history of the British expeditions in this quarter. It would be an endless task to describe all the rivers and lakes of these territories, and tedious to exhibit a mere catalogue of names. A single glance on a good map will impress a more correct idea of their variety, their courses, and their fitness for commercial communication, than could be given by volumes of minute description. It will be immediately perceived that in the other quarters of the globe there is nothing that resembles the

\* These navigable rivers, which flow into the Ohio from the south, are, in the summer only inconsiderable rivulets, almost every where easily fordable. Michaux's Trav. p. 156, 206.

singular

singular chain of lakes in the interior of North America; and that the whole continent, as well as the present territory of the United States, seems to be formed by nature for easy communication and intimate union.

*Canals.*]—Numerous canals, particularly between the Skunkill and the Susquehanna, and between the Susquehanna and the Delaware, as well as the improvements of the Patowmak, the canals of Chesapeake and Delaware, and several others, have been projected, and some of them completed. When the plans of inland navigation shall have been carried into full effect, the empire of the United States will be intersected with innumerable canals, which, together with the rivers traversing the country in every direction, will afford an extensive and easy communication at little expence.

*Mineralogy.*]—The mineralogy of the Anglo-American empire, as far as it has been hitherto explored, is rather important than various, consisting chiefly of those most useful of metals and fossils, iron and coal. In the province of Massachusetts, iron ore is found in the greatest abundance. Coal is also extremely plentiful in Kentucky towards the Mississippi and the Ohio; but especially in Virginia, and near Pittsburg, where this valuable mineral is found in great abundance, and of an excellent quality. Copper is also no inconsiderable article in North American mineralogy. It is found in Rhode Island, New York, and New Jersey. There is also a rich mine of this metal near the river Wabash.\* New York supplies lead, copper, and coal, with some silver. But of all the provinces of the United States, Virginia boasts the richest, as

\* Morse's Amer. Geography, p. 391, 409.—Laloy, p. 135.—Michaux says, that coal is extremely plentiful near Pittsburg. Trav. 53.

well as the most varied mineralogy. Besides the coal already mentioned, there is a rich lead mine; and gold, as well as black lead, and copper is likewise found in that province.

*Mineral waters.*—Mineral waters of various qualities are met with in different provinces; but as none of them are of distinguished fame, the enumeration is of little importance.

*Soil.*—The united territory, like other extensive regions, present all the variety of soils that can be met with in any part of the globe. It seems, on the whole, that when the increase of population shall have given perfection to agriculture, fertility will, in most places, be its predominant characteristic. In spite, however, of the encomiasts of Anglo America, the accounts of all impartial travellers concur in shewing, that this is not at present the case.\* The maritime parts on the shores of the Atlantic are generally sandy, and exhibit few marks of fertility. On receding, however, from the coast, the soil begins, by slow degrees of melioration, to assume a more vegetable aspect. Besides considerable swamps and salt marshes, or, as the Americans call them, salt meadows, there are also places called barrens, which, even in the original forests, are destitute of trees. Those of Kentucky comprize an extent of from sixty to seventy miles in length, by nearly the same breadth, and deserve a more appropriate name, as they consist wholly of beautiful meadows, covered with grass from two to three feet in height.† The pine barrens,

\* This is so often noticed in Brisson, Cowper, Michaux, Wedd, Rochefoucault, and others, that it would be tedious to quote particular passages.

† Michaux's Trav. p. 142.

which produce scarcely any thing but pines, are extensive in the Carolinas and Georgia. These are generally intermixed with swamps, and intersected with rivulets.\* The soil of Kentucky and Tennessee, is generally rich; in some places indeed too fertile for wheat: and the harvests of Indian corn are abundant. Kentucky presents a singular feature in geology. The whole of that extensive country, of which the greatest length is about 400, and its greatest breadth about 200 miles, lies on a bank of chalky stone. The superior stratum of vegetable earth varies in its composition, and is from ten to fifteen feet thick. The boundaries of this immense bed of stone are not yet ascertained with precision; but its thickness appears to be very considerable. This peculiarity in the construction of the country, seems to be the cause of the rivers falling in summer so exceedingly low, that the Kentucky and Green rivers, after running a course of 300 miles, are at that season still fordable; but in winter and spring they receive such an increase from the rains, that the former sometimes rises forty feet in twenty-four hours. This variation is still more remarkable in the rivers which fall into the Kentucky. Many of these, though frequently from ten to fifteen fathoms broad, preserve in the summer only a shallow stream of water of a few inches in depth.† Kentucky may therefore be regarded as an immense bason, which, by means of its chalky and porous bottom, absorbs the greatest part of its waters, instead of transmitting them, like other countries, to the ocean.‡ From this geological circum-

\* Michaux's Trav. p. 286.

† Ibid. p. 156, 157. The vegetable stratum is only in general about six feet deep, according to Morse, p. 506.

‡ West Tennessee also reposes on this bed of chalk stone. Michaux, p. 259.



stance it appears that the inhabitants will always be exposed to serious inconveniences in the summer, in consequence of the scarcity of water, except in the vicinity of considerable rivers, which preserve in all seasons a quantity sufficient for every domestic purpose. These considerations have already much diminished the flattering idea once formed of Kentucky, and must in future present a great obstacle to its complete population. Many of the most fertile tracts are found unfit for settlements; and strangers are now very careful not to make purchases until they have well examined localities.\* It would exceed the limits prescribed to this article, to enter into further particulars relative to the soil, in the different states of the Anglo-American empire.

*Climate.*]—The vast extent of the country seems to indicate as great a variety in the climate as in the soil. This, however, is not exactly the case. The different states of the union have, in this respect, a greater resemblance than might be expected. The North American climate is chiefly remarkable for sudden transitions from heat to cold, and the contrary. The north-west winds blowing over a wide expanse of the frozen continent are extremely cold. The north-east wind commonly brings rain on the eastern side of the Alleganny mountains. On the western side the south-west wind is attended with the same effect. In the level countries of Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia, on the eastern side of the mountains, the summer heats are excessive; and the sudden alterations in the temperature, in conjunction with the swampy soil, render the climate

\* Morse says, they supply themselves with excellent water by digging wells in Kentucky. Amer. Geog. p. 506.

extremely unhealthy. Perhaps the yellow fever, which first appeared in Philadelphia in the year 1793, and made such dreadful ravages, may be considered as not proceeding from the nature of the climate, but originating from adventitious causes, like the pestilential diseases that have sometimes appeared in the most healthful countries of Europe. Various circumstances, however, shew that the climate afforded fuel to the flame; and that, if it was not the primary source of the malady, it greatly encouraged its malignity, and promoted its diffusion. The frequency of inflammatory and putrid diseases, arising from heat, moisture, and the sudden changes in the atmosphere, sufficiently demonstrates the insalubrity of the plains bordering on the Atlantic. A late traveller, in speaking of the low country of Carolina, says, "the extreme unwholesomeness of the climate is clearly demonstrated by the pale and livid countenances of the inhabitants, who, during the months of September and October, are almost all affected with tertian fevers, insomuch, that at this season of the year, Georgia, and the lower Carolinas, resemble an extensive hospital."\* This writer paints that part of the united territory as one of the most disagreeable countries in the world; and the same descriptive remark may, with little variation, be extended to the whole tract, which lies between the Atlantic and the Alleghany mountains. The climate of the mountainous parts is totally different from that of the low country. "I have," says Michaux, "seen men there who were upwards of seventy-five years of age, which is very rare in the Atlantic states situated south of Pennsylvania." The contrast between the mountainous and the level

\* Michaux's Trav. p. 274.

country

country is every where conspicuous and striking. In the low country of Virginia, the vicinity of the sea, the salt creeks and rivers, the swamps and fenny grounds give such moisture and warmth to the atmosphere, that the trees are often in bloom in the end of February. But from that period till the end of April, the cold rains, piercing winds, and sharp frosts, subject the inhabitants to inflammatory diseases. Snow often falls, but seldom lies more than a day or two. This fluctuation of the weather in the winter and spring, renders the ground continually damp, and the air extremely unwholesome.\* In the mountainous parts of the same province, at about 150 miles distant from the sea, there are deep snows and severe frosts, with a dry and salubrious atmosphere.† The case is the same in Maryland and Pennsylvania. In the neighbourhood of Pittsburg, the air is extremely wholesome, and intermittent fevers are unknown.‡ Indeed, the countries on the Ohio have the advantage of possessing the best climate, as well as the best soil, of any part of the United States. In Kentucky, and the other western states, the climate, though hot, is not insalubrious, except in some marshy places, which, however, do not very frequently occur. The northern states experience great heats in the summer, but are chiefly remarkable for the severity of their winters, so far beyond what is experienced under the same parallels in Europe.

*Vegetable productions.*—It would be tedious to enumerate all the various productions of this extensive

\* Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 478. In winter loaded waggons pass over the ice on the Delaware. In summer the heat was excessive. Janson's Trav. p. 188, 189.

† Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 478.

‡ Michaux's Trav. 59.

country. A glance at the most important and remarkable features of North American vegetation must therefore suffice. All kinds of European corn are produced in the United States, besides maize, which is a native grain. Great quantities of flour are exported from Pennsylvania, New York, and other states. Kentucky is extremely fertile in corn, but its remote situation is unfavorable to its exportation. Rice is cultivated in Virginia; and it is scarcely necessary to mention that tobacco is one of the principal productions and exports both of that state and Maryland. Tobacco and flax are cultivated in Kentucky and Tennessee. In the latter province, as well as in the Carolinas and Georgia, not only rice, but great quantities of cotton are produced, the latter of which is one of the most profitable articles of American culture.\* Ginseng, that famous Tartarian root so highly valued in China, abounds in Kentucky, and is found in the mountainous regions of the Alleghanies, from Lower Canada to Georgia, which comprize an extent of 1500 miles. It was first discovered by a French missionary in Canada, and is now a considerable article of commerce to China. It is now prepared according to the Chinese, or rather Tartarian method, which is kept as a secret among some particular persons. When thus prepared, it is purchased at six or seven dollars per pound, and, according to the quality, is sold for fifty or sixty, or even as high as a hundred at Canton.† The sugar maple tree is also a remarkable production of North America. Incisions being made in this tree, it emits an inspissated juice, from which a species of sugar is made, which is found an excellent substitute for that of the West-Indies, and constitutes a very considerable

\* Michaux's Trav. p. 182, 165, 239, 241.

† Ibid, p. 168, 172,

article

article of home consumption. Orchards are a grand object of American culture. In some parts, however, the sudden and violent transitions from heat to cold is injurious to fruits. Apples are a considerable object of attention; and cyder is a common beverage. Peaches are assiduously cultivated in Virginia, Kentucky, and some other states; and peach brandy is held in high estimation in most parts of the country. The Americans are not deficient in agricultural skill; but the peculiar circumstances of their country, where land is cheap, and labour is dear, have induced them to adopt what in England would be called a slovenly mode of husbandry; so that the wide extent and scanty produce of the American farm is almost become proverbial. They appear, however, to make all the improvements which their situation admits, and in this they have been encouraged by illustrious examples. The late president Washington paid extraordinary attention to agriculture, and, like the Roman Cincinnatus, appeared equally as great in his farm at Vernon, as at the head of the armies of the Republic, or in the hall of the Congress. New England and Pennsylvania are the states in which agriculture at present flourishes the most; but New York, and some others, are making rapid improvements.

In a view of the vegetable productions of the United States, as well as of North America in general, the vast quantities of timber of various kinds are worthy of particular notice. The forest trees are of an endless variety of species, of which the enumeration alone would be too prolix for the limits prescribed to this work. They comprize all the varieties of pines and oaks, besides many other kinds of timber. The pines occupy chiefly the sandy tracts, whether wet or

dry, which have acquired the general appellation of pine barrens. Of these, the principal species are the black, the white, and the Weymouth pine, the Pennsylvania, the common and hemlock spruce fir, the yellow fir, and the larch. The black or pitch pine is a tree of varied utility. It makes the best of charcoal, produces a great quantity of tar and its soot is used as lamp black. It is scantily produced in the northern and middle states, but abounds in those of the south. The white pine is, in size and majestic appearance, the prince of the American forests, and is excellent for masts, yards, and other uses in the construction of ships. The yellow fir is not less useful to cut into plank. Nearly allied to the family of pines, are the white and red cedar; and to these may be added the cypress, which grows to a very large size in the swamps, and is found only in the southern states. The oaks are of various species, and adapted to different purposes. Besides these, are the chesnut, the ash, the elm, the walnut, the beech, and a multitude of others too numerous to mention. The flowering trees and shrubs are almost innumerable, and greatly contribute to enliven and enrich an American landscape. The low ridges of marly soil, which, at a distance from the coast, rise from the level savannas into gently swelling hills and extensive lawns, present a rich and magnificent vegetable scenery, composed of the evergreen oak, the lofty palmetto, the wide shading broom pine, and the red cedar.\* In some parts, the golden fruit and fragrant blossoms of the orange, and the broad-leaved canopy of the Papaw fig, spreading itself from the top of a trunk of twenty

\* In the countries adjacent to the Missouri, the trees are of an enormous size, especially oak, pine, cedar, and cypress. Janson. p. 230.

feet high, give additional beauty to the picture. Superior to all these, is the towering magnificence of the great Mangolia, which, on those rich marly ridges, rises with a trunk perfectly straight to the height of 100 feet. It is crowned with a conical head of dark green foliage, enlivened with rose-like blossoms of the purest white, which are succeeded by crimson cones containing the seeds. This tree, and the white cedar, which grows in the swamps to an enormous size, with a straight column of the height of eighty or ninety feet, crowned with an umbrella-shaped top, the abode of the eagle and the crane, exhibit an appearance extremely grand and picturesque. The numbers and varieties of the American trees and shrubs, in fine, would exhaust the powers of description; for notwithstanding the continual progress of agriculture, the foundation of towns, and the dissemination of scattered plantations, the new continent may yet be considered as an immense forest.\* The rapid increase of population is swallowed up in the vast extent of territory.

*Zoology.*]—The domestic animals of the United States are, with some variations of size, colour, &c. the same as in Europe, from whence they were originally imported. Those of America, however, are in general distinguished by various characteristics of inferiority to those of the old continent. Virginia has the best horses that are any where seen in the United

\* The territory bordering on the Ohio surpasses all other parts of the United States in the magnitude of the trees. The palm here sometimes acquires a trunk of above forty feet in circumference, and the poplar from sixteen to eighteen feet. Michaux's travels, p. 86, &c. Throughout Kentucky the timber is large; but no where of so enormous a size as on the banks of the Ohio. *Id. ibid.* Vines grow spontaneously on the Ohio, and in other parts of the back settlements, and might be cultivated with success, Morse, p. 457.

States. The opulent inhabitants being fond of pleasure and shew, have paid great attention to the breed of coach and saddle horses, and sometimes give 1000*l.* sterling for a fine stallion.\* The Virginia horses are now introduced into Kentucky, and constitute a very considerable article of trade, especially with South Carolina, which is the principal market for Kentucky horses.† A fine saddle horse in Kentucky costs about 130 or 140 dollars; and the distance of about 700 miles from Lexington to Charlestown, occasions at the latter place an advance of about twenty-five or thirty per cent in the price.‡ Horned cattle are numerous in most parts of the United States, especially in Virginia and Kentucky, where they have extensive ranges; but both they and the sheep are greatly inferior to those of Europe. Hogs are in most parts exceedingly numerous. Some of the inhabitants of Kentucky keep 150 or 200 of these animals. They generally go in herds, and seldom leave the woods, where they almost always find a sufficiency of food. Each proprietor recognizes his own by his particular mark, and they accustom them to return now and then to the plantations, by throwing them once or twice a week a little Indian corn.§

Among the wild animals, the moose deer, of which there are two species, the black and the grey, may be reckoned the most remarkable. The former is said to have been found twelve feet in height; the latter seldom exceeds the half of that size. Both kinds have large palmated horns, a pair of which has been known

\* Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 485.

† Michaux's Trav. p. 188, &c. Draught horses, however, are very much inferior to those of England in all parts of North America,

‡ Michaux, p. 190.

§ Ibid, 191, &c.



to weigh fifty-six pounds.\* This animal, however, is now grown extremely rare, and will probably soon be extirpated. The American stag somewhat exceeds that of Europe in size; and great numbers of them are seen in the rich savannas bordering on the Mississippi and the Missouri. Bears, wolves, and foxes, are met with in most parts of the united territory. But one of the most ferocious animals is the mountain cat, which somewhat resembles a panther. One of these being killed in New Hampshire, measured nine feet in length from the muzzle to the extremity of the tail, the tail being three feet. The leg was disproportionately short, not exceeding one foot in length. It may here be observed, that all the ferocious animals of the new continent are totally different from those of the old, there being neither lions, tigers, leopards, nor panthers, in any part of America. There are indeed considerable numbers of smaller beasts of prey, such as the lynx, the ocelot, and others of the cat kind. The beaver is found in all the states of the union. That extraordinary animal called the mammoth, which has puzzled all the enquiries of naturalists, no longer exists, and will therefore be more particularly mentioned under the head of curiosities. It has already been mentioned, that the moose deer is almost extinct; and in proportion as population and agriculture increase, the other wild animals of America will be gradually extirpated. This is a natural and necessary consequence; but the extinction of the mammoth must be ascribed to some different cause, which, however, in all probability will never be discovered. Among the American birds may be reckoned in the first place the domestic poultry, which is the

\* Pennant's Arct. Zool. vol. 1, p. 18.

same as in Europe. The turkey is a native of America, and abounds in the northern states.\* Wild turkeys grow scarce in the southern states, but are exceedingly numerous in the west, especially in Kentucky. They are larger than those in the farm-yards of Europe: some of them weigh from thirty to forty pounds.† In the woods are several birds, which nearly resemble the partridge and quail of Europe; and a great variety of aquatic fowl haunt the numerous lakes, rivers, and swamps. There are also various kinds of eagles, vultures, &c. Virginia surpasses all the other states in the beauties of the feathered creation: the humming bird in particular, so remarkable for the smallness of its size, and the splendor of its plumage, has long been a favourite theme among naturalists. Virginia also produces great numbers of serpents, of which a great variety of kinds is found in the united territory. The rattlesnake, so called from the crustaceous, or horny bags, which form its tail, and whenever it moves make a rattling noise that gives warning of its approach, is far the most dangerous. Various remedies for the bite of this terrible serpent have been prescribed, and used with different success. Nothing, however, can be more dreadful than its effects. Without proper and timely applications, death is the inevitable consequence; and if the patient recovers, his constitution is generally ruined.‡ It is said, however, that a rattlesnake will not attack a person unless provoked or molested; and as its motion is slow, besides being announced by the noise of its rattles, it may in general be easily

\* Pennant's Arct. Zool. vol. 1, p. 349.

† Michaux's Trav. p. 175, 176. ‡ Ibid. p. 48.

avoided.

avoided.\* Serpents are both numerous and more venomous in the southern than in the northern states; but the former are furnished with a greater variety and abundance of remedies. It is a fact worthy of perpetual and grateful remembrance, that wherever venomous creatures are found, the God of nature has kindly provided antidotes against their poison. The American fisheries are abundant, but have little that can be called peculiar. The fishery on the banks of Newfoundland, which has long been so famous in Europe, will be mentioned in its proper place.

*Natural Curiosities.*]—The natural curiosities of the Anglo-American empire are too numerous for a particular description. It will here be sufficient to mention some of the principal: for more minute details on this subject, the reader may be referred to Morse, Imlay, Weld, and other geographers and travellers. One of the most sublime of nature's works in this country is the natural bridge in Virginia. It unites two rocky hills, which might seem to have been cloven asunder by some violent convulsion; but, on mature consideration, the fissure, which is not less than 275 feet deep, 45 feet wide at the bottom, and 90 at the top, appears rather to have been formed by the brook which runs underneath, and in the course of ages has worn away the limestone rock, and thus gradually deepened its bed. Over this dreadful chasm the natural bridge forms an arch, which approaches the semi-elliptical form. The breadth of the bridge is about sixty feet in the middle, but more at the ends:

\* Morse, p. 172. The islands and banks towards the west end of Lake Erie are so infested with rattlesnakes, and other destructive serpents, that landing is dangerous. Morse, p. 29.

its length is ninety feet, being determined by the width of the chasm; and the thickness of the solid mass at the summit is about forty feet. A part of this thickness consists of a coat of earth at the top, which gives nourishment to several large trees. The rest, with the hill on both sides, is a solid limestone rock. The view from the top is terrific, that from the bottom is beyond description sublime.\* The irruption of the Potowmak through the blue mountains has already been mentioned: that magnificent piece of natural scenery, however, is equalled, some think surpassed, by the burst of the Tennessee river through the Cumberland mountains. A fine cascade in Pennsylvania, where the water falls over a semi-circular rock of marble, has also attracted considerable notice.† In many parts of the united territory are remarkable caverns. One of these, in Pennsylvania, is said to resemble a church with pillars and monuments. The blowing cave in Virginia is remarkable for constantly emitting a wind of such force as to keep the weeds prostrate to the distance of twenty yards from its mouth. This singular current of air is the strongest in frosty, and the weakest in rainy weather. Near Durham is a rock so equally poised on another, as to be movable by the application of a finger. In Georgia is seen a singular geological phenomenon. Near the banks of the Savannah, at the distance of about ninety miles in a direct line from the sea, are three distinct ridges of hills composed of oyster shells. Their elevation is about seventy feet above the surface

\* See Weld's print in his travels, and Mose's description. *American Geog.* p. 186.

† Lmlay, p. 304.

of the river. They are covered with a common vegetable surface of about three feet in depth, below which the bed of oyster shells is from twenty to thirty feet thick, without the intermixture of any other substances. These shells are of the colour and consistency of white marble, and of an extraordinary size, being generally from fifteen to twenty inches in length, from six to eight broad, and from two to four in thickness. Mr. Bartram says, that they appear to be petrified, and to have all been opened previous to that transmutation. He also thinks that they may be antediluvian; but this must be esteemed too vague a conjecture.\* An appearance so singular cannot be rationally accounted for, otherwise than by supposing that a great part of the flat country to the east of the Alleganny mountains has formerly been covered by the ocean; a supposition which, as already observed, is corroborated by a variety of circumstances.

The large bones of the mammoth, a name given to an unknown animal, which must have been of an enormous size, may be numbered among the greatest natural curiosities of North America. The teeth, like those of the elephant, are of ivory; but from their form, the animal appears to have been carnivorous. The bones of the mammoth evidently prove this enormous animal to have been five or six times as large as the elephant. These bones are found only at the salt licks or springs, near the Ohio. Some few scattered teeth have been met with in other parts; but they appear to have been carried from this deposit by the Indians. The causes of the extirpation of this wonder-

\* Bartram's travels, p. 318.

ful animal, and the period when it happened, are equally unknown. The Indians have various traditions on the subject, which have descended through successive generations; but as they are wholly absurd, this curious article of natural history appears unlikely to be ever elucidated.

*Antiquities, &c.*—The historian and the antiquary will not expect to find any ancient monuments in America. In this quarter of the world all is recent, nothing excites recollection, nor recalls to the mind the remembrance of great events. The countries however, on the banks of the Ohio present some remains of an obscure antiquity, which have excited the admiration of the curious, and afforded abundant matter of speculation. These are a number of ancient forts, mostly of an oblong form, situated on strong and well chosen ground, and contiguous to water. At what period, by whom, or for what purpose these forts were erected, is totally unknown. They appear, however, to be of very considerable antiquity, as there is not the least visible difference between the age and size of the timber growing on and within these fortifications, and of that which is seen in the vicinity, and the oldest natives have lost all traditions concerning those ancient monuments. The ingenious Dr. Cutler, who has accurately examined these trees, which he supposes, from various appearances, to be of the second growth, conjectures that the forts must have been the efforts of a people much more devoted to labour than the present race of native Americans; and Mr. Morse says, “ It is difficult to conceive how they could be constructed without the use of iron tools;

tools;" but he ought to have considered that the Mexicans and the Peruvians, without the use of iron, erected edifices superior to the forts in question. These two North American curiosities, the forts in the Ohio territory, and the bones of the mammoth in the same region, must forever remain, the former a historical, the latter a physical mystery.

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*CHAP. II.*

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Principal cities and towns—Edifices—Islands.

IN a view of the American cities, it is reasonable to assign the first place to Washington, the new metropolis of the Anglo-American empire, although it has not yet attained to the population and opulence of Philadelphia and some other capitals of particular states. The town of Washington being ceded by the states of Virginia and Maryland to the United States, was fixed on, to be, after the commencement of the nineteenth century, the seat of the federal government. An accurate description of the plan has been given by Morse; and although it has been transcribed by recent geographers, I shall venture to go over the same ground. The rising metropolis of the Anglo-American empire is a subject of sufficient importance in a work of this kind to be admitted as an apology.\* “This city, which is now building, stands at the junction of the rivers Potowmack and the eastern branch, lat. 38° 53' north,† extending four miles up each; and including a tract of territory exceeded, in point of convenience, salubrity, and beauty, by none in America; for although the land in general appears level, yet, by

\* This description from Morse, although already transcribed by Pinkerton, could not, consistently with the present plan be omitted. Without a description of the American capital the work would be incomplete.

† Nearly in the parallel of Athens and Lisbon.

gentle



gentle and gradual swellings a variety of elegant prospects are produced, and a sufficient descent formed for conveying off the water occasioned by rain. Within the limits of the city are a great number of excellent springs, and by digging wells, water of the best quality may readily be had. Besides, the never failing streams that now run through that territory, may also be collected for the use of the city. The waters of Reedy branch and of Tiber creek may be conveyed to the president's house. The source of Tiber creek is elevated about 236 feet above the level of the tide in the said creek. The perpendicular height of the ground on which the capitol is to stand is seventy-eight feet above the level of the tide in the Tiber creek. The water of Tiber creek may therefore be conveyed to the capitol; and, after watering that part of the city, may be destined to other useful purposes. The eastern branch is one of the safest and most commodious harbours in America, being sufficiently deep for the largest ships for about four miles above its mouth, while the channel lies close along the bank adjoining the city, and affords a large and convenient harbour. The Patowmak, although only navigable for small craft for a considerable distance from its banks next to the city, excepting about half a mile above the junction of the rivers, will nevertheless afford a capacious summer harbour, as an immense number of ships may ride in the great channel opposite to, and below the city.

The situation of this metropolis is upon the great post road, equi-distant from the northern and southern extremities of the union, and nearly so from the Atlantic and Pittsburg, upon the best navigation, and in the midst of a commercial territory, probably the

richest, and commanding the most extensive internal resources of any in America. It has therefore many advantages to recommend it as an eligible place for the permanent seat of the general government; and as it is likely to be speedily built, and otherwise improved by the public spirited enterprize of the people of the United States, and even by foreigners, it may be expected to grow up with a degree of rapidity hitherto unparalleled in the annals of cities.

The plan of this city appears to contain some important improvements upon that of the best planned cities in the world, combining, in a remarkable degree, convenience, regularity, elegance of prospect, and a free circulation of air. The positions for the different public edifices, and for the several squares and areas of different shapes, as they are laid down, were first determined on the most advantageous ground, commanding the most extensive prospects; and, from their situation, susceptible of such improvements as either use or ornament may hereafter require. The capitol will be situated on a most beautiful eminence, commanding a complete view of every part of the city, and of a considerable part of the country around. The president's house will stand on a rising ground, possessing a delightful water prospect, together with a commanding view of the capitol, and the most material parts. Lines, or avenues of direct communication have been devised to connect the most distant and important objects. These transverse avenues, or diagonal streets, are laid out on the most advantageous ground for prospect and convenience; and are calculated not only to produce a variety of charming prospects, but greatly to facilitate the communication throughout the city. North and south lines, inter-  
sected

ected by others running due east and west, make the distribution of the city into streets, squares, &c. and those lines have been so combined as to meet at certain given points with the divergent avenues, so as to form on the spaces first determined the different squares or areas. The grand avenues, and such streets as lead immediately to public places, are from 130 to 160 feet wide, and may be conveniently divided into foot-ways, a walk planted with trees on each side, and a paved way for carriages. The other streets are from 90 to 110 feet wide.

In order to execute this plan, Mr. Ellicot drew a true meridional line, by celestial observation, which passes through the area intended for the capitol. This line he crossed by another running due east and west, which passes through the same area. These lines were accurately measured, and made the basis on which the whole plan was executed. He ran all the lines by a transit instrument, and determined the acute angles by actual measurement, leaving nothing to the uncertainty of the compass.\* In the situation of the American metropolis, a variety of circumstances combine to facilitate the construction of a large and elegant city. The banks of the Patowmak present inexhaustible quarries of excellent free-stone and slate; paving-stone and lime-stone are also found at no great distance. It does not seem, however, that the increase of buildings and population at Washington corresponds with the expectations that had been formed, or that it is likely soon to realize the brilliant picture drawn by Mr. Morse, and other speculative writers. The latest accounts depict the American capital in very different colours. A traveller who visited that city so

\* Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 468, 469, 470.

late as in 1806, represents it as little better than an assemblage of unfinished streets and houses falling into ruins. He says, that even the great avenue extending from the capitol to the president's house, is yet a mere wilderness; that neither park, nor mall, nor theatre, nor college, was then to be seen, and that strangers, after viewing the public buildings, the houses of the officers of government, &c. would be apt to enquire for the city even when they are in its centre. According to this writer, the circumjacent country is yet in a state of nature, being mostly covered with woods and swamps.\* The new city of Washington has greatly excited curiosity as well as speculation; and Mr. Janson says, that he found it to be the first object of enquiry when he arrived in London. At the time when it was planned, vast expectations were founded on this scene of contemplated wealth and magnificence. Ladd-jobbers made large purchases; and the sum of 500*l.* was asked in London for about the sixth part of a lot, the whole of which had originally been purchased for 20*l.* These speculators thought of nothing but running up new buildings; but they soon found their lots a dead burden on their hands, and their untenanted houses going to ruin.† Many English artists at the same time enchanted with the description given by interested writers, and stimulated by the hopes of rapidly acquiring a fortune, left their employments, which procured them a competence at home, and crossed the Atlantic, in order to exert their abilities in finishing this newly

\* Description of the city of Washington. Janson's Travels in America, ch. 15.

† Janson's Trav. ch. 15, p. 207. This writer says, that a great number of houses which had been begun on an elegant plan, were in that state, p. 203.

projected

projected metropolis, which was expected at some future period to equal ancient Rome in magnificence.\* It is needless to add, that these, as well as the purchasers of lots, soon experienced the frustration of their hopes. In fine, this new capital of America exhibits a [miserable spectacle of disappointed speculation. Mr. Janson is of opinion that the vicinity of Alexandria and Baltimore will prevent Washington from ever becoming a great emporium of commerce; and it is certain that the population of the provinces must be greatly increased before the metropolis can in that respect vie with the great European capitals; nor can it, unless the government should give to builders and settlers some extraordinary encouragements, be "expected to grow up with a rapidity unparalleled in the annals of cities." The growth of Washington will perhaps scarcely equal in rapidity that of Constantinople in the fourth, or that of Petersburg in the eighteenth century. A Roman and a Russian sovereign, having myriads of obedient subjects under their absolute command, could work miracles.

*Philadelphia.*—Philadelphia must be considered as next to Washington. Being supposed to contain 50,000 inhabitants, it must, in regard to population, be esteemed the principal city in the United States.† It is situated in a plain on the isthmus between the Schuylkill and the Delawar, at the distance of about five miles in a direct line above their confluence. Its form is that of a parallelogram of near three miles in length, and scarcely one mile in breadth, stretching

\* Janson, *ubi supra*.

† Janson says, that the present population is computed at 80,000: but he thinks this too high an estimate, p. 179.

along the western bank of the Delawar. The city is elegantly planned; most of the streets crossing one another at right angles. Of these, nine run east and west, and twenty-three north and south. That called broad-street is 113 feet wide; High-street is 100 feet; Mulberry-street 60, and all the others 50 feet broad. In the middle they are paved with pebbles, and on the sides with brick, for the conveniency of foot passengers. But besides these, which belong to the original plan, there are a number of other streets, lanes, and alleys, laid out by the owners of the different lots or squares, formed by the principal intersections. Here are a great number of public buildings, humane institutions, and seminaries of learning, particularly the Pennsylvanian university, the college of Philadelphia, and other excellent establishments for the advancement of every kind of knowledge, with a public library accessible every day in the week except Sunday. The places of worship for the different religious denominations are numerous: of these the Quakers have five, the Presbyterians and Seceders six, the Catholics four, and the Episcopalians three. The German Lutherans have two, the Swedish Lutherans one, the Calvinists one; the Moravians, the Baptists, the Universal Baptists, the Methodists, one each, besides a synagogue for the Jews. In magnitude, beauty, and opulence, Philadelphia is, incontrovertibly, the principal city of the United States: in regard to the industry, abilities, and enterprising spirit of its inhabitants, it is inferior to no city whatever of equal population; and its government and police are not surpassed in any part of the world.\*

\* For the rapid increase of Philadelphia, see Janson's Trav, in Amer. p. 178.

Philadelphia is situated in  $39^{\circ} 56'$  north latitude, and  $75^{\circ} 8'$  west longitude from Greenwich, at the distance of about sixty miles from the Atlantic, in a direct line, and about 120 by the course of the Delaware, which is here about a mile in breadth. The city was planned by the celebrated William Penn, first proprietary of the province, and founded in the year 1683. It was settled by a colony from New England, and received so rapid an increase by the constant and regular influx of foreigners, that in less than a century the city and suburbs contained about 40,000 inhabitants. Splendid equipages are now seen in the streets; and the theatre begins to be frequented. This large and opulent city, of which the commerce extends to all parts of the globe, suffered extremely by the yellow fever which broke out in July 1793, and did not cease till about the end of November.

*New York.*]—New York, the capital of the state of that name, is, in respect of population, next to Philadelphia; and in commerce, is esteemed the chief city of all North America. It is situated on a promontory at the mouth of Hudson's river, and its harbour admits ships of the largest burden. This city is about four miles in circuit; and in 1790 contained 33,131 inhabitants. New York is esteemed the gayest city of the Anglo-American empire. In the richness and splendor of dress, the ladies are not equalled in any other city of the United States.\* In public institutions for the promotion of education, arts, sciences, &c. this opulent and flourishing city appears to be deficient, exhibiting in this respect a striking contrast to Philadelphia.

\* Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 380, 381, 382, &c.

*Boston.*]—

*Boston.*—Boston, the capital of New England, is situated on a large bay, and has an excellent harbour, sufficiently capacious for the reception of 500 vessels, with a narrow entrance commanded by a castle. About the middle of the last century this city was esteemed the chief of British America, though now considerably inferior to Philadelphia and New York. From Christmas 1747, to Christmas 1748, no fewer than 500 vessels cleared out of this port for foreign trade; and the entrances inward amounted to 430, besides coasting and fishing vessels, supposed to equal the others in number.\* But since that time the trade of Boston has greatly declined: at present, however, it is not inconsiderable. This city is irregularly built, lying in a circular form around the harbour; but it makes a fine appearance when approached from the sea. It covers an area of about 1000 acres, and is supposed to contain 20,000 inhabitants.† The environs of the town are picturesque: the harbour is beautifully diversified with forty small islands, fertile in herbage and grain. Beacon-hill, on which a handsome monument commemorative of some of the most important events of the war, is erected, overlooks the town from the west, and commands a finely variegated prospect. The inhabitants of Boston, as well as of New England in general, were formerly remarked for their fanaticism and intolerant spirit. But the same liberal principles now prevail there as in the other states of the union; every denomination has its places of worship, which, in 1794, amounted to seventeen in number; and Boston now begins to be ranked among the most sociable of the American cities.

\* Burke's *Europ. Settlements*, vol. 2. p. 172.

† Morné's *Amer. Geog.* p. 331. This calculation, however, must be considered as under-rating the present population.

*Charlestown.*—



*Charlestown.*]—Charlestown, the capital of South Carolina, and the only considerable place in that state, is situated in  $32^{\circ} 45'$  north latitude,\* on a tongue of land formed by the confluence of Ashley and Cowper rivers, both of which are large and navigable, and by their junction just below the town, form a spacious and convenient harbour. Charlestown is only six or seven miles distant from the sea; and although the land on which the town stands be flat and low, and the water brackish and unwholesome, the refreshing sea breezes, and the agitation excited in the air by the high tides in the rivers, have caused it to be regarded as the most healthful situation that can be found in the flat countries of the southern states.† In point of salubrity, however, it appears now to have lost all title to distinction. During several years the yellow fever shewed itself every summer. Before the first appearance of this disease, a great number of the opulent planters used to repair to Charlestown, in order to escape the intermittent fevers, which attack seven-tenths of those who remain in the country; but they have now built houses on Sullivan's island, seven miles below the city.‡ That island, of which the dry and parched up soil is almost destitute of vegetation, is exposed to strong breezes from the sea, and enjoys a cool and pleasant air. Here they reside from the commencement of July till the first frost, which generally takes place about the middle of November. The summer is therefore in general a dull and melancholy season at Charlestown; and when the yellow fever

\* Nearly in the parallel of Ispahan in Persia, about one degree to the north of Jerusalem, and one degree and a half to the north of Alexandria.

† Morse, p. 539.

‡ Michaux's Trav. p. 3.

commences,

commences, all communication with the country ceases, as the inhabitants of the back parts of the province are not less liable to contract that disease than foreigners. The natives, and those who have long been resident in Charlestown, or its environs, are much less subject to its attacks; and the negroes are seldom, if ever, affected. But for strangers, this town is in summer a dangerous place of resort. Michaux says, that persons who arrive from Europe, or from the other parts of America, and immediately go to reside on Sullivan's island, are scarcely ever attacked with the yellow fever; but that in the year 1801, eight-tenths of the foreigners who remained in Charlestown died of that disease.\* The same traveller adds, that during the summer season, the people of Upper Carolina shew the greatest reluctance against a journey to Charlestown; and that in his return from the western territory in the month of October 1802, he did not, in the space of 300 miles on the most frequented roads, meet with a single person either going to, or returning from that city. From the commencement of November till May, the town and the country exhibit a different picture: every thing resumes new life; the suspended communications recommence; an immense number of carriages and single-horse chaises keep up a constant correspondence between the city and the neighbouring plantations; and the roads are covered with waggons, bringing from all quarters the produce of the interior. Trade is reanimated; and the commercial activity every where seen, renders Charlestown as lively in the winter, as it is dull and melancholy in the summer. For the

\* Michaux's Trav. vol. 4. Janson also remarks the excessive insalubrity of South Carolina. Trav. p. 253.

last three or four years, however, it appears that this town has been somewhat less subject to sickness; and the yellow fever has not recently made any great ravages.

Charlestown is about a mile in length. The streets from east to west extend from Ashley's to Cooper's river, running in straight lines, and opening beautiful prospects. These streets being intersected by others nearly at right angles, the town is divided into squares, having dwelling-houses in the front, with offices and small gardens behind. Two-thirds of the houses are of wood: the rest are of brick. Some of the streets are much too narrow for so populous a city in so hot a climate; and by confining the air, generate various diseases.\* They have also been found extremely inconvenient in case of fires, the dreadful effects of which Charlestown has often experienced. Some of the streets, however, are very wide; but not being paved, the constant circulation of carriages, which, in proportion to the extent and population of the place, are far more numerous than in any other town of the United States, by pulverizing the loose sand, renders them extremely dusty and disagreeable. Charlestown, however, notwithstanding the ravages of sickness, to which it is so liable, is, excepting New York, the gayest city of the North American empire; and the inhabitants are celebrated for their easy affability and social manners. In 1791 the population was 16,359, of which number 7684 were slaves:

\* Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 540. The streets of Cairo, however, are extremely narrow, and such are considered there as the best shelter from the excessive heat. Brown's Trav. In several other hot countries the streets are made narrow for the same reason, especially at Fes and Algiers; but it may be remarked, that such cities are often the seat of pestilential disorders. See Shaw, Ouzis, Lempiere, and other travellers.

in 1803; it amounted, including the foreigners, to 10,690 whites, and 9050 slaves!\* Humanity must regard the picture as shocking; but happily the American states, as well as the parent country, have now shaken off that disgrace.

The other towns of the United States are inconsiderable in regard to extent and population, although many of them are already of commercial importance, and promise a rapid improvement. It would, however, be in vain to attempt any further description. Besides the prolixity to which it would lead, American improvements are so rapid, that European information cannot keep pace with the successive alterations.

*Edifices.*]—North America has not yet raised any magnificent edifices, although she can boast of some that display considerable elegance. The principal of these are the halls, where the states of each province assemble. The capitol, and the house of the president in the new metropolis, promise a considerable degree of magnificence.† The plan of the capitol is so grand, that the expence is estimated at 1,000,000 of dollars, equivalent to about 225,000*l.* sterling. Some of the American gentlemen have also built country seats on their plantations, in an elegant modern style. That of Mount Vernon, the philosophical retreat of General Washington, is entitled to particular notice. The mansion-house is neat and convenient; the banqueting-room is superb, and the whole assemblage of buildings has an agreeable appearance. The situation on the Virginia bank of the Patowmak, where that river is nearly two miles wide, at the distance of nine

\* Morse. p. 540.—Michaux, p. 8.

† Jenson's Trav. ch. 15. p. 204 and 206.

miles below Alexandria, and about 280 miles from the sea, may vie with that of any of the finest villas in Europe. The area on the summit of the mount is 200 feet above the surface of the river; and after furnishing a lawn of five acres in the front, and nearly the same in the rear of the buildings, has, on each of those sides, an abrupt declivity. Towards the north it sinks gradually into extensive pasture grounds: on the south it slopes more steeply, and terminates with the out-buildings, vineyards, and nurseries. The pleasure-grounds are laid out in a good style; and the park is well stocked with English and American deer. Extensive plains, corn fields, and pastures, wood lands, and cultivated declivities, present a variegated prospect, and the whole combination of objects forms a picturesque and luxuriant scenery. In those philosophic shades, the founder of the North American empire spent his moments of retirement from the tumults of war and the cares of the state. Belvoir, the beautiful seat of the late Colonel Fairfax, is only four miles below Mount Vernon, and deserves to be ranked among the principal American villas. Objects like these, however, are extremely rare in America in proportion to the extent of the territory. Utility has, in this infant country, been chiefly consulted. The Americans have already imbibed some ideas of elegance; but they have scarcely had time to think of magnificence.

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*CHAP. III.*

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*Historical View—General Progress of Society—Of Arts and Sciences—  
Of Letters and Commerce.*

**T**HE history of the Anglo-American empire involves no long period of time, nor many events of a nature particularly striking, until the late revolution took place, a revolution which has already been attended with important consequences, and must ultimately produce a new order of things in that quarter of the globe.

In the general view of the American continent, the discovery of the eastern coasts of the united territory has been related. A particular history of each state would be a dry and tedious narrative, too minute and prolix for this work, and little interesting to an English reader. It must therefore suffice to present a collective view of the whole as one extensive and united empire, to trace its gradual formation, and exhibit its rapid increase.

The Europeans who first visited these shores, found the country inhabited by uncivilized nations, who lived chiefly by hunting and fishing. Treating those inoffensive people as wild beasts of the forest, which have no property in the woods where they roam, they planted the standard of their respective nations wherever they landed, and claimed possession of the country by right of discovery. The moralist may find it difficult to justify those invasions. An Eternal Providence

vidence over-ruling all the actions of men, however, had formed a grand and extensive plan, had determined to bring new empires into existence, to extend to America the civilization of Europe, and to enlarge the sphere of human knowledge and action.

Before any settlements had been formed in those parts, the Spanish, English, French, and Dutch navigators, had at different times explored the coasts, and acquired numerous titles to various tracts of country. These claims, though at first considered as of little importance, at length became a source of contention among the European powers. The subjects of different princes often laid claim to the same tract of country, because both had discovered the same river or promontory; and the extent of their respective limits long remained undetermined. Settlements at last were made by different European nations; but for some time they remained inconsiderable, and almost unnoticed in the councils of the parent countries, where objects of apparently greater importance constantly engrossed all political attention. Thus new empires and states were rising unnoticed into existence; and a new political system, of which the statesmen of those times never conceived even the faintest idea, was gradually forming itself in distant obscurity.

Various causes promoted the settlement, and contributed to increase the population of the American continent. In Spain and Portugal the spirit of adventure, and the avidity of riches, impelled men to abandon their country, and court the smiles of fortune in distant and unknown regions. In some other countries, especially in Germany and England, religious intolerance contributed to drive the inhabitants from their formerly peaceful abodes, to seek in the forests

and wildernesses beyond the Atlantic an asylum against persecution. The violences of Laud against the Puritans, was a fertile source of American population. Numbers forsook the blessings of civilized life at home for the sake of enjoying liberty of conscience in the wilds of America. Such, however, is the nature of man, or rather such the absurdities into which he is led by fanatical bigotry, that those who fled across the Atlantic to avoid persecution, no sooner found themselves invested with power, than they exercised it with a merciless hand on such of their countrymen as differed from them in the punctilios of religious opinion. The sanguinary laws enacted by the colony of New England against the Quakers, one of the most peaceable of all the Christian denominations, were scarcely inferior to those of the inquisition. In the ages of fanaticism, Protestants, regarding with abhorrence the doctrine of Rome, adopted the very worst of her principles; and left to posterity an incontrovertible proof that intolerance is not the distinguishing characteristic of any particular sect; but that wherever fanaticism reigns, the spirit of persecution exists, and when armed with power, will burst into action. Emigrants from England carried into America the intolerant bigotry of Europe. In those unhappy ages that infernal spirit was every where prevalent: and what is wonderful to tell, notwithstanding the multiplicity of intellectual improvements, men had not yet learned to know that their own opinions were not the infallible criteria of truth, and that the Divine benevolence extends to the whole human race! That God is the Universal Father of all mankind, is a discovery which appears to have been left to modern times!

The settlements were for some time inconsiderable.

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They were scattered at wide intervals throughout a vast extent of uncultivated country. Their trade was consequently small; and while they remained in this situation, the interference of claims produced no important controversy among the colonists or the nations of Europe. But in proportion to the increase of population and the growth of American commerce, the jealousies of the nations which had made the first discoveries and settlements were excited, ancient claims were revived, and each power took measures for securing, and even extending its possessions at the expense of a rival. It would be useless to relate those unimportant contests, which produced no greater consequences than the acquisition or loss of some small islands, or the extension or restriction of claims again to be further extended or restricted by subsequent alternatives of war and peace, and to be often the subjects of new regulations. The revolutionary war, which terminated in American independence, and laid the foundations of a trans-atlantic empire, unconnected with Europe, is the most striking feature in this portion of history. In hastening to take a view of this important event, however, it is requisite to cast a glance on these transactions from whence it derived its origin.

It has already been observed, that France, being in possession of Canada, as well as of a great part of Florida, had formed a project of extending her empire over the whole North American continent. Immediately after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, the plan was formed, and the execution begun, by the erection of a chain of forts, which, when completed, should connect those distant possessions, and command all the trade of the rivers St. Lawrence, Ohio, and Mississippi. The French had already secured the

important pass of Niagara, and erected the Fort Du Quesne at the junction of the Alleganny with the Monongahela.\* Various encroachments were made on the English possessions; and mutual injuries succeeding, the disputes between the two nations at length broke out in open war. Hostilities commenced, and several expeditions took place, of which the most important are mentioned in the historical view of Great Britain. The American history indeed is included in that of the parent country, until recent events effected their separation. Among the transactions of those times, however, a particular circumstance authorises us again to notice the unfortunate expedition of General Braddock, against Fort Du Quesne, in 1755, in which the English, falling into an ambuscade, were defeated, and their brave commander lost his life. In this action the famous General Washington, then an officer in the British service, began to display those military talents which enabled him to conduct armies to victory, and lay the foundations of an empire. General Braddock being killed, together with a great part of his troops, the retreat of the rest was effected under the conduct of Washington, and their total destruction prevented. The subsequent events which turned the scale of victory in favour of Britain, and expelled the French from America have already been briefly noticed. The war was terminated by the peace of Paris in 1763, which confirmed Great Britain in the possession of all North America to the east of the Mississippi, an empire of vast extent, but of which the short duration could not be foreseen. This war, the most glorious in the Bri-

\* The situation of the town of Pittsburg. Of fort Duquesne, nothing now remains but the ditches. Michaux. p. 59.

ish annals, had been distinguished by the most brilliant successes, and terminated by a peace extremely advantageous. Those splendid victories, and this glorious issue of so important a contest, however, were productive of great misfortunes. Britain had attained to the zenith of greatness and glory. But this exaltation was pregnant with consequences that led to the dismemberment of her empire. The extraordinary exertions of Great Britain in that war had astonished all Europe; but her expenditure had been immense. The parliament was obliged to have recourse to new expedients for raising money; and among others, it was thought not unreasonable that America should contribute to the expences of a war undertaken for the purpose of delivering her from the yoke of France, an object which had been so successfully attained. The only emolument that England had hitherto derived from her trans-atlantic possessions was the monopoly of their trade.

The British colonies in America having been established at different periods of time, and under different circumstances, had received different forms of government, which created different degrees of dependence on the crown. These various regulations formed four different political constitutions. The first was a charter government, by which the powers of legislation were vested in a governor, council, and assembly chosen by the people. These provincial assemblies had the whole power of enacting laws without the king's ratification, provided they were not contrary to those of England. The next was the proprietary government, in which the proprietor of the province was governor, although he generally resided in England, and committed the admini-

nistration to a deputy of his own appointment; but the legislative assembly was chosen by the people. The third kind, was the royal government, where the governor and council were appointed by the king, and the assembly chosen by the people. Connecticut and Rhode Island were charter governments, in which the royal authority was the most restricted. Pennsylvania and Maryland, and originally Carolina and New Jersey, were proprietary. The royal governments were those of New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey since the year 1702, Virginia, the Carolinas, after the resignation of the proprietors in 1728, and Georgia. The government of Massachusetts, which differed from all the rest, was the fourth. In this the governor was appointed by the king; but the members of the council were chosen by the people. Of these, however, the governor had the right of negating a certain number, but could not fill up the vacancies caused by their rejection. Such were the various forms of government subsisting in the British colonies.

The origin of the dispute concerning taxation, may be traced to the commencement of the war with France. At that important crisis, it was deemed necessary to concert a general plan of defence. Commissioners from many of the states assembled at Albany, and proposed that a great council should be formed of deputies from the provinces, which, with a governor-general to be appointed by the crown, should be empowered to take measures for the common safety, and raise the money necessary for carrying them into effect. The British ministry at the same time proposed that the governors of the colonies, with the assistance of some of their council, should assemble and concert measures for the general defence,

defence, that this assembly should erect forts, levy troops, &c. and draw on the treasury of Great Britain for the sums that should be wanted; but that the treasury should be reimbursed by a tax on the colonies, to be laid by the British parliament. The provincial assemblies, rejected this plan, and the question was smothered amidst the tumults of war. But peace was no sooner concluded than it was revived. The British parliament resumed the scheme of taxing the colonies, and justified the measure, by declaring, that the money to be thus raised should be appropriated to defray the expences incurred in their defence.

The memorable stamp act passed March 22, 1765, was the first experiment that was made for that purpose. This act caused a general alarm in America. The colonists petitioned for a redress of the grievance, and formed associations for preventing the importation of British manufactures till the act should be repealed. On the 18th of March of the ensuing year the repeal took place. The news was received in America with great demonstrations of joy, and the trade between the mother country and the colonies was renewed on liberal principles. The British parliament, however, still thinking it just that the Americans should defray part of the expenditure of a war which had procured their safety, did not desist from their measures, but changed the mode of carrying them into effect. The next year an act was passed, imposing certain duties on tea, glass, paper, and painter's colours, articles of great demand in America. This act rekindled the flames of discontent in the colonies, and excited a general opposition to the measure. In 1770, the British parliament repealed those

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duties, except that of three-pence per pound on tea, which, small as it was, continued to nourish the flames of discontent. It was not the amount of the duty, but the principle on which it was founded, that incurred the disapprobation of the colonists. A detail of minute particulars is unnecessary, and would be tedious. It suffices to say, that ever since the year 1765, the era of the stamp act, the public mind in America was alienated from the parent country. And from the first commencement of the riots at Boston in 1770, a systematic plan seems to have been formed for exciting a general spirit of revolt in the colonies.\* They had no longer any thing to fear from France; and it appears more than probable, that, from the moment of the expulsion of the French from Canada, some of the American leaders had formed the scheme of independence. The first act of open violence against the government was the destruction of his Majesty's armed schooner the *Gaspee*, stationed at Providence, in Rhode Island, for the prevention of smuggling. The vessel being boarded in the night by 200 men, who compelled the officers and crew to go on shore, was immediately set on fire; and a reward of 500*l.* offered by government for apprehending any of the perpetrators of the daring act, produced no discovery. The spirit of opposition to the British government continued to burn with an incessant and increasing flame, which a variety of circumstances contributed to keep alive and augment. The different colonies, however, varied in their modes of opposition, and acted with different degrees of moderation or violence. They had unanimously prohibited the importation of tea. Some of the commercial towns had

\* Ramsay's Hist. Amer. Revol. p. 90.

taken measures for preventing any of that article from being landed. The cargoes sent to South Carolina were stored, and the consignees restrained from offering them to sale. From several other provinces the ships returned to England without discharging their cargoes. But in the colony of Massachusetts things were carried to greater extremities. The people at Boston perceiving that decisive measures were taken for landing the tea, and judging it impossible to prevent its sale when once landed, resolved to destroy it in the harbour. A company of about seventeen men, disguised in the habit of Indians, boarded the tea ships, broke open 342 chests of tea, and, without doing any other damage, discharged their contents into the water. The news of this outrage arriving in England, produced the famous Boston port bill, which suspended the commerce of the town and harbour of Boston.\* This bill increased the general alarm, but did not intimidate the Americans. Most of the colonies entered into resolutions to unite in the cause of that of Massachusetts. The clergy in general were active in their opposition to the British government; and the 1st of June, 1774, the day on which the Boston port bill was to take place, was appointed to be kept as a day of humiliation, fasting, and prayer, in order to obtain the blessing of heaven on their cause. The next step was the appointment of a general Congress, by deputation from all the colonies. Deputies were accordingly chosen; and on the 26th of October, 1774, the first American Congress assembled at Philadelphia.

The proceedings of this Congress were cool and deliberate. Its language breathed the spirit of loy-

\* Ramsay's Hist. Amer. Rev. p. 99, 99, &c.

alty;

alty; but while the members unanimously professed their attachment to the crown of Great Britain, they composed an address to the people of America, tending to confirm them, in a spirited determination to resist the measures of the parliament. In the colony of Massachusetts, every thing wore the appearance of approaching hostility. A provincial congress was formed in that state, and assembled at Concord, nineteen miles from Boston. This assembly regulated the militia of the province, and made provisions for supplying the treasury, and furnishing the people with arms. On the other hand, General Gage, then governor of Boston, ordered barracks to be erected for the soldiers; but he found great difficulty in procuring labourers.\* Preparations for war were now begun to be openly made by the colonists: the militia was regularly trained, great encouragement was given to the manufacture of gunpowder; and measures were taken for procuring all kinds of military stores. A magazine being formed at Concord, General Gage was determined, if possible, to take it by surprize. He detached for that purpose a body of troops, who, succeeding in their attempt, made themselves masters of the place, and destroyed the warlike stores. But they were extremely harrassed in their retreat, 65 of them being killed, 170 wounded, and about 20 made prisoners. The loss of the Americans did not amount to one-third of that number. The principal scene of the action was at Lexington, where, on the 19th of April, 1775, the first blood was spilt in that war, which severed America from the British empire. This skirmish roused all the colonies to arms. Troops were collected from all quarters, and within a few

\* Morse, p. 215.



days General Gage was besieged in Boston by 20,000 American militia.\* The continental congress met at Philadelphia, and adopted the most decisive measures. Among their first acts, were resolutions for the raising of an army, and the establishment of a paper currency for its payment. About the same time a body of provincial adventurers, conducted by Colonels Allen and Arnold, surprized the garrison of Ticonderago; and Crown Point was taken in the same manner by Colonel Warren. The provincials found in these forts a considerable number of cannon and mortars, with various kinds of military stores. About the latter end of May, the British force in America was considerably augmented by the arrival of the three generals, Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with large reinforcements. On the 17th of June the same year, 1775, a bloody action took place at Bunker's-hill, near Boston, in which the British troops had the advantage, but with the loss of 1054 killed and wounded, among whom were a great number of officers. The loss of the Americans did not amount to more than 77 killed, and 278 wounded and missing. On the 15th of June, two days previous to this memorable engagement, the Congress had appointed George Washington, Esq. a gentleman of a large fortune in Virginia, to the chief command of all the American forces. He had been a distinguished and successful officer in the British service; and during the last war with France, had acquired military experience in commanding several corps of provincials. At this time he entered on a new scene, which displayed to the world his great talents, and rendered his name immortal in history.

\* Morsm. p. 246.

By his consummate skill, his dauntless fortitude, his cool prudence, and unwearied perseverance, he conducted America through indescribable difficulties. The Congress now published a manifesto, specifying the reasons for arming, and professing the readiness of the colonists to lay down their arms on obtaining a redress of their grievances.

No conciliatory measures, however, being adopted, an expedition was planned by the Americans against Canada, and the command was given to Brigadier-General Montgomery, a gentleman of an amiable character, and considerable military skill. On the 31st of December, 1775, Montgomery assaulted Quebec, but was killed in the first fire from a battery in advancing at the head of his troops. Arnold was also dangerously wounded, and the Americans lost about 360 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. The siege was then converted into a blockade. But on General Carleton having in May, 1776, received a strong reinforcement from England, Arnold was obliged to make a precipitate retreat; and the British troops recovered all Canada. This was an unfortunate expedition to the Americans. The death of General Montgomery was lamented both by his friends and his enemies. He had distinguished himself in the military service of Great Britain, and had successfully fought under her banners by the side of the immortal Wolfe at Quebec, on the very spot where he afterwards fell in fighting under the standard of America.\* Such are the unexpected revolutions of individual, as well as national destiny.

During these transactions, the British army in Boston, consisting of upwards of 7000 men, now com-

\* Morse, p. 251.

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manded by General Howe, was reduced to great distress for want of provisions; and the town was bombarded by the Americans. In consequence of these unfavorable circumstances, the British general found it necessary to abandon the place. On the 17th of March, 1776, he embarked with his army for Halifax; and Boston being thus evacuated, was immediately taken possession of by General Washington.

On the 4th of July following, the Congress published the memorable declaration of independence, which for ever separated America from Great Britain. This important epoch in the history of the new world, marks the 284th year after its discovery by Columbus, and the 186th after the first effectual settlement by the English in Virginia. Soon after this declaration of American independence, an unsuccessful attempt was made by Lieutenant-General Clinton, and Commodore Sir Peter Parker, on Charlestown, in South Carolina. The British vessels made a vigorous attack on Sullivan's Island, but were repulsed with considerable loss, and the enterprize was abandoned. A more important and successful attack, however, was made on New York by General Howe, whose army being now reinforced by a large body of Hessians, and a considerable number of Highlanders, was extremely formidable. The fleet was commanded by his brother, Vice-Admiral Lord Howe. Both the general and the admiral were invested with full powers of granting pardon to all who should lay down their arms; but the Americans treated all such offers with contempt. General Howe landed his forces on Staten Island, while General Washington had 18,000 men in the city of New York, and the adjacent fortifications. The British troops began their operations

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on Long Island, where the Americans had erected some works. Several actions ensued, in which the Americans suffered great loss. Sullivan and Lord Sterling, two of their generals, with a large body of troops, were made prisoners. Finding themselves unable to resist the British forces, who were not only superior in skill and discipline, but better provided with artillery, and every other kind of military accommodations, the Americans at last resolved to quit the island, and under the conduct of Washington, effected their retreat in the night of the 29th of July, in a most masterly, and indeed astonishing manner, without loss, and even without alarming their enemies. The American general, however, found it necessary to abandon New York. In the month of September, the Americans evacuated that city, of which the king's troops immediately took possession. The royal army also gained several other very considerable advantages. General Clinton, with a body of British troops, obtained possession of Rhode Island. The American army at Ticonderago was in a disagreeable situation; and their naval force on lake Champlain, consisting of light vessels, under the command of Generals Arnold and Waterbury, was totally dispersed by General Charleton, after a vigorous attack and an obstinate resistance.\* The retreat of General Charleton after this victory, has been censured by some as an ill-judged measure; and it has been supposed that Ticonderago might have been easily taken, in which case the army might have wintered in that quarter, and been ready to commence its operations early in the spring. In the closet it is easy to examine and censure the conduct of commanders in the field; but it

\* Marshal's Life of Washington, vol. 3, p. 7, 8, 9, 10.

must be considered, that in an attempt on Ticonderago, the probability of success was extremely doubtful. If the garrison had made a vigorous defence, the place could not have been taken without great loss; and the wintering of an army on the lake, where all supplies were to be drawn from Canada, must have been attended with almost insurmountable difficulties.\* The execution of this ideal plan must have been so extremely hazardous, if at all practicable, that its omission can attach no blame to the general's conduct.

The close of the campaign of 1776, was the crisis of American danger. The British were every where victorious, and the provincials began to despair. Their affairs, indeed, wore a most unpromising aspect. The emission of paper money had at first an animating effect; but this was only temporary, and the delusion could not be expected to last. The term for which the soldiers were engaged was also nearly expired, and the army was almost annihilated. The defective organization of the American armies, and the probability of their total annihilation, was indeed an evil which threatened the most disastrous consequences. They consisted almost wholly of militia. The regulars were enlisted only for a very short time; and recruiting was become extremely difficult.† These raw soldiers had exceedingly suffered by the hardships of the campaign; and sickness still more than the sword, had diminished their numbers. A combination of circumstances so extremely unfavorable,

\* Marshal's Life of Washington, vol. 3, p. 12, 13.

† For a minute description of the imperfect organization of the American armies, the difficulty of making levies, &c. see Marshal's Life of Washington, p. 56 to 65.

greatly

greatly embarrassed both the Congress and the military commanders; and it was with great difficulty that even the shadow of an army could be kept in the field. It was at this critical juncture, that the talents of the commander in chief shone with peculiar splendor through the gloom of adversity. Not discouraged by all these distresses, which were still heightened by the loss of General Lee, who, with the body of troops under his command, was captured by the English, Washington undertook and executed an important enterprize. Collecting his scattered forces, he called in the aid of the Pennsylvania militia; and on Christmas-eve, 1776, crossed the Delawar, while the enemy were lulled into security by their idea of his weakness, as well as by the inclemency of the weather, which that night was exceedingly boisterous. At day-break he marched to Trenton, and so completely surprised the detachment stationed there, that the greater part surrendered after a short resistance. Not less than 900 Hessians were made prisoners, six pieces of brass cannon, and nearly a thousand stand of arms, were also taken. The British troops now began to collect in great force in order to attack the Americans, and only waited for the morning to begin the engagement. But Washington, by another masterly stroke of generalship, disconcerted their plan. Disguising his retreat by a line of fires in his front, he moved off unmolested with the baggage and artillery. By a circuitous march of eighteen miles, he reached Prince town early in the morning, carried the British post at that place, and marched off with 300 prisoners, while the enemy supposed him still in his former position. The address with which these expeditions were planned and executed, displayed in the most striking manner

manner the military abilities of the general, and revived the sinking hopes of America.

The campaign of 1777 was distinguished by some memorable events. Each side alternately gained considerable advantages; but the issue was favourable to America. In the month of September, the main body of the British forces embarked at New York, sailed up the Chesapeake, and landed at the head of Elk river. They soon after began their march for Philadelphia. General Washington determined to oppose them, and in that design posted himself on the heights near Brandywine creek. Here the two armies under the Generals Howe and Washington, engaged. The Americans were defeated with the loss of 300 killed, and 600 wounded; between 300 and 400 were also made prisoners. The loss of the British was stated at 100 killed, and 400 wounded.\* In this battle General Lord Cornwallis† acted a distinguished part. The British generals now pursued their advantages, and after a variety of movements on both sides, the city of Philadelphia surrendered on the 26th of September, 1777, to his majesty's arms.

This loss of their capital, which was extremely distressing and discouraging to the Americans, was very soon after counterbalanced by a signal advantage. The British general Burgoyne, a commander of great courage, activity, and experience, had been appointed to the command of an expedition planned for the invasion of the northern colonies by way of Canada. He set out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and a fine train of artillery, and was joined by a large body of Indians. With this force he obliged

\* Lord Howe's Despatches. London Gazette.

† Afterwards Marquis Cornwallis.

the Americans to evacuate Ticonderago, and gained several other important advantages. But at last the militia assembling from New England, and other quarters, he was so hard pressed by the enemy, that after two severe engagements with the Generals Lincoln and Arnold, in which great numbers of his soldiers fell, having advanced to Saratoga, he found himself obliged, after "a series of hard toil, incessant effort, and stubborn action,"\* to surrender with the shattered remains of his army to General Gates, who had then taken the chief command of the American troops. General Burgoyne had, through the whole course of the expedition, behaved with extraordinary bravery. His whole army was reduced to 5800 men. He was surrounded by a much superior force; and insurmountable difficulties imposed on him the necessity of capitulating without leaving him any alternative. In his situation the conditions which he obtained were highly honourable to himself, and not unfavorable to his nation.† This event, so unfortunate to Great Britain, happened on the 17th of October, 1777. It diffused universal joy throughout America, and laid the foundation of the treaty with France.

Some French officers had already entered into the American service, among whom, the most distinguished was the Marquis de la Fayette, who has since become still more famous, from the part which he acted in the commencement of the French revolution. In the month of February, 1778, the treaty of alliance

\* These are his own words; and the whole train of operations shews that they contained the real state of his case. See his letter to Lord George Germaine.

† Marshal's Life of Washington, vol. 3, p. 301.

between



between France and America was concluded at Paris. The fatal tendency of the American war was now clearly perceived in England; and in the month of June following, the Earl of Carlisle, George Johnstone, and William Eden, Esqrs. were sent to Philadelphia as commissioners from his Britannic Majesty, to settle the disputes between the mother country and the colonies. But it was now too late: the terms which at an earlier period of the war would have been accepted with pleasure, were now rejected with disdain; and the Congress refused to enter into any treaty which had not the independency of America for its basis. Early in the spring of this year, a fleet of fifteen sail of the line, under the command of the Count D'Estaing, was sent by the court of France to cooperate with the Americans. In the month of June the British army evacuated Philadelphia, and retired to New York. General Lord Howe, who had so prudently conducted the war, returned to England, and the chief command devolved on Sir Henry Clinton.

The evacuation of Philadelphia, and the reduction of Savannah, in Georgia, by the British forces, were the principal events of the campaign of 1778, although several actions of inferior moment took place with various success. In 1779, General Lincoln was appointed to the command of the southern army of the States; and in the month of October, he, and the French admiral D'Estaing, made an assault on Savannah; but by the courage and conduct of General Prevost, and the bravery of the garrison, they were repulsed with great loss. On the opening of the campaign of 1780, the British troops abandoned Rhode Island. But a grand expedition was undertaken by General Clinton and Lord Cornwallis against Charles-

town, in South Carolina. This may be reckoned amongst the most difficult and important enterprises of the war. General Lincoln had the chief command in that place, and made a skilful and gallant defence. A variety of manœuvres took place; the town was completely invested; and after a siege of about six weeks, surrendered to the arms of his Britannic majesty. General Lincoln, and the troops under his command, were made prisoners of war. The siege, though of considerable duration, was not signalized by great effusion of blood, a circumstance which was owing to the cautiousness of the British generals in making their approaches, and the weakness of the garrison. General Gates was now appointed to the command of the southern American army.\* In August, Lord Cornwallis attacked the American troops at Camden, in South Carolina, and gained a complete victory. Previous to this transaction, the Count de Rochambeau had arrived at Rhode Island with a body of land forces from France. About the same time General Arnold deserted the service of the Congress, made his escape to New York, and received the rank of brigadier-general in the royal army.

The campaign of 1781 commenced with considerable advantages on the side of Great Britain; but its issue was decisive in favor of America. On the 15th of March, Earl Cornwallis gained a victory over General Green, at Guildford, in North Carolina; but it was a hard fought battle, and the loss on both sides was considerable. Indeed, this victory had all the consequences of a defeat; for his lordship's forces were reduced so low, that instead of marching to Charlestown, he found himself obliged to attempt a

\* Marshal's Life of Washington, vol. 4, p. 203.

junction with Generals Philips and Arnold in Virginia. That central province now became the chief scene of the war. The great plan of operations for the campaign, was an enterprize projected against New York; and Sir Henry Clinton, aware of this design, took every possible measure for rendering it abortive. Early in the month of August, the apprehensions of the American commander in chief, that he should not be able to accomplish his favorite project, began to influence his conduct. He received no considerable reinforcements, and saw no prospect of a compliance with his requisitions for strengthening his army. Letters from the Marquis de la Fayette at the same time announced the embarkation of a great part of the British and German troops in Virginia, the destination of which was supposed to be for New York. These circumstances induced Washington to change completely his plan, and to direct his efforts to the southward. As it was of the utmost importance to conceal from the British general this eventual change of measures, his arrangements were secretly made, and there appeared no relaxation in the ostensible preparations for acting against New York. Sir Henry Clinton in the mean time having received a reinforcement from Europe of near 5000 men, was thereby induced to countermand his orders for detaching to his aid part of the army of Virginia, and in consequence of this new arrangement, directed Lord Cornwallis to take some strong position on the Chesapeak, in order to be in readiness to act according to emergencies. A short time after the American commander received the welcome intelligence of the approach of the French admiral, the Count de Grasse, with a body of above 5000

land forces. It now became necessary to determine absolutely on the object against which the arms of the combined force should be directed; and a variety of circumstances decided in favour of southern operations. The views of the commander-in-chief were now entirely directed towards the Chesapeak; and the Marquis de la Fayette was requested to make such a disposition of his army as might be best calculated to prevent the retreat of Lord Cornwallis to Charlestown. The Marquis, in consequence of this communication, took a position on James river, for the purpose of opposing any attempt of the British army to escape by a sudden march into Carolina. Earl Cornwallis at the same time being apprized of the approach of a French force, and sensible of the dangers of his situation, collected his whole force at York Town, and employed himself assiduously in raising fortifications. After a variety of manœuvres, the French fleet succeeded in landing the troops; and General Washington having determined to direct the operations of the combined force against Lord Cornwallis, had already prepared for the execution of his plan. As it was desirable to conceal as long as possible the real object of his movements, the march of his troops was continued until the 31st of August, in such a direction as might keep up the apprehensions which had been excited for New York. For this purpose great address was used; and the preparations made in the American camp, as well as the declarations of the general, and other officers, countenanced the opinion that New York would be the object of attack. The intelligence contained in the letters intercepted by General Clinton, favored the deception; and so strong was the impression made by such a combination

combination of appearances, that the British general did not suspect the real intentions of his adversary till he was at too great a distance for his march to be intercepted. When the critical combination of circumstances, however, is considered, it evidently appears that General Clinton acted throughout the whole of this intricate affair with all the prudence of an able and experienced commander.

The British army in Virginia was now unavoidably left to its fate. In that province the scattered operations of the war were now concentrated. The most effectual measures were adopted by the American general for surrounding Earl Cornwallis's army. About the end of September it was closely invested both by land and water, in York Town and at Gloucester, a projecting point on the opposite side of the river. Washington and Rochambeau carried on the assault with the combined French and American army; while the Count de Grasse carried on the naval operations on the Chesapeake. In the night of the 6th of October the trenches were opened. A heavy cannonading and bombardment succeeded. Lord Cornwallis made a skilful and vigorous resistance; but his situation was desperate. His works sunk under the heavy fire of the enemy's artillery: his troops were greatly diminished by the sword and by sickness; and the survivors were worn out by long watching and incessant fatigue. Being surrounded with difficulties which no courage or skill could surmount, and without any prospect of relief, the British general surrendered himself and his whole army prisoners to General Washington. The number, exclusive of seamen, amounted to 7073, besides 34 made prisoners in storming the redoubts, and in a sortie made by the garrison.\*

garrison.\* The seamen were numbered at 1500; but these, with the *Guadaloupe* frigate, and a number of transports, were assigned to the Count de' Grasse. The army to which they surrendered was computed at about 16,000, of whom 7000 were French.†

This event, which took place on the 19th of October, 1781, may be considered as the finishing catastrophe of the American war. Hostilities indeed were for some time carried on with considerable activity in the southern states. The British troops were obliged to abandon most of the posts which they held in the Carolinas and Georgia, and retained possession of Charlestown with difficulty. But the capture of the army in Virginia must be regarded as the closing scene of the important drama, of which the conclusion was the foundation of the North American empire. On the 30th of November, 1782, the provisional articles of peace between Great Britain and the United States, were signed at Paris; and on the 3d of September, 1783, they were ratified by a definitive treaty.‡

The general characteristics of this war, which the Americans, during the space of seven years, carried on against the formidable power of the parent country, are the difficulties experienced by the Congress and the commanders in levying money and men, and in training the new raised forces to action. These circumstances often reduced the American armies to a diminution of numbers, and to a state of distress seldom experienced in systematic warfare. Almost

\* *Marshall's Life of Washington*, vol. 4, p. 552. † *Ibid*, 554.

‡ See *Historical view of Great Britain*. This brief narrative of one of the most important contests recorded in history, is chiefly taken from *Raciney's Hist. American Revolution*, and *Marshall's Life of Washington*.

every page in the annals of this war exhibits the distresses of the American armies, their defective organization, their want of artillery and engineers, and the general inferiority of their fire-arms.\* It is not difficult to conceive the situation of commanders, who in such circumstances had to contend with regular armies, complete in equipment and discipline. Perhaps it is no exaggeration to say, that the vigour with which the Americans combated so many and such formidable difficulties, was in a great measure owing to the talents, the prudence, and fortitude of General Washington, and to the confidence which all classes of people had in his abilities. With all these eminent qualifications in the person of the chief commander, as well as several others of her generals, America must, however, have sunk under her complicated difficulties, and have found herself in the end an unequal match for Great Britain, had not the court of France engaged in the quarrel.

The revolt of the American colonies, in conjunction with its causes and consequences, is one of those events that demonstrates the uncertainty of political science, and of all human conjecture. Great Britain had apparently the greatest reason to exult in the conquest of Canada; but as it has been already observed, the extinction of the French power in America laid the foundation of the colonial revolt. This was a consequence not suspected by the politicians of that period; and it was as little foreseen by the court of France, that its support of American independence would so greatly contribute to produce a revolution,

\* Marshall, vol. 3, p. 80, 25, 107, 145, 325, 340, 568, 371, 375.—  
Ibid, vol. 4, p. 298, 503, 518, 668

which

which has ended in the expulsion of the house of Bourbon. Another circumstance also presents itself to the eye of political and commercial experience, which seems never to have entered into the views of speculation. During the whole time of this important contest, the British politicians were divided in their opinions concerning the propriety, as well as the practicability of the attempt to reduce America by force, but all parties appeared to unite in considering the loss of the colonies as ruinous to the parent country. This general persuasion was the basis of every argument, whether for coercive or for conciliatory measures. Such was also the supposition of the cabinet of Versailles. France expected to give a fatal blow to the commerce and power of Great Britain, in dismembering America from her empire. This whole view of things, which at that time was prevalent throughout Europe, however was ideal and evanescent. Britain has in all probability at this time a more extensive and beneficial trade with America than before the revolution.\* It is at least certain that she has experienced no diminution of wealth or naval power, but rather an increase of both since that period. The emolument which Britain derives from her present commercial intercourse with the United States, is not of a casual or precarious nature: it is founded on the reciprocal interests of the two nations, and it must increase with the increase of American population and wealth. This must be the case, at least for some centuries to come, if Britain can maintain in Europe the superiority of her manufacturing system.

\* Mr. Morse depicts with an air of dissatisfaction the benefits which accrue to Great Britain from her trade with the United States. *Amer. Geog.* p. 209.



The events of far distant futurity lie beyond the reach of calculation.\*

Since the termination of the war, the history of the United States display the arrangement of their political constitution, the extension of agriculture and commerce, and all the improvements of a rising empire.

\* This point has been discussed at some length by the author in his *Political Aspect of Europe*. London, 1805: and further reflections on the consequences of the establishment of the American empire, may be seen in his *Letters on Ancient and Modern History*, second edition. London, 1805. For this reason the repetition here would be useless.

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**CHAP. IV.**


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Present State, political and moral — Religion — Government — Laws — Army — Navy — Revenue — Commerce — Manufactures — Population — Political importance — Language — Literature — Polite Arts — Education — Manners and Customs — National Character.

*Religion.*]—**T**HERE is no established, nor, properly speaking, any predominant religion in the empire of the united states of North America, All sects and denominations enjoy equal liberty, equal privileges, equal independence. Formerly, the superstition, the bigotry, and intolerance of Europe, prevailed in America. At present this enlightened people have cast off the yoke of prejudice. A Protestant, of whatever denomination, a Catholic, or a Jew, every person, in fine, who believes the existence of a Supreme Being, and a future state of rewards and punishments, is equally eligible to the highest offices of the state. A regulation so liberal contributes greatly to the population and rising importance of the American empire.

*Government.*]—The government of the United States is vested in a president and two councils. The legislative authority is vested in the councils: the executive power is lodged in the hands of the president. The senate, or superior council, consists of two senators from each state, chosen every six years. The house of representatives is elected every two years, and is limited to 200 members. The president commands the

the

the army and navy; but cannot make treaties without the consent of two-thirds of the senators. The judicial power is lodged in one supreme court, and such inferior courts as the congress may ordain. The judges hold their offices during their good behaviour. Each state has its peculiar government, consisting commonly of a senate and house of representatives, annually elected. But the powers of those provincial governments do not extend to such acts of independent sovereignty as belong to the whole union.

*Laws.*—The laws in general correspond pretty nearly with those of England, from which they are originally derived. Different states have their particular ordinances and regulations, in which they are indulged, so far as they do not militate against the general concord.

*Army.*—A standing army is considered as incompatible with the nature of the constitution. The strength of the American empire is estimated from the militia; but the calculations of its numbers by different writers are so discordant, that every thing stated on the subject is vague and inconclusive.\* The whole effective force of the United States, however, may probably amount to 160,000 men, a force sufficient to set foreign invasion at defiance, and to render them the arbiters of the whole continent. Besides the militia, a small regular force of about 5000 men has been raised for three years, for the sake of maintaining public order, and for the defence of the frontiers.

\* The American geographer estimates the militia of the United States at 700,000 men. Nothing, however, can be more vague and romantic than his mode of calculation. It can only be considered as the exaggerated estimate of an enthusiastic patriot. Morse, p. 216.

*Navy.*—

*Navy.*—The naval force of the United States is at present of little consequence. It is only at a future period that we must look for the importance of the American marine. A powerful navy is an effort to which their finances are at present inadequate. But from the geographical position, local circumstances, and commercial spirit of the American empire, it is probable that in the course of two or three centuries, its maritime strength may rival that of any nation in Europe.

*Revenues.*—The revenue of the States is derived from duties on imports and tonage, and from taxes on certain articles of consumption. But at present we have no precise information of its amount, nor of that of the public expenditure.\*

In 1789, the national debt was estimated at 16,000,000 sterling, and the funds bore an interest of about six per cent.†

*Commerce.*—The trade of the American States extends to almost all parts of the globe. The principal portion, however, is that carried on with Great Britain. France possesses the next share. The Americans visit the ports of Spain, Portugal, and Holland; and those of the Baltic and Mediterranean. Their East-India trade also begins now to be considerable. Their chief exports are, cotton, coffee, flax, dried fish, whale oil, and whale-bone, tobacco, furs, indigo, corn, molasses, tar, turpentine, staves, planks, and various kinds of timber.

*Manufactures.*—The manufactures of the United

\* Morse states the revenue in 1789 at little more than 2,000,000 of dollars, and the public expenditure at 710,000; but that statement is wholly inapplicable to the present time. Amer. Geog. p. 216.

† Imlay, p. 129.

States are yet in their infancy. The principal part are those of leather and dressed skins, cables, sail-cloth, cordage, bricks, tiles, and pottery, paper, hats, sugar, snuff, gunpowder, &c. Ships are also built for sale in several of the American ports.\* Various articles of machinery might also be enumerated, beside numerous manufactures for home consumption. The maple sugar has already been mentioned as an article of this kind, and it promises to become in time an object in foreign trade. Excellent wine has also been made on the banks of the Ohio; and few countries appear better adapted to the production of that commodity.† How far a manufacturing system may be beneficial to a country like the United States of America, where the population is yet so extremely inadequate to the cultivation of their extensive territory, is a curious problem, and has given rise to different opinions. Mr. Morse has discussed the subject at some length, and concludes decidedly in favour of manufactures.‡ The same remarks on this subject may be applied to America and to Russia.§ Both these countries are in this respect exactly in the same predicament.

*Population.*]—The population of this extensive territory was in 1790 numbered by order of Congress, and found to be 3,950,000. If, according to the general supposition, the number of inhabitants be doubled every twenty years, the present population cannot amount to less than nearly 7,000,000.

\* Philadelphia exceeds most places in the world in the business of ship-building. There is not a port in Europe where an oak-ship can be built at so cheap a rate. Morse, p. 426.

† Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 225, &c.

‡ Ibid. p. 211, &c.

§ See article Russia, vol. 3 of this work. Janson remarks, that manufactures are not successful in America. Travels, p. 194.

*Political importance and relations.*—The political importance of the United States is at present very small in regard to Europe. In America it is much more extensive. In case of a war with England or Spain, they would prove dangerous neighbours to Canada and Mexico. The lowness of their finances, and the want of a navy, could prevent the execution of any designs which they might form. It is only at a future period, that the political importance of America will acquire that preponderancy, which will undoubtedly produce extraordinary consequences.

*Language.*—It is scarcely necessary to say, that the English is the prevailing language in the North American empire. "It is spoken," says Morse, "with great purity, and pronounced with propriety in New England by persons of education; and excepting some corruptions in pronunciation, by all sorts of people. In the middle and southern states, where they have a great influx of strangers, the language, in many instances, is corrupted, especially in the pronunciation."<sup>a</sup>

*Literature and polite arts.*—The books published in British America previous to the revolution, were mostly of the religious kind, and sufficiently replete with fanaticism. Franklin, however, had become a distinguished name in the republic of letters. Since the revolution, many writers of considerable merit have risen. Rittenhouse may be ranked among the first of astronomers; and to use the words of Mr. Jefferson, America, though a child of yesterday, has given many hopeful proofs of genius. In the polite

<sup>a</sup> Morse, p. 134. This writer also says, that a plan was in contemplation for establishing an uniformity of pronunciation throughout the United States; a most romantic and impracticable scheme!

arts, she has not yet afforded many splendid specimens: these must be the effect of future opulence. Utility has hitherto been the grand object of American pursuit.

*Education--Universities.*]—The great business of education is conducted with laudable care in numerous seminaries.\* Harwood university, in the state of Massachusetts, founded in 1638, has been regarded as the chief seminary in North America. Yale college, in Connecticut, founded in 1717, maintains about 130 students. New York college, founded by an act of the British parliament in 1754, and now called Columbia college, is said to be frequented by more than 100. Georgia has an university at Louisville; and several other provinces can boast of colleges, or at least of considerable academies. The Catholics have a college in Maryland; and even in Tennessee there is a society for the promotion of useful knowledge. Pennsylvania, especially, boasts of many literary societies, particularly the American philosophical society, which was formed in 1769, and has already contributed to enlighten the world by the publication of its transactions. The university of Pennsylvania has been united with the college of Philadelphia, and is become an eminent seat of learning.† Philadelphia may indeed be considered as the centre of North American literature.

Popular education has been more attended to in America than in most countries of Europe. In order to promote so desirable an end as the instruction of

\* Morse says, that there is not, perhaps, in the world, a place where the youth enjoy more fully the advantages of education than in Boston. *Amer. Geog.* p. 329.

† For the various literary and scientific institutions, see Morse in the description of each province. *Amer. Geog.*

the great mass of the people, the most judicious measures have been adopted in several of the provinces. It may in general terms be observed, that the Americans have done much towards the advancement of popular instruction; but the scattered situation of the country habitations is an insuperable obstacle to any general plan that can be devised for that purpose.\*

*Manners and customs.*]--Amidst such a confluence of different nations, religions, and languages, it is evident that a great variety of manners must prevail; and in consequence of the continual influx of foreigners, this diversity must long be a distinguishing feature in the moral picture of the North American empire. In the large cities, especially Philadelphia, New York, and Charlestown, the mixed population is in some measure amalgamated into a common mass, and the national distinctions seem to be almost worn out; but in many of the country settlements are colonies, consisting entirely of French, Germans, Dutch, and other nations, who adhere to their own manners, and speak their own language. This variety of divisions and mixtures renders it extremely difficult to exhibit any general view of American manners; and the diversified picture is best delineated in the various descriptions of travellers, who sometimes attend to local particularities. Some panegyrists have exhibited a brilliant representation of the general state of American society; while others, influenced by opposite prejudices, have painted it in very different colours. Travellers, however, who have been accustomed to the elegances and refinements of Europe, are generally

\* In New England, which is one of the most populous states, there is scarcely a person to be found that cannot both read and write. Morse, p. 277.

dissatisfied



dissatisfied at the want of urbanity even in the principal cities, and discover a coldness and reserve which renders society dull and melancholy. The case is, that in the United States of America, the middle, and even what may be called the higher classes, are intent upon business, and spare little time for pleasure; and the common people shew their independent spirit by surliness of behaviour. Musical entertainments are held in higher estimation than the theatre, although the latter begins in some places to be frequented. The American populace in general are addicted to excess in drinking; and the pernicious effects of spirituous liquors are every where perceptible, proving in too many instances the bane of morals, and the ruin of families. This vice prevails through the whole of the united territory, and penetrates into its most distant regions. To drunkenness, the people of the southern states add other vices not less disgusting. To exhibit a general sketch of the state of American society, it may be observed, that the greatest equality of circumstances prevails in the northern states. In advancing towards the south, this equality gradually diminishes, and especially to the southward of Pennsylvania, is very perceptible. The American geographer, in describing the general state of society and manners in Maryland and Virginia, says, that except in the populous towns, the inhabitants residing on their plantations, often separated by intervals of several miles, appear to live very retired and unsocial lives; and that the effects of this comparative solitude are visible in their manners, their countenance, and dress.\* These observations, however, must be limited to the country people, particularly those whose

\* *Morse*, p. 467.

poverty or parsimony prevents them from spending part of their time in populous towns; and with these limitations they are equally applicable to all the southern and western states. The inhabitants of the towns are in their manners genteel and agreeable. The opulent Virginians are in general sensible, polite, and hospitable, and of an independent spirit; but the poor are ignorant and abject.\* The political and military character of Virginia stands high in the pages of American history, as that province produced some of the most distinguished agents in effecting the revolution. It is, however, to be observed, that this character has been obtained solely by the talents and exertions of a few eminent men, who have taken the lead in all public transactions, and "who, in short, govern Virginia." The great body of the people being chiefly addicted to drinking, gaming, swearing, horse-racing, cock-fighting, and most kinds of dissipation, scarcely ever concern themselves with politics; so that the government, although nominally republican, is, in fact, oligarchical.† Every laudable project, every beneficial institution, originates in the public-spirited views of a few eminent individuals. The same moral character may, with little variation, be applied to the people of the two Carolinas and Georgia. All are addicted to hospitality, and all are fond of dissipation. It may not be improper to mention, that previous to the revolution, an inhuman practice, called gouging, had long prevailed in the southern states. This consisted in a dexterous mode which they had of

\* The excellent measures adopted for the diffusion of useful knowledge, will, it is to be hoped, remove this reproach. For these arrangements, see Morse, p. 496, 427.

† Morse, p. 498. Michaux exhibits the same moral character of the Virginians. Trav. p. 194.

thrusting

thrusting out the eyes of an antagonist with their thumbs in their boxing matches, which were extremely frequent. This practice, which ought to be punished with death, appears not yet to be disused.\* As an evidence of the reformation of manners, Mr. Morse however, says, that in a particular county, where formerly, at the quarterly court, a day seldom passed without ten, or fifteen boxing matches; it is now a rare thing to hear of one.\* Hunting is one of the most fashionable, the most innocent, and the most healthful of all the American amusements, and for this their country is excellently adapted. This diversion is practised in all the states, and cannot be too much recommended.

The principal cause of that depravity of morals, which distinguishes the southern from the northern states, is the greater prevalence of negro slavery, which, although now happily abolished, has continued so long, as to give a tincture to the manners of the people that will require some time to wear it off. It has been observed, that in all countries where slavery prevails, pride, indolence, and licentiousness of manners, are its inseparable effects.

*National character.*]—From what has already been said, it is evident that the federal Americans being an assemblage of people from different countries, their national character is not yet formed. It remains to be seen at a future period, what will be its prominent features; and although the popular manners are not highly attractive, the wisdom of its legislature,

\* Mr. Morse asserts, that this inhumanity is no longer practised; but Mr. Janson affirms as an eye-witness, that it is yet in use.

† Morse, p. 324.

and their efforts for national improvement, furnish sufficient grounds to anticipate its respectability.

*Miscellaneous remarks.*]---In taking a view of the Anglo-American empire, it must be remembered that we contemplate a moving picture. If it recalls no events of ages past, nor exhibits any monuments of ancient grandeur, it opens at least a wide field of speculative expatiation into futurity. Constant improvements, and the extension of agriculture, are continually changing the face of the country; while the influx of strangers, and the consequent increase of population, commerce, and opulence, render its moral aspect not less variable. But America has been variously, and often partially represented. Land-jobbing is one of the great objects of speculation and enterprize in the American states. It has been considered by some as a pernicious practice, which ought to be restricted; but it rather appears to be the great incentive to enterprizing industry. The facility of disposing of lands wholly, or partly cleared, is certainly a great encouragement towards cutting down the forests and clearing the country; while the lands in this state, and parcelled into small portions, must suit the conveniencies of multitudes of settlers. But whatever may be the effects of this extensive system of land-jobbing as a national concern, frauds have been practised that have proved highly injurious to individuals. Fictitious representations have been fabricated for interested purposes, which have undesignedly been copied by European writers. America has been described as a land flowing with milk and honey: and Kentucky is particular as a terrestrial paradise. This garden of Eden, however, though certainly

tainly fertile, does not possess all the beauties which a partial pencil, or a luxuriant fancy, has painted.\* A judicious and impartial traveller and writer informs us, that at one time "the enthusiasm for emigrating to Kentucky, was carried to such a degree in the United States, that for some years upwards of 20,000 had passed thither from the eastern states by way of Virginia; and many of them had deserted their estates, not having been able to dispose of them quickly enough. This overflow of new colonists very soon raised the price of land in Kentucky. From two-pence to two-pence halfpenny per acre, it suddenly rose to seven or eight shillings. The jobbers profited by this infatuation, and not content with a moderate share of gain, practised the most illegal measures to dispose of the land to great advantage. They went so far as to fabricate false plans, in which they traced rivers favorable for mills, and other uses: in this manner many ideal lots, from 500 to 100,000 acres, were sold in Europe, and even in several great towns of the United States.† This curious circumstance merits the attention of those who speculate in American lands. Another inconvenience of still greater magnitude is found in Kentucky. On the first settlement of that country, the settlers were in a continual state of warfare with the Indians. The surveyors were constantly in danger of being shot by the natives, who were indefatigable in watching for them in the woods. They were consequently obliged often to suspend their business, and to content themselves with very inaccurate and confused surveys. From

\* Observe the want of water in many places already mentioned; besides several other disagreeable circumstances.

† Michaux, p. 160.

this unfavorable state of things resulted a confusion, which in many cases has rendered it impossible to prove the right of property. Of all the states in the union, Kentucky is that in which individual claims are the most liable to be contested.\* This incertitude in the right of property is an inexhaustible source of tedious and offensive law-suits. The lawyers in this country are consequently numerous, and soon acquire fortunes. The greatest security of a Kentucky settler, is a law which enacts that all improvements shall be reimbursed by the person who acquires possession of an estate. As the value of labour is high, the estimation is generally in favor of the cultivator; and this consideration prevents many claims that would otherwise be made. Without this salutary law, so favorable to agriculture, the country would exhibit a general scene of litigation.

When the present circumstances, physical and moral, of the United States, are duly considered, it is evident that they have fewer advantages to attract emigration from Europe than has sometimes been imagined by persons who have read exaggerated descriptions. The climate, the state of society and manners, can have few charms to persons accustomed to the well cultivated and populous countries of Europe.† An emigrant from this quarter of the globe must extend his views to distant posterity, without expecting personal accommodations and comforts. It is, indeed, at a future period, that the pic-

\* Michaux, p. 161. See also Janson on this subject. The lot purchased often cannot be found; and in many respects the prospect is very unfavorable to emigrants. Trav. p. 260.

† Numbers of French have been taken in by the agents for the sale of American lands, at Paris. Janson, p. 260. His work, as well as that of Michaux, is a good antidote against the folly of emigration.

ture of American prosperity must receive its finishing. When the immense forests shall be cut down, when the marshes shall be drained, and a numerous population shall have extended agriculture and commerce converted the vast wildernesses into a fertile champaign, and covered the country with cities and villages, the whole system of nature, both physical and moral, will experience a beneficial change.\* The climate will then be ameliorated; arts, science, and literature will flourish; new productions will be introduced; the vineyards on the Ohio will perhaps rival those on the Tagus and the Douro; and the silks of Carolina and Georgia may probably be not inferior to those of Persia and China.† The American states, unless civil discord rend them asunder, and involve them in mutual hostilities, will then vie with the most flourishing nations of the old continent in prosperity, splendor, and magnificence. The lapse of some centuries, however, will be required to produce this state of perfection.

\* At a future period the territory on the Ohio will, as already observed, be the most flourishing country of North America. In fertility of soil, and salubrity of climate, it has great advantages over the parts adjoining to the Atlantic. The latter, however, will, from their situation, always possess greater advantages in respect of foreign commerce.

† Considerable quantities of wine have been made from the wild grapes on the Ohio territory; and vineyards might here be cultivated with great success. This part of the United States lies in the latitude of Portugal, Spain, Italy, Greece, and all the best wine countries of the old continent. South Carolina and Georgia are in the same parallels as the best parts of China and Persia, the native countries of silk. The culture of this article has been attempted with success, especially in Georgia, but is now neglected. The tea plant is also introduced. *Morse*, p. 457, 557, 559.

## LOUISIANA,

*Now ceded by Spain to the United States.*

THIS province, which extends from the Mississippi to New Mexico, is in general level. The eastern part, which borders on the Mississippi, is one continued plain; and the whole country is remarked for its exuberant fertility, its flowery meadows, and its luxuriant forests. The soil, with little cultivation, would afford grain in the greatest abundance: and the timber is as fine as any in America. Perhaps no country on the surface of the globe affords greater quantities of oak, ash, mulberry, walnut, cypress, and cedar; and the neighbourhood of the Mississippi, as well as several other districts, produces the finest fruits in the greatest abundance and variety.\* The climate in the southern parts is hot and moist, resembling that of West Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas: in the north it is pleasant and salubrious, but colder than under the same parallels in Europe.

*Cities and towns.*]—A city, which was to be called New Madrid, was, about twenty years ago, planned nearly in the latitude  $36^{\circ} 30'$  north, on the west bank of the Mississippi, and about forty-five miles below the mouth of the Ohio.† The situation is described by Morse as extremely delightful, and possessing great commercial advantages. But we have no recent information relative to the state of this intended new capital of Louisiana.

*New Orleans.*]—New Orleans is situated on the east bank of the Mississippi, about 105 miles from the

\* Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 567

† *Ib.* d, p. 568.



mouth of that river, and nearly in 30° north latitude. This city, from being the general receptacle of the produce of the whole interior of North America, and an emporium of trade between that continent and the West-Indies, must one day become a place of extraordinary commercial importance.\*

\* *Morse's Amer. Geog.* p. 567.

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## BRITISH AMERICA.

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### CHAP. I.

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Situation—Extent—Boundaries—Face of the Country—Mountains—  
Rivers—Canals—Lakes—Mineralogy—Mineral Waters—Soil—Cli-  
mate—Vegetable Productions—Zoology—Natural Curiosities—Anti-  
quities and Artificial Curiosities.

IN regard to political importance, the Spanish possessions of Old and New Mexico, &c. would claim the next place after the United States. For the sake of uniformity, however, it appears more eligible to exhibit Spanish America in one concentrated view, and to proceed in this place to a description of the British and Indian possessions in this part of the continent. The British possessions, although in a disadvantageous climate, and thinly peopled, are of considerable importance in commerce. They consist of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and Bermudas. The chief of those is Canada, now divided into two provinces, the Upper and the Lower. Canada extends from the mouth of the Gulph of St. Lawrence, in longitude  $64^{\circ}$  to about  $97^{\circ}$  west, and from  $45^{\circ}$  to about  $49^{\circ}$  north latitude, its length from east to west being about 1200, and its breadth from north to south about 360 geographical miles.

*Face of the country.*]—The face of the country is diversified with mountains, forests, and beautiful plains, or savannas.

*Mountains.*]—

*Mountains.*]—The mountains having never been either geologically, or geographically examined; neither their structure nor their ranges can be described with any degree of precision.

*Rivers, &c.*]—The great river of St. Lawrence has been already described, as well as the lakes.\* There are many other lakes and rivers of less consequence, of which the enumeration would be tedious: of these, the Attawa is the chief.

*Mineralogy, soil, &c.*]—The mineralogy, as far as it is yet known, is of little importance. There are, however, some veins of lead, with a small intermixture of silver.† Iron seems to be rare: but little can be said of the mineralogy of a country so little explored; nor have we any information of its mineral waters. The soil is various in this extensive territory; but in general fertile. In Lower Canada, it consists mostly of a blackish earth, of about a foot deep, on a bed of clay. The island of Orleans, near Quebec, and the lands on the St. Lawrence, and other rivers, are remarkable for the richness of their soil.‡ The meadow grounds, or savannas, are for the most part exceedingly fertile. The severity of the climate, however, counterbalances the fertility of the soil. Though Canada is situated in the temperate latitude of France, the climate corresponds with that of the middle of Russia, or even with that of the parallel of 60 deg. in Siberia. The extremes of heat and cold are astonishing. Winter reigns with such severity from December to April, that the largest rivers are frozen; and the snow generally lies from four to six feet deep during the whole of that season.§ In Janu-

\* See General View of North America.

† Kalm's Trav. vol. 2, p. 349.

‡ Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 113.

§ Ibid, 112.

ary the cold is so intense, that it is dangerous being any long time out of doors, as an imprudent exposure to what is called the frost bite, may occasion the loss of a limb. Here, however, as at Petersburg, winter is the season of amusement; and the sledges, drawn by one or two horses, afford an easy and speedy conveyance in travelling; but on going abroad, all parts of the body, except the eyes, must be thickly covered with furs. During this rigorous season, however, the air is serene and healthful.\* In May, the thaw comes suddenly; and, as in the northern countries of Europe, vegetation is instantaneous. The summer heats are as oppressive as the cold of winter is piercing. September is generally one of the most agreeable months.

*Vegetable productions.*]--The vegetable productions correspond in general with those of the United States. Among the principal may be reckoned wheat, and all kinds of grain. There is also a kind of vine which produces a small sour grape, and is indigenous.† Many of the culinary vegetables and fruits of Europe, especially gooseberries, raspberries, &c. are met with in Canada; and some tobacco is cultivated for private use. The forests afford immense quantities of timber of various kinds: oak, elm, beech, pine, chesnut, walnut, sycamore, ash, &c. The sugar maple also abounds, and furnishes a useful supply of that article for home consumption.

*Zoology.*]--The zoology, as well as the botany of Canada, is in a great measure the same as that of the United States. The moose, the rein-deer, and the beaver, however, are more numerous in the former, than in the latter territory.

\* Morse, p. 112.

† Weld's Trav. vol. 1, p. 381.

*Natural curiosities, &c.*]—The chief natural curiosities are the vast lakes, rivers, and cataracts. The celebrated falls of Niagara, between Canada and the United States, are equalled by no other cataract yet known in the world. The river on the side of Upper Canada is 600 yards wide, and the fall about 47 yards: on the side of the States the breadth is 350 yards, and the height of the fall about 54 yards. A small island lying in the middle separates the two cataracts. From the weight of water in those two immense sheets, and the height of its fall, a cloud constantly ascends, which is visible at a great distance; and the whole scene is beyond conception sublime.

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## CHAP. II.

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Principal cities and towns—Edifices, &c.

*Quebec.*—**QUEBEC** is the capital not only of Canada, but of all British America. This city is situated on a lofty point of land, at the confluence of the river St. Charles with that of St. Lawrence, and on the north-west side of the latter. It consists of two towns, the Upper and the Lower: the Upper town, seated on a rock of lime stone, is strong by nature, and well fortified; but the Lower town, which is next the river, and inhabited chiefly by fishermen and mariners, is open to attack. A strong garrison is maintained in Quebec; but 5000 men would be requisite to man the works. The houses both of the Upper and Lower town are of stone, but somewhat small and inconvenient. The monasteries are almost extinct, but here are three nunneries. This city is supposed to contain about 15,000 inhabitants;\* and the residence of the governor, and garrison, with the courts of law, contribute to give it a lively appearance. It has already been mentioned, that the river St. Lawrence is five miles wide a little below the town, which is nearly 400 miles from the sea. Its depth corresponding with its breadth, affords a capacious harbour, in which a fleet of 100 sail of the line

\* Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 113. Pinkerton states the number at no more than 10,000. Geog. vol. 2, p. 623.

may

may lie just below the town. The environs of Quebec present a most sublime and beautiful scenery.

*Montreal.*]—The second city of Canada is Montreal, a handsome town, situated on the east side of an island in the river St. Lawrence, and at the place of its junction with the Utawa, which forms the boundary between Upper and Lower Canada. This town contains about 6000 inhabitants. While Canada belonged to the French, Montreal was a delightful spot, producing every thing that could contribute to the conveniences of life; but since it came into the possession of the English, it has suffered greatly by fires. The town is well built, forming nearly a square, with regular and handsome streets. Here are four convents and six churches, of which four belong to the Roman Catholics, and the two others to the Protestants. Montreal is about 160 miles distant from Quebec, and is the utmost point to which vessels ascend from the ocean. The St. Lawrence, as far as this place, is from two to four miles in breadth.\* Montreal carries on a very considerable trade in furs, which are sent from Canada to England.

*Trois Rivières.*]—The town of Trois Rivières, or Three Rivers, lies about the half-way between Quebec and Montreal. It derives its name from three rivers, which here join their streams, and fall into the St. Lawrence. This town is a place of great resort for several nations of Indians, who come thither to trade with the inhabitants, bringing various kinds of furs and skins, which they barter for European commodities.

From Quebec to Montreal, in sailing up the river

\* Weld's Trav. vol. 2. p. 56. His description, however, appears somewhat vague and confused in this place.

St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms are pretty close all the way; and villas, neatly built, appear at intervals; but there are few towns or villages. In this respect, the country on the banks of the St. Lawrence resembles the well-settled parts of Maryland and Virginia. The river is interspersed with many beautiful islands, which diversify its course, and have an agreeable effect on the eye. After passing the Richelieu islands, the air becomes much more mild and temperate than at Quebec.

*History.*—The history of Canada comprizes too short a space of time, and too few striking events, to occupy a particular chapter.\* The first discovery of this country has already been mentioned. The French began, in 1603, to form settlements on the north bank of the river St. Lawrence; and, in 1608, built the town of Quebec. They continued to extend their settlements on that side of the river till 1629, when the country was reduced by the English; but, in 1631, it was restored to France. The principal commerce carried on by the settlers was that of furs, which they purchased for a very trifle of the natives, and disposed of to great advantage in the European markets. This trade, to which the colony owed its prosperity, became at last so important, that in 1743, the value of the peltry imported at Rochelle from Canada, was estimated at 120,000*l.* sterling,† The final subjugation of this country by England, who purchased her con-

\* For a particular account of the first settlement and early transactions of Canada, the curious reader may consult Charlevoix's history.

† *Ann. Hist. Com.* vol. 3, p. 236.



quest with the loss of the heroic Wolf, has already been mentioned; as well as the unsuccessful expedition of the American general, Montgomery. The peace of 1763, established the present order of things on the North American continent; and since that period Canada has not afforded any subjects for history.

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### CHAP. III.

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Present State, political and moral—Religion—Government—Law—  
 Army—Navy—Revenues—Commerce—Manufactures—Population—  
 Political importance and relations—Language—Literature—Political  
 Arts—Manners and Customs—National Character.

*Religion.*—THE religion of Canada is the Roman Catholic: but the British settlers follow their own modes of worship. The number of the Catholic clergy is about 126; that of the clergymen of the church of England is about 12, including the bishop of Quebec.

*Government.*—The government may be properly denominated a vice-royalty. By an act passed in 1791, a legislative council and an assembly are appointed for each of the two provinces. The legislative council consists of seven members for Upper, and fifteen for Lower Canada, summoned by the governor under the king's authority, and nominated during life. The house of assembly is composed of fifty members from the lower, and sixteen from the Upper province, chosen by the freeholders of the towns and districts. These councils assemble at least once every year; and the house of assembly continues four years, except in case of dissolution. The whole of British America is superintended by the governor-general, who is also commander-in-chief of the military force; and each province has a lieutenant-governor, who possesses all the powers requisite to a chief magis-

magistrate.\* By this constitution of 1791, all lands in Upper Canada are hereafter to be granted in free socage; and also in Lower Canada, when the grantee shall desire it; but subject nevertheless to alterations by an act of the legislature.

*Laws.*]--The legislative councils and the assembly have power to make laws, with the consent of the governor; but the king may declare his dissent at any time within two years after receiving any bill.†

*Revenue and commerce.*]--The only revenue arising to Great Britain from Canada seems to proceed from an advantageous commerce, which is said to employ 7000 tons of shipping. The expences of the government of this province, which are very considerable, are supposed to be more than counterbalanced by the advantages of its trade, which consists chiefly in furs.

*Population.*]--According to an actual enumeration ordered by General Haldimand in 1784, the population of the Upper and Lower Canada amounted to 113,012, exclusive of 10,000 loyalists, who had retired into that province; and the number of savages being computed at about 50,000, the total will be about 173,000. From the natural increase and emigration, the inhabitants of Canada, it may at this period be reasonably supposed to amount to about 200,000.

*Political importance and relations.*]--It is almost unnecessary to observe, that Canada has no political importance or relations but in connection with Great Britain. If ever these be dissolved, Canada must accede to the federal union, as this province does not seem adapted to be the seat of a distinct empire on the frontiers of such powerful neighbours as the United States of North America.

\* Moreau, p. 114.

† Ibid.

*Language, literature, &c.*—The French is the general language, the English being restricted to the few British settlers. In respect of the Canadian literature, we have little information. A late traveller, however, says, that the French in Canada have a much greater taste for letters and science than the inhabitants of the English colonies.\* At present, however, the case seems to be the reverse. From the scanty knowledge that we possess of the subject, we can scarcely suppose that the literature of Canada, making just allowance for the difference of population, is equal to that of the United States.

*Manners, customs, and national character.*—The Canadians deriving their origin from France, their manners and customs are entirely French; and a considerable portion of the gaiety and urbanity of that nation has descended to them from their ancestors. The same may be said of their national character. But it is among the French of the seventeenth, and the first part of the eighteenth century, rather than those of the present day, that we must look for the Canadian manners and character. In modern France, manners, ideas, and character, have undergone a change, in which Canada has fortunately had no share.

#### NOVA SCOTIA, INCLUDING NEW BRUNSWICK.

NOVA SCOTIA having been so late as the year 1764 divided into two governments, of which one is called New Brunswick, and the other, though of somewhat

\* *Kalm's Trav.* vol. 2, p. 183.

inferior dimensions, retains its ancient appellation, it may not be amiss to include them in the same description, especially as little difference is perceptible in their physical or moral circumstances.

This country, situated between 43° and 49° north latitude, and between 60° and 67° west longitude, extending about 360 miles in length from north to south, and about 250 in breadth from east to west, is bounded on the north by the river St. Lawrence; on the east by the Gulph of St. Lawrence and the Atlantic ocean; on the south by the same ocean; and by Canada and New England on the west. Nova Scotia is the easternmost, and New Brunswick the westernmost province. The face of the country is neither mountainous nor quite level. The great chain of the Appalachian mountains runs on the north-west of New Brunswick, and seem to expire near the Gulph of St. Lawrence. There are several rivers, among which those of Annapolis and St. John are the most considerable; besides some extensive lakes: one of these, in New Brunswick, is about thirty miles long, and nine in breadth. The bay of Fundy, between the two provinces, extends no less than 100 miles within land; and the ebb and flow of the tide is from forty-five to sixty feet.\* A great part of the country is covered with forests. The soil is in general thin and barren: but on the banks of the rivers, and in some other parts, it is sufficiently fertile, producing large crops of grass, hemp, and flax. Some parts also of the sea-coast, and the banks of the rivers, are bordered with fine tracts of salt marsh. The climate is extremely disagreeable, as well as insalubrious. During a great part of the year, the atmosphere is clouded with thick fogs;

\* Morse, p. 120.

and in winter the cold is intense. The vegetable productions afford no great abundance nor variety, except in the article of timber. The soil and the climate are both unfavorable to the cultivation of grain; and the inhabitants do not raise provisions sufficient for their own consumption.\* The animals are the same as in the United States, but less numerous. The fisheries, however, compensate in some measure the sterility of the soil, and the scantiness of land productions. The principal is that of cod, on the Cape sable coast. This country displays few natural curiosities, except the infinite variety of picturesque and sublime scenery which the Bay of Fundi presents, and the extraordinary height of the tides in that remarkable gulph.† The chief town of Nova Scotia is Halifax, on the bay of Chebucto. This town is commodiously situated for the fishery, and for a communication both by land and by water with the other parts of the province and of New Brunswick. It has a good harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war commonly lie for the purpose of protecting the fishery. Halifax is supposed to contain 15,000 or 16,000 inhabitants.‡ The other towns are of little importance. Annapolis, on the east side of the bay of Fundi, has one of the finest harbours in the world; but the town is inconsiderable. Frederick town, about ninety miles up St. John's river, is the capital of the province of New Brunswick.

Notwithstanding the forbidding aspect of Nova Scotia, it was here that some of the first European settlements in North America were formed. The first grant of lands in this province was made by

\* Morse, p. 121.

† Pennant's *Art. Zool.* p. 311.

‡ Morse's *Amer. Geog.* p. 136.

James I, to his secretary, Sir William Alexander, from whom it obtained the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since that time it has frequently been transferred from one private proprietor to another, and alternately possessed by the French and the English, until it was confirmed to the latter by the peace of Utrecht. It was, however, in a great measure neglected till the year 1749, when about 3000 families being sent thither at the expence of government, built the town of Halifax, now the capital of Nova Scotia, and the centre of its trade.\*

The commerce of so unproductive a settlement cannot be very extensive; but it is of considerable importance to Great Britain. The British exports to Nova Scotia consist chiefly of linen and woollen cloths, fishing-tackle, and rigging for ships. The imports from that country are timber, and the produce of the fisheries. By the erection of saw-mills, Nova Scotia may also supply the West-India islands with ruff, which, together with the produce of the fisheries, must constitute an important commerce equally beneficial to both.

#### ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON.

This island, though attached to the province of Lower Canada, is separated from Nova Scotia by a strait of only one mile in breadth. The island of Cape Breton is about 100 miles in length, and 80 in breadth. The face of the country is covered with numerous lakes and forests. The soil has, after various experiments, been found totally unfit for agriculture. Ex-

\* And. Hist. Geogr. p. 200, 270.

ceps in the hilly parts, the surface of the ground appears to have but little solidity, being every where covered with moss and water. The climate is excessively cold, foggy, and unwholesome. This island has some mines of coal; but, with the exception of timber, it can scarcely boast of any vegetable productions. Among its numerous forest trees, however, oaks are scarce, and the firs yield but little resin; its timber, therefore, has seldom been considered as an article of commerce.\* The zoology of Cape Breton is not much richer than its botany. The scarcity of pasture prevents the increase of cattle; and the wild animals are far from being numerous.

The island of Cape Breton was discovered by the French about the year 1500, and was then supposed to be a part of the continent. They did not, however, take possession of it till the year 1713, when they erected Fort Dauphin; but the harbour, although commodious, safe, and capable of being rendered impregnable at a trifling expense, being difficult of access, the place was abandoned; and in 1720 Louisburg was built, and made the principal settlement. The island remained in the possession of the French till 1745, when it was captured for the crown of Great Britain by a body of troops from New England. The enterprize was extremely difficult and dangerous; but the abilities with which it was conducted ensured its success. At the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, this island was restored to France; but in 1758 it was again reduced under the dominion of Great Britain, and has ever since remained in her possession.

The commerce of Cape Breton consists wholly by

\* *Nov. p. 116.*



the produce of its fisheries. This trade was of such importance while it was in the hands of the French, as to employ 5205 fishermen and sailors at the island of Cape Breton alone. All the fisheries of the French in those seas were supposed to employ 24,520 men; and the total value of the trade to France was estimated at near 1,000,000*l.* sterling.\* The population of this island in 1755, was computed at 4000: at present it is supposed not to exceed 1000. The soil and climate of Cape Breton, indeed, are such as render it unfit for the residence of any but fishermen.

The island of St. John, at a small distance from the western shore of Cape Breton, is attached to the province of Nova Scotia. It is about sixty miles long, by thirty in breadth, and said to be rich and fertile. The number of inhabitants is said to be about 5000.

### NEWFOUNDLAND.

The island of Newfoundland, extending from 46° 40' to 51° 40' north latitude, and from 52° 10' to 59° 30' west longitude; is about 300 geographical miles in its greatest length from north to south, and about 250 in its greatest breadth from east to west, its form being somewhat triangular. The face of the country, as far as is known, is hilly, and covered with forests. It is watered by several rivers, and has many large and commodious harbours. The soil, as far as it has been explored, is rocky and barren; but the central part of Newfoundland is *terra incognita*, into which no European has penetrated. The climate is exceedingly dis-

\* Ant. Hist. Comm. p. 219, &c. Morse states the number of ships at sea, and of men at 7,000. Amer. Geog. p. 117.

greeable: the cold is severe, and of long continuance; and in summer the heat, though of short duration, is violent. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet; and except during a short time in summer, the sky is generally overcast with thick clouds. The only vegetable production of any importance is timber, of which there is so great abundance, so that whenever this article shall fail on the continent, the island of Newfoundland will afford an abundant supply of masts, yards, and all sorts of rail for the West-India trade.\* The productions of animated nature are on this island of as little importance as those of the vegetable kingdom; but if the land be a scene of sterility, the sea that washes its shores is an inexhaustible source of wealth and plenty. Ever since the first discovery of its importance, the cod-fishery, on the banks of Newfoundland, has been an object of industrious enterprise, and a mine of gold to the nations that have engaged in the pursuit. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, St. John, and Bonavista; but they are little more than fishing stations, as not above 1000 families remain during the winter.

Newfoundland, as already observed, was discovered in 1497, by John and Sebastian Cabot; but its fishery is not mentioned till the year 1517. The sovereignty of this island has been claimed and possessed alternately by England and France; but it is unnecessary to enter into a detail of their disputes on the subject.†

\* Moree, p. 122. This writer supposes that timber may grow here in the maritime parts of the continent at no very distant period.

† For the transactions relative to this island, the state of its fisheries, &c. see And. H. N. *Commer.* vol. 2. p. 144, 147, 202, 206, 318, 365, 423, 532; and vol. 3. p. 51, 171, 204, 320.

It suffices to say that it was finally ceded to England in 1716; and that the last treaty of peace confirmed to both nations the right of fishing, a right which the United States of America also enjoy by the treaty of peace in 1783.

The commerce of Newfoundland consists entirely in its fisheries; but it is of great value both as a source of national wealth, and as a nursery of seamen. The fishery is computed to yield about 300,000*l.* sterling annuam, from the fish sold in the Catholic countries. And Mr. Morse asserts, that "Great Britain and North America, at the lowest computation, annually employ 3000 sail of small craft in this fishery, on board of which, and on shore, to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of 100,000 hands."\* Fisheries, indeed, are a branch of commerce of which the extent can be limited only by the consumption, as the article is inexhaustible.

### THE BERMUDAS, OR SUMMER ISLANDS.

THESE islands lie almost at an equal distance from Nova Scotia, and the West-Indies; and as they are nearer to the American continent than to any other land, it seems the most proper to arrange them under this division. They are four in number; the chief is that of St. George, in which is the capital town of the same name, containing about 300 houses, built of a soft free-stone; and about 3000 inhabitants. The houses are white as snow; and when beheld from an eminence, exhibit a contrast with the greenness of the cedars and pasture grounds, and the multitude of

\* Amer. Geog. ubi supra.

small islands in view, which seems to realize the poetical fictions of the Elysian fields.\* Such is the beautiful scenery of those islands, in which a perpetual spring prevails, where cedars, mantled with green, adorn the hills; where the pastures are ever verdant, the gardens always in bloom; and where all these advantages are heightened by the salubrity of the climate. These islands, indeed, would be a terrestrial paradise, if the moral picture resembled that which Nature has delineated. The Bermudians are mostly sea-faring people; and few of the men are ever at home. However industrious they may be abroad, at home they are indolent, and greatly addicted to luxury and gaming. The women are generally handsome, affectionate to their husbands and children, and fond of dress. Dancing is their favourite amusement. These sequestered islands are the seat of dissipation. The men will be equipped in high taste whenever they appear in company, if they have not a dollar in the pound for the payment of their debts; and the women must array themselves like the Parisian belles, if they have not a morsel of bread.† They are intimately acquainted with one another's families; and their tea-tables are fertile sources of detraction. To strangers, the Bermudians are affable and kind; among themselves they are quarrelsome.‡ These islands are in 32° north latitude, and in 63° west longitude, about 909 miles distant from South Carolina, the nearest part of the continent of America. That of St. George, the principal, is about sixteen miles in length, and

\* Besides the four principal islands of Bermuda, St. George, St. David's, and Somerset, there are a great number of small ones which are uninhabited. Moore, p. 617.

† Moore, p. 618. ; is. and,

only from one to two in breadth. But from Lempriere's chart, it appears that Bermuda is the largest island, being nearly twice that length, and about the same breadth. These islands were first discovered in 1517, by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; but being afterwards neglected, were again brought into notice by the shipwreck of Sir George Sommers in 1609. They are extremely populous: The island of St. George is a continued village. The blacks were, according to Mr. Morse, twice as numerous as the whites. The established religion is that of the church of England. There are nine churches, and only three clergymen to officiate in them, a number indeed quite sufficient, as devotion composes no part of the Bermudian character and the people seldom attend Divine service.\* The government is conducted by a governor, appointed by the crown, a council, and a general assembly.

\* Morse, p. 618. There is also a Presbyterian church. *Id.* *ibid.* According to Murat, the Bermudians eat little animal food. Their water is rain, preserved in cisterns, from which a want of springs may be inferred. Their general drink is grog. They are famed for being excellent swimmers. *Ibid.*

# ABORIGINAL AMERICA;

OR,

UNCONQUERED COUNTRIES.

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ALL those extensive regions stretching from the northern and western borders of Canada, to the shores of the Arctic and Pacific Oceans, may be denominated Aboriginal, as they are still possessed by the native tribes. Those countries have not yet been, and some of them probably never will be reduced under the dominion of the Europeans. They seem destined to be the last retreat and secure asylum of the Aboriginal Americans. The rigorous climate and scanty vegetation of those countries, offering no temptation to avarice or ambition, they seem to be declared free by nature. As their geography is almost totally unknown, and as they afford no materials for history, a very slight sketch of those solitary regions is all that can possibly be given, and all indeed that is requisite. In the mode of arrangement, it may not be improper to begin with the northern and eastern, and proceed to the central parts.

## GREENLAND.

This country, extending from  $60^{\circ}$  to  $76^{\circ}$  north latitude, presents a most dreary aspect, exhibiting scarcely

scarcely any thing else than a vast assemblage of rocks, ice, and snow. Of its topography, little is known; but it appears that it contains mountains of a prodigious elevation, as we are told that some of them may be seen at the distance of from forty to sixty leagues.\* The famous ice blink is one of the most sublime appearances of Nature. It is an astonishing congeries of ice stretching across the mouth of an inlet of the sea, and forming a range of magnificent arches of twenty-four miles in length, and about two in breadth. The arches are from fourteen to forty yards in height. This immense mass of ice reflects a splendor resembling the *aurora borealis*, which is discerned at the distance of many leagues. The soil of Greenland, except in some small districts on the western coasts, has never been examined; but whatever may be its quality, a great part of the country being covered with everlasting frost and snow, all the powers of vegetation are checked, and in a great measure extinguished. The most severe cold commences in January; and in February and March becomes so piercing, that rocks often split through the violence of the frost. The Danish missionaries inform us that the ice and hoar-frost reaches from the chimney to the mouth of their stove, without being thawed by the heat of the fire: that the doors and walls were plastered over with frost: that beds were frozen to the bedsteads, and linen to the drawers.† From the end of April to the beginning of November, the inhabitants encamp in their tents; but it is not till June that the surface of the ground is thawed, and the snows cease from falling. In summer it is sometimes very

\* Crantz, vol. 1, p. 8.

† Paul. Edg. Journal, Feb. 7, 1748.

lot. The only vegetables are various kinds of grass and herbs. No grain can be produced. This dreary region is also destitute of forests. The only trees that are found, are a few small junipers, birches, and willows. Greenland, however, supplies food for a few wild animals, as reindeer, white hares, foxes, and white bears. The neighbouring seas afford plenty of fish; and the sea fowl are tolerably numerous. The natives live by hunting and fishing. The flesh of those animals supply them with food, and their skins with clothing. The seals in particular are valuable for both these purposes. The population of this country is so uncertain, that nothing can with propriety be said on the subject; for although Mr. Crantz supposes that it may amount to 7000, his opinion can only be regarded as a vague conjecture. It is said that the country is inhabited as far as 70°, but this appears scarcely probable. The natives are of a short stature, with long black hair, small eyes, and flat faces. They seem to be a branch of the American Esquimaux, and greatly resemble the Laplanders and Samojeds of Europe. In hunting and fishing, and in the construction of their canoes, they discover great ingenuity. They are of a lively and cheerful temper, strongly attached to their families, their friends, and their poor native country. Some of them who have been kidnapped and carried to Copenhagen, could not, amidst the pleasures and plenty of one Danish capital, forget their former attachments, nor ever reconcile themselves to their new situation.\* In regard to religion, the Greenlanders are said to believe the existence of one Supreme Being, and the immortality of the soul; and some affirm that they hold the

\* *Hist.*, p. 205, 106.



doctrine of transmigration. But after all that we have been told on the subject, the religious ideas of a people so barbarous, must be extremely obscure and confused. In respect of government, if any such thing can be said to exist among them, it must be something of the patriarchal kind. All our knowledge of the Greenlanders, and their country, is, in fine, extremely defective.

This remote and inhospitable region, has, however, given rise to a circumstance, which may be considered as a phenomenon in history and physics. It has already been remarked, that Greenland was, towards the end of the eighth century, discovered by the Icelanders.\* A colony was afterwards established in that country, and in process of time became populous and flourishing. Christianity was propagated among the colonists by missionaries from Norway; and Greenland had many towns, churches, and convents, with an episcopal see, the bishop being suffragan to the Archbishop of Drontheim. Greenland, together with Iceland, being, as already mentioned, reduced under the dominion of Norway, became, by the union of that kingdom with Denmark in 1367, an appendage to the Danish monarchy. A constant intercourse was carried on between Greenland and Norway until the year 1106. At that period the late bishop was sent over, and soon after the colony was totally lost. By some means or other, all communication between Denmark and Greenland was cut off, and the Danish colony sunk into oblivion.† That a civilized colony should thus suddenly disappear, after several centuries of

\* See Hist. View of Denmark.

† Morse, p. 104. Anderson fixes the period when all communication between Greenland and Europe ceased to the year 1310. Hist. Com. vol. 1, p. 326.

fixed settlement and regular communication with the parent countries, and within less than a week's sail of Iceland, still subject to Denmark, is perhaps a circumstance unparalleled in history. And it appears not a little astonishing, that such a colony should have prospered during so long a period of time in a country which now appears so inhospitable. The existence of this colony, however, is a fact of unquestionable authenticity; and during the long space of at least five centuries, it was well known to the European world. Mr. Anderson mentions a bull of Pope Gregory IV, bearing date in the year 835, constituting Ausgarius, then bishop of Bremen, archbishop of the north, and particularly of Norway, Iceland, and Greenland.\*

This strange and abrupt cessation of all trade and intercourse, has been attributed to various causes. It has by some been supposed that the colonists were extirpated by the natives, but there is no satisfactory evidence of the fact.† It has also been said, that an epidemical disease swept away most of the Greenland merchants and seamen, in consequence of which the intercourse with that country was interrupted, and afterwards entirely broken off by reason of the various revolutions, &c. which took place in Denmark and Norway.‡ But the most probable supposition is, that a vast quantity of ice from the Arctic ocean having drifted on the coast in some severe winter, and intercepted the communication between the land and the sea. This colony being in consequence completely imprisoned by the frozen ocean, had, through want of supplies from Europe, undoubtedly perished.

\* And. Hist. Com. ubi supra. † Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 104.

‡ And. Hist. Com. vol. 3, p. 323.

That this was the case, is something more than conjecture; for various expeditions have, in successive reigns, been sent out from Denmark,\* for the express purpose of discovering the remains of the colony, if any such existed. It was at least expected that the ruins of the cathedral, the churches, and some other buildings, would be found; and that it might be ascertained whether any descendants of the Europeans yet remained. All the vessels, however, sent out for that purpose, have found the eastern shore towards Iceland, where the principal colony was settled, totally inaccessible, by reason of the vast accumulation of the ice.† Accidents of nearly a similar nature, but of which the effects were of shorter duration, have occurred also in Iceland, where the immense quantities of ice drifting on the coast, has, during a long time, interrupted all communication with the sea; and by preventing supplies from abroad, caused many of the inhabitants to perish by famine.‡ Such was the case in 1758, as before observed.‡ It is evident, that since the latter part of the fourteenth, or the commencement of the fifteenth century, a very great change has taken place in the northern regions, chiefly from the encroachments of the arctic ice. Ever since that period, the eastern coast of Greenland, the seat of the ancient colony, which was before without difficulty visited every summer, has been found absolutely inaccessible; while a range of impassable mountains, covered with perpetual ice and snow, preclude the possibility of approach from the west.

\* There was also at the same time a colony on the western coast, but inferior to that on the east. Of the western colony some remains, as ruins of churches, &c. have been found.

† See article Iceland.

‡ *Arch. Hist. Comm.* on the authority of the Copenhagen *Geogr.* vol. 1, p. 227 before quoted.

The western coast of Greenland has been explored by Davis, and other English navigators; but Great Britain has never attempted to establish any colony in this unpromising region. In 1721, the Greenland Company, at Bergen, in Norway, established a colony on the western coast, in about 64° north latitude. These new colonists were accompanied by Mr. Egede, a pious Norwegian clergyman. This gentleman remained many years in Greenland, and to his abilities and precision we owe a great part of our knowledge of that country.\* Being actuated by an ardent curiosity, and at the same time strongly impressed with an idea of the melancholy situation of the Icelandic colony, if it still existed, he made an attempt to reach the eastern district, by coasting along the southern shores, but found his design impracticable. In 1728, his Danish majesty caused horses to be transported to Greenland, in order to facilitate the means of travelling overland from the western to the eastern district; but the immense mountains of ice and snow in the interior, rendered all access from this quarter not less difficult than from the ocean. The impracticability of reaching the place where this famous colony was formerly seated, seems now to be fully proved; and its venerable relics, locked up in eternal ice, will, in all probability, never be discovered.†

\* Egede's Journal is full of curious information, although he has been accused of being not altogether true in respect of the weather, somewhat inclined to hyperbole.

† For a more particular account of Greenland, see Egede and Crantz, from whom this sketch is chiefly collected. Since Mr. Egede's return in 1736, the Danes have established some colonies on the western coast, and there is a Moravian colony, which in 1771 was in a flourishing state. *Art. Hist. Colon.* vol. 3. p. 212.

## NEW BRITAIN.

NEW BRITAIN comprehends the countries of Labrador, New North Wales, and New South Wales, all lying contiguous to Hudson's Bay, Labrador being on the east, New South Wales on the south, or rather south-west, and New North Wales on the west side of that inland sea. Great Britain claims the sovereignty of those regions, and possesses some forts, as Albany fort, Moose and East Main factory on James bay, which reaches inland about 300 miles, with about 150 in breadth. There are also farther to the south, and on the confines of Upper Canada, Brunswick-house, and some others. Severn-house, in the north, York fort on Nelson's river, and Fort Churchill, or Prince of Wales, the most northern settlement. Notwithstanding, however, these scattered settlements, or factories, the whole extent of country may be considered as belonging to the aborigines, and probably no attempt will ever be made to subdue and colonize the interior.

The face of the country is various; that part called Labrador, is full of frightful mountains, many of which are of a stupendous height. The vallies present numerous lakes, formed by the rains and the melting of the snows, and produce a few stunted trees, such as pines, firs, birch, and a species of juniper. The mountains produce nothing but moss, or, in some places, a few low and thinly scattered shrubs. The severity of the climate is equal to the barrenness of the soil, and greatly resembles that of Greenland. Even in the parallel of 57, the cold is in winter excessive. The rivers are covered with ice eight feet in thickness. Port wine, and even brandy, freezes into a solid mass.

Through the interstices of the frost the rocks often burst with a tremendous noise equal to that of the heaviest artillery, and throw out splinters to an astonishing distance.\* In May the ice begins to disappear. The hot weather commences about the middle of June, and the heat is sometimes violent. The thunder storms, though not frequent, are tremendous. In the winter season, the beauties of the armoament in some measure compensate the horrid prospect which the face of the country displays. Mock suns and haloes frequently appear. The sun rises and sets with a large cone of yellowish light.† The night is enlivened by the aurora borealis, which exhibits an endless variety of lights and colours over the whole concave of the sky; and the stars shine with a fiery redness. But as this country extends from  $37^{\circ}$   $40'$  to  $60^{\circ}$  north latitude, the climate admits of some variety. In the parallel of  $60^{\circ}$  north all vegetation ceases. A late traveller, however, who at different intervals resided a long time in those regions, thinks that the southern parts might admit of some improvement. But it must be observed, that this imperfect sketch of Labrador is taken only from the sea-coast. The interior has never been, and in all probability never will be explored. The zoology consists of white and black bears, wolves, beavers, rein-deer, and numerous animals of the fur kind. The birds are those common to the arctic regions. The natives are chiefly Esquimaux, apparently the same people as the Greenlanders, and resembling, as already observed, the Samoeds and Laplanders. But in some of the mountainous parts another race exists, that might

\* Moore's Amer. Geog. p. 108.—Pinnac's Amer. Zool. p. 274.

† Moore, *ib. supra.*—Linnæus's Journal, vol. 2,

afford a subject of curious enquiry. They live in wigwams, or tents, covered with skins and the rind of birch trees, their food being rein-deer, and various other kinds of wild animals. They resemble gypsies, with something of the French feature, and seem to be descendants of the French settlers in Canada, as they appear to be a kind of Roman Catholics, and resort to Quebec for the purpose of religion. What could induce Frenchmen to retire into these dreary regions, and habituate themselves to a savage life, appears somewhat mysterious. The most probable conjecture is, that they have originated from a mixed breed of French and Canadian savages, who, for some unknown reason, have fixed their residence in this uninhabited country.

#### NEW NORTH AND SOUTH WALES.

THE countries on the west and south-west of Hudson's-Bay, commonly called New North and South Wales, are less mountainous than Labrador on the eastern side. As far inland as the Hudson's-Bay Company have settlements, which is about 600 miles to the west of Fort Churchill, at a place called Hudson's-house, latitude 53°, longitude 106°, west from Greenwich, the country is flat. In some parts, however, the coasts and the adjacent lands are high and rocky. Several parts of the flat country are tolerably wooded with pines, birch, willows, &c. In some places, as already observed, there is a tolerable pasture-ground. In fine, it appears, from the best accounts, that the face of the country has not quite the same aspect of unconquerable sterility as that of Labrador

brador on the eastern side of the Bay. The climate, however, in the same parallels of latitude, is little less rigorous. The animals are the same, but they appear to be more numerous.

Hudson's-Bay was first explored in 1610, by that enterprising navigator and discoverer, Captain Hudson. Some knowledge, indeed, of these northern regions, had been previously obtained, in consequence of a project formed in England for the discovery of a north-west passage to China and the East-Indies. On this enterprise Captain Hudson made three voyages in the years 1607, 1608, 1609, or 1610. This bold and adventurous navigator is said to have penetrated as far as 66° 30' north latitude: but it must be carefully observed that the fact is doubtful; nor can the probability of his progress so far to the northward be reconciled with the best maps that we have of those countries, which, however, must be considered as extremely imperfect. Subsequent attempts were made for further discoveries; and in the month of December, 1770, Mr. Hearne was employed by the Hudson's-Bay Company to undertake a journey over land, which seems to have ascertained, in one point at least, the extent of America towards the north. This gentleman, who was extremely well qualified for such an enterprise, proceeded over land with a company of Indians as far as the Copper-mine river, at which he arrived on the 14th of June, 1771, and following it all the way to the sea, traced it encumbered throughout all that part of its course with stones and falls. On the 17th of June he came within view of the sea. The tide was out when he surveyed the mouth of the river: but from the marks on the edge of the ice, he supposed its rise to be about twelve or fourteen feet.



As it was then the time of ebb, the water in the river was perfectly fresh. Mr. Hearne, however, was convinced of its being the sea, from the quantity of whale-bone and seal-skins which the Esquimaux had in their tents, and also by the number of seals seen on the ice. At the mouth of the river the sea appeared full of islands and shoals as far as he could see with the assistance of a good pocket telescope. From his account, the mouth of the Copper-mine river appears to be nearly in  $72^{\circ}$  north latitude, and  $119^{\circ}$  west longitude. At the distance of a few miles up the river he met with an elevated station, which commanded an extensive view of the sea, of which the coasts towards the right and left bore north-east and north-west by west. It is somewhat singular that this enterprising traveller, who explored a country totally unknown; neither stayed long enough at the mouth of the river to determine the latitude by observation, and ascertain the height of the tide, nor tasted the water of this sea. The last method would have been the surest means of ascertaining that it was not a vast fresh water lake. It would have afforded a much stronger proof than could be drawn from the view of the whale-bone and seals, as the former might have been procured from some other part; and the latter are not uncommon in the lake of Baikal, in Asia.\* Mr. Hearne also visited the Copper mines, about thirty miles south-east from the mouth of the river. The copper is found in lumps, and the Indians beat it out by the help of fire and stones. He appears also to have been the first European who had penetrated to the great lake of Atha-

\* See description of the sea of Baikal, in Asiatic Russia, from Pallas, Belland Fouke. D'Anville appears to have been totally ignorant of this lake. See his Map 1746.

puscow, which the natives reported to be 120 leagues in length from east to west, and 20 in breadth. The estimates of savages ignorant of determinate measures, must, however, be very inaccurate. One traveller describes this lake as stored with a great quantity and variety of fish, and thickly interspersed with islands covered with tall straight trees like mast. The northern shore, according to his account, is rocky: the southern, level and beautiful, affording pasture to many wild cattle and moose deer, the former of which he describes as larger than the black cattle of Great Britain. The animals in general appear to be the same as in the regions contiguous to Hudson's-Bay. The Esquimaux, near the coast of what he conceived to be the Arctic ocean, are of a dirty copper colour, and of a shorter stature than those more to the south. Their kettles are made of lard ollars; and their knives and hatchets of copper. Mr. Hearne finished his adventurous journey the 30th of June, 1772. The great hardships which he had suffered, and the services which he had performed, were suitably rewarded by his employers. He was made governor of Prince of Wales Fort, on Churchill river, where he was made prisoner by the French in 1782.\*

The Hudson's-Bay Company established in 1670, claims an extensive territory on the east, south, and west of that inland sea, supposed to reach from 70 to 115 degrees west longitude, and from about 49 degrees north latitude to the shores of the frozen ocean, being not less than 1500 geographical miles in length by an indeterminate breadth. This vast empire of ice and snow can be of little value in regard to its vegetable productions, and in all probability will

\* *Hist.* p. 121.

never be colonized by Europeans or their descendants, unless at some future period convulsions in the more southern parts of America should oblige some fugitives to seek an asylum in these uninviting regions, as it has sometimes been the case in other parts of the globe. These countries are valuable only for their trade in furs, and the fisheries on the coast of Labrador. The Indians, by means of the rivers which discharge themselves into Hudson's-Bay from the west, bring their furs from far distant regions, and barter them at the factories for all kinds of British manufactures.\* The annual exports of the Company are estimated at 16,000*l.* and the returns above 80,000*l.* yielding above 3,700*l.* to the revenue. This trade is extremely advantageous to Great Britain; for the articles which the Indians take in exchange for their furs, are all of British manufacture, and frequently such as in the mercantile phrase are drugs, those savages not being very nice in their choice. The furs also which are brought to England, furnish articles of an advantageous trade with other nations.

#### CENTRAL PARTS OF NORTH AMERICA.

THE central parts of North America were almost totally unknown before Mr. Hearne performed his journey. Since that time the still more difficult and laborious enterprizes of Mr. Mackenzie have thrown some additional light on their obscure geography. This adventurous traveller, in his two journeys or voyages, for they were both performed mostly in canoes on the rivers, reached the Pacific, and appa-

\* Morso, vol. 20, p. 128

rently also the Arctic Ocean. He commenced his first voyage in June, 1789. Embarking in a canoe at Fort Chepiwian, he proceeded along the Slave river till he reached the Slave lake, which is evidently the Athapuscow of Mr. Hearne, the centre of which they both fix in  $62^{\circ}$  north, although they disagree in regard to the longitude, Mr. Hearne fixing it in  $125^{\circ}$ , and Mr. Mackenzie in  $115^{\circ}$  west. The latter traveller describes the Slave river as very considerable, and found the lake covered with ice, although in the month of June. He then entered the river now called by his name, and proceeded to its mouth, which appears to open into a wide estuary, interspersed with islands, where he met with several whales, a sufficient indication of his having reached the sea. Mr. Mackenzie's whole voyage occupied the space of 103 days, being completed on the 12th of September. On the 30th of October, 1792, he began his second journey from Fort Chepiwian, and proceeded up the Peace river, or Unjiga, in a south-west direction, till he reached the stony mountains. The canoe being with some difficulty transported over the heights, he and his companions embarked on a small river on the western-side, which soon brought them into the Cuiragon, or Columbia. After proceeding a considerable way on that great western river, Mr. Mackenzie travelled overland to the Pacific Ocean, in  $52^{\circ}$  20' north latitude.† In some parts of his route he observed a beautiful and variegated country, consisting of hills and dawns, adorned with groves of poplars,

\* Mackenzie's Trav. p. 64.

† An expedition of discovery has since been fitted out in 1803, by order of Congress: its course was up the Missouri, and the country was found to be rich in mineral abundance. Journal Trav. p. 398. &c.

and thickened with numerous herds of elk on the uplands, and of buffaloes on the plains. Beavers are common in these countries, and the tracts of the moose deer were sometimes discovered. Among the variety of volucres, the beautiful humming bird sometimes made its appearance. Some of the Indian tribes inhabiting those regions, especially towards the north, were observed to be of a low stature, with round faces, high cheek bones, black hair and eyes, and their complexion of a swarthy yellow. Towards the Pacific Ocean, the people are fairer and taller. One man in particular was not less than six feet four inches in height. Their eyes are not dark like those of the other Indians, but of a grey colour, with a tinge of red. The dress of the men is only a robe made of the bark of the cedar tree, rendered as fine as hemp, and sometimes adorned with borders of red and yellow. To this robe the women add a short apron. They have canoes, of which some are forty-five feet in length. The regions are watered by several considerable rivers. The principal of those that are known are the Unjuga, which is supposed to run a course of about 1700 British miles before it falls into the Arctic ocean, the Saskatchewan, which, rising on the eastern side of the long range of mountains, passes through the great lake of Winnipic, and after a comparative course of not less than 1000 miles, falls into Hudson's Bay and the Oregon, or Columbia, which, after a course of about 700 miles, discharges itself into the Pacific Ocean. Those rivers, however, are very imperfectly known in geography; and ages may revolve before they acquire any historical or commercial importance.

The countries here imperfectly sketched from scanty materials, are the seats of various native and unconquered

quered tribes. These, however, exhibit only a very small population; and what we have long been accustomed to call Indian nations, are only clans or localities, of which the enumeration would be tedious. In a work of this general nature, it suffices to say, that the principal tribes are the Esquimaux, who appear to extend over the whole northern extremity of America, from Greenland to the northern Archipelago. The Iroquois, or Five Nations, are more to the south. The Creeks and Cherokees are in some degree civilized, and will probably in time become intermixed with the people of the United States. To these might be added numerous tribes both in the interior and towards the Pacific Ocean; many of them are totally unknown to the Europeans, and the knowledge of them would afford little instruction. The manners and customs of the American savages, like those of the Hottentots, have been so often and so amply delineated, that the theme is become obsolete. Their manners and ideas are such as are natural to a savage state. Their wants being few, and their mutual dependence on one another but small, their union is very imperfect, and their natural liberty is almost unimpaired. There is scarcely any subordination either in their civil or domestic government. In most of their tribes, the sachen, or chief, is elective; but a council of old men is chosen, whose advice determines his conduct in all affairs of importance. He neither possesses nor claims any great authority. His office is to propose, rather than command; and all obedience is voluntary.\* When a war is proposed, a chief arises and offers himself as their leader. Such

\* Charlevoix, *Journal Historique du Voyage de l'Alouette*, 4<sup>e</sup> p. 100, &c.

as are willing to follow him, stand up and sing the war-song.\* The chief has scarcely any criminal jurisdiction. The punishment of offenders belongs entirely to the person or family injured. Their resentments are excessive and implacable. They can neither be extinguished nor abated by any length of time; but are transmitted from generation to generation, until an opportunity of vengeance is found.† Sometimes, however, the offended party is satisfied by a compensation. In case of murder, this commonly consists of a captive taken in war, who being substituted in the place of the person murdered, assumes his name, and is adopted into his family.‡ The American savages are distinguished by their unparalleled contempt of pain and death, by the horrible torments which they inflict on their captive enemies, and the astonishing fortitude with which they suffer the same when they fall to their lot.

Nothing in the history of man forms a stronger contrast than their cruelty to their enemies, and their affectionate regard for their friends. The latter is sufficiently evinced in the lamentations with which they bewail the death of any member of their society; but it is still more strikingly demonstrated in the general feast of the dead, which is commonly celebrated every tenth, but in some tribes, every eighth year. At this pious and awful, but disgusting solemnity, all those who have died during this interval, are disinterred, being sought up from all quarters, and brought to the general rendezvous of the tribes. A great feast is prepared in their honor: their actions are commemorated. Every thing that can excite affection is recalled to remem-

\* *Claudian's Journal Historique d'un Voyage de l'Amérique*, vol. p. 107. Re. † *Ibid.* p. 54. ‡ *Ibid.* n. 274.

brance; and strangers sometimes come many hundreds of miles to join in the general condolence. The solemnity concludes by depositing those venerable remains in the place of general interment, in a large pit dug for that purpose. The whole is conducted with every demonstration of the most poignant sorrow, and every display of savage magnificence. Each person present takes from the pit a little earth, which is preserved as a precious relic, and each one makes an offering to the dead of something that is esteemed most valuable. In regard to religion, it appears that all the American tribes believe the existence of a Supreme Being and of a future state, when those who have been courageous in war, or skilled in hunting, shall be rewarded with endless felicity. This appears to constitute the sum of their faith; the rest of their religious ideas are, as it may reasonably be supposed, various, confused, and indeterminate.

The western coast of North America has been explored, first by the Russians, and successively by Cook, Vancouver, Mears, Dixon, La Peyroue, and other able navigators; but Mackenzie has the merit of having first reached the Pacific Ocean by a progress from the east. The western interior has never been penetrated by any other traveller; and many ages may pass over before the geography and natural history of those regions be so well known as to become interesting.



# SPANISH DOMINIONS,

## NORTH AMERICA.

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### CHAP. I.

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Situation—Extent—Boundaries—Face of the Country—Mountains—Rivers—Canals—Lakes—Mineralogy—Mineral Waters—Soil—Climate—Vegetable Productions—Zoology—Natural Curiosities—Antiquities—Artificial Curiosities.

THE Spanish Empire in North America may be considered as extending from  $7^{\circ} 30'$  to  $29^{\circ} 50'$  north latitude, reckoning as far as that nation has any settlements. The Spaniards, however, do not willingly admit the idea of a northern boundary, as they lay claim to the whole north-west part of America, which they include in the government of California.\*

The North American possessions of Spain consist of three grand divisions:† The principal of these is Mexico, or New Spain; the others are, first, New Mexico; secondly, East and West Florida. New Mexico includes the interior country west of Louisiana; and East and West Florida. The boundaries between some of these provinces are not precisely indicated. The two Floridas are bounded, the former on the north, and the latter on the east, by the United States of America. For the greater perspi-

\* La Peyronie, vol. 2, ch. 11, &c.

† Louisiana is now ceded to the United States.

culty and order, it may not be amiss to exhibit separate descriptions of these principal divisions.

### MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN,

*Face of the country.*]—The face of the country is in general abrupt and mountainous; but flat and low near the coasts, particularly on the eastern side bordering on the Gulph of Mexico.\* The mountains, and many of the plains, are covered with thick forests.

*Mountains.*]—The interior of Mexico is almost every where encumbered with high mountains, of which the ridges run in various directions. The mountain of Orizaba is regarded as the highest in Mexico, and is even supposed to surpass, in altitude, the peak of Teneriffe, being visible not only from the capital, from which it is ninety miles distant towards the south-east, but also at sea, at the distance of 150 miles.† This mountain became volcanic in 1545, and continued in that state for twenty years, till 1565, since which time there has been no appearance of irruption.‡ It is of a conical form: the summit is covered with perpetual snow; and the sides are adorned with beautiful forests of pines, cedars, and other valuable trees, so that it forms a magnificent object.§ The detached mountains, called in the native language Popocatepec, and Iztaccihuatl, situated at about the distance of thirty miles to the south-east

\* It may not be amiss to observe, that the Spanish *x* being pronounced like *ch*, the true pronunciation of Mexico is *Mecheho*: see this I must owe my obligation to Mr. Robertson.

† Clavigero, vol. 1, p. 136.

‡ Bruce's Amer. Geog. p. 374.

§ De Anstoeche Voyage, p. 37.

of the city of Mexico, are both volcanic, and both of them perpetually covered with snow. These mountains supply the capital, and other places, to the distance of forty miles round, with snow for cooling their liquors. The mountain of Juruyo is a singular phenomenon. It was originally a small hill, which, in 1700, burst with furious volcanic shocks, and continued to eject fire and burning rocks till 1766, when it had formed three high mountains, of which the circumference was not less than six miles.\* But it is not easy to give implicit credit to Clavigero, or to Morse, who copies him, when they tell us that the ashes were thrown to the incredible distance of 150 miles.† Many others of the Mexican mountains are of a great elevation; and Morse says, that no fewer than five of them have at different times been volcanoes.‡ That of Guatimala raged furiously in 1773, during the tremendous earthquakes which destroyed that great city, and buried 8000 families under its ruins.

*Rivers* ]—From the narrow dimensions of the country, extending about 600 miles in length, and not above 150 in medial breadth, between the two seas: the rivers have only a short course, and are not of great importance to inland navigation and commerce. Those of Palmas, Panuco, Tabasco, and St. Juan, fall into the Gulph of Mexico. The Guadalaxara is the largest of those that discharge themselves into the Pacific Ocean.

*Lakes* ]—In Mexico are several lakes which embellish the country, and afford some convenience to inland commerce. The largest of these is that of Nica-

\* Clavigero Hist. of Mexico, vol. 1, p. 14.

† Clavigero, ubi supra. Morse, p. 674. ‡ Morse, ubi supra.

ragua, which extends about 170 British miles in length from south-east to north-west, by about half as much in medial breadth; and has, by the river of St. Juan, a grand outlet into the Gulph of Mexico. By a canal from this lake to the Pacific Ocean, it is probable that a complete passage between the two seas, which has been the object of so many fruitless expeditions, might be effected at no enormous expence, and in the most direct course that could be desired. But as almost the whole trade of the Spaniards of those parts centers in the city of Mexico, such a communication might have an unfavorable interference with the interests of that capital; and this may probably concur with their colonial jealousy to prevent such an undertaking. The lake of Chapala, in the north-west part of the province, is also of considerable extent, being about sixty miles in length, by twenty in breadth. The lake of Tetzeuco, joined by a strait with that of Chalco, and both together occupying a great part of the vale of Mexico, being not less than thirty English miles in length, and ninety in circuit, is celebrated on account of the capital being seated on its margin. There are several other lakes of inferior dimensions and importance.

*Minerology*].--The mineralogy of Mexico is well known to be of distinguished opulence, having been famous from the period of its first discovery. The mountains abound with every kind of metal, and an infinite variety of fossils. Gold is found in many parts of the country. The chief silver mines are said to be situated about 200 English miles to the north-west of Mexico. But the Spanish writers seem to observe a mysterious silence in regard to the position, and all other particulars relating to their mines. Mexico

being

being the centre of the Spanish power and commerce in the new world, and less remote from hostile neighbours than Peru, the national jealousy seems to have been, if possible, greater in regard to this country than to their South-American colonies. It is therefore extremely difficult to procure any recent and precise intelligence concerning the actual state of Mexico, especially in what relates to its mines. According to the statement of the coinage given by Helm from the official register of the mints of Mexico, Lima, Potosi, and St. Jago, in 1790, it seems that the Mexican mines produce a greater abundance of the precious metals than those of South America. The whole coinage amounted to 23,376,835 piasters, of which 18,063,688 were issued from the mint of Mexico. Our author, however, accounts for this striking difference of produce from the Mexican mines, and from those of the other provinces, on the following considerations: first, Mexico greatly surpasses the other parts of Spanish America in population. Secondly, being much nearer to the parent country, it is better enabled to enforce obedience to the laws and regulations, and to promote the speculations of enterprising industry. Thirdly, this province possesses great advantages over the others in regard to royal and private banks. And, fourthly, mining speculations meet with great encouragement from every commercial house in Mexico. To these causes, and not to any natural advantages, Mr. Helm ascribes the superior quantity and produce from the Mexican mines, both of gold and silver, which he esteems far less numerous and opulent than those of Peru.\*

\* Helm, p. 167. See

Copper and tin are to be found in this country; and the ancient Mexicans are said to have used them for money. Among the precious stones found in Mexico, are the turquoise and the amethyst, and a green stone somewhat resembling an emerald. It is even said that a few diamonds have been found. The mountains also produce jasper marble, alabaster, and great quantities of loadstone.

*Mineral waters.*]—The mineral waters are numerous, and of various qualities—nitrous, sulphurous, vitriolic, and aluminous, with springs of a petrifying nature, and others remarkable for their extraordinary heat. Few countries indeed abound more in mineral waters; but we hear of none that are greatly distinguished for their medicinal virtues, which, through want of investigation, probably remain unknown.

*Soil.*]—In regard to the soil, it appears to be exceedingly fertile, except in the most mountainous tracts; but the mountains themselves, as already observed, are clothed a great way up the sides with verdant forests, and interspersed with delightful vales.

*Climate.*]—Although the greatest part of Mexico lies between the tropics, the unequal surface of the country renders the climate exceedingly various. Moisture, however, seems in general to predominate, though not to such a degree as in Terra Firma and Darien. The maritime parts of Mexico are exceedingly hot and unhealthy, the atmosphere being so sultry and heavy as to cause much perspiration in the depth of winter; † while the inland parts near the high mountains are so cold as often to have hoar-frosts even in the dog-days. The other inland parts, which are the most populous, enjoy a mild and benign cli-

\* Morse, p. 275.

† *Chargers Descr. of Mexico*, vol. 1, p. 11.

mate. From April till September, the rains, which generally fall every afternoon, are abundant. Violent storms of thunder and lightning also are frequent; and earthquakes are an additional circumstance of terror.\*

*Vegetable productions.*]—The productions of Mexico, favored by the fertility of the soil, and the genial nature of the climate, are abundant and various, almost beyond description. Besides those which are common to the West-Indies, and other tropical countries, Mexico boasts of a great number of indigenous and peculiar productions, which enrich and adorn this fertile and opulent region. Among these must be ranked a variety of medicinal and dying drugs; the jalop tree, with those which yield the balsams of capivi and tolu, are natives of this country. The shores of the bays of Honduras and Campeachy, have been celebrated from the time of their first discovery for their immense forests of logwood and mahogany; and the neighbourhood of Guatimala is distinguished for its indigo. The different species of timber are numerous; and some of the trees are said to be fifty feet in circumference.† The trees which adorn the forests, and the flowers which embellish the meads and gardens of Mexico, would afford ample matter for some of the most curious descriptions that could ornament the pages of natural history. Besides the native productions, may be reckoned a great variety of fruits and grain introduced from Europe. Most of the European fruits attain to great perfection in Mexico; and wheat, barley, beans, peas, and rice, are cultivated with success.‡

\* Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 573 and 574.

† Letter from a Mexican gentleman to the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, annexed to D'Autechou's Voyage to California.

‡ Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 575.

*Zoology.*]—The zoology of Mexico is also a copious subject, though less interesting than its botany and mineralogy. It comprizes a numerous catalogue of animals described by Buffon, Hernandez, Planchet, and other naturalists. The chief of the ferocious kind, is a species of panther, sometimes called the American tiger, which grows to a large size. The horned cattle, and other domestic animals of Europe, are seen here in abundance. But of all the classes of animated nature, the volatile are particularly numerous and curious. Swans, geese, ducks, and pelicans, are seen in great numbers. Ducks, in particular, of which there are said to be at least twenty different species, are so numerous as to cover the fields, and appear at a distance like flocks of sheep. Of birds which afford a wholesome and agreeable food, more than seventy species are enumerated; and thirty-five of these are distinguished for the superlative beauty of their plumage.\* It is said that no less than 200 species of birds are peculiar to this country, of which the ornithology presents an abundance and variety equal at least to what is seen in any other part of the globe. Among the numerous insects, the cochineal fly is celebrated for its use in manufactures and medicine. In fine, the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms of Mexico, if accurately examined, would afford ample materials for a curious and interesting volume of natural history.

*Natural curiosities.*]—The natural curiosities of this variegated country are numerous. Among these, may be reckoned the volcanos already described, as well as many stupendous cascades. About 100 miles south-west from the capital, is the Ponte di Dios, or the

\* *Abert's Voy. Voy. p. 176.*



bridge of God. This is a natural bridge over the deep river Aquetoyaque, which is used as a highway for coaches, and all kinds of carriages. Among the romantic cataracts, that of the river Guadaluza, between the city of that name and the lake of Chapala, is reckoned the most remarkable.

*Antiquities and artificial curiosities.*]—This, like other American countries, is of too recent civilization to exhibit any monuments of antiquity. But from its singular situation, and other circumstances, the city of Mexico may be regarded as an artificial curiosity.

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## CHIAP, II.

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Principal cities and towns—Edifices, &c.

**MEXICO**, the capital of this province, is undoubtedly the most extensive, populous, and opulent city of the New World. But there is scarcely any place of note within the whole range of geography and statistics, of which it is more difficult to obtain any precise accounts. Amidst the deficiency of material, I shall therefore subjoin the description given by Mr. Chappé d'Auteroche, the most recent and best authority, although his short stay in the city renders it in many respects defective.

The city of Mexico has always been represented as standing on an island, or rather an assemblage of islands, in the lake of that name, and accessible only by three causeways across the shallow waters that separate it from the main land. Such was the situation of the ancient capital of Montezuma; and it is certain that modern Mexico stands on the same ground; but a considerable part of the lake has been drained by means of a canal cut through the mountains. Mexico, therefore, is now seated not on an island, but on the banks of the lake, in a fen crossed by numerous canals. The houses are all built on piles, as the ground in many places gives way, and several edifices are observed to have gradually sunk, some of them more than six feet, without any visible alteration in the body.

the building. The cathedral is one of the structures that have sunk in this manner. The outlines of the city appear to be irregular; but the interior displays the most perfect regularity of plan.\* The streets are very wide, perfectly strait, and in general intersect one another at right angles. There are three squares: the first is the Plaza Mayor, or great square, fronting the viceroys's palace, the cathedral, and the market-place, which is a double square, surrounded with buildings.† This square is in the centre of the city. The second, adjoining to this, is the square called Del Vellador, where the bull-fights are exhibited. The third is that of Santo Domingo. These squares are tolerably regular; and each is ornamented with a fountain in the middle. On the north side of the city, and near the suburbs, is the Alameda, or public promenade, which is a large square, with a rivulet running quite round it, and a *jet d'eau* in the middle. Eight walks, having each two rows of trees, terminate at this basin in the form of a star. But as the soil of Mexico is unfit for the growth of wood, the trees are not in a very thriving condition. Facing the Alameda, and at the distance of only a few paces, is the Quemadero, the place for burning the Jews, and other unhappy victims of the awful tribunal of the inquisition. The Quemadero is an inclosure between four walls, and filled with ovens, into which are thrown over the walls the poor wretches who are condemned to be burnt alive: condemned by judges professing a religion, of which the last precept is charity.‡

\* D'Anversche, p. 41; and the plan of Mexico annexed to his work.

† The expression of *Al. D. Aut. de la* appears somewhat obscure.

‡ It is, however, to be supposed, that the rigour of this infernal court were now abated.

The houses of Mexico are tolerably well built, but not remarkable for either external or internal embellishments; and the style of architecture is the same as in Spain. The city contains no remarkable edifice. The palace of the viceroy, in the great square, however, is a firm and substantial structure, comprising within its circuit three handsome court-yards, each of which has a fountain in the middle; but the interior of the palace displays scarcely any decorations. Behind this is the mint, a noble building, where upwards of 100 workmen are constantly employed for the king in coining piastres, out of the enormous masses of silver brought thither by the owners of the mines, who exchange them for coin.

The most sumptuous buildings are the churches, chapels, and convents, many of which are richly ornamented. The cathedral, especially, is remarkable for its splendid and costly decorations. The railing round the high altar is of solid silver; and there is also a silver lamp so capacious, that three men get into the inside to clean it. This lamp is adorned with figures of lion's heads, and other ornaments of pure gold. The inside columns of the cathedral are hung with rich-crimson velvet, decorated with a broad gold fringe. The profusion of riches in the numerous churches of Mexico is astonishing. Gold and precious stones are lavished on the sacred vessels and ornaments; and the images of the Holy Virgin and the saints are either of massy silver, or covered with the most costly drapery.

The outside of the cathedral is unfinished, and it likely to remain in that state. The circumstance of its sinking, which is as affrightful to visit, deters them from increasing the weight of the building.

known that the city of Mexico is the abode of all the most opulent merchants, and the centre of the commerce carried on with Europe, Manilla, &c. by the ports of Vera Cruz and Acapulco. Its riches, therefore, are undoubtedly immense. In regard to its manners and customs, as all the great officers and principal ecclesiastics are natives of Spain, and the viceroys are sent every three years from the parent country, the influx of Spaniards must naturally be supposed to direct the national taste. The Creoles are, in every part of America, known to be more luxurious and effeminate than the Europeans; but all circumstances considered, it is not unreasonable to suppose, that in the most prominent features the manners of Mexico differ less from those of Madrid than might otherwise be expected. The population of Mexico has been variously estimated; but Dr. Robertson, after the most accurate researches, says, that it amounts at least to 150,000; and it does not appear that the number of the inhabitants can have decreased.\*

The vale of Mexico displays the most luxuriant fertility; but the environs of the city, although they afford a picturesque view of the lake and the distant mountains, must on the whole be considered as unpleasant, and the situation as unhealthful. Except the Alameda already mentioned, there is no other walk in or near Mexico; all the adjacent country is swampy ground, intersected by numerous canals. The climate is not so scorching as in several other parts of the torrid, or even of the temperate zones; and probably the heat at Mexico seldom exceeds that which is felt in summer at Madrid. But the coolness arises from the humidity of the ground and the atmosphere;

\* Hist. of America, vol. 2, p. 327, note 73.

and the effects which so great an abundance of moisture, in a tropical climate, must have on the human frame, may be easily imagined. These, indeed, are too frequently displayed in dreadful epidemical diseases, among which, that called the black vomit, is the scourge of Mexico.\* In 1736, and the following year, it swept away more than one-third of the inhabitants of that city; and in 1761 and 1762, the same disease, in conjunction with an epidemical small pox, almost depopulated the whole country, and carried off at least 25,000 persons in the capital. It is somewhat singular, that this distemper always begins among the Indians, who are natives of the country, and attacks them more frequently than the Europeans. This epidemical disorder of Mexico, however, does not appear to be either more fatal, or of more frequent recurrence than the yellow fever in the West Indies, and the United States of America.

New Spain contains several other cities of considerable magnitude, but of which there is little recent intelligence. Puebla de los Angeles, is supposed to contain 60,000, and Guadalaxara, 50,000 inhabitants.† Guanacala, which was destroyed by an earthquake in 1773, when, as already observed, no fewer than 8000 families perished, must have been a very considerable city; and New Guatamala is already well inhabited. Indeed, as Dr. Robertson observes, the Spanish cities are far superior in population to those of the other European nations in America. Vera Cruz and Acapulco, the former on the coast of the Mexican Gulph, and the latter on that of the

\* Letter of Don Joseph Anthony de Alzate to the R. Jai Academy of Sciences at Paris.

† Robertson's Hist. of America, vol. 5, p. 302.

Pacific Ocean, are the two ports to the city of Mexico. Through these the trade of that capital is carried on with Spain and the Phillippine islands. But both of them being in disagreeable and unhealthy situations, were frequented by the opulent merchants only at the arrival of the flotilla from Europe, and of the Acapulco ships from Manilla. At those seasons, Vera Cruz and Acapulco were crowded with people; but as soon as the business was transacted, these towns were almost deserted, and made only a mean appearance. The colonial trade being now laid open to all Spanish subjects, it is probable that the business at these ports will be more regular.\*

*Edifices.*]—The chief structures are the cathedrals, churches, and monasteries, many of which are magnificent and richly ornamented.

\* See an account of these new regulations under the article Spain.

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### CHAP. III.

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Historical View, &c.

THE history of Mexico, previous to the Spanish conquest, is only traditional, and of little importance; but the origin of this people, as well as of the Peruvians, has been a subject of curious investigation, and a source of various conjecture. These two nations have been by many considered as a distinct race from the rest of the Americans. But the Mexicans and the Peruvians seem, in regard to religion, language, and all other moral circumstances, to differ as much from each other as from the rest of the aboriginal tribes. Perhaps all these differences may have been the effect of situation and accident. But whether America were peopled from Asia or Africa, it is not improbable that similar migrations might take place in different ages. On this supposition, Dr. Forster's conjecture, at least in regard to the Mexicans, appears the most plausible. That sagacious enquirer attributes their origin to the troops on board the fleet which Kubli Khan, in the thirteenth century, sent from China for the intended conquest of Japan.\* That great armament having been scattered, and most of the vessels supposed to be lost by violent tempests, it is not improbable that some of them might reach the

\* Dr. Forster's *Hist. Voyage in the North*, p. 19. Although objections may be made against some parts of Dr. Forster's hypothesis, it has, in regard to the main point, a very great degree of probability.



Western coast of America. This hypothesis has a singular coincidence with the Mexican traditions, which assert that their ancestors, originally consisting of several families or tribes, moved in successive migrations from unknown regions towards the north and north-west, and established themselves in Anahuac; and that about the beginning of the thirteenth century a tribe, more civilized than the rest, advanced from the borders of the Californian Gulf, and took possession of the Vale of Mexico.\* Considering the uncertainty of the traditional chronology of the Mexicans, this era remarkably coincides with the time of Kubla Khan's expedition; and seems to authorize the supposition that the more polished tribe here mentioned was a remnant of Mongolian and Tartar troops, that had saved themselves from the general wreck of the West. They were for some time governed by a council of chiefs; and from the most authentic accounts the monarchical government commenced only about A. D. 1324, or 107 years before the Spanish conquest.

Wars, rebellions, and massacres, constitute the chief features of the traditional history of Mexico; but the monarchy seems to have acquired its greatest extension and aggrandizement under the famous Montezuma. He had reduced under his sceptre all the different nations of that extensive country; and many of these bore with reluctance the yoke so recently imposed. Such was the state of Mexico when the Spaniards first arrived in that country.

The unexpected success of Columbus, the conquests of Hispaniola and Cuba, with the successive discovery of new countries, which appeared one after another, opened an immense field to ambition and avarice.

\* Robertson, Hist. of America, vol. 3, p. 120.

The spirit of enterprize among the Spaniards had risen to an excess, of which it is difficult at this time to conceive an idea; and their adventurers in the new world were ready to form and to execute the most daring and desperate projects. The coasts of Mexico had already been discovered; and from the obscure and confused accounts which the Spaniards had received, that rich and extensive country seemed to promise an ample field for adventurous enterprize. In 1518, Don Velasques, governor of Cuba, projected an expedition against Mexico; and desirous to arrogate to himself the glory and advantages of the conquest, he conferred the command on Hernando Cortez, a bold adventurer, whose abilities were equal to any undertaking, and whose fortune and rank were not such as seemed calculated to inspire him with any higher ideas than of acting in perfect subordination to his employer. The event, however, proved contrary to the expectation of Velasques. Before the expedition sailed from Cuba, he began to suspect the aspiring ambition of Cortez, and resolved to deprive him of the command. But Cortez being apprized of his design, and perfectly sure of the attachment of his followers, immediately set sail with eleven small vessels, of which the largest was only 100 tons burthen: three were of 70 or 80 tons; and the others were only small open barks.\* His whole force consisted only of 617 soldiers and seamen, all volunteers, and men of the most daring resolution. With this small force he undertook the conquest of a vast empire. Having landed on the continent, he laid the foundation of the town of Vera Cruz, and built a fortress sufficiently strong to resist the attacks of an Indian army. At his first arrival,

\* Dr. Robertson's Hist. of America, vol. 2, p. 9.

he received a message from Montezuma, requiring to know his intentions in visiting his country. Cortez announced himself as ambassador from the king of Spain, the most powerful monarch of the east, and declaring himself entrusted with such proposals as he could impart only to the emperor in person, requested to be immediately conducted to the capital. The Mexican officers hesitated at this request, which they knew would be extremely embarrassing to Montezuma, whose mind had become harrassed with alarming apprehensions ever since he had heard of the landing of the Spaniards on his coasts. During this interview, some painters, in the train of the Mexican officers, were employed in sketching, in their rude manner, the figures of the ships, the horses, the artillery, the soldiers, and whatever attracted their attention. Cortez perceiving this, and being informed that the pictures were designed to be presented to Montezuma, in order to give him a just idea of those strange and wonderful objects, resolved to render the representation as striking as possible, by exhibiting such a spectacle as might give both them and their monarch an awful impression of the irresistible force of his arms. The trumpets, by his order, sounded an alarm; the troops in a moment formed in order of battle; both cavalry and infantry performed their martial exercises and evolutions; while the artillery thundering in repeated discharges, being pointed against a thick forest adjoining to the camp, made dreadful havoc amongst the trees. The Mexicans were struck with that amazement, which a spectacle so novel, so extraordinary, so terrible, and so much above their comprehension, might be expected to excite. Reports and representations of all these things

were sent to Montezuma, who, as well as his subjects, conceived that the Spaniards were more than human beings, an opinion which Cortez took every opportunity of confirming and impressing on the minds of the Mexicans. Montezuma afterwards sent many ambassadors with rich presents to the Spanish camp, expressing the greatest friendship for Cortez, and the sovereign of Castile, but constantly requesting him to depart from his dominions. This was the purport of every message from the Mexican monarch. Cortez, however, continuing to advance, the request was changed into a command. Montezuma absolutely forbade him to approach the capital, and required his immediate departure from the country. The Spanish general, however, determined to proceed to Mexico, and concluded an alliance with the Caziques of Zempoalla and Quibablan, who, being weary of Montezuma's tyranny, took this opportunity of revolting against his government. Several other chiefs followed their example; and Cortez soon perceived, that although the Mexican empire was extensive, populous, and powerful, it was far from being firmly consolidated, a circumstance which inspired him with new hopes of effecting its subjugation.

Previous to the commencement of his march towards Mexico, Cortez, resolving to shake off his dependence on the governor of Cuba, organized the new colony of Vera Cruz on the model of his other Spanish governments established in the new world. Having appointed for magistrates such officers as were most firmly attached to his person, and the most acutely bent on pushing forward the expedition, he resigned into their hands the command, which he held under Velazquez, and requested them to appoint

a general in the name of the king of Spain, whose person they represented, and whose authority alone they acknowledged, declaring at the same time his readiness to serve in the capacity of a common soldier equally as in that of commander. By this judicious proceeding he involved them in his rebellion against the governor of Cuba; and the whole affair concluded by his re-election to the chief command of the expedition, with a commission from the colony under the authority of the Spanish crown. His next measure was such as affords an evident proof of the ascendancy which he had gained over his followers, and of their ardour for carrying on the enterprize. Having represented to them, in the most forcible terms, that it would be the highest degree of folly to think of returning to poverty and disgrace, after having expended their whole fortunes for the equipment of the expedition, that they must absolutely resolve either to conquer or perish; that the ships were so much damaged, as to be unfit for service; and that their small force would derive a very considerable accession of strength from the junction of 100 men necessarily left with the fleet. By these arguments, he convinced them of the necessity of fixing their hopes on what lay before them, without ever looking back, or suffering the idea of a retreat to enter their minds. With the consent of the whole army the vessels were stripped of their sails, rigging, iron-work, and other articles, which might become useful, and afterwards broken in pieces. "Thus, from an effort of magnanimity, to which," says Dr. Robertson, "there is nothing parallel in history, 300 men voluntarily consented to be sent up in a hostile country, filled with powerful and unknown nations; and having precluded every means

of escape, left themselves without any resource but their own valour and perseverance.\*

Cortez landed in Mexico on the 2d of April, 1518; and on the 16th of August he began his march towards the metropolis, with 500 foot, 15 horse, and six field pieces. The rest of his men were left to garrison the fort of Vera Cruz. In his progress, he was interrupted by a war with the Hascalans, a numerous and warlike people, whose impetuous valour, however, was obliged to yield to the superiority of European weapons and tactics. The Hascalans, who were inveterate enemies to the Mexicans, having experienced the valour of the Spaniards, whom they regarded as invincible, concluded with them a treaty of peace, and afterwards of alliance; and contributed in no small degree to the success of their enterprise.

Cortez, with his Spaniards, accompanied by 6000 of his new allies, immediately advanced towards Mexico. They were met in different parts of their journey by messengers from Montezuma, bearing rich presents, and sometimes inviting them to proceed, but at others requesting them to retire: what is most wonderful, no measures were taken to oppose his progress; and such was the embarrassment of the Mexican monarch, that the Spaniards were already at the gates of his capital before he had determined whether to receive them as friends or as enemies.

Mexico, seated on islands near the western side of the lake, was inaccessible, except by three causeways, extending over the shallow waters. The causeway of Tacuba, on the west, was a mile and a half in length; that of Tezcuco, on the north-west, extended three, and that of Cuoyacan on the south, not less than six miles. On the east side, the city could be approached

approached only by canoes.\* The Spaniards being arrived on the borders of the lake, advanced along the causeway with great circumspection; and on their near approach to the city, they were met by about 1000 persons clothed in mantles of fine cotton, and adorned with plumes. These announced the approach of Montezuma, and were followed by about 200 others in an uniform dress, adorned also with plumes, and marching in solemn silence. Next appeared a company of a higher rank, in showy apparel; and in the midst of them was Montezuma, in a chair, or litter, richly ornamented with gold, and feathers of various colours, and carried on the shoulders of four of his principal officers, while others supported a canopy over his head. Thus the Mexican monarch, surrounded with barbaric pomp, introduced into his capital the subverter of his throne. He conducted the Spaniards into the city, assigned them quarters in a large building encompassed with a stone wall, with towers at proper distances, and containing courts and apartments sufficiently spacious for their accommodation, and that of their allies. Here Cortez planted the artillery, posted sentinels, and ordered his troops to preserve the same strictness of discipline as if they had been encamped in the face of an enemy. During some time the greatest harmony subsisted between the Spaniards and the Mexicans; and Montezuma made presents of such value not only to Cortez and his officers, but also to the private men, as demonstrated the opulence of the kingdom. The Spaniards, however, soon began to reflect on their situation,

\* Robertson, vol. 2, p. 51. But from D'Auroche it appears that the lake has been partly drained, and the city now stands in a swamp. Voyage to California, ubi supra.

shot up in Mexico, and surrounded with the waters of its lake. They perceived, that by breaking down the bridges placed at interval in the causeways, or by destroying part of the cau-ways themselves, their retreat might be rendered impracticable. The Iltacalans had earnestly dissuaded Cortez from venturing to enter a city of so peculiar a situation as Mexico, where he would be shut up as in a snare, out of which it would be impossible to escape. These sages also assured him that the Mexican priests had, in the name of the gods, counselled their sovereign to admit the Spaniards into his capital, where he might with perfect security cut them off at one blow. The mind of Cortez, however, was equal to his trying situation, and he formed a plan no less extraordinary than daring. He resolved to seize Montezuma in his palace, and to carry him prisoner to the Spanish quarters. From the veneration of his Mexicans for the person of their monarch, and from their usual obedience to his will, he hoped, by having Montezuma in his power, to have the supreme direction of affairs, or, at least, by having so sacred a pledge in his hands, he made no doubt of being a cure from aggression.

Before Cortez entered Mexico, an engagement had taken place near Vera Cruz between two Mexicans and a detachment of the Spanish garrison of that place; and although the Spaniards were victorious, one of them happened to be taken prisoner. This unfortunate captive was immediately beheaded, and his head, after being carried in triumph to different cities, in order to convince the people that their invaders were not immortal, was at last sent to Mexico. Although Cortez had received intelligence of this affair in his route, it had not deterred him from enter-  
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ing that city; but reflecting on his precarious situation, he resolved to make it a pretext for seizing the emperor. At his usual hour of visiting Montezuma, he went to the palace, accompanied by five of his principal officers, and as many trusty soldiers. Thirty chosen men followed after, not in regular order, but surmounting at intervals, as if they had no other object than curiosity. Small parties were posted at proper intervals between the Spanish quarters and the court, and the rest of the troops were under arms ready to rally out on the first alarm. Cortez, with his attendants, being admitted as usual, he reproached the monarch with being the author of the violent assault made on the Spaniards near Vera Cruz by one of his officers. Montezuma, confounded at this unexpected reproach, asserted his innocence; and as a proof, gave orders to bring the officer and his accomplices prisoners to Mexico. Cortez professed himself convinced of Montezuma's innocence, but told him, that to produce the same conviction on the minds of his followers, it was necessary that he should give a proof of his confidence and attachment, by removing from his palace, and taking up his residence in the Spanish quarters, where he should be honored as became a great monarch. Montezuma remonstrated against the strange proposal. His remonstrances, however, were in vain: he saw that Cortez was determined, and he found himself under the necessity of compliance. His officers were called, and he communicated to them his resolution of going to reside among his new friends at their quarters. Although assembled and afflicted, they durst not presume to question the will of their master. He was therefore carried in silent and sorrowful pomp to the Spanish quarters;

quarters; but when it was known that the strangers were carrying away the emperor, the people broke out into the wildest transports of rage, and threatened the Spaniards with immediate destruction. But as soon as Montezuma waved his hand, and declared that it was an act of his own choice. The multitude, accustomed to revere every intimation of the sovereign's pleasure, quietly dispersed.

Cortez having the emperor in his power, now governed the empire in his name, and Montezuma was only the organ of his will, although he was attended as usual by his ministers, and the external aspect of the government underwent no alteration. The unfortunate monarch, however, was obliged to acknowledge himself a vassal to the king of Spain, and to accompany his professions of fealty and homage by a magnificent present to his new sovereign. His subjects imitating his example, brought in liberal contributions. All the gold and silver, however, which the Spaniards had acquired since their entrance into Mexico, being now collected and melted down, amounted to no more than 600,000 pesos, exclusive of jewels and other ornaments, which were preserved for account of their curious workmanship. On being divided, a fifth part was set aside as the tax due to the king; another fifth was allotted to Cortez as commander-in-chief; the other officers received their shares in proportion to their rank; and when the expences of the expedition were deducted, the share of a private man amounted to 100 pesos, a sum much below their expectation. As gold and silver were not used by the Mexicans as a medium of commerce, but only as ornaments; and as they had not the art of working their rich mines, but were contented with

the small particles of those metals which they found in the sands of their rivers, Dr. Robertson supposes the sum that has been mentioned to have been a great part of the bullion in the empire; and he supports his opinion on the authority of the best Spanish writers.\*

Cortez, although master of the Mexican capital, and of the person of the monarch, was now threatened with a new danger. Velasques hearing of his success, and enraged at seeing his own authority rejected, fitted out from Cuba an armament of 18 vessels, having on board 80 cavalry, 800 infantry, and 12 pieces of cannon, under the command of Pamphilo de Narvaez, who had orders to seize Cortez and his principal officers, to send them to him in irons, and to complete the conquest. Cortez now saw himself in a situation more difficult than ever, being under the necessity of taking the field, not against unskilful Indians, but against an army, in courage and discipline equal to his own, in numbers far superior, and commanded by an officer of distinguished bravery. Having made an unsuccessful attempt to accommodate matters by negotiation, he determined to advance against his new enemy.

He left 150 men in Mexico, under the command of Pedro de Alvaredo, an officer of determined courage and resolution. To the custody of this slender garrison he was obliged to commit the capital and the captive monarch. With the rest of the troops he marched for Zampoalla, of which Narvaez had taken possession. A negotiation was again commenced, but without success. Narvaez required that Cortez and his followers should recognize him as governor of

\* Hist. of America, vol. 2, book 3, p. 69.

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\* Hist. of America, vol. 2, book 3, p. 69.

Mexico, in virtue of the powers which he derived from Velasquez, while Cortez refused to submit to any authority which was not founded on a commission from the emperor Charles V, then king of Spain. The time employed in these negotiations gave Cortez an opportunity of corrupting the troops of Narvaez. His own forces did not exceed 200, yet with this small body he attacked that general, who had almost ten times the number, and gained an easy victory, with the loss of only two soldiers, while no more than two officers and fifteen privates were killed on the adverse side. Cortez treated the vanquished in the most generous manner, giving them their choice either of returning to Cuba, or of entering into his service. Most of them chose the latter; and Cortez, when he least expected such good fortune, saw no less than 1000 Spaniards, ranged under his standard. With this reinforcement he marched back to Mexico, where his presence was extremely necessary. A courier had arrived with intelligence that Alvarado's mismanagement had excited an insurrection, and that the Spaniards were hard pressed in their quarters, being closely besieged, and harassed with incessant attacks. The danger was so great, as not to admit of deliberation or delay, and Cortez immediately began his march. It is somewhat extraordinary that the Mexicans had not taken the precaution to break the bridge in the bar-exaya, by which they might have enclosed Alvarado, and have prevented the entrance of Cortez. But instead of taking so obvious a measure for preventing the junction of their enemies in the heart of their capital, they suffered Cortez to enter the city without opposition, and take possession of his former station. The Mexicans, however, now appeared

appeared to have resolved on the extermination of their enemies. They resumed their arms, and attacked the Spanish quarters in such formidable numbers, and with such undaunted courage, that although the artillery pointed against their tumultuous crowds swept down multitudes at every discharge, the impetuosity of the attack did not abate. Fresh bodies of men successively rushed forward to occupy the places of the slain, and all the valour of the Spaniards was barely sufficient to prevent them from forcing their way into the fortifications.

Cortez was astonished at the desperate ferocity of a people, who seemed at first to submit so patiently to a foreign yoke. He made from the quarters two desperate sallies; but although numbers of Mexicans fell, and part of the city was burned, he gained no permanent advantage; and besides being wounded himself, lost twelve of his soldiers, a serious affair at that time, when, in his circumstances, the life of a Spaniard was so valuable. No resource was now left but to make use of the influence of the captive emperor in order to quell the insurrection. Montezuma was brought in regal pomp to the battlement, and was compelled to address the people. But their fury rose above all restraint. Volleys of arrows and stones poured in upon the ramparts, and the unfortunate prince being wounded in the head by a stone, fell to the ground. The Mexicans, as soon as they saw their emperor fall, were struck with sudden remorse, and fled with precipitation and horror, as if they supposed themselves pursued by the vengeance of heaven for their crime. Montezuma was carried by the Spaniards to his apartments, but being now become nearly of life, he tore the bandages from his wounds,

wounds, and obstinately refusing to take any nourishment, expired in a few days. The Spaniards endeavoured to convert him to the Christian faith; but he rejected all their solicitations with disdain. Christianity indeed was preached to this unfortunate prince by very improper apostles; and it could scarcely be supposed that he should embrace its doctrines on the recommendation of persons, whose whole conduct appeared to be a series of injustice and violence, and from whom he had received such injuries.

The death of Montezuma loosed the Mexicans from all the restraints, which their veneration for his person and dignity had imposed on their actions. A war of extermination was the immediate consequence; and after various attacks, in which the Mexicans shewed the most daring resolution, and had even at one time seized Cortez, and were near carrying him off, the Spaniards found it necessary to retreat from a situation, in which they must be finally overwhelmed by the immense multitudes and incessant attacks of their enemies. This measure, however, was not effected without extreme difficulty. The Mexicans, astonished at the repeated efforts of Spanish valour, had now changed their system of hostility, and instead of incessant attacks, had adopted the measure of breaking the causeways, and barricading the streets, in order to cut off all communications between the Spaniards and the country. A retreat from Mexico, however, being now a measure of absolute necessity, it was effected in the night, but not without great loss; for the Mexicans, from whom their preparations could not be concealed, had not only broken the bridges, and made breaches in the causeways, but attacked them on all sides from the lake. All Mexico was in  
arms,



arms, and the lake was covered with canoes. The Spaniards, crowded together on the narrow causeway, were hemmed in on every side, and, wearied with slaughter, were unable to bear up against the weight of the torrent that poured in upon them; the confusion was universal; and the tremendous sounds of the warlike instruments of the Mexicans, with the shouts of their barbarian multitudes, gave additional horror to the scene. Cortez, with part of his soldiers, broke through the enemy; but numbers, overwhelmed by the multitudes of aggressors, were either killed on the causeway, or perished in the lake; while others, whom the Mexicans had taken alive, were dragged away in triumph to be sacrificed to the god of war. In this fatal retreat, which is yet distinguished in New Spain by the name of *Noche Triste*, or the night of sorrow, not less than half of the Spaniards, with above 2000 *tlascalans*, were killed: many officers of distinction also perished, among whom was *Velasquez de Leon*; considered as the second person in the army, and in daring courage not inferior to Cortez himself. All the artillery, ammunition, and baggage, were lost; and this tremendous night was a scene of complicated disasters.\* The whole empire was now in arms; and Cortez, having reviewed his shattered battalions, continued his retreat towards *Hascala*, the only place where he could hope for a friendly reception. He met with no opposition till he reached the valley of *Otumba*, where the whole force of the Mexicans was concentrated. When the Spaniards had reached the summit of an eminence, they saw the spacious valley through which they were obliged to pass, covered with an army that extended as far as

\* Robertson's *Hist. of Amer.* vol. 2, p. 95.

the eye could reach, and appeared to be innumerable. At the sight of this immense multitude, the Spaniards were astonished, and even the boldest were inclined to despair. But Cortez, without allowing time for their fears to gain strength from reflection, briefly reminded them that no alternative remained but to conquer or die, and instantly led them to the charge. The Mexicans waited their approach with inflexible firmness; and notwithstanding the superiority of European discipline and arms, the Spaniards, though successful in every attack, were ready to sink under the repeated efforts of innumerable multitudes. But Cortez observing the great standard of the empire, which was carried before the Mexican general, and recollecting to have heard that on its fate the issue of every battle depended, put himself at the head of a few of his bravest officers, and pushed forward with an impetuosity that bore down all before it to the place where he saw it displayed. Cortez having brought the Mexican general to the ground with a stroke of his lance, the select body of guards was broken, and the imperial standard was taken. The moment that the standard disappeared, the Mexicans were struck with an universal panic, and fled with precipitation to the mountains. The Spaniards, unable to pursue them, collected the spoils of the field, which were of such value, as to be some compensation for the wealth which they had lost in retreating out of Mexico.

The day after the battle of Otumba, the Spaniards reached the territories of the Tlaxcalans, their allies, who being implacable enemies of the Mexican name, continued faithful to Cortez in this reverse of his fortune. Here he had an interval of rest and tranquillity.

ly, that was extremely necessary for curing the wounded, and for recruiting the strength of his soldiers, exhausted by a long series of hardships and fatigues. During this suspension of military operations, Cortez recruited his battalions with 100 adventurers newly arrived from Spain and the islands, and obtained possession of some artillery and ammunition, which had been sent by Velasquez for the use of the army of Narvaez, and had been seized by the officer, whom Cortez had left in command at Vera Cruz. The Spanish general having received these reinforcements, resolved to recommence the war, and attempt the reduction of Mexico. But as he knew this to be impracticable, unless he could secure the command of the lake, he gave orders to prepare in the mountains of Ixtacala materials for constructing twelve brigantines,\* which were to be carried thither in pieces, ready to be put together and launched when their service should be found necessary. This work, however, went on slowly, and was performed with great difficulty by the soldiers, among whom were only three or four carpenters.

On the 28th of December, 1520, Cortez began his second march towards Mexico, at the head of 550 Spanish foot, and 40 horse, with 10,000 flascadans, and a train of nine field pieces. The Mexicans, however, were not unprepared for his reception. On the death of Montezuma, their nobility, in whom the right of electing the emperor appears to have been vested, had raised his brother, Quetzlavaca, to the throne. This prince had displayed his courage and

\* Robertson's Hist. of America, 2d ed. vol. 2, p. 101. In another place, however, he states the number of brigantines at thirteen, ibid. 2, p. 112.

conduct in directing those attacks that obliged the Spaniards to retreat from his capital; and he took the most prudent and vigorous measures for preventing their return; but while he was arranging his plans of defence, with a degree of foresight uncommon in an American, he died of the small-pox, a disorder unknown in that quarter of the globe until it was introduced by the Europeans. In his stead the Mexicans elected Guatimozin, nephew and son-in-law of Montezuma, a young prince of distinguished reputation for abilities and valour. Cortez having advanced to Tezenco, a city situated near the lake of Mexico, and about twenty miles distant from that capital, was near seeing all his vast plans of conquest defeated by a dangerous conspiracy among his troops, many of whom, on a near view of the difficulties which they had to encounter in attacking a city of so difficult access as Mexico, had formed the design of assassinating him and his principal officers, and of conferring the command on some other who would relinquish his desperate projects. The conspiracy, however, being detected, and the mutinous spirit of the troops allayed by the consummate prudence and firmness of the general, the preparations for the attack of Mexico were carried on with unanimity and ardour. In the space of three months the materials for the construction of the brigantines were completed, and carried from the mountains of Ixcata to Tezenco, on the lake of Mexico, a distance of above sixty miles, by 10,000 men, escorted by 15,000 Mexican warriors, and 215 Spaniards. A great number of Indians also were employed during the space of two months in widening the rivulet which ran from Tezenco to the lake, and forming it into a navigable canal near two miles

miles in length. About the same time the army received a reinforcement of 400 Spanish soldiers, 80 horses, and two pieces of battering cannon, with a considerable supply of arms and ammunition, all which had been procured in Hispaniola by the agents of Cortez in that island.

The brigantines were now put together and launched, and every preparation was made for the siege. The Spaniards were already posted at Tezenco, and their first step was to take possession of Tacubo and Cuyocan, the cities which commanded the other two causeways. This they effected with little opposition, as the inhabitants had fled into Mexico, where the whole force of the nation was concentrated. The first effort of the Mexicans was to destroy the brigantines. But their numerous canoes were soon dispersed, and the Spaniards, after a great slaughter of the enemy, were left masters of the lake. The siege having continued a whole month, during which time, on land and on the water, one furious conflict had succeeded another, and many of the Spaniards being killed, more of them wounded, and all of them ready to sink under the pressure of unremitting fatigue, Cortez, in consideration of these circumstances, resolved to make a grand effort to obtain possession of the city.

In consequence of this resolution, a general attack was made by the three causeways. Cortez himself led the division which advanced by the causeway of Cuyocan, while the two others were commanded by Sandoval and Alvarado, two officers of distinguished bravery. The Spaniards pushed forward with an impetuosity that bore down all opposition, and incessantly gaining ground, forced their way over the canals and barricades into the city. Guatimozin now

seeing the Spaniards within his capital, and observing that they had neglected to fill up the great breach in the causeway of Cuyocan, although Cortez had stationed an officer there for that purpose, commanded his troops to slacken their efforts, and to suffer the Spaniards to advance into the heart of the city, while he dispatched bands of select warriors by different ways to intercept their retreat. On a signal given by the emperor, the priests at the principal temple struck the great drum consecrated to the god of war. No sooner did the Mexicans hear the awful solemn sound, calculated to inspire them with a contempt of death and an enthusiastic ardour, than they rushed on the enemy with frantic rage. The Spaniards were obliged to retire; and in the scene of confusion which ensued, six Mexican captains having seized on Cortez, were carrying him off, when two of his officers rescued him at the expense of their own lives, but not till after he had received several dangerous wounds. About 60 Spaniards perished in this second retreat out of Mexico; and what added to their misfortune, forty of these fell alive into the hands of an enemy that was never known to shew mercy to a captive. These unfortunate men were dragged in triumph to the temple, and sacrificed to the god of war.

After this dreadful disaster, Cortez changed his mode of attack, and instead of attempting to become master of the city at one single stroke, contented himself with making gradual approaches. The three divisions recommenced the attack, but proceeded with great circumspection. As the Spaniards advanced along the causeways, the Indian allies repaired the breaches behind them; and as soon as they got possession of any part of the city, the houses were immediately

diately levelled with the ground. Incredible numbers of the Mexicans fell in the conflicts that were every day renewed; and the survivors experienced all the horrors of famine, as their stores were exhausted by the multitudes that had flocked to the capital to defend their sovereign and the temples of their gods, and the Spaniards, with their allies, were masters of the lake, and of all the avenues that led to the city.

The Spaniards continuing their progress, all the three divisions of their army at last met in the great square in the centre of the city, where they made a secure lodgement. Three-fourths of Mexico were now laid in ruins; and the remaining quarter was so hard pressed, that it could not long resist the efforts of the assailants. At this juncture, Guatimozin was taken by the brigantines, on the lake in attempting to make his escape in a canoe. As soon as the capture of the emperor was known, the resistance of the Mexicans ceased, and Cortez took possession of the small part of the city that was not destroyed. Thus terminated the siege of Mexico, after having continued seventy-five days, scarcely one of which passed without some extraordinary effort of attack or defence. The Spaniards, as may be expected, were elated with joy, by the completion of their difficult conquest, and the expectation of sharing immense spoils. But in the latter respect they were miserably disappointed. Guatimozin foreseeing his impending fate, had caused all the riches amassed by his ancestors to be thrown into the lake, and instead of becoming masters of the treasures of Montezuma and the spoils of the temples, the conquerors could collect only a small booty amidst ruins of desolation. The Spaniards exclaimed loudly against their general, whom

they suspected of appropriating the greatest part of the spoils to his own use, as well as against Guatimozin, whom they accused of obstinately concealing his treasures. In order to allay this ferment, Cortez consented to a deed that sullied all the glory of his former actions. He suffered the royal captive, with his principal minister, to be put to the rack, in order to oblige him to discover the place where his riches were concealed. The unhappy monarch bore his sufferings with all the firmness of a hero; and when his minister uttered some complaint, he said, "Am I now reposing on a bed of roses." The favorite, stung with remorse, persevered in dutiful silence and expired. Cortez, ashamed of so horrid a scene, rescued the royal victim from the hands of his torturers. The unfortunate Guatimozin being sometime afterwards suspected of forming a scheme to throw off the Spanish yoke, was by Cortez condemned to be hanged, together with the Caziques of Tezeuco and Tacuba, two persons of the greatest eminence in the empire. The success of Cortez, and the splendour of his conquest, procured him from the emperor Charles V, the vice-royalty of Mexico, in spite of the claims of Velasquez, and the insinuations of his other enemies.

*Religion.*—The religion of the ancient Mexicans was the most horrid system of idolatry that ever existed in the world. Their worship appears to have been directed not to a benevolent, but a malignant deity, who delighted in destruction, and whom they endeavoured to appease by horrid rites and human sacrifices. Their principal deities were thirteen in number; but they also acknowledged a variety of local divinities, who presided over the mountains, the valleys, and other particular parts of nature, as well as

over



over the affairs of life; but Mexitli, the god of war, seems to have been the chief object of adoration. They had numerous idols rudely formed of stone, wood, or clay, and sometimes decorated with gems and gold. Their priests were numerous, and had an almost unlimited influence over the people. They wore a black cotton mantle resembling a veil; and there seems to have been an order of monks, as in the eastern countries of Asia. The principal part of the Mexican worship seems to have consisted in human sacrifices. Every captive taken in war was cruelly tortured and immolated on the altars of the Mexican gods. The head and the heart were the portions of those blood-thirsty divinities; while the rest of the body was assigned to the captors, who feasted on the flesh. The number of human victims immolated to the Mexican idols has been variously stated, and undoubtedly often exaggerated. When Herrera tells us that 5000, nay, even 20,000, had sometimes been sacrificed in one day, we find ourselves obliged to suspend our belief. Zúñiga, first bishop of Mexico, Gomara, and Torquemada, concur in stating the annual number of victims at 20,000; and the list of these writers represents them as consisting chiefly of children.\* Barthol. de las Casas, the avowed advocate of the Americans, on the contrary, reduces the number to 50 or 100. The account given by Barthol. Dias, however, appears the most probable. This author informs us, that from an enquiry set on foot by the Franciscan friars immediately after the conquest, the number of human victims annually sacrificed in Mexico appeared to be about 2500, a number suffi-

\* One of Cortes' officers is said to have counted 136,080 skulls.

cient to make humanity shudder.\* The idolatrous systems of the ancient Egyptians, the Greeks, the Romans, and the modern Oriental, must be considered as innocent superstitions in comparison of those horrid oblations. The Mexican religion was founded solely on fear, commanding rigid fasts, severe penances, voluntary wounds and tortures; and the temples were decorated with the figures of destructive animals. In fine, the whole apparatus of this barbarous religion was calculated to inspire terror. In no other part of the world does the human mind appear to have ever been so dreadfully disordered by terrific ideas.

*Government.*—The ancient government of Mexico was monarchical and hereditary in the royal family, although the succession was not strictly confined to lineal descent, as a brother or nephew of the deceased prince was sometimes preferred to his sons. There were several royal councils and classes of nobility, which were mostly hereditary; and despotism seems to have been first introduced by the celebrated Montezuma. Land, however, was not supposed to belong to the monarch, as in China, and some other Oriental countries, but was alienable by the proprietors. As writing was unknown, there was no code of laws; and all cases of litigation were determined by traditional rules and established customs.

*Military force.*—If the Mexican armies were so numerous as they have been represented by the Spaniards, it seems that the whole effective population, according to the general custom of remote antiquity, was, in cases

\* See Dr. Robertson's *Dissertation on this subject* in reference to his second volume of the *History of America*, where the Spanish writers are quoted and compared.

of emergency, brought into the field. Their arms and tactics, however, were extremely rude. Nothing can be said with any appearance of precision concerning the national revenue.

*Commerce, &c.*]—The Mexicans seem to have had scarcely any idea of commerce, and had no manufactures except those of the first necessity.

*Population.*]—From the relations of the Spanish writers, the population of Mexico, at the time of the conquest, would appear to have been immense. These accounts, however, were undoubtedly exaggerated, as it is commonly the case in respect of newly discovered countries. But in regard to the conquest of Mexico, and we might add, of Peru, particular sources of exaggeration existed. The Spanish conquerors exaggerated their own exploits, which certainly were extraordinary; and the Spanish authors amplified and embellished all their narrations. Every story relating to these new and singular countries was greedily swallowed in Spain, and soon gained implicit credit throughout Europe. Although no estimate can be made of the population of ancient Mexico, it was undoubtedly far less numerous than has been generally believed.

*Languages &c.*]—Grammars and dictionaries of the Mexican language have been published; and from these it appears to be radically different from the Peruvian, to which it is sweeter and elegance. The Mexican words frequently ended in *tl*, and like those of the North American savages, are of an extraordinary length, some of them consisting of no less than fifteen syllables. Their poetry consisted of hymns in honour of their deities, with some heroic and amatory songs; and they had also a rude species of drama.

*Polite*

*Polite arts, &c.*—In the arts of civilized life, the Mexicans were certainly far inferior to the Peruvians.\* They seem, indeed, not to have surpassed in this respect the inhabitants of some of the islands in the Pacific Ocean. Their symbolical paintings exhibited brilliant colours; but the designs were extremely rude. Their edifices were meanly built of turf and stone, and generally thatched with reeds. Even the great temple of Mexico was only a square mound of earth, partly faced with stone. Each of its sides was ninety feet; and on the top was a quadrangle of thirty feet, on which was the shrine of the Deity. The very ruins of the Mexican buildings have perished, while the solid structures of the Peruvians yet remain.

*Manners.*—The manners of the ancient Mexicans have been so often and so minutely described, that nothing more is here necessary than to sketch some particular features. They cultivated maize, and various kinds of vegetables; but their agriculture was rude. Their dress was a loose cloak, and a sash girt round the naked waist. Their wars were constant and sanguinary, a circumstance which concurred with their religion in tincturing their manners with ferocity, as their principal warriors used to dance through the streets covered with the skins of the sacrificed captives. The dedication of their temples was solemnized by numerous human sacrifices. Clavigero, if credit may be given to his history, says, that 12,210 human victims were sacrificed at the consecration of two of their temples.† On the death of a chief, a great number of his attendants were immolated. In

\* Robertson's Hist. of America, vol. 3, p. 219.

† History of Mexico, vol. 1, p. 252.

line, superstition and cruelty were the predominant features in the Mexican character.

## NEW MEXICO.

THIS extensive territory, which the Spaniards did not begin to explore till after the middle of the sixteenth century, is yet in a great measure unknown, and its northern boundaries are yet undetermined. It is almost superfluous to add, that the little knowledge which Europeans have obtained of this country, must confine within a narrow compass the limits of description. From the best maps, it seems to be pervaded by mountainous ridges, continued with some interruptions from the Mexican isthmus, and joining the stony mountains, which probably extend to the Arctic Ocean. Several considerable rivers pervade this extensive region, of which some discharge themselves into the Gulph of Mexico, and others into that of California. The largest of these rivers is the Rio Bravo, which discharges itself into the Gulph of Mexico nearly in the latitude of twenty-six degrees north; but its sources and its course, which appears to be scarcely less than 1200 miles, have not been ascertained. The Spaniards did not completely subdue this country till 1771, after a war of six years with the savages. During their marches, they discovered at Cineguilla, in the province of Sonora, that singular plain of forty-two miles in extent, in which vast quantities of pure gold are found in large lumps at the depth of only about sixteen inches. Before the end of the year 1771, above 2000 persons, attracted by this brilliant prospect of wealth, were settled at  
Cineguilla,

Cineguilla, which must, in all probability, become an opulent and populous colony. Other rich mines have since been found in the provinces of Sonora and Chinoala; and the mineralogy of this newly-acquired territory promises to equal, if not to exceed in importance, that of Mexico and Peru. The soil, climate, and other particulars of this interesting region, have not been illustrated by scientific observations, and can only be inferred from the actual state of geographical position. The extensive peninsula of California, which may be considered as an appendage to New-Mexico, was discovered by Cortez in 1542, but amidst the vast extent of acquisition it was afterwards neglected, and long regarded as an island. It was at length explored by the Jesuits, who acquired as complete a dominion here as in Paraguay. On their expulsion in 1766, it was found to contain some mines, with a valuable pearl-fishery on the coast. The soil is said to be extremely fertile, and the climate mild, but foggy.\* Of this country, as well as of New-Mexico, there is little minute and authentic information.

### MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

THE religion, government, laws, army, navy, revenues, commerce, &c. of Mexico being at present identified with those of Spain and Spanish America in general, and composing only one component of a vast picture, I shall restrict my remarks to a few comparative particulars. After completing the view of the whole Spanish empire in South, as well as North America, it will be requisite to make some general

observations on the political and moral state of this immense territory. In regard to the religion of Mexico, no particular remark can be made, except that the clergy are more numerous and rich, and the churches and monasteries more magnificent than in the other provinces. The government is vested in a viceroy, who is changed every three years. The vice-royalty of Mexico is the office of the greatest power and trust that the crown of Spain has at its disposal, and probably the most lucrative employ that is held by any subject in the world. Mexico is indeed the centre of the Spanish power in America. Being nearer to Europe and the West-Indies, it is more exposed to the attacks of an enemy than Peru; but as it is closely conjoined between the two seas, conspiracy and rebellion may be here more readily quelled than in South America, where the immense extent of territory affords ample means of retreat and security. It is therefore not very probable that Mexico, although the most powerful and populous of all the Spanish colonies, will be the first to shake off the European yoke, and assume independence. The jealousy of Spain in regard to her colonies, renders it difficult, or even impossible, to acquire any just ideas concerning the forces maintained in the different stations; but from the position and importance of the country, it is reasonable to suppose that the military establishment of Mexico is more considerable than that of any of the other provinces. In regard to commerce, Mexico, from its central situation in respect of South America, the Philippine islands, and Europe, possesses great advantages, and is undoubtedly the most opulent of all the Spanish provinces. From Dr. Robertson's statement, it may be inferred that Mexico yields a revenue

revenue of about 1,000,000*l.* sterling to the crown of Spain; but great deductions must be made for the public expences. According to the recent travels of Helms, Mexico is far more populous than Peru, and considered in every point of view, is the most important portion of the Spanish empire in America.

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## SOUTH AMERICA.

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### GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

THE southern division of the new continent extends, as already observed, from about 12° north, to 54° south latitude; and from about 84° 30' to about 80° west longitude. Its greatest length from north to south may therefore be computed at 3960, and its greatest breadth at 2880 geographical miles. The same geographical obscurity attends this as the northern division of this vast continent. Many parts of the interior yet remain unexplored; and it is only at a very recent period that any tolerable map of South America has been given to the public. This division of America is distinguished by the largest rivers and the highest mountains on the face of the globe. The principal river is that of Amazona, so called from a female tribe inured to arms, said to have been discovered on its banks by the first navigators, although the whole story has probably originated in fiction, or at least in mistake. The native term by which it is designated is the Marañon; and by this it ought to be called, rather than by the ridiculous appellation imposed by ignorance. This is distinguished by geographers as the largest river in the world; and the estimate is undoubtedly just, when breadth as well as length is considered. Its source is not yet exactly ascertained, as two large rivers, the Marañon and the Ucaial, join in composing this vast body of water. Of these, the Marañon seems to make

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the greatest circuit; but the Ucayal appears to be the principal stream, and its sources are more remote.\* The Marañon issues from the lake of Lambrocha, near the city of Guamaco, in the parallel of 11° south.† The whole length of its course, before it falls into the Atlantic, is computed at about 3500 miles. The Apurimac, the remotest branch of the Ucayal, is represented as rising near the town of Arequipa, on the west of the lake of Titicaca, in 16° 30' south latitude. The course of the Ucayal lies through the unexplored forests of a remote region, and is consequently unknown to geography. The Marañon is better known, and has been repeatedly described. It was navigated by Condamine from near the town of Jaen, its remotest navigable extent. Proceeding north-east, it passes through the Andes at a place called Pongo, which displays a sublime and magnificent scenery: the river, which is there contracted from 300 to 50 yards in breadth, being confined within two parallel walls of almost perpendicular rock. The Apurimac also bursts through the Andes; but its passage, which must also exhibit striking scenes, yet remains unexplored. After the junction of the two great rivers, the Ucayal and Marañon, their united stream receives from the north and the south many other large rivers, which being likewise composed of a number of inferior streams, water a vast tract of country. The breadth of the Marañon at the Portuguese boundary is about a league, and it is said not less than two miles. The depth is in many places more than 100 fathoms; and the swell of the tide is perceptible at the distance of 700 miles from the sea.

\* Condamine *Périsie* voyage, p. 13.

† *Ucayal Voyage*, vol. 1, p. 57. Translation from the

The Río de la Plata is, in magnitude and extent of course, the second river in South America. It is formed of the conjoint waters of the Paraguay, the Paraná, the Elisecomayo, and the Cracuy, the two former of which are the principal streams. The Paraná, which rises in the mountains of Brazil in latitude 17° south, appears to be the most considerable river, although the Paraguay seems little inferior. The Río de la Plata is interspersed with numerous islands. The breadth of the estuary is such, that land cannot be discovered on either side from a ship in the middle of the stream; and vessels ascend as high as the town of Assumption, at the distance of near 1200 miles from the sea.

The third great river of South America is the Orinoko, which, according to La Cruz, rises in latitude 5° 10' north. Its course is exceedingly tortuous, and it receives many large rivers. One striking peculiarity is observable in regard to the Magdon, or river of Amazons, and the Orinoko. The streams issuing from the lake of Parima form three different communications between those immense rivers, and that lake may be regarded as the centre of this singular connection. It is easy to conceive what great advantages those countries may, at some future period, derive from this remarkable inland navigation, which nature has prepared, and art may exceedingly improve.

The mountains of South America may be ranked among the grandest objects of nature. They are the loftiest on the face of the globe, and are intermixed with the most sublime and terrific volcanoes. The immense chain of the Andes extends from the southern almost to the northern extremity of this continent, at the medial distance of about 100 miles from the

western coast, beginning near the Strait of Magellan, and expiring on the west side of the Gulph of Darien, the whole length, allowing for the windings, being not less than 4500 miles. The highest summits are those of Peru, near the equator: towards the north and the south, but especially the latter, their height greatly decreases. About two degrees north of the equator, it diminishes nearly one-fourth: and the Andes of Peru are asserted to be near seven times as high as those of Chili.\* Chimborazo, the most elevated summit of the Andes, is about 100 English miles to the south of Quito, in the northern division of Peru. Its height was computed by the French mathematicians to be 20,260 feet above the level of the sea. The next in elevation is supposed to be Cotopashi, a tremendous volcano, which is said to eject stones of eight or nine feet diameter, to the distance of more than nine miles, a circumstance which would be absolutely incredible, were it not attested by so respectable an authority.† The height of Cotopashi is estimated at about 18,600 feet. It is situated about twenty-five miles to the south-east of Quito. The mountain of Sanguay, the summit of which is covered with perpetual snow, is a constant volcano; and its explosions are sometimes so tremendous, as to be heard at the distance of 120 miles.‡ Many other summits of prodigious elevation, noticed by Bouguer, Ulloa, and others, might be added to those already mentioned. It ought, however, here to be observed, that the loftiest mountains of the Andes rise from the elevated plain of Quito, which constitutes more than one-third of the computed height.

\* Ulloa, Mem. vol. 1, p. 562.

† Bouguer, p. 66.

‡ Ulloa, l. c. c. 7.

Chimborazo being, as already observed, 20,289 feet above the sea, is therefore about a fourth part higher than Mont Blanc; but if its elevation be computed from the level of the plain, it is considerably lower than that celebrated mountain of the old continent. Besides the Andes, the chief of the South American mountains, there are, according to Humboldt, three remarkable ranges lying in a direction from west to east, nearly parallel to the equator; the first between  $0^{\circ}$  and  $10^{\circ}$ ; the second between  $5^{\circ}$  and  $7^{\circ}$  north latitude; and the third between  $15^{\circ}$  and  $20^{\circ}$  south. This author's account, however, is extremely confused; and of these chains, only the first and its projecting branches can be said to be sufficiently known to merit a place in geography. These northern mountains extend in different branches from the Andes eastward into the province of St. Martha. The two Sierra Nevadas of St. Martha and Merida, are supposed to be about 13,000 or 14,000 English feet above the level of the sea. Ulloa says, that the mountains of St. Martha are visible from the ocean, and perpetually covered with snow.\* In Terra Firma, Brazil, and some other parts of this vast continent, are several ranges of mountains, which are little known, and do not indeed appear very considerable. The whole interior of South America, comprizing the vast countries watered by the Rio de la Plata, the river of Amazons, the Orinoco, and all their tributary streams, is an immense plain, of which many extensive districts are annually inundated by their redundant waters.

The most considerable lake yet known on this division of the new continent, is that of Titicaca, in

\* Ulloa, *iv.* 6, ch. 7.

J. Id. *iv.* 1, ch. 1.

Peru, which is of an oval figure, and about 240 miles in circuit. There are, however, many temporary lakes of great extent which exist only during the annual inundations of the great rivers, that deluge large tracts of country.

One of the chief characteristics which distinguish America from the old continent, is the superior degree of cold that reigns in the same parts. This is still more striking in the southern division. It has already been observed, that Canada, in the temperate latitudes of France, has a climate as rigorous as that of Russia; and it may here be also remarked, that the island, or rather collection of islands, known by the name of Terra del Fuoco, in the latitude of 55° south, is exposed to the almost perpetual winter of Greenland. This predominancy of cold in the new above what is perceived in the old continent, may be accounted for in a great measure by the superabundance of wood, and the want of cultivation and drainage; but the superior cold of the southern to that of the northern hemisphere, is a phenomenon, which, though long remarked and made the subject of many ingenious hypotheses, has not yet been satisfactorily explained. Except the French and Dutch settlements of Cayenne and Surinam, the latter of which is now in the hands of the English, and the countries yet unconquered and unknown, the whole of this vast continent, so far as the richness of its mineralogy, is subject to Spain and Portugal.

# SPANISH DOMINIONS,

## SOUTH AMERICA

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### CHAP. I.

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Location—Extent—Boundaries—Face of the Country—Mountains—Rivers—Coasts—Lakes—Minerality—Mineral Waters—Soil—Climate—Vegetable Productions—Zoology—Natural Curiosities—Antiquities and Artificial Curiosities.

THE Spanish Empire in South America extends, according to their own geographers, the whole length of that continent; but in a more restricted sense, its actual boundary may be fixed at the 34th degree of south latitude. In this view its length may be computed at 5200 geographical, or about 5900 English miles, on a medial breadth of at least 900 of the former, or about 1000 of the latter measure. The boundaries, except on the coasts, are doubtful: between the Spanish possessions and those of the Dutch and Portuguese, they are sometimes ascertained by rivers or ranges of mountains, but often consist only of an ideal line; and towards the unconquered countries, the frontier can be fixed only at the point to which the Spaniards may think it proper to extend their settlements.

*Face of the country.*—The face of the country has in a great measure been delineated in the preceding general description of the South American continent.

It may here, however, not be amiss to exhibit a general sketch of the Spanish possessions, proceeding from the northern to the southern provinces. Terra Firma, comprizing the greatest part of the isthmus of Darien, extends from twelve degrees north latitude to the equator. This country is extremely mountainous and rugged.\* The Sierra Nevadas of St. Martha and Merida have already been mentioned. The mountainous tracts, however, are interspersed with extensive plains of extraordinary fertility, but subject to inundations in the season of the tropical rains. Peru, stretching along the coast of the Pacific Ocean from the equator to twenty-five degrees south latitude, an extent of 1500 geographical, or about 1740 British miles, consists for the most part of an elevated plain, presenting a high bold coast, in many parts sandy towards the sea, afterwards rising into swelling eminences, succeeded by more considerable elevations, which terminate in the stupendous ridges of the Andes. It may here be observed, that the Andes, in their most elevated part, from the north of Popayan, in the province of Terra Firma, to the south of Cuzco, in Peru, an extent of about 500 miles, form a double chain, having between them the high plains of Quito. In the eastern ridge are Sanga, the volcano of Cotopaxi, &c. The western ridge is crowned with the lofty summits of Inimisa, Picbincha, and Chimborazo. On Chimborazo the region of perpetual snow commences at about 2400 feet from the summit. Chili, to

\* Ulloa, liv. 4. ch. 1. &c. Dequier says, that he has seen the snowy mountains of St. Martha in 12° latitude, at the distance of thirty leagues at sea. He thinks them higher than the peak of Teneriffe. DeMeade's Voy. vol. 1. ch. 3.

† Bouquet, p. 52.



the south of Peru, presents nearly a similar aspect, except that the Andes are, as already observed, much lower, and, according to Ulloa's representation, diminish to the height of Snowden in Wales, and some other of the British mountains.\* In Chili, as well as in Peru, the chain of the Andes runs at about the medial distance of 100 miles from the coast. Chili, extending from the extremity of Peru, in 25° to 44° south latitude, is the southernmost of the Spanish provinces. The vast country of Paraguay, extending from 12° to 37° south latitude, and from 50° to 76° west longitude, supposed to contain about 1,000,000 square miles, is an immense plain, so uniformly level, as not to be interrupted by the least eminence for several hundreds of miles every way; and in many parts exposed to annual inundations from the Parana, the Paraguay, and their tributary rivers. This immense level is of an extraordinary fertility; but, contrary to the general nature of America, it is almost destitute of wood; except a few scattered palms, &c. and presents only an uniform expanse of vast savannas, covered with the most luxuriant meadows and pasturage. The principal mountains and rivers have already been noticed; and the bounds of this work will not admit of a minute delineation of inferior objects.

*Mineralogy.*—The mineralogy of the Spanish dominions in South America is universally celebrated as the richest in the world; and all particulars considered, is superior not only to that of Brazil, but also naturally to that of Mexico.† The South American possessions of Spain are chiefly famed for silver; but

\* Ulloa's *M. N.* p. 368. It is however, thought by some, that Ulloa exaggerates too much the height of the mountains of Chili.

† *Reich's Journal Trav. Francoise*, p. 258.

in many districts gold also abounds. A professed and practical mineralogist thinks, that if Peru were equally populous, equally near to Europe, and in possession of equal commercial advantages with Mexico, there might be obtained from that country a four times greater quantity of gold and silver than Mexico at present affords.\* Many parts of Terra Firma, especially in the districts of Darien and Popayan, abound in the finest gold. But the mines of Darien were lost by a revolt of the natives. Chili also has several mines of that metal.† The celebrated mountain of Potosi, in Peru, has been long considered as an inexhaustible source of silver. This mountain, which rises in a conical form, is about twenty English miles in diameter across. It is perforated by more than 300 shafts, and its surface presents neither trees nor herbage, all vegetation being blasted by the numerous furnaces. This celebrated mine was accidentally discovered in 1545, by a Peruvian, named Huelga, who, in pursuing a Chanion, pulled up a beam on the side of the mountain, when, to his astonishment, the breach made in the surface had open this immense vein of silver, the richest that the world has ever yet afforded. The provinces of Chili and Buenos Ayres have mines of silver as well as of gold. Helms enumerates in the vice-royalty of Buenos Ayres, thirty mines of gold, twenty-seven of silver, seven of copper, seven of lead, and two of tin. It may here be observed, that silver mines are in general far more productive than those of gold. The former metal is in many places found in considerable masses, while the latter seems sparingly scattered by the hand of nature. With the single exception of the noted plain of Chicoma, in Terra Aus-

\* Ulloa, liv. 3. ch. 5.

† Ibid. liv. 4. ch. 1.

rica, there has hitherto been no instance of a gold mine eminently rich. None such has ever been found, that in regard to its value could bear any comparison with the celebrated silver mine of Potosi. The valuable mine of quicksilver a little to the south-east of Lima, was discovered in 1507, and is now said to be so spacious, as to contain streets and chapels, in which mass is celebrated.\* In possessing a mine of this mineral, indispensable in the process of amalgamating gold and silver, Peru has a great advantage over Mexico, which is supplied with quicksilver from Spain. Platina, a singular species of metal, valued by some above gold, is found in the mines of New Granada; and un in those of Chyanza and Paria. Several parts of South America produce lead and copper; but the colonies are chiefly supplied with the latter from the mines of Cuba. Those countries also produce a variety of useful and curious fossils and minerals, as the inca stone, and the gallinazo, both used as looking-glasses, sulphur, bitumen, vitriol, and copperas. There are also some precious stones, especially emeralds, which are esteemed the best in the world since the emerald mines of Egypt have been neglected and lost. The chief modern mines of Peruvian emeralds, are near Bogota; but there are others of a superior kind in a mountain situated in the midst of thick forests, about five miles from the sea, on the south side of the river of Emeralds, which rises in the Andes, and passing to the north of Quito, falls into the Pacific Ocean †

Soil J.—A minute examination of the soil of regions so extensive, even if the necessary documents

\* For an account of this mine, see Ulloa's Voy. liv. 7, ch. 12.

† Bouguer, p. 13.

could

could be found, would lead to an endless prolixity. It suffices here to say, that in the mountainous parts, and in some sandy plains, it is barren; in the level country and the vallies, it is generally fertile, and the vegetation luxuriant.

*Climate*.—In all extensive countries, the climate, however various, is less minutely diversified than the soil, and consequently requires a less prolix description. Terra Firma, especially in the northern division, is excessively hot. The greatest heat ever felt at Paris is said to be continual at Carthagena. The summer, or dry season, extends from the beginning of December to the end of April. The rest of the year is the rainy season, or winter. During this long period of six months, the rains descend in such abundance, as seems to threaten a general deluge. All the level parts of the country are in consequence almost continually flooded; and the combination of heat and moisture impregnates the air with so great a quantity of mephitic vapour, as to render the climate in most places, but especially about Popayan and Porto Bello, extremely unwholesome.

The climate of Peru is exceedingly various, and distinguished by some remarkable characteristics. The high ridges of the Andes, covered with eternal snows, constitute the dreary reign of perpetual winter. In the lower mountainous tracts, on the western side of this immense chain, the dry season from May to November, is often extremely cold, and the rest of the year is rainy. At Quito, which is situated on a plain of remarkable elevation, between two ridges of the Andes, the rains are almost continual from September to May, and also frequent during the rest of the year, which constitutes the summer. The plains of Peru, which

between the upland country and the Pacific Ocean, are totally exempt from rains, and receive no other moisture than that which descends in copious dews. From the bay of Guyaquil, to the deserts of Atacama, a space 1200 miles in length, and from 60 to 90 in breadth, no rain ever falls: thunder and storms are also unknown.\* Peru, though situated in the torrid zone, enjoys a temperate and salubrious climate, greatly different from that of other tropical countries. The peculiar characteristics of the Peruvian climate, to the distance of about sixty or eighty miles from the coast, are, that it never rains, and the sun seldom shines.

The climate of Chili in a great measure resembles that of Peru, dryness being one of its chief characteristics. Chili, however, is considerably colder than Peru; and the climate is in general extremely pleasant and healthful. The extensive province of Paraguanay, although uniformly level, and exposed to annual inundations, being destitute of woods, is said to enjoy a serene atmosphere and healthful climate. From the salubrity of the air, the town of Buenos Ayres derives its name; and the waters of the Rio de la Plata, on which it is situated, are said to be equally pure and wholesome.

*Vegetable productions.*]—The vast extent of the Spanish territories in South America may naturally be supposed to display the productions of various climates. From the isthmus of Darien, in 12° north, to the southernmost extremity of Chili, in 44° south latitude, all the vegetable products of the tropical regions and of the temperate zones, would undoubt-

\* Bouguer, p. 25.

edly prosper under the fostering hand of agriculture. But the mines have attracted the principal attention of the colonists, who have paid little regard to the cultivation of a soil in many parts luxuriantly productive. The coasts of Terra Firma are generally a barren sand; but many parts of the inland country display the most luxuriant vegetation. The perpetual verdure of the woods, and the exuberant crops of grass on the plains, form a rich contrast with the towering height of the mountains. Among the most remarkable of the trees are the cacao, the balsam, and the cedar; the last of these often acquire an extraordinary size. One of the most remarkable and interesting productions of Peru, is the cinchona, or quinine-tree, from which that valuable drug, the Peruvian bark, is procured. No less than twenty-four species of pepper, and five or six of capsicums, are reckoned among the native productions of that country. The provinces on the Rio de la Plata are remarkable for the luxuriant pasturage that covers their extensive plains.

*Zoology.*—The most distinguishing and important circumstance in the zoology of South America, is the amazing number of horses and horned cattle in several parts of the Spanish territories, but especially in the provinces adjacent to the Paraguay, the Parana, and the Rio de la Plata. It is well known that neither horses nor horned cattle existed in any part of the new continent previous to its discovery by the Spaniards; and the surprising herds with which the country is now overpread, have multiplied from a few that were carried over and formed those by the first settlers. They are not so numerous that they are hunted for the sake of their hides. Mules being indispensably necessary in the mountainous provinces,

etc.

are bred in great numbers in the plains of Paraguay, from whence about 80,000 are said to be annually sent to Peru. Flocks of European sheep also are not unknown. Dogs, which like the other domestic animals of the old continent, were originally unknown in America, having been introduced by the Spaniards, have multiplied in the same manner as the horses and cattle, and now rove about the country. The wild animals of South America are both numerous and of various kinds: but the zoology, as well as the botany of those regions, is very imperfectly known; and some late discoveries seem to confute the theory of the celebrated Buffon concerning the universal inferiority of the American animals, when compared with those of the old continent. The tygers of Paraguay exceed those of Africa in size and strength, and seem to equal them at least in ferocity.\* The lama and the vicuña have been described by numerous travellers and naturalists. Among the volatiles, the most remarkable is the condor, which seems to be a species of vulture. This is described as the largest and most ferocious of the feathered race. It is regarded as peculiar to South America, and seems to be the most common in Peru.

*Natural curiosities.*—The natural curiosities are numerous and grand. The towering Andes, with their terrific volcanos, may be ranked among the most sublime features of nature. The cataract of Bogota, in New Granada, is said to have a perpendicular fall of more than 400 yards, which, if true, surpasses every thing of the kind yet known in any other part of the world. The interior of South America is yet very little known. Whenever it shall be more completely

\* DeCuvilliers, vol. 1, p. 216.—Ulloa, vol. 1, p. 206.—Trad. Française.

† Bouguer, p. 91.

explored,

explored, its mountainous tracts will be found variegated with numerous scenes of sublimity, yet lost to scientific observation. Like the rest of the new continent, however, the countries now under consideration can boast no remains of antiquity. Few monuments of Peruvian art now exist to attest the former civilization and ingenuity of that people.

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 CHAP. II.
 

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Principal cities and towns—Islands—Islands.

THE capitals of the three vice-royalties, or grand divisions, are, Lima, Buenos Ayres, and Santa Fe de Bogota. Of these, however, Lima is deservedly esteemed the chief, and generally considered as the metropolis of the whole Spanish empire in South America. This city is situated about six miles from the sea, in the middle of a spacious and fertile plain, on the small river Rimac, which affords to the inhabitants a plentiful supply of water; but does not answer any purpose of navigation. The city is built on a regular plan, in the form of a parallelogram, extending about two miles in length, and one mile and a quarter in breadth. The streets are in general straight, but the houses are slightly built, as the equality of the climate, and the want of rain, render substantial buildings unnecessary; and the tremendous earthquakes which frequently happen, have proved them to be unsafe. Lima, however, contains several stately structures, especially churches and monasteries. The number of convents in this city is stated at not less than forty.\* The churches are richly adorned with a profusion of gold and silver; and every thing displays the appearance of splendor and opulence. The commerce of Lima is extensive, and the merchants are

\* Oron's Voy. vol. 1, p. 259.

rich. The population is computed at about 54,000.\* Callao, on a bay of the sea, at the distance of little more than six miles from the city, is the port for Lima.

Of Santa Fe de Bogota, the capital of the viceroyalty of New Granada, very little is known, except that it stands on a river of the same name, which falls into the Magdalena, and is a place of considerable wealth and population.

Next to these capitals of the viceroalties, the chief cities are Potosi, Quito, and Cuzco, in Peru. Potosi is grown rich and populous, through its neighbourhood to the mines, to which indeed it owes its origin. According to a late writer who had a good opportunity of being acquainted with the subject, this is the largest and most populous town in all South America, as he estimates the number of inhabitants at 100,000, a number far exceeding the population of Lima.† Quito is in this respect little inferior to Lima, being supposed to contain about 50,000 inhabitants. Being an inland city, and without any mines in its neighbourhood, its chief trade consists in its manufactures of various coarse articles of linen, cotton, and woollen, with which it supplies the home consumption of a great part of Peru. Cuzco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian monarchy, is in extent nearly equal to Lima; and its population is also considerable.‡

The other principal cities, which may be considered as those of the third rank in the Spanish South American dominions, are Cartagena, which has an excel-

\* Dr. Robertson's Hist. of America, vol. 2, p. 47, and 71.

† Helms, p. 721. But Dr. Kuhn only states the population of Potosi at 25,000 in 1763. Helms, however, had certainly taken notice of something to itself on the subject.

‡ Ibid. p. 314.—Vizcarra, liv. 7, cap. 12.

lent harbour, strong fortifications, a flourishing trade, and about 25,000 inhabitants. Cuenca has a population of about 20,000. Cayaqui and Riobamba about 18,000 each.\* St. Jago de Chili is also a pleasant and elegant town of considerable extent and population.† Panama was the point of commercial communication between the northern and southern colonies, and consequently between Peru and Spain; but this place, as well as Porto Bello, on the opposite side of the isthmus, will probably lose all its importance through the establishment of a free trade between the mother country and the colonies, and the discontinuance of the annual fairs. Those countries do not appear to contain any remarkable edifices except such as are in the principal cities. Spain, as already observed, displays but few villas: it cannot therefore be expected that many should be found in the colonies.

[*Islands.*]—Most of the islands of any importance contiguous to the coast of South America, are claimed by Spain; but none of them are very considerable, and most of them are neglected. In a brief enumeration, beginning with those in the Pacific Ocean, it will suffice to mention the most considerable, and those that are the best known. The principal is that of Chiloe, in the bay of Chonos, being about 140 English miles in length, by about 20 in breadth.‡ In the Gulf of the Holy Trinity, is the island of St. Martin, on which are some Spanish settlements of little importance. The pleasant and healthful island

\* The three last are in Peru.

† For a good description of St. Jago de Chili, see Com. Byron's Narrative.

‡ The island of Chiloe is celebrated in Commodore Boscawen's Narrative as the first Spanish settlement that he and his companions reached after their landing on the western side of South America.

of Juan Fernandez appears to be uninhabited: but it is famous for being some years the solitary abode of Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, who was wrecked on its coast, and whose singular adventure served, in the hands of Daniel De Foe, as the basis of the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It is celebrated in the voyage of Lord Anson, who found it an excellent place of refreshment for his men when suffering extremely from the scurvy.\* Terra del Fuego, at the southern extremity of the South American continent, is generally considered as one island, but is in reality an assemblage of no fewer than eleven, separated by narrow straits.† The rigour of the climate has already been noticed. This miserable region is entirely left to the natives, who are of a middle stature, with broad flat faces, and use for clothing the skins of seals. Fish, especially shell-fish, appear to be their only food; and they live in villages, consisting of miserable huts of a conical form. To the north-east of Terra del Fuego, and nearly opposite to the strait of Magellan, are Falkland Islands, in 52° south latitude. These islands had been discovered by Sir Richard Hakluyt so early as the year 1592. Being of little value, however, they were long neglected. But in 1774, Captain James Byron was sent to take possession of them in virtue of the British claim, and a small settlement was formed at a place called Port Egmont, of which the English were in 1770 dispossessed by the Spaniards; and the islands were when annexed to Spain.

To the south-east of Falkland Islands is another

\* See the description of the charming island, and the noble island of Selkirk, in the daily news, according to the Voyage.

† See the description by Cook.

island of considerable extent, discovered in 1675 by La Roche; and in 1775 named Georgia by Captain Cook. It may be described in a few words, by calling it the land of ice and snow. The shores, however, are frequented by penguins and seals; and the lark is not uncommon. Further to the south-east are other islands still more dreary, being the throne of perpetual winter. Of the few islands on the eastern coast of South America, that of Trinidad may be reckoned the chief. The next are those of Saremberg and Paraguando Noronha. On the northern shore, the most celebrated is the French island of Cayenne.

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*CHAP. III.*

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Historical View of South America, particularly of Peru.

THE discovery of the South American continent by Columbus in his third voyage has already been mentioned, as well as that of the South Sea, or Pacific Ocean, by Vasco Nunez de Balboa in 1513. The progress of discovery and colonization was rapid; but the conquests of Mexico and Peru were the most striking events in the history of the new world previous to the establishment of the Anglo-American empire, or republic of the United States. According to the tradition of the Peruvians, their monarchy had existed during the reigns of eleven successive sovereigns previous to the time of the Spanish invasion; and the twelfth was then on the throne. They do not appear to have had any regular chronology; but from the common calculations of reigns, their empire could scarcely have lasted more than three centuries. Their traditional history is briefly as follows: Peru was originally possessed by numerous savage tribes, strangers to every species of cultivation and industry. From time immemorial, they had struggled with all the necessities of this kind of life, without any prospect of amelioration, or any effort towards improvement. At last there appeared on the banks of the lake Titicaca, a man and a woman of a majestic appearance, and clothed in decent garments, such as

were

were unknown to the savage Peruvians. These two extraordinary personages declared themselves to be the children of the Sun, sent by their beneficent parent to instruct and civilize the human race. Their exhortations being enforced by reverence for the Divinity, in whose name they were supposed to speak, several of the savage tribes united themselves together under their direction; and receiving their commands as celestial injunctions, followed them to Cusco, and laid the foundation of that city.

Mango Capac and his wife, whom the Peruvians call *Mamma Qoclla*, first instructed these savages in agriculture and the other arts, the most necessary to the comfortable existence of the human species. In the next place they instituted such a system of government and laws, as might secure their own authority and the happiness of their subjects. The Peruvian empire was at first of a small extent: its territory did not reach above eight leagues from Cusco. It was more extensive, however, than that of Rome under the first of her kings; and within its narrow precincts Mango Capac exercised an absolute and uncontrolled authority. Many of the neighbouring tribes submitted to his government and to that of his successors: others were reduced by force; and the empire of the Incas was in this manner gradually enlarged. Huano Capac, the twelfth in succession from the founder of the state, reduced the province of Quito, and by that important conquest almost doubled the extent of the Peruvian dominions.

Amidst the obscurity of this traditional account, it is easy to perceive that Mango Capac was one of those extraordinary men, whose superior genius enables them to gain an ascendancy over others, to civilize

lize barbarous tribes, and by the foundation of empires. The worship of the sun, the most conspicuous and the most glorious object in the whole system of nature, was not uncommon in many Pagan nations who were menialighted by science; and it appears that from time immemorial the original inhabitants of Peru had been accustomed to pay divine honours to this splendid luminary, which they considered as the author of the seasons, and the visible ruler of the heavens. On this established opinion Mango Capac founded his mission, and made it the basis of his authority. He deceived an ignorant people; but the illusion was scarcely less conducive to their happiness than to his own aggrandizement. His laws were equitable and humane: his government was beneficent; and he introduced among his subjects a greater degree of civilization than existed in any other part of the vast continent of America. The laws of Mango Capac were far more beneficent than those of Lycurgus; and if we were better acquainted with the particulars of his history, there is reason to believe that circumstances being considered, he might justly be ranked with Solon and Numa.

From the time that Nugnez de Balboa had discovered the Pacific Ocean, and some obscure hints had been received relative to the extensive and opulent country of Peru, the eyes of the Spanish adventurers were turned to that vast quarter. Among these were three persons then settled at Panama, who, although every one of them were already advanced in years, undertook, at their own expense and risk, this daring and dangerous enterprise. These were, Francis Pizarro, Diego Almagro, and Hernando Juanes, all of these persons of the lowest extraction. Pizarro had



been employed in keeping hogs before he enlisted for a soldier; and Almagro was originally a foundling, but both were men of doubtless courage, trained up to war from their youth, and accustomed to dangers and difficulties. Luquez was a priest and school-master, and his province was to remain at Panama to raise recruits, collect warlike stores, provisions, &c. in proportion to the exigencies of the expedition.

The attempt was begun with a force better suited to the fortunes of the adventurers than to the magnitude of the enterprize. On the 14th of November, 1524, Pizarro set sail from Panama with only one small vessel and 182 men. He touched at several places on the coast, but his men being oppressed with famine, fatigue, and sickness, he was obliged to retire to Chichama, where he expected to meet Almagro with a supply of provisions and troops from Panama. Almagro had indeed already arrived at that port; but not finding Pizarro, he had sailed to different parts of the coast, encountered the same difficulties and dangers as the other party, and even lost an eye in a sharp conflict with the natives. Chance, however, at last brought them together, and they agreed that Almagro should return to Panama for fresh supplies. But the governor endeavoured by all the means in his power to thwart the expedition, and Pizarro was at last obliged to return after having landed at Trujillo, a piece of coarse robe, which he had got such a glimpse of the opulence of Peru, as determined him to make fresh preparations for prosecuting his enterprize. He arrived at Panama near three years after his first setting out; and so great had been the mortality among his men, that out of his small number of 182, he lost

in less than nine months, no fewer than 170 by sickness and hardships, few having fallen by the sword.\*

The next step of Pizarro was to cross the Atlantic, and procure a commission from the court of Spain. There he succeeded so well, as to procure from the emperor, Charles V, the commission of captain-general and governor of the countries which he should conquer. For Hernando Luquez he obtained an ecclesiastical preferment; but the interests of Almagro being neglected, a difference ensued between them. A reconciliation, however, was effected through the mediation of Luquez. After this reconciliation, the preparations for another expedition were commenced. But with the utmost efforts of their united fortunes and interest, the whole armament which they were able to fit out, consisted only of three small vessels, and 130 soldiers, 36 of whom were horsemen. With this inconsiderable force Pizarro landed in Peru, and having surprized a town in the province of Coaque, he had the good fortune to find vessels and ornaments of gold and silver, amounting to the value of 25,000 pesos, with such a quantity of other booty, as dispelled all the doubts of the adventurers, and inspired them with the most sanguine hopes. He immediately dispatched one of his ships to Panama with a large remittance to Almagro, and another 16 Novebr 2, for the purpose of alluring adventurers and procuring supplies. This judicious step soon brought from Nicaragua two different bodies of troops, of about thirty men each, who, small as their number might seem, were, in his circumstances, a valuable acquisition to his force.

\* Robertson's Hist. of Amer. vol. 3, p. 624.—The 20,000 soldiers sent by Mexico, p. 190.

Had the Spaniards been able to penetrate into Peru in their first expedition, they would probably have met with a formidable resistance. Huana Capac, the twelfth of the Incas, was then seated on the throne, and the Peruvians were united under a monarch equally revered and beloved. The state of affairs was now changed. The blood of the Incas had always been held sacred, and had never been contaminated by mixing with any other race. But Huana Capac, after his conquest of Quito, had, in order to confirm his sovereignty over that province, married the daughter and heiress of the vanquished prince. By her he had a son named Atahualpa, whom at his death in 1529, he appointed his successor in the kingdom of Quito, leaving the rest of his dominions to his other son, Huascar, whose mother was of the royal race of the Incas. This destination of the succession produced a civil war between the two brothers. Atahualpa was the conqueror, and made a barbarous use of his victory. Conscious of the defect in his own title to the crown of Peru, he attempted to exterminate the royal race, by putting to death all the children of the Sun descended from Mango Capac. All of them whom he could seize by force, or by stratagem, became victims to his cruel policy; but Huascar, who had been taken prisoner in battle, was saved for some time, that by issuing orders in his name, the usurper might more easily establish his authority.\*

When Pizarro first landed in Peru, the civil war between the two brothers was not terminated, and neither of the competitors paid any attention to the operations of an enemy whose numbers appeared to them too inconsiderable to excite any alarm. By this

\* Robertson's Hist. of Amer. vol. 2, p. 167. &c.

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fortunate coincidence of events, the Spaniards penetrated into the centre of Peru without opposition, and then met with only a feeble resistance from a disunited and disaffected people. Pizarro immediately advanced toward Caxamalca, a town near which Atahualpa was encamped. On the road he was met by an officer, bearing a valuable present from the Inca, with an offer of peace and alliance. Pizarro following the example of Cortez in Mexico, announced himself as the ambassador of a powerful monarch, who coveted the friendship of the Inca, and declared that he was advancing to offer him his assistance against all those who should dispute his title to the crown. On entering Caxamalca, Pizarro took possession of a strategic post in the town, and sent a message to Atahualpa, whose camp was about a mile distant from that place. The messengers were instructed to confirm his former declaration of his pacific intentions, and to request an interview with the Inca, for the purpose of explaining the motives that induced him to visit his country. On their arrival at the Peruvian camp, they were treated with the most respectful hospitality, and the Inca promised to visit the Spanish commander the next day at his quarters. But their attention was the most powerfully attracted by the profusion of wealth, which they observed in the camp, and of which they gave such a description to their countrymen, as excited at once their astonishment and their avarice.

From his own observation of American manners and ideas, as well as from the advantages which Cortez had derived from seizing Motecuzuma, Pizarro knew of what consequence it would be to have the Inca in his power, and immediately made his arrangements for seizing on his person at the approaching

interview. All the troops were disposed in the most advantageous manner, and kept in readiness for action. The next day Atahualpa appeared, in all the pomp of barbarous magnificence, with several hundreds of attendants, and seated on a throne almost covered with gold and silver, carried on the shoulders of his principal officers. Several singing-men and dancers accompanied the party, and the plain was covered with his troops amounting to above 30,000 in number. The interview was conducted in an extraordinary manner on the part of the Spaniards. As the Inca drew near to their quarters, Father Valverde, chaplain to the expedition, advanced with a crucifix in one hand, and a breviary in the other, and began a long harangue, explaining to him the mysteries of the Christian religion, requiring him to embrace its doctrines, and acknowledge the King of Spain as his sovereign. All this was new to the Inca, who hearing the discourse explained by an excellent interpreter, desired to know where the Spaniards had learned such extraordinary things. "In this book," answered Valverde, reaching to him his breviary. The Inca opened it with eager curiosity, and turning over the leaves, lifted it to his ear, and listened with serious attention. When he perceived that it did not speak, "This," said he, "is silent,—it tells me nothing, and seemingly with anger and disdain threw it on the ground. The Monk immediately cried out, "To arms, Christians, to arms; the word of God is insulted!" Pizarro at that instant gave the signal of attack. The martial music struck up, the cannon and musquetry began to fire, and both horse and foot made a furious charge. It is easier to conceive than describe the amazement and consternation of

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The plunder of the field and the camp was rich beyond any idea which the Spaniards had yet formed of the wealth of Peru; and they passed the night in the extravagant exultation natural to indigent adventurers on so great and so sudden an acquisition of wealth. The captive monarch in the mean while soon discovered the rolling passion of the invaders, and hoped, by gratifying their avarice, to regain his liberty. The room in which he was confined was twenty-two feet in length, by sixteen in breadth, and he offered to fill it as high as he could reach with vessels of gold. Pizarro closed eagerly with the proposal; and the Inca immediately took measures for fulfilling his part of the agreement, and sent messengers to Cuzco, Quito, and other places, to collect the gold amassed in the temples and in the palaces of the Incas. At the same time apprehending that his bro-

\* B. Serran's Hist. of Amer. vol. 7. p. 107. note 31.



ther Ucasar, who was kept in confinement, might engage the Spaniards to espouse his cause, he dispatched private orders for his execution, and these, like his other commands, were punctually obeyed.

Pizarro, in his compact with Atahualpa, appears to have had no other intention than that of inducing him to collect, by his authority, the whole wealth of his kingdom. Among various circumstances which concurred to accelerate the catastrophe of the unfortunate Inca, one of a singular nature is related by the Spanish historians. Among all the European arts, that which he most admired was the use of letters; but he was uncertain whether it was a natural or an acquired talent. In order to determine the point, he desired one of the soldiers to write the name of God, and then shewed it to others, of whom several could read it. At length he shewed it to Pizarro, who, never having learned to read, was obliged to confess his ignorance. From that moment Atahualpa regarded the commander-in-chief as a mean person, less instructed than many of his soldiers, and he had not the address to conceal his sentiments on the subject. This mortified the pride of Pizarro, and operated as an additional motive to induce him to hasten the destruction of the Inca. It was, however, deemed requisite to give a legal appearance to the transaction. A court of justice was formed; Pizarro and Almagro set as judges. Before this singular tribunal, Atahualpa was accused of usurping the throne, and of putting his brother and lawful sovereign to death, and of various other crimes. To judges predetermined, slight evidence was sufficient. The unfortunate prince was convicted, and sentenced to be burnt alive. Astonished at his sentence, he used every means to avert

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\* H. Robertson's Hist. of Amer. vol. 2, p. 167, note 1.

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his fate. He even consented to be baptized; but his enemies were bent on his destruction: all he could obtain was a mitigation of punishment; and instead of being burnt, he was strangled. To the honour of the Spanish nation it must be acknowledged, that among those profligate adventurers, there were some who not only remonstrated, but even protested against this tyrannical proceeding; but their endeavours were ineffectual, and the more violent faction prevailed.

The treasure collected for the ransom of the Inca had been immediately divided among the soldiers; and there is no example in history of so sudden an acquisition of wealth by military adventure. No less than 8000 pesos, a sum at that time equivalent to considerably more than as many pounds sterling\* in the present century, fell to the share of each horseman, and half as much to each foot soldier, after the king's fifth had been deducted, and Pizarro, with the other officers, had received shares proportioned to their rank. This abundance of wealth flowing all at once upon indigent adventurers, excited in many of them a desire of retiring to spend the rest of their days in opulence and ease. Pizarro readily gratified their desire, sensible that the sight of riches so rapidly acquired, would allure fresh adventurers. He could not, indeed, have sent out better recruiting officers. No sooner were they arrived at Panama, where they displayed their wealth to the view of their astonished countrymen, than flame spread abroad with extraordinary speed upon the account of their success. The spirit of adventure was excited beyond all former example; and

\* Dr. Robertson says, not inferior to that sum. *Hist. of Amer. vol. 2, p. 179.* But money has considerably sunk in value particularly in England, since he wrote this history.

the governors of several provinces found great difficulty in restraining the colonists from abandoning their possessions to go in quest of the inexhaustible treasures of Peru. In spite of every check, however, so many fresh adventurers resorted to the standard of Pizarro, that he began his march to Cuzco at the head of 500 men, after leaving a considerable garrison in the fort of St. Michael. In his march he was feebly opposed by two bodies of Peruvians; but these he put to flight with great slaughter, and with very little loss on his side. He then marched forward to Cuzco, and met with no resistance in taking possession of that capital. The riches found there, even after all that the natives had carried off or concealed, exceeded in value what had been received for the Inca's ransom. But as the number of soldiers was greater, the shares were proportionably smaller. Each person, however, received 4000 pesos, after the king's fifth, and the shares of the officers were deducted.\*

Civil, as well as foreign war, now desolated Peru. The Spaniards had invested the young son of Atahualpa with the ensigns of royalty, in order to use him as an instrument in completing their conquest. The Peruvians had placed a brother of Huascar on the throne of the Incas: and the general who commanded for Atahualpa in Quito, having seized the brother and children of his master, put them to death and usurped the sovereignty of that kingdom. During these transactions, Ferdinand Pizarro, having been sent to the court of Spain, returned, after having met with the most favourable reception. His brother, the general, was confirmed in his authority; and Almagro

\* See Dr. Robertson, vol. 2, p. 471, note 52, on the authority of the Spanish writers.

had a government allotted to him, extending 500 leagues from the southern limits of that which was assigned to Pizarro. In the year 1535, Pizarro laid the foundation of Lima; and about the same time Almagro attempted the conquest of Chili; but having with great difficulty penetrated a considerable way into the country, he was recalled from that quarter by a general insurrection of the Peruvians, who then besieged Cuzco and Lima, and with so numerous an army as to threaten the extinction of the Spanish name in that country. While Pizarro was closely shut up in Lima; Cuzco, where three of his brothers, Juan, Gonzalez, and Ferdinando, commanded, was reduced to the last extremity, as the Peruvians directed their principal efforts against that ancient capital. Juan Pizarro, and several other officers of distinction, were killed; and the Spaniards had begun to think of abandoning the city. Almagro arriving at this critical moment, defeated the Peruvians, and raised the siege. But having obtained possession of the city, he refused to deliver it up to Pizarro, as he conceived it to be within the limits of his own government. The Peruvians being subdued and dispersed, a bloody civil war commenced between Almagro and Pizarro, which, after being for some time carried on with great vigour and various success, terminated in favour of the latter. Almagro was taken prisoner, in a battle fought on the 26th day of April, 1538, and afterwards beheaded by the command of his antagonist.\* Pizarro now considering himself as the rightful possessor of Peru, partitioned the whole territory among the conquerors; but from this division, which

\* Almagro was beheaded in the 7th year of the reign of Charles V. vol. 2, p. 209.



five immense estates to many of his adventurers, the partisans of Almagro were excluded, although several of them had eminently contributed to the conquest. This proceeding irritated the minds of the Almagrians against the governor, and excited them to revenge. Almagro had left a son, a young man of a noble and generous disposition, to whom the whole party looked up as a leader. A conspiracy was soon formed under his auspices; and Juan de Herrada, an officer of distinguished abilities, had the charge of its execution. On the 26th of June, 1541, Herrada, with eighteen of the most determined conspirators, clothed in complete armor, rushed at mid-day into the palace of Lima, and attacked the governor, with several of his adherents. Pizarro, although without any other arms than his sword and his buckler, defended himself with a courage worthy of his former exploits; but his few companions being all killed, or severely wounded, he was overpowered by numbers, and fell under the strokes of the conspirators in the 74th or 75th year of his age. The occasion immediately rushed out of the palace, and waving their bloody swords, proclaimed the death of the tyrant. Being joined by about 200 of their party, they carried young Almagro in procession through the streets, and declared him lawful successor to the government. This election, however, was not agreeable to all; and although numbers of desperate adventurers, and of persons disaffected to Pizarro's government, flocked to his standard, many of the officers at a distance from Lima refused to recognize his authority. While things were in this unsettled state, Vasco de Castro arrived from Spain with full powers to assume the government, and speedily assembled a body of troops. The Almagrians having

no hopes of obtaining pardon for so heinous a crime as the murder of the governor, marched against him, and both sides were eager to bring the affair to the speedy decision of the sword. A battle was fought with all the animosity that could be inspired by the rancour of private enmity, and the last efforts of despair. Victory, after remaining long doubtful, declared at last for Vaca de Castro. The carnage was great in proportion to the number of combatants. Of 1400, the whole amount of the troops on both sides, 500 were left dead on the field, and a much greater number were wounded. Of the prisoners that were taken, forty were condemned to death, and the rest banished from Peru. The young Almagro, who had displayed great courage in this engagement, made his escape; but being betrayed by some of his officers, he was taken and beheaded at Cuzco.

During these transactions in Peru, the court of Spain had formed a variety of new regulations for the better government of the colonies. Vaca de Castro was superseded; and Blasco Nunez Vela was appointed governor of Peru, with the title of viceroy. The new laws, however, occasioned a great ferment in many of the colonies, but especially in Peru; and Gonzalo Pizarro, brother of the conqueror, put himself at the head of the malcontents. A bloody engagement took place between him and the viceroy, in which the latter, after displaying in an eminent degree the abilities of a commander, and the courage of a soldier, fell covered with wounds. By Gonzalo's command, his head was cut off and placed on the public gibbet in Quito. All Peru now submitted to Gonzalo, who immediately assumed the title of viceroy. Francis Carvajal, one of the richest and most

daring of the Spanish adventurers, and who, although near fourscore years of age, possessed all the animation and enterprising spirit of youth, advised him totally to reject the authority of Spain, and to assume the rank of an independent sovereign. But Gonzalo considering this as too bold an undertaking, chose rather to rule Peru in subordination to Spain, and aspired no higher than to obtain his confirmation in the office of viceroy. His proceedings, however, became a subject of serious consideration at the court of Charles V.; and it was found necessary to send over some person of consummate prudence to quell this formidable revolt. Pedro de la Gasca, an ecclesiastic, a man of mild and engaging manners, but of an extraordinary firmness and intrepidity, was chosen for this important undertaking. From the power which Pizarro had acquired, and the distance of Peru from Spain, it was considered as a difficult task to reduce him to subjection by force, and it was deemed the most expedient to offer a general pardon to him and his adherents, on condition of resigning his authority, and submitting to a viceroy appointed by the crown. Gasca, however, was invested with full powers for peace or war, although he was sent out without any military force, as Spain was at that time too much exhausted by the continental wars of Charles V., to fit out an armament of sufficient force to reduce the rebellious colony of Peru. Gasca, however, being arrived at Panama, and hearing that Pizarro was preparing for war, found means to assemble a body of men, and proceeding to Peru, endeavoured to compromise matters by treaty. But Pizarro refused to listen to any terms of accommodation, and refused to renounce his vice-royalty, and declared Gasca a traitor.

and an enemy to the colony. There were at that time above 6000 Spaniards settled in Peru, all of them men who were accustomed to daring and desperate enterprises; and as he did not doubt of their union in his cause, he thought himself able to see every effort of Spain at defiance. Gasca, however, by his address, detached numbers of them from his party, and the royal army was constantly augmented, while the forces of Pizarro gradually diminished. Observing this decrease of his numbers, he resolved to bring matters to a decision. Both armies were drawn up in the field ready for an engagement, when Pizarro, being abandoned by his whole army, except a few faithful adherents, was made prisoner. He was beheaded the next day; and Cajamal, with some others of the most distinguished leaders, suffered the same punishment. The execution of Gonzalo Pizarro, which happened in 1542, put an end to the civil wars of Peru, in which the greatest part of those ferocious and desperate adventurers, who conquered that rich country, fell by one another's hands in the field, or in the scaffold. It is somewhat remarkable, that among all the adventurers who conquered Mexico and Peru, none were soldiers employed by the crown, nor any of them mercenaries serving for pay; although many of them were extremely rich men, and had money advanced for their equipment by the principal leaders in these expeditions. Every adventurer considered himself as a conqueror, entitled to share according to his rank, not only in the spoils, but also in the lands of the conquered country. The conquerors of Peru, however, acquired fortunes much sooner than those of Mexico, as may readily be perceived from the sketch of their history. In Peru, the shares which fell to each man

at the division of Atahualpa's ransom, and at the capture of Cuzco, were sufficient to enrich the first invaders. It is also a singular event in the history of Spain, and her colonies, that those rich and extensive countries were subjected to her empire by private individuals at their own expence and risque. The crown furnished them only with commissions, without assisting them with a shilling from the treasury; and the hardships which these Spanish desperadoes suffered, as well as the intrepidity and perseverance which they displayed in prosecuting their enterprises, surpass every thing recorded in the history of human adventure.

*Religion, Government, and Civilization of the Peruvians.*

The religion of the Peruvians was of a very different nature from that of the Mexicans: it was mild and benevolent; and no human sacrifices were offered in the temples of the sun. Some detached customs, however, indicate a spirit less humane. On the death of an Inca, or other eminent persons, a great number of their attendants were put to death and interred round their sepulchres, so that they might appear in the next world in a manner suitable to their dignity. This, however, does not appear to have been considered as an act of cruelty, as the persons thus put to death were supposed to hold the same offices under their former masters as they did in this world. Their government was, as a mild despotism, intimately connected with their religion. They worshipped the sun, and venerated the Inca as his descendant and minister. In the arts of refinement, the Peruvians were superior to all the other Americans. They had the

of smelting silver, and making utensils of that metal, as well as of gold, and the Spaniards found a much greater quantity of those metals in Peru than in Mexico. The buildings of the Peruvians were far more substantial, as well as more elegant than those of the Mexicans; but their cities were fewer in number, and less populous. Cuzco was, in magnitude far inferior to Mexico; and there was no other place in Peru that deserved the name of a city. The Peruvians, in fine, seem to have possessed a greater genius for the arts of peace than the Mexicans, but they were far inferior to them in war, and were much more easily conquered.

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CHAP. IV.

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Present State, political and moral — Religion — Government — Law — Army — Navy — Revenues — Commerce — Manufactures — Population — Political importance — Language — Literature — Polite Arts — Manners and Customs — National Character.

*Religion.*—IT is scarcely necessary to say that the religion of those countries is the Roman Catholic, which is professed by the natives, who are subjects of Spain, as well as by the Spaniards. The churches and monasteries are numerous, and many of them exceedingly rich.

*Government.*—The Spanish territories are divided with great precision into vice-royalties, audiences, provinces, governments, partidos, and missions, or parishes. The three vice-royalties are those of New Granada in the north; Peru, including Chili, in the middle; and Buenos Ayres in the south. The capital of the first is Santa Fe de Bogota; of the second, Lima; and of the third, Buenos Ayres. The most striking characteristic of the politics of Spain, in regard to her American empire, is an extreme caution, which always keeps one main object in view, that of retaining the colonies in the most abject state of dependence on the parent country. For this purpose every method is practized that can have any tendency to counteract the aspiring views of ambition, and render the colonists insensible to public concerns. This jealous policy excludes every native of America, although

although born of Spanish parents, from offices of honour, emolument, and trust. The viceroys, and other great officers, civil and military, are all natives of Spain; and their appointment is only for a short time. Their power being extensive, and its scene at a great distance, the shortness of its duration is considered as the surest means of securing their dependence. The chief ecclesiastics are also sent from Spain in conformity to the same general system of policy.

*Army and Navy.*—The colonies having no army or navy independent of the mother country, their military and maritime force is necessarily included in that of Spain, and is increased or diminished as circumstances require. But we have not, at any time, the means of ascertaining the strength of Spanish America, or the number of troops stationed in the different parts of that vast empire. It is certain, however, that it must at all times be small in proportion to the great extent of territory; and these opulent colonies must consequently present many vulnerable points.

*Revenues.*—The revenues accruing to Spain from her American dominions, constitute a subject equally perplexed and obscure. Dr. Robertson states the total revenue of the crown from America and the Philippine islands at 2,700,000*l.* sterling, and deducting half for the expences of the administration, he computes the net revenue at 1,350,000*l.* sterling\*. According, however, to a late writer, America is considered as scarcely leaving any clear revenue to the crown of Spain, when all the expences incurred by that government, are deducted.† All these calculations, however, are little better than loose conjecture.

\* Robertson's Hist. of America.

† See the statement above inserted in the margin of this page.



*Commerce.*—The general outlines of the commerce of Spanish America have been delineated in the description of Spain. Its abuses have also been stated. Among these, the extent of the smuggling trade has not been omitted. Dr. Robertson says, that under the old system, the crown was supposed by the most intelligent Spanish writers to be defrauded of one-half of its revenue. But since the trade between Spain and the colonies has been laid open to all Spanish subjects, the whole system of the colonial commerce has undergone a beneficial revolution. Among the articles of commerce which the South American colonies furnish, may be reckoned cocoa, cotton, sugar, and the Peruvian bark, with various other drugs; but the chief exports consist of the produce of the mines. The statement of the coinage of one year, 1790, given by Hervas from the official registers of the mints of Mexico, Lima, Potosi, and St. Agustín, may enable us to form some idea of this branch of commerce in the South as well as in the North American dominions of Spain.\* According to this writer, the coinage of Mexico in that year in gold and silver amounted to 18,008,088 piastres of eight reals, or 2,161,111*l.* 8*s.* sterling; and that of the three South American mints to 1,504,800*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.* The great difference in the quantity of produce from the mines of Mexico and from those of South America, he ascribes to the following causes; first, the superior population of Mexico; secondly, its superiority in civil police, commercial arrangements, and habits of industry, in consequence of its being less distant from Spain, and more advantageously situated for trade; thirdly, the great encouragement given to mining by every commercial

\* Hervas.

house in Mexico. But he asserts that Mexico can bear no comparison with Peru in the number and opulence of its mines.\* As the Spaniards have no settlements on the African coast, their colonies are supplied with negroes chiefly by the Dutch and the Portuguese, and till lately by the English.

*Manufactures.*—The manufactures of South America are of little importance. They consist only of a few common articles for home consumption, and furnish little towards commerce.

*Population.*—If the vague estimate of the population of the American continent, already exhibited, which states that of the whole southern division at 13,000,000, be admitted, the Spanish territories in South America may probably contain about 5,000,000. But all computations of this kind, without any positive data, must be considered as vague and unsatisfactory. It is equally impossible to make any just estimate of the number of Spaniards and Creoles scattered through these extensive domains; but they can scarcely be supposed to amount to 1,000,000. In concluding this statistical sketch of Spanish America, it must be observed, that the policy of Spain has invariably endeavoured to keep all other nations in the dark concerning the state of her colonies. This circumstance sufficiently accounts for the defectiveness of our knowledge on these subjects.

*Political importance and relations.*—The political importance of those immense territories is at present involved in that of Spain; and to her alone their political relations are confined. But it is easy to conceive their natural importance to be such, that their transfer to any other power would produce a considerable

\* H. 207, p. 27. &c.

political, as well as commercial revolution; and whenever they shall assume an independent form, a period which certainly must one day arrive, Spanish America, if united, may become one of the most opulent and powerful empires the world has ever seen. Mexico alone would constitute a great and extremely rich monarchy: and South America is still more extensive and wealthy.

*Language.*—It is hardly necessary to say, that the Spanish is the universal language; and an investigation of the barbarous dialects of the native tribes would be little conducive either to instruction or entertainment. It may, however, be observed, that the language of the ruling people of Peru, which was called the Quichera, is said to be nearly as variegated and artificial in its construction as the Greek. It is yet studied by the Spanish clergy.

*Literature.*—The literature of Spanish America is generally represented as very contemptible. There is indeed no reason to suppose it in a flourishing state. On this subject, however, European knowledge is very confined; nor do we possess any documents that can authorize positive assertion. Periodical, and other works, are indeed published at Mexico, Lima, and other places; and it is probable that letters are not more neglected in Spanish America than in our West-India islands.

*Polite arts.*—In respect to the state of the polite arts, we are in the same want of information. The churches and convents are richly adorned, but whether in a style of elegance, is doubtful.

*Manners and customs.*—The manners of the Spaniards and their descendants in South, as well as in North America, have been described by many writers,

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\* *Waller*, p. 237. *See*

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*Manners and customs.*—The manners of the Spaniards and their descendants in South, as well as in North America, have been described by many writers,

ters, and often on the slight authority of voyagers who have casually touched at some of their ports. It is universally allowed that the Spanish character has degenerated in the colonies; but this has been the case with every European nation. This degeneracy of the national character in all European colonies, is easily accounted for from the private character of the first settlers, the nature of their pursuits, and the circumstances of their situation. Their views are generally those of avarice rather than of ambition. The love of glory is often the parent of crimes; but it is also the source of great actions and noble pursuits; the love of money is a sordid passion which enervates the mind; and this is oftentimes the motive of emigration to colonies. The degeneracy of the Spanish character in America may reasonably be attributed to the depressing system of policy which extinguishes the spirit of enterprise, the flow of wealth, which generates luxury, and the prevalence of slavery, which, producing its invariable effects, gives rise to dissipation, effeminacy, and indolence, in a climate so temperate and favorable to their growth. From the best authorities, I have even, it appears that the Spaniards of America, if they have lost the daring and enterprising spirit of their ancestors who conquered those regions, are less contaminated with the disgusting vices of avarice and cruelty. Both the Spaniards and Creoles being attached to luxury, indolence, and inactivity, rather than actuated by the spirit of enterprise and the avidity of gain, treat their slaves with a degree of humanity unknown in the West-India islands. This is observable both in North and South America. In Mexico, Lima, and other great and opulent cities, the negroes live like Roman slaves in the prosperous

ages of Rome, are chiefly employed for domestic purposes, being kept for the sake of ostentation to swell the retinues of the great and opulent. Commodore Byron paints in amiable colours the character of the Spaniards and Creoles of St. Jago de Chili, and in South America, indeed, the colonial character appears to be the least contaminated.\*

\* See Com. Byron's Narrative.

# PORTUGUEZE AMERICA;

OR  
THE COUNTRY OF BRAZIL, &c.

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## CHAP. I.

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*Situation—Extent—Boundaries—Face of the Country—Mountains—Rivers—Canals—Lakes—Mineralogy—Mineral Waters—Gold—Climate—Vegetable Productions—Zoology—Natural Curiosities, &c.*

THE Portuguese empire in South America extends from the frontiers of Dutch Guiana, latitude 3° north, to Port St. Pedro, in 32° south, 2100 geographical, or about 2240 British miles in length; and the breadth from Cape St. Roque to St. Paul de Omaguas, on the river of Amazons, the most inland of the Portuguese settlements, may be considered as of at least an equal extent.

*Face of the country* ]—The country towards the coast is in general rather low than elevated; but according to the common accounts, a range, or perhaps different ranges of high mountains, run in various directions, but chiefly from north to south, giving rise to numerous streams that flow into the great river of Amazon. A great part of the country appears to be covered with wood. But it must be confessed that we have no precise knowledge of Brazil, excepting the coasts, which have been frequently explored by  
navigators,



navigators, and of the principal ports at which they have touched in their voyages. From the want of curiosity and science among the Portuguese, this vast country is still less known than Spanish America. The extensive regions on the river of Amazons, are an immense level, in some parts covered with impene- trable forests, and in others frequently flooded by the annual inundations of that river, and its auxiliary streams. Condamine, in sailing down the river of Amazons, did not observe a single hill during the space of two months after leaving the Pongo, till the mountains of Guiana appeared. Several rivers rise from the elevated tracts of the interior, and run into the Atlantic. Of these, the Rio de Francisco is the largest; but none of them are very considerable. They are, however, extremely useful in affording excellent situations for sugar-mills. Our imperfect topo- graphy of this country does not notice any lakes ex- cept those of a temporary kind formed in the flat country by the annual inundations. The mineralogy of Brazil is one of the most important features of its natural history, and that which has at present the greatest influence on its political and commercial state. Concerning the celebrated mines of this coun- try, however, we have little precise information. All that we know of them is collected from scattered frag- ments, in relations of voyages, often founded on no bet- ter authority than vague report.\* The celebrated dia- mond mines are situated near Villa Nova de Principe, 17° south latitude, and 44° west longitude.† The dia- monds of Brazil are not so fine as those of Golconda.

\* In Lord Anson's Voyage is an account of the diamond mines, which appears to be thus founded.

† La Coker's Map, published by Eaden,

By an edict of 1735, the king reserves to himself, under certain conditions, all the diamonds that are found to be above twenty carats.\* Gold mines abound in several of the mountainous tracts; and some of them are far within land. The soil of so extensive a country must afford every possible variety; but according to all that is yet known or reported, the most luxuriant fertility is its general characteristic. In an extent of thirty-five degrees of latitude, the climate is also various. In the northern parts milder, and near the equator, the climate is hot, the tropical rains exceedingly heavy: and the country being flat, and subject to extensive inundations, as well as encompassed with immense forests, the air must necessarily be extremely insalubrious. In proceeding toward the south, the climate, as well as the country, grows more agreeable; the coasts are refreshed by the sea breezes; and the heat is less violent than in several other countries in the same geographical position. In the southernmost part of Brazil, which lies beyond the tropic of Capricorn, the climate is exceedingly temperate, pleasant, and healthful.

The vegetable productions are in general the same as in other countries under corresponding parallels of latitude. Those of chief importance are sugar, tobacco, and miligo. Great quantities of wheat are produced and exported. The tobacco is excellent; but this article is not so assiduously cultivated in Brazil as in some parts of the North American states. This rich and fertile country produces several species of pepper, with a variety of drugs used in medicine, as well as in manufactures; and abounds in all the essential plants common to the tropical regions. The

\* See Hist. de France, vol. 2, p. 271, 272.

plains, the banana, the cocoa and the chocolate nut, are common; and to these a long *et cetera* of others might be added. The different species of fruits are almost innumerable. Among these, the pineapple, the mango, and the rambutan, hold a distinguished rank. The immense forests have already been mentioned; and the quantities of timber appear almost inexhaustible. We have no precise account of the various productions of the Brazilian and Amazonian forests; but among them are distinguished logwood, mahogany, ebony, and Brazil wood, from which the country derives its name, and a multitude of others, which grow here in as great perfection and variety as in any part of the world. There is every reason to believe that the southern parts of Brazil would be extremely fertile in the various kinds of European grain, and perhaps also in wine, if proper attention were paid to these objects. But the more profitable cultivation of sugar impedes that of grain, and the general spirit of speculation in mining, causes agriculture to be neglected. The zoology of Brazil corresponds in general with that of Spanish America. The remarkable circumstance of the herds of wild cattle is common to both. In the northern parts of Brazil, as well as in the Spanish territories, those cattle are so numerous, that they are hunted for their hides, which constitute a considerable article of the exports both of Spanish and Portuguese America. In various parts, especially of the northern provinces, serpents abound, and attain to an enormous size. The Brazilian seas are also well stocked with fish. We are not informed of any remarkable curiosities in Brazil. Our knowledge of the country is too imper-

fect to render us acquainted with such as are natural; and ancient monuments, or magnificent works of art, are not to be expected. But if so extensive an empire were duly explored, there is no doubt that its deep recesses would unfold scenes sufficiently sublime to excite the admiration of the naturalist.

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*CHAP. II.*

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Chief cities.

**RIO DE JANEIRO**, or the city of St. Sebastian, the capital of Brazil, is situated in  $22^{\circ} 54'$  south latitude, and in  $42^{\circ} 44'$  west longitude, about four miles within the entrance of a bay of the same name, which forms a harbour, that for convenience can scarcely be excelled. The entrance is less than a mile wide, and crossed in every direction by heavy batteries, being commanded on each side by high rocks; one of these is of a conical form, and 700 feet in height; that on the opposite side is a huge mass of granite, crowned with the castle of Santa Cruz; and the small island and fort of St. Lucia in the middle, completes the line of defence. Within the entrance the bay expands to a breadth of three or four miles; and several of its branches stretch into the country farther than the eye can reach. It is interspersed with numerous islands, some of which are covered with verdure, and others with habitations. The city is built on a projecting tongue of land; and all the ground behind is broken into hills and rocks, on the summits of which are woods, houses, convents, and churches. The streets are in general straight and well paved, but several of them are narrow. The squares are adorned with fountains, supplying water from a magnificent aqueduct.

The water is excellent; and the aqueduct is a great ornament to the town. - Many of the houses are well built of heavy stone. - The shops are well stocked with Manchester goods, and all sorts of English manufactures. The markets are well supplied; and the city is in a flourishing state. - Many public and private buildings were going forward when this port was visited by the British embassy in the voyage to China\*.

At Rio de Janeiro all is bustle and activity in the various pursuits of business, devotion, and pleasure. The city has several public walks; and operas, balls, and masquerades, with a few public gardens, contribute to the amusement of its inhabitants. Notwithstanding, however, the general appearance of gaiety, the externals of religion are assiduously observed. Every hour in the day, bells, and other signals announce some religious solemnity; and the streets are often crowded with processions. The inhabitants have in general an air of gaiety and contentment; and even the slaves exhibit no indications of misery. The slave trade is here carried on to a great extent. - In about 20,000 negroes annually imported into Brazil, about 3000 are sold at Rio de Janeiro, at the average price of about 2*l.* sterling a head. The population of this city is estimated at not less than 40,000 blacks, and about 2000 whites. The Portuguese ladies are remarkable for their fine black eyes and animated countenances.

The environs of Rio de Janeiro are grand and picturesque. The shores of the harbour are diversified and embellished with cottages, farms, and plantations, separated by rivulets, ranges of rocks, and clusters of

\* London, as found in the country; and many of the public buildings now destroyed. See *George Smeaton*, vol. 1, p. 1.

small bays, or the skirts of forests. And the whole terminates in the distant prospect of an amphitheatre of mountains rising in rude fantastic forms, and covered with trees to their summits. With all these beauties of situation, however, the atmosphere is not wholesome. The inland mountains and forests prevent the circulation of the air; and some marshy places near the town, the greatest part of which stands in a plain, emit noxious exhalations. From these causes the nights are generally damp and foggy; and musquitos abound. Rio de Janeiro merits particular attention, being at present the residence of the royal family of Portugal, and destined, in all probability, to be one day the capital of a vast independent empire; which shall perpetuate the Portuguese name and nation, in spite of all the revolutions of Europe.\*

The other chief cities are St. Sebastian and Fernambuco. The latter is not of any considerable magnitude; but the former is not greatly inferior to Rio de Janeiro. It stands in a lofty situation on the coast, and has an excellent harbour. Till the middle of the last century it was the chief city of Brazil, and the seat of the viceroy.

\* For the description of Rio de Janeiro, see Sir George Smeaton's account of the Embassy to China, vol. 1, ch. 5. In 1761, the Marquis de Pombal had it in contemplation to remove the seat of government to Brazil. *Strawson*, vol. 1, ch. 5, p. 205.

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*CHAP. III.*

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Religion—Government—Laws—Army—Navy—Revenues—Commerce—Manufactures—Population—Political Importance—Language—Literature—Poetic Arts—Education—Manners and Customs—National Character.

IT is scarcely necessary to say that the religion of Brazil is the Roman Catholic, to the external forms of which the Portuguese here, as well as in Portugal, are extremely attached, although religion seems to have little influence on their morals. There are six episcopal sees, of which the bishops are suffragans of the archbishop of St. Salvador. Most of those dignified ecclesiastics are natives of Portugal, who find a comfortable subsistence beyond the Atlantic. Their salaries, however, according to Morse, are not exorbitant; and the inferior clergy seem to be not in a very envious situation.\* Churches and convents, however, are sufficiently numerous. The government was formerly vested in a viceroy, whose office has now been superseded by the presence of the reigning monarch. The laws may be presumed to correspond in general with those of Portugal; but Mr. Morse says, that in no part of the world are lawyers more corrupt, or the intricacies of their profession more practised. Of the military force kept up in this important colony, there is no certain account; but it is undoubt-

\* Morse's Amer. Geog. p. 393; but his account is obscure and con-



edly small in proportion to the extent of territory. The naval force stationed on the coasts seldom exceeded two or three small frigates, but this number is now increased by the navy of the parent country. The revenue which the crown of Portugal used to derive from Brazil, has been the subject of different statements and conjectures. By the best information, it has been stated at 1,000,000*l.* sterling, of which one-third may be assigned for the expences of the government. The chief part of this revenue is derived from the diamond mines, which are now the exclusive property of the crown; and from the king's fifth of the produce of the gold mines.

*Commerce.*]—The commerce of Brazil is of great importance. Anderson has given in detail the immensely rich cargoes of the two fleets which arrived in 1724 at Lisbon from Bahia, or St. Salvador and Rio de Janeiro. These consisted of 15,500,000 cruzados in gold, besides a vast quantity of gold in dust, ingots, and bars, as well as of diamonds, together with sugar, tobacco, hides, and various other kinds of merchandize. The colony is, since that time, become much more flourishing, and from recent events, its commerce is now still more important and extensive. The exports, as already observed, consist chiefly of the produce of the mines, sugar, tobacco, hides, indigo, various drugs, materials for dyeing, &c. The imports are coin, wine, and several other European productions, with almost all the various articles of European manufacture. The Brazilians, however, have begun to manufacture several of the most necessary articles for home consumption. The population of this extensive re-

\* *Staufrak's Embassy to China*, p. 204.

† *Ann. Hist. of C. in*, vol. 3, p. 209.

gion has not yet been given in any accurate statement, some having estimated it at 500,000, and others at 600,000 souls.

*Language, Literature, &c.*—It is obvious that the predominant language of Brazil is the Portuguese; and to investigate the barbarous dialects of the natives, would here be a needless discussion.\* The literature of Portugal is inferior to that of almost every other European country; but the literature of Brazil is in a state truly contemptible. It is needless to say that the politics are unknown in the colony.

*Manners, custom, and national character.*—Luxury, ostentation, and indolence, &c. by all writers on the subject, considered as the general characteristics of the Portuguese in Brazil. These indeed are, throughout America and the West-Indies, features more or less predominant in the colonial character, in proportion to the prevalence of negro slavery. In Brazil this system prevails in its full extent. The neighbourhood of the African coast supplies the indolence of the rich, and the avarice of the planter, with great numbers of unskilled servants and robust labourers, at a moderate price †. About 20,000 negroes are annually imported into Brazil, the price being not above 25*l.* each for such as are sold for 70*l.* in the West-Indies. All labour is chiefly performed by slaves, and so great is the number of domestic negroes, that in some towns, where the greatest dissipation and extravagance prevail, it exceeds that of the whites in a ten-fold proportion. The easy condi-

\* Some account of the native languages may be seen in De la Roche's

† See Moreau on this subject, *Ann. Voy.* p. 180, 183, with Mr. Jackson's observations in the effect of the slave system.

tion of negro slaves in Spanish America has already been noticed. Their state in Brazil is nearly similar. The peculiar circumstances of the Spanish and the Portuguese colonies in America, in combination with the luxurious modes of life which there prevail, have introduced a system of negro-slavery, greatly different from that which has long disgraced the other European colonies. Both in the Spanish and the Portuguese settlements, the numerous Indian population has implicated the policy of attaching the negroes to the European interest, in case of any contest with the natives; and in this view the legislature has used every prudent means of encouraging their acquisition of rights and privileges. In those countries the state of the slaves has a much greater resemblance to that of the villains in Europe in the feudal times, or even of the Russian peasantry, than to that of West Indian slavery. The Spanish and Portuguese negroes enjoy the same protection of the laws, the same possession of rights, and the same power of acquiring property that marked the condition of the European bondsmen in their progress towards liberty. The negroes are a sort of tenants, or undertakers of work. In the business of collecting gold and jewels, the master supplies the slave with a certain quantity of provisions, and tools; and the slave is obliged to return a certain quantity of gold and jewels.\* All that remains over this fixed ration, how great soever may be its value, is the property of the slave. Under such regulations, a negro, who happens to be fortunate in his undertakings, may sometimes acquire a very considerable property. The rich pearl-fisheries of Panama, and other parts, are in the same manner in the hands, as

\* Bougle's Col. B. 2. vol. 2. book 11.

it were, of negro tenants. The slaves in the towns are allowed to hire themselves out to different kinds of employment, on condition of paying to their masters a certain portion of their wages. After a slave has, by any of these means, acquired property, and wishes to purchase his freedom, if the master's demands be exorbitant, the laws enable him to have the price fixed by sworn appraisers, appointed by the magistrate. On all occasions, in case of ill treatment, the slaves can, on making complaint to the magistrate, procure immediate redress. The consequences of these regulations have been extremely beneficial to the Spanish and Portuguese power in America. The slaves are faithful and laborious; the free negroes are numerous, industrious, quiet, and attached to the country and government. The greatest part of the artificers are free negroes, and of this class of men some of the best troops in Spanish and Portuguese America are composed.\* These circumstances would add greatly to the strength of the colonies, either in repelling foreign invasion, or in asserting their independence. This part of the social picture of Spanish and Portuguese America, constitutes one of the most interesting features in the history of African slavery. It exhibits the peculiar circumstances of those countries partially operating some of the happy effects which most necessarily be the result of the abolition of the slave trade; and demonstrates that the present existing system in those countries is gradually preparing the way for the complete emancipation of the American slaves, by a process analogous to that which liberated the European slaves.† The

\* *Memorias do Conselho da Real Casa da Moeda de Lisboa*, tom. 1.º, p. 117.  
 H. T. Martin, *op. cit.* p. 117.      † *Requisição*, tom. 1.º, p. 117.

lenity with which the slaves are treated, is, however, far from having a beneficial effect on their morals, which, in Brazil at least, are corrupted less perhaps by indulgence than by example. If the Spaniards in South America be, in regard to morals, as little corrupted as any, and less than several of the other European colonists, it is universally agreed that the Portuguese of Brazil are, in this respect, the most contaminated of all the people beyond the Atlantic. In the country districts they may, in regard to morals, perhaps, be placed in the same degree of the scale as the inhabitants of the West-India islands; but in the greatest cities, the Portuguese and Creoles seem to unite all the most criminal parts of the character of the most vicious nations in the most vicious ages. The dissolute character of the Brazilian towns is, by all travellers and historians, represented in the most frightful colours. The opulent and luxurious cities of St. Salvador and Rio de Janeiro, are regarded as the foci of criminal dissipation, where the scattered vices of all countries are collected.\*

*History*].—The history of Portuguese is less interesting and singular than that of Spanish America, as it was inhabited only by savages, among whom no vestiges of civilization were found. Brazil was discovered in 1498; but no settlement was formed till 1549, when the Portuguese fixed at the bay of All Saints, and founded the city of Bahia, or St. Salvador, which was made an archbishopric, and the seat of the viceroy. Portugal, in the year 1580, lost her independence, and was, with all her flourishing colonies, absorbed into the then enormous empire of

\* *Hist. Brazil*, ap. Harris, vol. 2.—Burke's *Europ. Settlements*, part 4, ch. 5.

Spain.\* That fatal revolution, which obscured the glory, and overturned the power of Portugal, deprived her of most of her valuable settlements in the East, and had nearly produced the same effect in the West. The Dutch having thrown off the Spanish yoke, and become rich and powerful at the expense of their former masters, pursued them into the remotest recesses of their extensive empire. Portugal, long annexed to the Spanish monarchy, was exposed to the same enemy. The Dutch having seized her most valuable possessions in the East, turned their arms against her American territories. They reduced the greatest part of Brazil, and would probably have completed the conquest, had not the courage and conduct of the archbishop, assisted by a few priests and monks, who could fight as well as pray, given a check to their progress. The Dutch made their first attack on Brazil in 1624, and before the end of 1630 had gained possession of the greatest part of the country. The commerce of this country must have flourished greatly while it remained in their hands, if it be true, that during this period, they had sent thither their vessels for the purpose of war and trade. The Portuguese, however, after emancipating themselves from the yoke of Spain, gradually gained ground in Brazil; and in 1654, totally expelled the Dutch, about thirty years after they had first obtained a footing in that country. From this epoch the Portuguese have remained in peaceable possession of this extensive, fertile and extensive territory; and the late removal of the Portuguese empire to this country, forms a new and important era in its history.

\* See *Port. Voy. &c.* p. 117.

† *Voyage de l'arch. de B.* The assertion, however, appears to be erroneous, and the reader greatly concerned.

## FRENCH POSSESSIONS.

### SOUTH AMERICA.

THE French settlement of Guiana, or Cayenne, so called from a small island in which the chief town is situated, lies between the equator and the sixth degree of north latitude, extending about 300, or, as the numbers are not ascertained with precision, perhaps near 350 British miles from north to south, and about 240 from east to west, along the shores of the Atlantic Ocean. The land near the coast is low, and subject to great inundations during the season of the tropical rains. The soil is in general fertile: but the vast extent of the forests and flooded grounds renders the air unhealthy. The most noted productions are sugar, cocoa, indigo, and Cayenne pepper, which derives its name from this country. The chief town, called Cayenne, is situated in a swampy and unhealthy island, about thirty miles in circumference. Here is a tolerable harbour, which seems to have determined the choice of the settlers in fixing on this disagreeable situation. The town, however, does not contain above 1200 white inhabitants, exclusive of the garrison.\* This dreary spot was the place of exile, to which the celebrated General Pichegru, with his associates, went, in September 1793, doomed by the directory of France. Pichegru and Barthelemi had the good fortune, by some means, to make their escape and return to Europe. The subsequent fate of this famous republican general is universally known.

\* This short account of Cayenne is from *Morley's Amer. Geog.* p. 594.

## BATAVIAN POSSESSIONS,\*

### SOUTH AMERICA.

**Dutch** Guiana, frequently called Surinam, from the river of that name, is situated on the north-east of Cayenne, or French Guiana, to which it is somewhat inferior in extent, although possessing a greater length of coast. This colony is situated between five and seven degrees north latitude, having the Atlantic on the north, Cayenne on the east, Terra Firma on the west, and Amazonia on the south. The length from south-east to north-west, along the shores of the Atlantic, is about 350 English miles;† but no more than 160 can be assigned to its extent within land.‡ The face of the country is flat to the distance of about 100 miles from the sea, and subject to inundations. It is watered by several rivers, the chief of which are the Esequibo, the Surinam, the Demarara, the Berbice, and the Conga. The Esequibo is more than 300 miles in length, and 9 miles wide at its mouth. The Surinam is a fine river, three-quarters of a mile in width, navigable for the largest ships to the distance of twelve miles within land, and sixty or seventy miles further for smaller vessels. The banks, quite down to the water's edge, are covered with evergreen mangrove trees, which render its navigation extreme-

\* Although the best part of these settlements are at present in the hands of the English, yet, as they will probably be restored on the conclusion of a peace, I will describe them in this place.

† More's Amer. Geog. p. 246, &c.



ly pleasant. No country perhaps on the surface of the globe has a richer soil, or displays a more luxuriant vegetation, than Dutch Guiana. The climate, in the autumnal months, is unhealthy. Along the coast the air is damp and sultry, and the waters brackish and unwholesome.\* The sea breeze from the north-east, however, contributes to refresh the atmosphere. The water of the lower parts of the river being unfit for drinking, the inhabitants make use of rain water caught in cisterns. The vegetable productions are chiefly sugar, coffee, cocoa, cotton, indigo, ginger, rice, tobacco, and all the tropical plants and fruits, except such as require a dry and sandy soil. The botany of this country is a copious subject, and has been better illustrated than that of any other part of South America. The plan of this work cannot admit of minute details; but it may not, however, be amiss to mention an herbaceous plant, called trochilus, which must be esteemed a singular production of nature. Its leaves lie on the ground, and sometimes attain the almost incredible dimensions of thirty feet in length, and three in breadth. So extraordinary a production is not bestowed on this country in vain; it serves as a general covering for houses, and will last several years without any repair. † Among the vegetable products of Surinam, may be reckoned a variety of drugs of great potency in medicine, as guassia, the castor oil nut, ipecacuanha, and balsam of capivi, and likewise some of the most mortal poisons both of the slow and the rapid kind, but equally fatal in their operation. The zoology exhibits no less

\* The land is in some places higher, but in several lower than the level of high water in the rivers. *Alcock*, p. 596.

† *Encyclopædia*, vol. 2, p. 201.

variety than the vegetable kingdom. The woods are infested with tigers, but of a different species from those of Africa. There are also abundance of monkeys, and other wild animals, common to the tropical regions, with others, considered as peculiar to the country. The birds of Surinam are remarked for the beauty of their plumage; but few of them are famed for their melody. The rivers abound with fish, and are rendered dangerous by the alligators. The reptiles and insects are numerous, and of an endless variety of species, among which may be reckoned scorpions and tarantulas, of the largest size, and the most venomous nature. Serpents of various kinds also abound. Of these, some are venomous, and others remarkable for their enormous size. One kind of snake is described as attaining the prodigious dimensions of thirty-three feet in length, and three feet in circumference, being, with the exception of the liboys of India, perhaps the largest of all the serpent tribes. The immeasurable swamps and entangled forests of Guiana, Amazonia, and the northern parts of Brazil, where the combination of heat and moisture characterize the climate, are the great nursery and unmolested rendezvous of the serpent and insect race.

The chief town of Dutch Guiana is Paramaribo, situated on the western bank of the river of Surinam, at the distance of about twelve miles from its mouth; latitude 6° north, longitude 55° west from London. It contains about 1200 or 2000 white inhabitants, of whom about one half are Jews. The houses are chiefly of wood, and only a few of them have glass windows. The streets are straight and spacious, and planted on each side with orange and tamarind trees. New Middleburgh is a small town near the mouth of the

mity of the colony. The population of Dutch Guiana has been so variously stated, that nothing can be said with any degree of precision on the subject. It has already been observed, that one-half of the white population of Paramaribo consists of Jews; and the same remark may be extended to the whole colony, a circumstance arising from the expulsion of that people from Brazil. The disproportion of colours is greater in this than in any other European colony. On comparing the accounts of different writers, it appears that the slave population exceeds that of the whites in the proportion of at least twelve to one: and this is the colony in which slaves have always been the worst treated. Nothing, indeed, can be more horrible than the accounts which various authors have given of the inhumanity of the colonists in Surinam towards this unhappy class of men. If the Dutch, however, have, in this respect, surpassed all the other Europeans, they have been the first that have felt the effects of this impolitic, as well as unprincipled conduct. Bands of negroes, impelled by despair to revolt, have retired into the interior parts of the province, and under leaders of their own, have formed themselves into a distinct community.\* These Maroons, as they are called, rapidly increasing in numbers by successive desertions from the settlement, soon became formidable to their former masters. The defence of the colony against the negro power, has, for a near a century past, been a principal object of the Dutch government in Surinam. At last, in the year 1773, the whole settlement was surrounded with a cordon and forts, at small intervals, as a bulwark against the negroes. This measure rendered a strong

\* Voyage to Guayana by Ouyette, &c. Basting, 2d. Ed. p. 105.

military force indispensably necessary; and the critical situation of the colony, therefore, obliged all the white inhabitants, who were able to bear arms, to form themselves into a militia, and also to use every means of conciliating the native tribes, and procuring their assistance. These circumstances exhibit a striking feature in the history of negro slavery, and form an interesting contrast with what is seen in Spanish and Portuguese America, where the negroes being liberally treated, and enjoying many opportunities of emancipation, have never shown any disposition to revolt.\*

#### ABORIGINAL TRIBES, AND UNCONQUERED COUNTRIES.

A very considerable part of South America, which is included within the present colonies of the Spaniards and Portuguese, still enjoys its native liberty. The immense interior region from Carina to the Spanish province of La Plata, and beyond that province on a river farther towards the south, Patagonia is undiscovered by its wandering and savage tribes. These countries are yet unexplored, except by voyages to the Marañon, and some of the principal rivers, which discharge themselves into that vast channel of the South American waters. Here nothing is seen but a sterile, unending along the banks, bare, and almost impenetrable fergus, of the soil, and a few small habitations.† These vast countries, called *Guayana*, or

\* See the History of the Negroes in the West Indies, by Mr. O'Connell, p. 101.  
 † See the History of the Negroes in the West Indies, by Mr. O'Connell, p. 101.

with greater propriety, the Land of the Missions, are, for the most part, comprized within the ostensible limits of the Portuguese empire; and further to the north a considerable portion of the interior is claimed by the Spaniards. The Portuguese are sole masters of the Marañon, or river of Amazons, as the Spaniards are of that of La Plata; and both these nations have extended their scattered settlements along their banks to a vast distance into the country. Their empire, however, is here only nominal; and the central parts of the South American continent are in general possessed solely by the aboriginal nations. These countries, so little known, are supposed to be an immense level of the most luxuriant fertility, abounding in wild beasts and venomous reptiles, and inhabited by numerous tribes of savages, who, like their country, are in a state of uncultivated nature. Some writers, however, affirm, that these aboriginal Americans display considerable ingenuity in the construction of their canoes, as well as in making their weapons, &c. But concerning these central savages, little can be said with certainty. The defect of knowledge, however, has in this, as in many other cases, been supplied by fiction. In the fabulous ages of remote antiquity, the Greeks had imagined the existence of a nation of Amazons. With this fiction they embellished many of their histories, as well as their poems. Other nations adopted the fable. The Spaniards, charmed with this dream of antiquity, transferred it to America. There they fixed the Amazons, and feigned a number of appropriate circumstances, in order to give the romance an air of credibility. Since the propagation of this story, great pains have been taken to ascertain the fact; but fiction flies before the face of discovery,

and this modern phenomenon has hitherto eluded all research. Of the savages of Paraguay, the more southern part of this central region, we have somewhat more knowledge. The natives of this part of South America are in general of a good size, and of a fairer complexion, than most of the other aborigines of that continent. They also display considerable ingenuity, vivacity, and wit. The Abipons appear to be a warlike tribe, but their number is not above 3000 or 6000. They inhabit the country near the banks of the Rio Grande, which falls into the Paraguay not far from its junction with the Parana. Their features resemble the European; and the nose is commonly of the aquiline form. From their childhood they are accustomed to the use of the bow. Their arrows are sometimes pointed with iron, and they are also armed with spears of above eight yards in length. These people have, by their strenuous and warlike spirit, rendered themselves formidable to the interior settlers. But what appears singular in a view of savage manners, they undertake all their expeditions on horseback. In order to supply themselves with horses, they catch and tame those, which, as already related, run wild in the woods. They appear to have no idea of a Supreme Deity; but acknowledge an evil principle, whose malevolence they endeavour to avert. Their magicians, as is common among all savage tribes, have great power and influence. The interior part of Paraguay, of which the northern limits appear even yet to be in a great measure unknown, constituted the theatre on which the Jesuits, in the seventeenth century, erected a political and temporal dominion, which astonished the world. These religious order, which, for the policy of assistance, as well as

for the talents and erudition of many of its members, has been the most celebrated of all those that have flourished in the church of Rome, was then in the meridian of its power and credit. In this favorable moment the Jesuits represented to the court of Madrid, that the immorality and imperious conduct of the Spaniards excited the aversion of the Indians against their government; and that through the industry of their order, extensive regions and myriads of uncivilized savages might, without force or expence, be converted to the Catholic religion, and brought under the dominion of the crown of Spain. They proposed their plan, the project was approved, the sphere of their operations was marked out, and they entered with great spirit and activity on their arduous undertaking. It is difficult to conceive the motive that induced these men to abandon the seats of ease and tranquillity, to traverse immense deserts, to plunge into unexplored swamps, and subject themselves to every kind of misery and danger in the midst of ferocious and unknown savages. Whether it was avidity of wealth, a thirst for glory, or zeal for religion, that impelled them to sacrifice all the comforts of civilized society, and encounter so many difficulties and dangers, remains a problem in the history of the human mind. Their enterprising spirit and vigorous perseverance, however, were crowned with success. They found the inhabitants but little removed from a state of nature, strangers to the arts and comforts of civilized life, subsisting precariously by hunting and fishing, and scarcely acquainted with the first principles of subordination and government. The Jesuits were so successful as to civilize and christianize these savage tribes. They taught them to cultivate the ground,

to rear tame animals, to build houses and live in villages. They instructed them in arts and manufactures, accustomed them to the blessings of security and order, and taught them to relish the pleasures of society. Respected and beloved almost to adoration, a few Jesuits presided over many thousands of Indians, whom they governed with a paternal attention. They maintained a perfect equality among all the members of the community. The produce of their fields, and all the fruits of their industry, were deposited in common store-houses, from which every individual received all that was necessary for the supply of his wants. By this singular institution, almost all the passions that disturb the peace of society were extinguished. Punishments were therefore extremely rare, and no rigorous laws were necessary.

The Jesuits had so projected their plan, that their government formed an *imperium in imperio*. On condition of allegiance to the crown of Spain, and of paying the capitation tax for their subjects, they were left absolute masters of the administration of their extensive provinces, and their whole plan was artfully calculated for the establishment of an independent empire, which should acknowledge no other sovereign than the society. They cut off all communication between their subjects and the neighbouring settlements. They endeavoured to inspire the Indians with a hatred and contempt of the Spaniards and Portuguese, and prohibited the private traders of that nation from entering the territory of the mission. Such persons, even as were admitted in a public capacity from the neighbouring governments, were not allowed to have any conversation with the inhabitants. In order to render all communication, and



such as possible, they carefully avoided giving their subjects any knowledge of the Spanish, or any other European tongue, but laboured to make a certain native dialect the universal language throughout their dominions. Having, like the priests of ancient Egypt, acquired an unlimited influence over the minds of the people, secured their attachment and veneration, and monopolized all the sources of power and emolument, they instructed their subjects in the European arts of war, in order to give stability and permanency to their empire. They formed them into bodies of cavalry and infantry, completely armed and regularly disciplined. They provided a sufficient train of artillery, as well as magazines well stored with the implements of war, and thus established a military force, which appeared formidable in the neighbourhood of the Spanish and Portuguese settlements. Such is the account which historians have given of this empire established by the Jesuits in South America.\* Its tranquillity was not interrupted, nor its force called into exertion, till the year 1757, when part of the country being ceded to Portugal by Spain, the Jesuits refused to submit to this transfer. The persecution of their order in Portugal, and afterwards in France, involved them in a new series of troubles; and at last, in 1767, they were expelled from America. It must, however, be observed, that this piece of history, as well as every thing relating to that celebrated order, appears somewhat mysterious. Dr. Robertson, who has consulted not only Charlevoix and Ulloa, but also the reports of Chaotais and Montcalm, and most of the works that were written con-

\* Voyage de Ulloa, tom. 1. Traduction Française.—Chambers's Dict. de Paraguay, vol. 2.

cerning the Jesuits, at a period when their affairs attracted the attention of Europe, seems to give implicit credit to the history of their empire in South America, as it is here related nearly in his own language.\* But it must be confessed, that in the accounts of modern travellers, no marks appear of that exalted state of civilization, which has been represented in colours so attractive, and of which the traces could scarcely have been so soon obliterated. And it is equally certain that their armies, which in the writings of historians appear so numerous and formidable, soon vanished before the European troops. The latter circumstance, perhaps, may be accounted for, by considering that the missions of Paraguay constituted only a branch of the order; and that the necessity of sacrificing their partial interests in America to the general interests of the society in Europe, might prevent them from making all the resistance of which they were capable. There is, on the whole, strong reason to suspect that the history of the power of the Jesuits in Paraguay, and of the civilization and happiness of their subjects, has been exaggerated; at first, perhaps by themselves and their friends, in order to show the importance of their labours; and afterwards by their enemies, for the purpose of exciting the jealousy of the courts of Madrid and Lisbon.

Both Spanish and Portuguese America have, as already observed, a numerous Indian population. The same may be said of French and Dutch Guiana, of which a small part only is subdued and colonized. The natives of Brazil are represented for the most part as irreclaimable savages, of a mild and strong, and insular. Some of those of Guiana are peace-

\* Peter Martyr, Hist. Geogr. lib. 2. cap. 6.

able and inoffensive; but others are the most ferocious of human beings, especially the Caribs, who are cannibals.\* In Terra Firma are a variety of native tribes, who are yet unsubdued. The Peruvians were found in a considerable degree civilised, and are ingenious, humane, and lively. The Chilians are a warlike people. They made a vigorous resistance against the Spaniards on their first invasion of the country; and towards the mountains numerous tribes are yet free and formidable. Patagonia, a country for the most part level, but dry, destitute of timber, and in a cold climate, is left entirely in the possession of the natives. It is here that a real or fictitious nation of giants has caused as much dispute as that of the Amazons. In concluding this article, it may not be amiss to observe, that in South, as well as in North America, the universal form of government among the natives is that of their Caciques, or petty chiefs, with a very limited power.

\* Boscawen's Nat. Hist. of Guiana, p. 264.

## WEST-INDIAN ISLANDS.

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The numerous and important islands which border the Gulf of Mexico, extending nearly from East Florida almost to the mouth of the Orinoko, have obtained the name of West-Indies, from an erroneous opinion entertained by the first discoverers, that they constituted a part of India, or at least that they were not far distant from that continent. The principal of these, ranging in a direction from west to east, are Cuba, Jamaica, St. Domingo, and Porto Rico. These are followed by that remarkable groupe known to the English by the names of Leeward and Windward Islands, the former division extending from Porto Rico to Dominica, the latter comprizing Martinico, and all the southern part of the range.\* The French include them all under the appellation of windward, as being situated towards the east, the point of the trade wind; they are also known in geography by the names of the Antilles and the Caribbee Islands. Their situation and products are such as to render them of great commercial importance; but excepting St. Domingo, their political weight is considerable only by their connections with Europe. The West-India islands are so well known, that a minute description is unnecessary; and a general view will suffice for every geographical and historical purpose.

\* Edwards's Hist. of West-Indies, vol. 1, p. 6.

## ST. DOMINGO.

Among all the islands comprized in this extensive range, Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, constituting an independent negro government, a phenomenon in the history of the new world, has acquired the greatest political importance, and merits in the highest degree the attention of the statesman and the philosopher. The central part of St. Domingo is situated under the 19th degree of north latitude, and the 71st degree of west longitude; and its extent may be computed at something more than 400 English miles in length from east to west, by about 120 miles in its greatest, or 100 in its medial breadth. The face of the country is exceedingly diversified. Towards the coasts, numerous vallies and extensive plains display the most luxuriant fertility. The interior of the island is mountainous, and presents an intricate mass of hills, vallies, and forests, which, notwithstanding the early colonization of the coasts, appear to be imperfectly known to the Europeans. The climate, like that of the rest of the West-Indies, is hot; and if we may form a judgment from the events of the last war, it must be considered as extremely unhealthful. Homsprell's regiment of hussars was in little more than two months reduced from 1000 to 300; and the 96th regiment totally perished on this inhospitable shore. Of 15,000 British and foreign troops employed in this expedition to St. Domingo, no more than 3000 were left alive and fit for service at the end of the year 1797; and about 5000 seamen are said to have perished in that ill-fated enterprise.\* The Europeans, however, having wealth for their only object in the establishment of colonies, have invari-

\* Edwards's Hist. of the West-Indies, vol. 3. p. 385, &c.

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\* Bourne's Hist. of the New Indies, vol. 3. p. 225. &c.

ably postponed the advantages of health to the views of avarice; and in the eye of the merchant or the planter, the exuberant fertility of the soil of St. Domingo might amply compensate the inconveniences of the climate. The average produce of all the sugar lands, while in the hands of the French, was not less than twenty-four hundred weight per acre, which is three times the average fertility of those of Jamaica.\* In the richest soil of St. Domingo, a single acre has been known to yield the enormous quantity of two tons and a half of sugar. Before the revolution, the annual value of the exports in sugar, the principal article, coffee, cotton, indigo, molasses, rum, raw and tanned hides, amounted to about 4,765,129*l.* sterling. In regard to commerce, St. Domingo was the most valuable of all the West-India islands, and a mine of wealth to France.

Of all the European settlements, this was the most remarkable for the abundant importation of slaves. During the ten years previous to the revolution, the average number of negroes annually imported amounted to 29,000.† And amidst this immense influx of Africans, the number of white inhabitants had somewhat decreased.‡ In the year 1790, the population of the French part of St. Domingo amounted to 480,000 negro slaves, with about 24,000 Mulattoes, or free people of colour, and no more than 26,800 whites.§ From a view of these circumstances, it is easy to perceive that the extent to which the slave trade was carried paved the way to that tremendous revolution, which proved so fatal to those dealers in human flesh, whose grand object was to acquire by

\* *Essays on the Col. Policy*, vol. 1, p. 531.

† *Ibid.* p. 531.

‡ *Necessary Measures*, tom. 1, p. 13.

§ *Edward's Hist. of St. Domingo*, p. 172.



the sweat and the toil of the negroes in St. Domingo, a fortune that might enable them to riot in luxury at Bourdeaux or Paris. The national assembly of France, too precipitately attempting to reform her colonial system, at a moment when the mother country was agitated by the most violent commotions, gave the impulse to that dangerous power, which the rapid increase of black population had introduced into St. Domingo. Some contradictory decrees of that assembly respecting the rights of the free Mulattos to vote for representatives, excited the first disturbances, which were further fomented by the intrigues of the French planters. Various struggles ensued between the whites and the people of colour. The commissioners of France had emancipated and armed the slaves, in order to defend the island against the English; and the whole settlement exhibited a tumultuous and martial scene. The revolutionizing and levelling spirit of France was introduced into her colonies, and St. Domingo afforded an ample and favorable field for its operation. The consequence has been, that after a war of many years on the cruel principle of extermination, the French are totally expelled from all parts of the island, except from the city of St. Domingo; and the world now sees the singular phenomenon, an independent and powerful negro empire, in the most commanding situation of the West-Indies.\*

## CUBA.

The island of Cuba may be ranked next to St. Domingo, to which it is equal, or even superior in extent, and inferior only in political importance. The south-

\* For the particulars of the bloody transactions which have taken place in the island, see Mr. Rainsford's Hist. of St. Domingo.

ernmost part of the coast is under the parallel of 20° north, which is nearly the latitude of the northern shores of St. Domingo; and the northern extremity extends almost to the tropic of Cancer. Cuba is about 700 miles in length, by something less than 70 in medial breadth. A chain of mountains runs across the interior from east to west; but the soil is in general extremely fertile. It produces a great quantity of sugar; and its tobacco has a finer flavour than that of any other part of America. Among its productions may also be reckoned cocoa, mastic, long pepper, ginger, and aloes. The forests produce ebony, mahogany, and most of the different species of West-Indian timber: they also abound with cattle and swine like those of St. Domingo. In consequence of the more liberal policy which Spain has adopted in her colonial system since 1765, the state of Cuba is greatly improved. In a few years its cultivation has been so greatly extended, that its trade, instead of requiring only six vessels as formerly, soon employed 200.\* The coast has several good harbours. St. Jago, on the south side of the island, was formerly the capital; but that honour is now transferred to the Havanna, situated on the northern coast. This city was founded about the year 1519. In 1679 it was taken by Morgan, the famous Buccaneer. It surrendered to the British arms under Admiral Pocock and the Earl of Albemarle, in 1761, after a gallant defence. Since the peace of 1763, its fortifications have been greatly augmented, and are now reckoned almost impregnable. Cuba was first discovered by Columbus. But he soon after abandoned it for St. Domingo, where he expected to find greater abun-

\* Brougham's Col. Pol. vol. 2, p. 137.

dance of gold. Some gold dust, however, is found in the rivers, or rather rivulets, of Cuba: and there are mines of excellent copper. The gold mines of St. Domingo seem not to have fully answered the expectations of the Spaniards, who abandoned them as soon as those of Mexico were discovered. It was not known whether Cuba was an island, or part of the continent, till it was circumnavigated by Ocampo in 1508; and in 1511 it was conquered by 300 Spaniards under Don Diego de Velasquez.\* From that time until after the conquest of Mexico, Cuba seems to have been the principal seat of the Spanish power in America.

### JAMAICA.

JAMAICA, the chief of the British West-India islands, is in extent the third in the American Archipelago, being about 170 miles in length, by 60 in breadth. A ridge of mountains runs from east to west quite through the middle of the island, and forms a variety of beautiful landscapes. The lower declivities are covered with forests, overtopped by the blue summits of the central ridge. The blue mountain peak rises 7431 feet, or nearly a mile and a half above the level of the sea; and the precipices are interspersed with beautiful savannas. From these central mountains descend above 100 rivulets, of which the Black river, running to the south, is the most considerable. By the industry of the planters, Jamaica is become a flourishing settlement; but in fertility it is far inferior to St. Domingo and Cuba; and the climate, though tempered by the sea breezes, is extremely hot. St. Jago, or Spanish Town, is regarded as the capital, but Kingston is the principal port. The

\* Robertson's Hist. of Amer. vol. 1, p. 192, 249.

population is composed of 250,000 negroes, 10,000 Mulattos, and about 20,000 white inhabitants.\* The legislature consists of the governor, the council of twelve, nominated by the crown, and a representative assembly of forty-three members chosen by the freeholders.† The importation of slaves from Africa formerly constituted a considerable part of the trade of this island. To the immortal glory of the British senate, this commerce is now abolished, and the capital which it employed will be directed into some more laudable, perhaps more profitable channel. The chief exports of Jamaica to Great Britain, Ireland, and North America, are sugar, rum, coffee, indigo, ginger, and pimento. In 1787, they were estimated at the value of 2,000,000*l.* sterling, and the imports at 1,500,000*l.* The intercourse with Honduras, and other parts of the Mexican coast, is now nearly abandoned; but some little trade is carried on with Spanish America, by small vessels, which elude the vigilance of the Guarda Costas. The annual revenue of the island, arising from a poll-tax, with a duty on rum, and formerly on negroes, amounted to more than 100,000*l.* sterling, of which about 75,000*l.* went to defray the ordinary expences of government. Jamaica was first discovered by Columbus in his second voyage, A. D. 1494. In 1655 it fell into the hands of the English, in whose possession it has ever since remained. The most striking events in its history are the wars with the Maroons, or independent negroes. These were originally slaves to the Spaniards, being left behind when their masters evacuated the island, retired to the mountains, where they maintained their

\* Kingston contains about 26,000 souls. M'Kinnan's Tour, p. 84.

† Edwards's Hist. of the West-Indies, vol. 1, p. 214.

independence

independence until they were lately subdued; and most of them sent to Nova Scotia.

### PORTO RICO.

PORTO RICO, which belongs to Spain, is about 120 English miles in length, by about 40 in breadth. It is a beautiful, well-watered, and fertile island. The productions are the same as those of Cuba. The northern parts are said to contain some mines of gold and silver; but the richer veins of Mexico and Peru have caused them to be neglected. This island was one of Colon's discoveries. In 1509 it was conquered by Ponce de Leon, the first explorer of Florida.

### THE ANTILLES, OR CARIBBEE ISLANDS.

THE Caribbee islands, including Barbadoes, which stands detached towards the east, at some distance from the general range, are extremely fertile, and of great commercial advantage to their possessors, who are chiefly the English and the French. Barbadoes, Antigua, St. Christopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Granada, Montserrat, Nevis, and the Virgin isles, belong to Great Britain.\* Martinique, Guadaloupe, St. Lucie, and Tobago, are French. The Danish islands are St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John. The Swedes possess St. Bartholomew, and the Dutch St. Eustatia. Of the whole groupe, Guadaloupe and Barbadoes are the most important. The first, includ-

\* Barbadoes is somewhat low, but the rest of the islands are lofty and picturesque, especially St. Lucia, Dominica, and St. Christopher's. M. Kinnan's Tour, ch. 2 and 3.

ing Grand Terre, far surpasses any of the others in size, being about sixty miles in length, by twenty-five in breadth. Barbadoes, although only about twenty miles in length, and thirteen in breadth, is supposed to contain 17,000 white inhabitants, to export annually 10,000 hogsheads of sugar, and 6000 puncheons of rum, besides cotton and other commodities. Martinique is also a valuable island.\* St. Vincent may be considered as divided between the English and the black Caribs, a sort of Maroons, or descendants of revolted negroes, the whole British territory consisting of only six parishes. In some of these islands are short ranges of central hills; but the coasts are in general level, and display the most exuberant fertility. Dominica contains several volcanos. It also seems that there has formerly been many in Guadaloupe. The noted souffriere, in this island, is a natural curiosity, being a vast mass of sulphur, or sulphurated earth, which emits a continual smoke. The productions of all these islands are similar, consisting of sugar, rum, coffee, cocoa, † cotton, indigo, &c.

A groupe of islands also runs parallel to the coast of South America, of which the most noted are Curassoa and Buenayre, the former belonging to Great Britain, the latter to the Dutch. Under this division may also be classed the island of Trinidad, recently ceded by Spain to Great Britain. It is situated under the 10th parallel of north latitude, and is about eighty or ninety miles in length, by about thirty miles in medial breadth.

\* Mr. M'Kinnan's describes Barbadoes as a beautiful island, but the climate unhealthy. *Tour to the West-Indies*, p. 16, 17. *Edwards's Hist. of the West-Indies*. vol. 1, p. 403.

† Mr. M'Kinnan describes the cultivation of the West-India islands as extremely expensive. *Tour to the West-Indies*, p. 28, 29.

About

About one-third of the island consists of mountainous tracts: the rest has a fertile soil. The southern side is well adapted to the culture of coffee: and the western coast has a safe and commodious harbour. The climate of Trinidad is represented as excellent, and remarkably free from those hurricanes, which so often spread devastation in the other West-India islands; but the vehemence of the north winds has been found prejudicial to the cocoa plantations. The Bahama islands form a numerous groupe; but they are little known or noticed. The soil is in general barren: their trade is consequently small, and their exports of little importance. The whole number of English settlers in these islands does not exceed 3000 or 4000.\*

### GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON THE WEST-INDIES:

THE situation of the West-India islands within the torrid zone; the similarity of climate, products, and commerce; the mixture of European and African inhabitants; and, in fine, the whole combination of physical and moral circumstances, place them in nearly the same common predicament, and render some general observations applicable to the whole of this interesting portion of the globe. A mountainous and woody interior, presenting lofty heights, and encumbered with pathless forests and waste fertility, contrasted with level and cultivated coasts, may be regarded as the most striking geographical feature in all the larger, and most of the smaller islands.† Their

\* For an ample account of the Bahama islands, see M'Kinnan's Tour, ch. 6, and the nine following chapters.

† See Lempriere on the situation, &c. of Jamaica; and M'Kinnan's Tour to the British West-Indies, *Passim*.

situation indicates the common advantages and inconveniences of the tropical climates. From their exposure to the sea breezes, the heat in the West-India islands, however, is far from being so intense as in the interior of Africa, Arabia, Persia, &c. where this refrigerating influence is wanted. In all these islands, the sea-breeze commences about nine or ten in the morning, when the solar rays have, to a certain degree, heated the land, and rarefied the incumbent air. This breeze blows from every point of the compass, from the surrounding coast towards the interior. In the evening, when the earth is cooled, the land-breeze begins, and blows in every direction from the centre of the island towards the coast. This alternate motion of the winds, constantly tending to restore the equilibrium of the air, in proportion as it is destroyed by rarefaction, greatly contributes to mitigate the heat of the climate. The combination of heat and moisture in the West-Indies, however, is such as to render them very unhealthy to European constitutions, a fact so well known, as to render any reference to authorities, or any examination of proofs, unnecessary. The frequency of those dreadful hurricanes, which ruin at once all the hopes of the planter, not to mention the earthquakes which have sometimes proved so fatal in Cuba, Jamaica, and other islands, must also be considered as a tremendous characteristic of the West-India climate. The productions of those islands, which in all are nearly the same, with the nature of their commerce, have already been mentioned, and are subjects generally known.

The peculiar circumstances of the West-Indies, have given rise to a particular state of society in a great measure common to all the islands, although possessed



by different nations. Little attention is paid to literature or the arts : commercial speculation absorbs all the faculties of the mind, and gain is the only object of pursuit.\* The disproportionate numbers of the two sexes, and the long prevalence of negro slavery, have unavoidably contributed to the contamination of morals, and to the introduction of licentiousness, as well as of indolence. The abolition of the African trade cannot fail of producing a beneficial change in the structure of West-Indian society.

\* Malouet Mem. sur les Col. tom. 4, p. 127, &c. N. B. The English and Dutch do not present a more pleasing picture of society than the French colonies.

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*THE END.*

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## ERRATA.

- Vol. V. p. 111. line 9, for *Plotca*, read *Marathon*.  
 ——— page 115, line 10, for *St. Sebastian*, read *St. Salvador*.

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