

The ancient and modern history of Nice : comprehending an account of the foundation of Marseilles : to which are prefixed descriptive observations on the nature, produce, and climate of the territory of the former city, and its adjoining towns : with an introduction, containing hints of advice to invalids, who, with the hope of arresting the progress of the disease, seek the renovating influence of the salubrious climes / by I. B. Davis.

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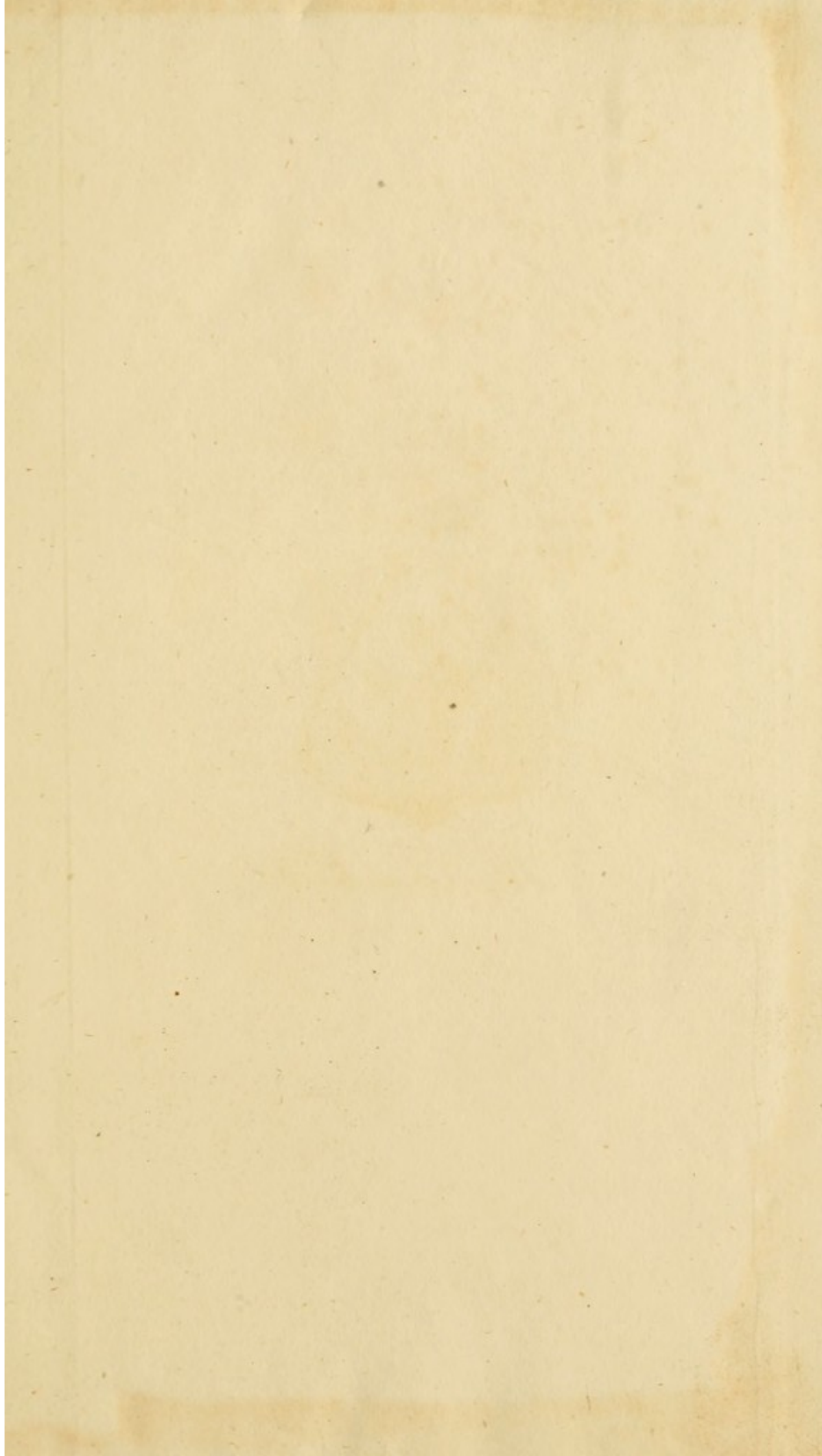
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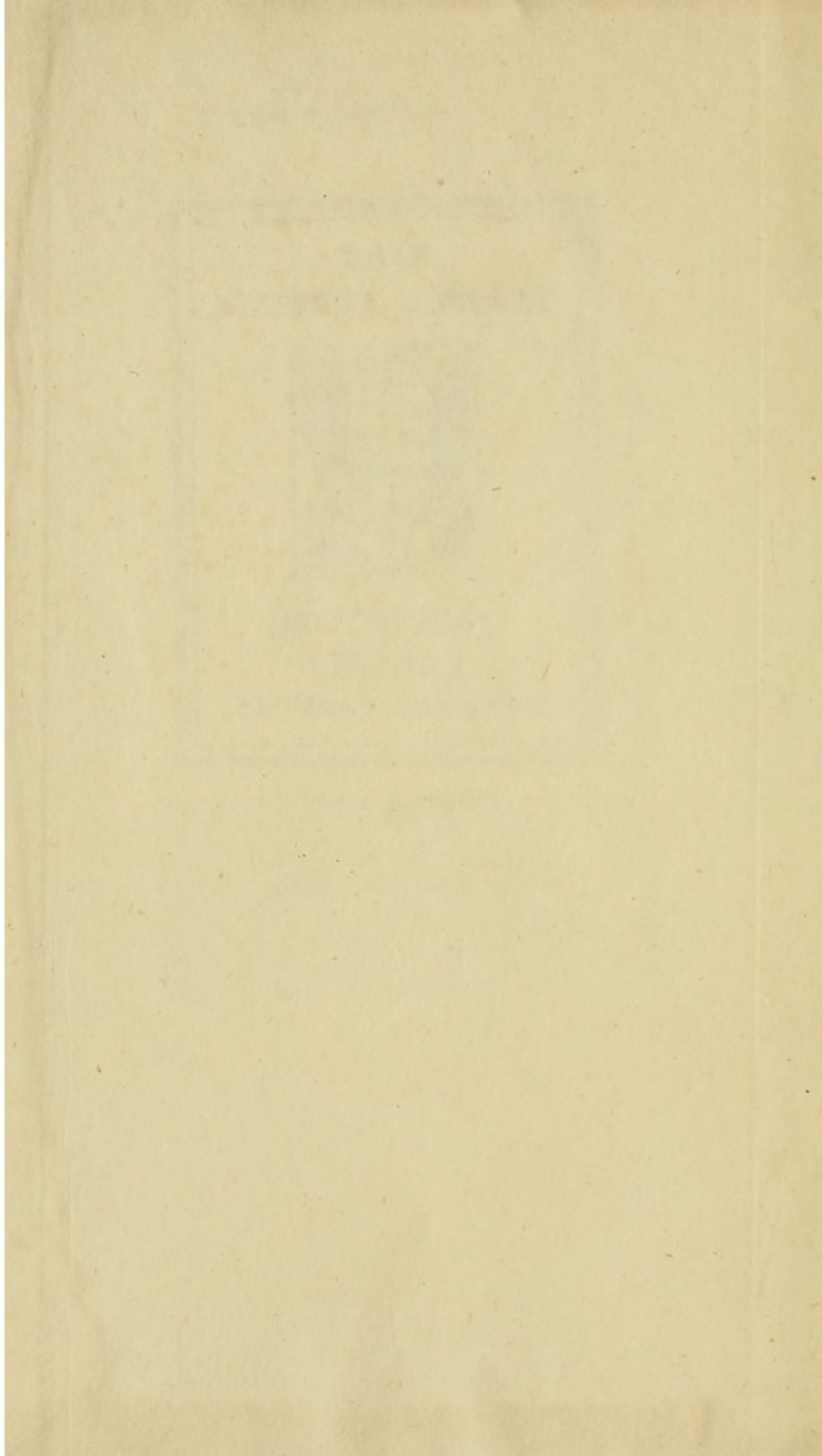


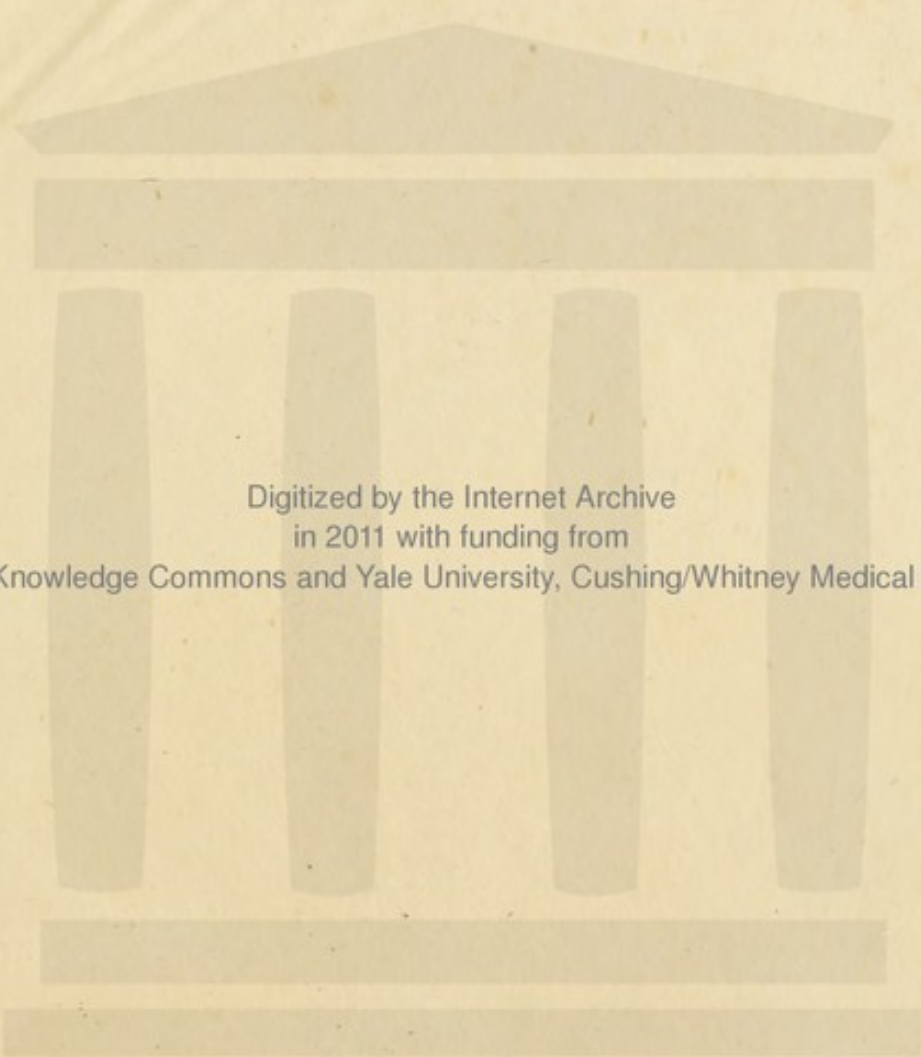
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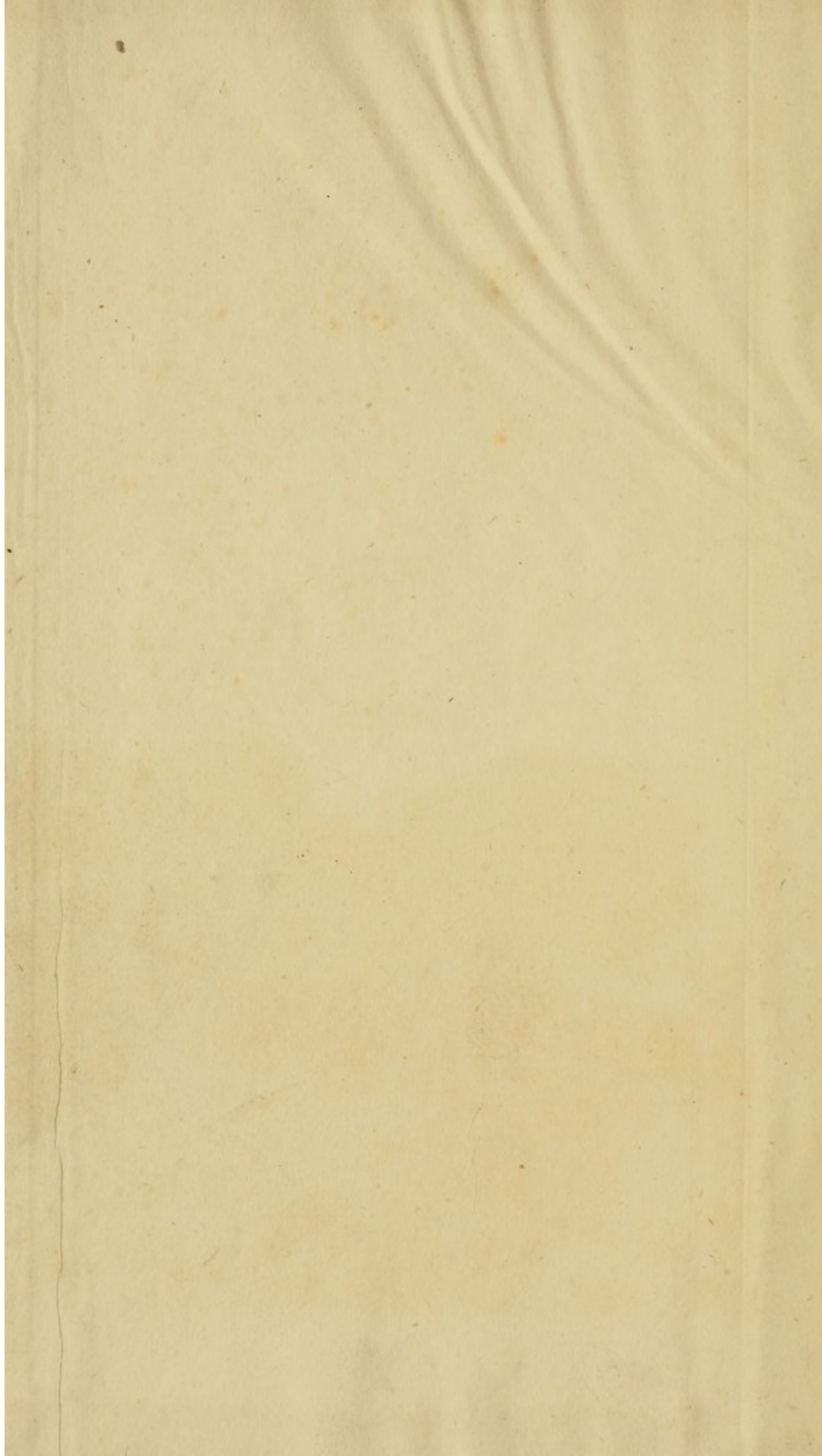
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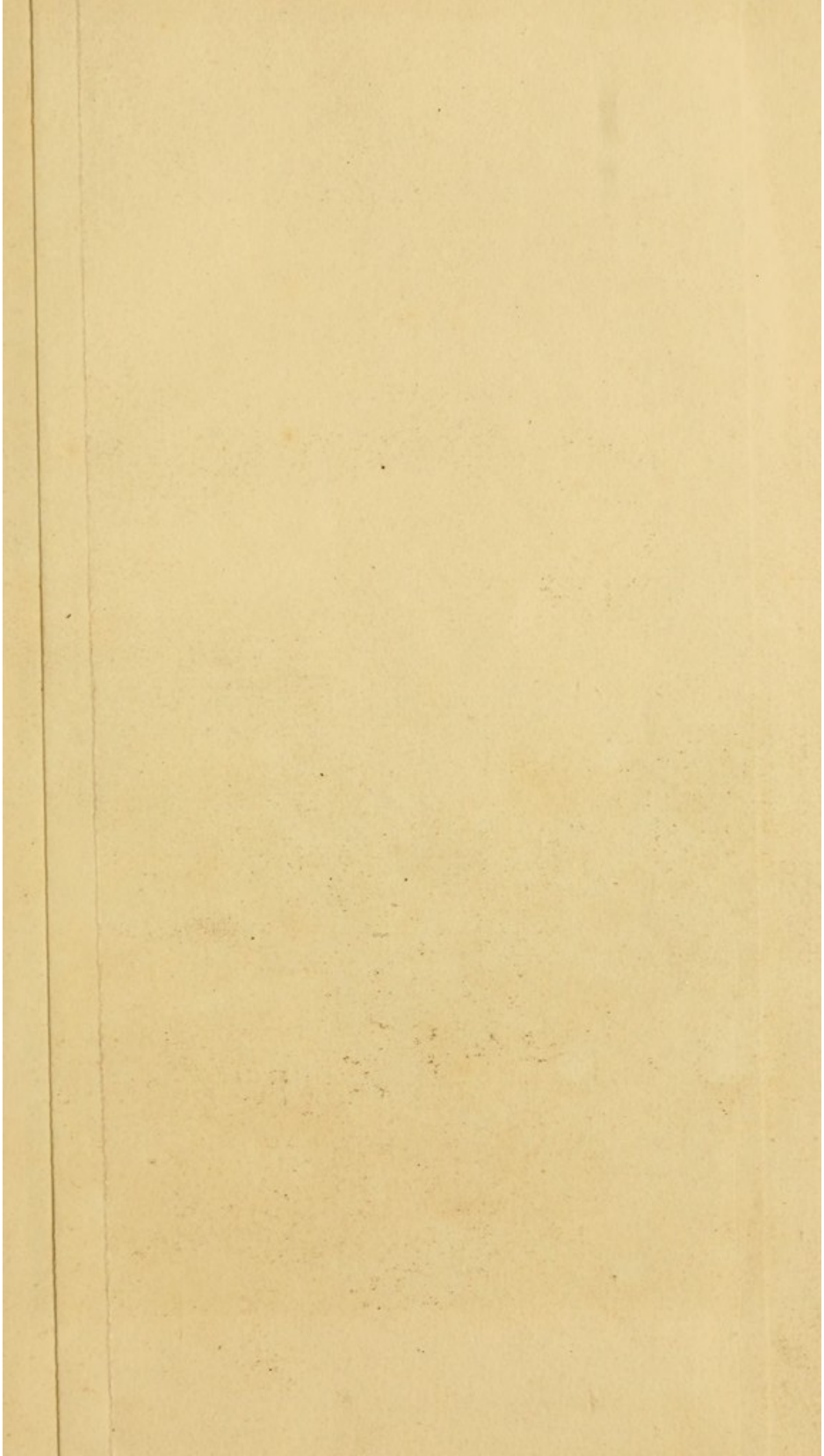






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VIEW OF NICE

THE
ANCIENT AND MODERN HISTORY
OF
N I C E;

COMPREHENDING
AN ACCOUNT OF THE FOUNDATION
OF
M A R S E I L L E S :

TO WHICH ARE PREFIXED
Descriptive Observations on the Nature, Produce, and Climate,
OF
THE TERRITORY OF THE FORMER CITY,
AND ITS ADJOINING TOWNS:

WITH
An Introduction,
Containing Hints of Advice to Invalids, who, with the Hope of Arresting the Progress
of Disease, seek the renovating Influence of these salubrious Climes.

By I. B. DAVIS, M. D.
ONE OF THE BRITISH CAPTIVES FROM VERDUN,
AUTHOR OF "PROJET DE RÈGLEMENT CONCERNANT LES DÉCÈS," AND
MEMBER OF SEVERAL MEDICAL SOCIETIES.

" Orbis miraculum Nicæa est."

" Vertumne, Pomone, et Zéphyre
Avec Flore y regnent toujours :
C'est l'Asyle de leurs amours,
Et le trône de leur empire."

London :
PRINTED FOR TIPPER & RICHARDS,
LEADENHALL-STREET.

1807.

THE
ANCIENT AND MODERN HISTORY

N I C H

AN ACCOUNT OF THE FOUNDATION

MASSACHUSETTS:

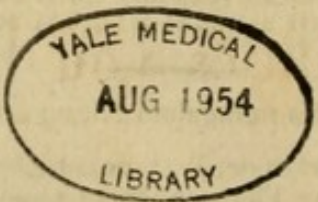
TO WHICH ARE PREFIXED
A CRITICAL OBSERVATION ON THE SYSTEMS OF PUNISHMENT AND CORRECTION

THE TERRITORY OF THE FORMER CITY

AND THE ADJACENT TOWNS:

WITH
A COMMENTARY ON THE

CONSTITUTION OF THE STATE OF MASSACHUSETTS



Printed by Dewick and Clarke,
Aldersgate-street.

TO
THE RIGHT HONORABLE
LORD VISCOUNT SUDLEY.

MY LORD,

IN being allowed to dedicate the following pages to your Lordship, I feel a sentiment of pride and pleasure, as it affords me an opportunity of publicly expressing my sense of gratitude, for the many personal civilities you have shewn me.

This fresh instance of your indulgence sufficiently evinces your Lordship's generous zeal for my

interest and welfare; and calls forth a testimony of the unfeigned respect and regard, which I have for several years uninterruptedly entertained for your Lordship, and been long anxious to acknowledge as

My Lord,

Your Lordship's

Most obedient, most obliged,

and faithful, humble Servant,

I. B. DAVIS.

Tower, Feb. 26, 1807.

and relate the achievements of a warlike people, is, it will be admitted, a difficult undertaking; but implicitly confiding in the candor and liberality of my countrymen, I found an encouragement to persevere; and the public will be umpire how far I have given a proper colouring to the picture, of which this is the outline.

The favorable opinion I entertain of the efficacy of the shores of Nice in arresting disease, induces me to observe, that the despondent invalid may there rest his longing eye, and look with confidence to his recovery: there may he, without much reluctance, bring his mind to submit to the painful sacrifice of flying from his native country, and, for a while, renouncing the society of his dearest friends: there may he also find consolation in the enjoyment of the numerous beauties of perpetual spring, her genial warmths, and refreshing dews,

when winter, with an icy sceptre, reigns uncontrolled over less auspicious climes. The first struggle surmounted, the noon-day zephyr, with all its wonted gentleness, will regale his drooping senses; the air, perfumed by the blossoms of the flowery fields which embellish that delightful scenery, retains a sweetness and a vigour in it, that will revive his feeble frame, diffuse a sentiment of serenity over his anxious mind, and conduct him imperceptibly, and by a peculiar charm, to health and happiness.

Nor here should I omit impressing on the mind of the sanguine valetudinarian, that, though he should droop and sicken, where he looked for a quick return of health, yet may his suspended breath, which announces his fear and disappointment, resume its wonted course, and the vital principle reanimate; neither should he, thus encouraged, and where remedy is arrayed in so much

P R E F A C E.

THERE are two principal reasons for which I venture to trouble the public with this work ; the first is, to benefit the invalids who seek to repair the ravages of disease in a climate celebrated for its temperature ; the second, to record the beauties and antiquities of a country which has always held a distinguished rank in the annals of every age.

Presuming that it is not less a desideratum to dispel the fear of danger, restore serenity to the mind, and banish sorrow, when the body droops under the pressure of disease, than to convey information under an entertaining and captivating form, I have attempted to accomplish this double object

by exhibiting to the valetudinarian, and the traveller, whose pursuit is pleasure, such a series of amusements, scenes, and incidents, as are calculated to benefit the one, and divert the other.

Who can for a moment doubt but that health is more likely to return when the path to the acquirement of it is strewed with flowers; when the painful burthen that overwhelms the soul is alleviated by agreeable occupations, and when anxiety is exchanged for patience and resignation? Aware of this, it has been my endeavour to combine remedy with amusement, in the full persuasion, that a change of scene never fails of brightening the couch of sickness, of becoming the source of consolation, and the anchor of hope.

To describe the endless variety of nature's works in the enchanting plain of Nice; to trace all the beauties that delight the senses;

my captivity, from numerous authors entitled to full credit, to which sources of information I neglected not to join those which I obtained by oral communication.

I am anxious also to apprise the reader, that I have not undertaken this task, without a conviction of my great inferiority in the rank of those travellers who have excelled in the descriptive and amusing parts of historical and geographical narrative.

ERRATA.

- Page 19.. for assuetu's, read assuetus.
 23.... reçit recoit.
 46.... Avissa..... Avisio.
 60.... Whortley.... Wortley.
 63.... amouros.... amorous.
 73.... Phoceans.... Phœceans.
 225.... intercpætis... interceptis.
 290.... uncle Robert, . grandfather Robert.

my copy, from a private collector, and
I have had it reprinted, to which I have
added some notes, and a few corrections.

INTRODUCTION

I am anxious also to express the reader
that I have not undertaken this work with
any view to gain, but only to contribute
to the advancement of the science.

Having witnessed with great concern and
astonishment, the rapid progress of
the complaints in the English Islands, in
the winter of 1802, I anxiously seized every
opportunity of inquiring into the causes of
the unfavourable changes which manifested
themselves soon after an arrival in the coun-
try, or to what circumstance the increase of
symptoms was to be attributed in a climate
which promised great advantages to the
class of invalids. It would not be in the
least embarrassing, to prove the utility of
such an enquiry, for reasons obvious
advantageous to those whose cases require
change of climate: nor should I have
been open to contradiction, in asserting that the

beauty, repine at the tardy alleviation of his pains.

It has also been my study in composing the following pages, to interest both the sick and healthy individual: I trust, therefore, that the man of the world, retiring from the tumultuous intercourse of society, and in search of the charms of a tranquil residence at Nice, will peruse the following pages with profitable pleasure, and be induced in consequence, to contemplate with eager curiosity the beauties that ravish his sight on that favored plain. The harmony and variety there seen, in the animal kingdom, will doubtless prove a source of instruction and entertainment to the naturalist; the botanist will also have his delights in tracing the picturesque beauties of the vegetable world, in a state of the highest perfection; and the antiquary enjoy a rich repast, in the contemplation of the pictures

which the history of the country successively unfolds.

The work is divided into two parts, and each of those sub-divided into sections; the first, comprehends an introduction, containing hints of advice to invalids, who, with the hope of arresting the progress of disease, seek the renovating influence of these salubrious climes; the topography of Nice; an account of the character, language, commerce, &c. of the Nissards; and descriptive observations on the nature, produce, and climate of the country, together with the topography of some adjoining towns: the second contains the ancient and modern history of Nice, with a description of the original inhabitants of the country, and an account of the foundation of Marseilles.

Here it is in place to notice, and I candidly avow, that I have collected materials for my work, though many were lost during

INTRODUCTION.

HAVING witnessed with great concern and astonishment, the rapid progress of pulmonary complaints in the English, at Nice, in the winter of 1802, I anxiously seized every opportunity of inquiring into the causes of the unfavourable changes which manifested themselves soon after an arrival in the country, or to what circumstance the increase of symptoms was to be attributed in a climate which promised great advantages to this class of invalids. It would not be in the least embarrassing to prove the utility of such an enquiry, for reasons obviously advantageous to those whose cases require a change of climate: nor should I lay myself open to contradiction, in asserting, that the

situation of the greater part of the sick, who reached the southern provinces of France, was hopeless. I may also advance with similar confidence, that of all the diseases incident to the human body, consumption is the one that demands a co-operation of every means that art can invent, and superior talent direct, to cure or controul.

It is a difficult task, if not impossible, to prescribe general rules for the treatment of a pulmonary complaint, that has already made a certain progress, and to successfully ward off a variety of menacing symptoms that have their origin in age, peculiarity of constitution, stage of disease, change of climate, and a variety of accidental circumstances. But it is at least, often in the power of the physician, who accompanies an invalid, to counteract various symptoms, which, if neglected, would augment during a journey, and perhaps speedily lay the

ground-work of an incurable affection; as it is also next to an impossibility for an absent physician, to direct the management of a patient under any of the above circumstances.

I believe, and examples corroborate the opinion, that changing the residence of consumptive persons to a mild climate, often arrests the progress of disease, and not unfrequently re-establishes health: but in those cases, the lungs are not sustaining tubercular inflammation, nor have they, probably, in any other way experienced the changes requisite to constitute true phthisis.

In recommending a change of climate, we ought first to notice the ability of a patient to support a long journey, his habit, then the stage of the disease, the season of the year, and the kind of weather in that season. The stage of the complaint is certainly of the first importance, but unless the other

circumstances be well observed also, incipient disease will put on a confirmed form before the arrival at the place of destination; so that though seemingly of a secondary consideration, they often decide on the fate of the patient.

If a dominion of cold winds in autumn creates inflammation of the mucous membrane which is spread over the bronchiæ in persons in health, it is reasonable to conclude, that the lungs of a delicate female, already too irritable, will become more so, and from the slightest excitement proceed to active inflammation.

I am persuaded, that if the health of persons who arrive at Nice, could be contrasted with the health of those in a similar state in England, at the time the former quitted it, we should find in a number of instances, that instead of being benefited by the journey, they were weaker, their coughs more violent

and accesses of fever more frequent. Nay, these changes often occur on the journey, sometimes accompanied with pain in the side, great shortness of breathing, hæmoptoe and purulent expectoration. Notwithstanding all the skill and attention of medical attendants, it often in such cases happens, that the patient ends a miserable life in some comfortless inn, or under less violent symptoms is prevailed on to resume the journey, and then pays the debt of nature on the spot where he expected to regain his health.

This is a common occurrence, and obliges us to acknowledge, that patients quit England at too late a period, when every remedy has been tried in vain, and that the forlorn hope of a change of climate is the only one that remains. Consulted by some at Nice, by others at Montpellier, I usually had to contend with a disease in its last

stage, where I was obliged to employ every remedy that could mitigate, though but for a short time, the violence of predominant symptoms. I found commonly upon enquiry, that the complaints of these persons were much less violent before they left England, and that accidental difficulties on the road had every now and then occurred, and invariably added to the patient's sufferings.

I think that people, who have the more alarming symptoms of phthisis, such as hectic fever, violent cough, purulent spitting, and extenuation to a certain degree, and indeed in whom the disease has not yet acquired so deep a root, ought never to risk a journey to Nice. I would also add, that if under favorable circumstances an invalid should attempt the experiment, and that his cough grew worse on the road, and fever came on, he should immediately desist from travelling, and await an entire

disappearance of these symptoms before he resumed the journey.

Our hopes of success in controlling this disease are slight, unless a seasonable period be chosen to try the influence of a milder air, a circumstance proving in itself that a delay in England, of a few weeks duration only, may be of the most pernicious consequence.

I am well aware, that physicians recommend their patients to go abroad long before the consent of their friends is obtained, and that an entire season not unfrequently elapses before they agree to change the climate.

It appears to me, that those patients who derive little or no advantage from summer weather in our own country, are not very likely to be benefited by a winter's residence at Nice. If mild weather here produces no favorable change in them, nor in any degree lessens the violence of disease, what advantage are they to expect from the climate of

Nice? I think not any. It is only from the persuasion that temperate air and gentle exercise do good, that it is advisable to recommend a journey to them, for in that case a winter's residence in London would probably prove fatal, and might be highly useful at Nice. But if on the contrary, the patient's health decays gradually, and the symptoms of his complaint are equally severe at all times, I should use the whole of my influence to keep him at home, and there provide him with all the little comforts his situation required, and which he would look for in vain in a foreign country.

Every accurate observer, who has been sent to the Continent, to conduct patients with consumption, will, I think, unite with me in opinion, that convalescence is only to be obtained by strictly conforming to these premises.

If it should in any case be decided for an

invalid to go to Nice for the benefit of his health, I hope the following advice to him may prove acceptable, especially as I imagine him to be without a physician. However strong the necessity may be for consumptive people to strictly adhere to the rules I shall prescribe for them, it is by no means requisite for other invalids, whose debilitated frame is their sole ailment, to follow them with the same exactness. The person's inclination, convenience, and taste, may be permitted to guide him in the choice of a regimen and residence.

The difficulty with which travelling is attended in the southern parts of France, and the general want of comfortable bedding, are circumstances that render it prudent for a delicate person to take a bed and blankets with him. He should in the next place, take great care to avoid the evening air, which in autumnal months is

very apt to give cold, and he should commence his journey by short distances, augmenting them as he finds his strength capable of the fatigue.

The traveller must expect a vast deal of shaking, whether he is in his own carriage, or in one of the country, a circumstance that is vexatious to every one, and often detrimental to delicate women, especially in a state of pregnancy. People who are used to the roads in England, can have no idea what a source of embarrassment they prove in France. In order, therefore, to avoid such an inconvenience, the patient had better continue his route from Avignon to Nice, by water, as by far the worst part of the road is from the former to the latter place. This perhaps might subject him to some difficulty, but the voyage would most likely contribute to his recovery, which would not always be the case, if he should travel by land.

Arrived at Nice, he should take a laxative draught, remain quiet for two or three days, live upon very light food, drink diluting liquids, and by these means carry off any little heat and irritation the journey might produce.

A suitable residence is not always the easiest thing to obtain. There is a number of handsome houses in the Croix de Marbre, but I think they are too near the sea for consumptive people. The best adapted, are those on the surrounding hills, which are not only the most pleasant, but the most healthy: They are less exposed to the evaporations of the sea, but are, it is true, rather difficult of access.

It is a singular fact, that the inhabitants of Nice and Provence always send their consumptive patients away from the sea, to avoid the irritation occasioned by the evaporations of the salt water. We, on the

contrary, order them to live by the sea side. A dry atmosphere would be more suitable in affections of the chest, accompanied with excessive relaxation of the membrane of the bronchiæ, and which is always ascertained by a copious glairy expectoration; but where the cough is very troublesome and without any spitting, then a habitation near woods, and in the vicinity of aqueous exhalations, would be more eligible, and of this kind, many are to be found amongst the hills around Nice.

When the invalid is unable to go out, he should take great care that his apartments are not over-heated. They should never exceed 64 degrees of Farenheit, nor be under 60.

But I lay the greatest stress on equitation, when he is capable of supporting the exercise. Without seeking to explain the manner of its curing a variety of chronic complaints, we may just observe, that it influences generally all the functions of life.

Changes are produced in the order of the circulation, as well from the inhalation of an invigorating air, as from the diversion that variation of scene occasions. It is, however, with riding as with every other part of the system recommended to be pursued; a suitable season, and seasonable hours, are both required to employ it to advantage. A patient can hardly venture out before nine in the morning, nor after three, at least not until the spring approaches, and then he may go out at an earlier hour. I consider equitation as one of the most powerful remedies in consumptive cases, and I can ensure much benefit from it, if the patient should have the resolution to persevere in its use. He should not be discouraged, although no visible amendment appears at the end of a month or two, for that would in most cases be much too soon to expect convalescence. An agreeable freshness will by degrees penetrate the whole body, the respiration will

become freer, and the functions of life more animated: new health will circulate in every vein, and pure serenity reflect a sentiment of happiness upon the whole day.

The strongest argument in favor of this preventive remedy, in short, of exercise of any description is, that those whose occupations in life compel them to remain in the open air a great part of the day, and to undergo much bodily exertion, are found to be more exempt from phthisical tendency than any other class of people. It may be here also proper to remark, that nothing is more likely to encrease the disposition to pulmonary consumption than inactivity, unfavorable positions of the body at a work-table, for by this means the circulation of the blood through the lungs is incomplete: and it rarely happens, unfortunately, that one of these causes alone contributes to promote phthisis: to all the ills arising from confinement, may be added, those which a

warm and stagnant atmosphere commonly met with in the apartments of this description of invalids must inevitably produce.

In order to render our plan completely successful, it will be highly essential to enforce with every suitable argument, the propriety of warm clothing. In general we do not sufficiently advert to the good effects arising from a proper envelopement of the body in flannel, to ensure its constant use. Not only the chest, the neck, the arms, the legs, and feet, should be well covered with this appropriate clothing, but in short, every part of the body; and it would be highly advantageous, were the person to cover the head and face, whenever exposed to the atmosphere, with a hat lined with fur, which should closely encircle the face, and a fur tippet so placed round the neck, chest, and face, as to prevent irritating particles from falling upon the lungs,

In vain will a phthisical invalid look for a return to health, even in a temperate climate, unless he strictly conforms to these rules, for although the variations of the temperature of the atmosphere are more uniform, yet he should pay great attention to every collateral aid.

To air, exercise, diet, and clothing, we must not forget to add warm bathing, which certainly acts as a preservative against pulmonary disorders, by promoting a regular perspiration, and allaying febrile heats. Great benefit has been known to follow the daily use of the tepid bath, for half an hour; an accelerated pulse has been observed to become uniform; hectic heat has disappeared; and the progress of the disease has been evidently arrested. The tepid bath does not increase debility, but on the contrary, produces healthy excitement.

I differ with those who think a residence

in this country for a few months sufficient to accomplish a recovery. The changes which climate produces are slow, and require an abode of two or three seasons. I admit it is a great sacrifice to leave our friends, our native soil, and all the comforts attached to an English habitation, for so long a time, but surely we are compensated for it, in the recovery of health, and the agreeable amusements which the country offers. At the time convalescence is sought, the mind may be delighted by the study of botany, mineralogy, and zoology, every one of which may be here prosecuted with the highest satisfaction. Thus an antidote is found to languor, while instruction is afforded to the mind. A life spent in this way, would re-produce vermilion on the cheeks of the pallid fair, and instil new health into her frame, when she perhaps the least expected it.

To these useful means employed abroad, may be added, an agreeable society at home; but it should not be such as in any degree implicates the personal ease of the valetudinarian, especially by exposing him to an impure atmosphere, arising from a number of persons in the same room.

With regard to the diet of invalids, much must depend upon their temperaments. In general every kind of wine and fermented liquor is injurious, and in place of them, whey, butter-milk, barley and rice water, toast and water, water with orange juice, and refreshing drinks of a similar kind, should be substituted. Ragouts, spices, and salted aliment, must also be rejected. Instead of them, light soups, vegetables, fish, panadas of bread and of biscuit, new laid eggs, the flesh of fowl and of rabbit should be taken, and in short, that sort of diet which is calculated to afford an abundance of nutritious

aliment. The exhausted state of the constitution of phthisical people, renders it highly necessary to pay great attention to this part of the regimen. Unless nature be well supplied with wholesome food, the tendency to phthisis will in my opinion be augmented. The diet may be sometimes composed of milk, vegetables, and farinaceous seeds. Jellies, and when milk diet does not exclude its use, ripe fruit, such as oranges, pomegranates, figs, boiled apples, baked pears, and the peach when it agrees with the stomach; but of every fruit, perhaps, the grape is the best: it is a nutritious aliment, and one of the most salutary nature bestows on us. I recommend them to be taken morning and evening, with a biscuit or a crust of bread. The grape is also a remedy for consumption, and had been said to have cured it oftener than once. Care should be taken to choose only those that are quite ripe.

The lettuce, as a vegetable, is one I would advise the use of. It refreshes exceedingly the stomach, and allays feverish heats. Cauliflower, endives of various sorts, dandelion, and young roots, may all form a part of the diet.

Patients should not be confined to certain hours of dining, nor should they make a full meal. They had better eat often, and at any hour they may please.

I have no doubt, but that persons who arrive in this country with a tendency to consumption, or even with incipient phthisis, may, by adhering to the rules here prescribed, recover their health, and live to enjoy the society of their friends, who looked with dismay to the consequences of an alarming disease.

THE
ANCIENT AND MODERN
HISTORY OF NICE.

SECTION I.

TOPOGRAPHY OF NICE.

AT the western extremity of Italy, upon the shore of the Mediterranean, and the banks of the rapid Paglion, close to the foot of Montalban, we discover Nice, remarkable for the mildness of its climate, the antiquity of its foundation, and the vicissitudes it has experienced. It commands the most extensive plain in the department of the maritime alps, and abundantly produces all the necessaries of life. The mountains, which overhang Nice to the east, defend Villefranche. It presents, from its situation, a most formidable barrier, and bounds the chain of mountains which takes its course through Piedmont. A part of the town of Nice faces the south, but by far the

greater part is to the north. It extends to the north on the Turin road, and on the east is barricaded with rocks that have set at defiance the efforts of the most potent states in Europe. Its greatest length is from north to south, the latter extremity forming an angle by its communication with the ramparts, the port, and the Paglion. It is at the western angle that the Paglion, after pursuing its usually devious and lengthened course through the adjacent country, rushes with impetuosity, when swelled with rain, into the sea, and presents a noble *coup d'œil* to the spectator.

Nice is closely encircled on its eastern side by mountains, which, as they retreat from the Mediterranean, slope gently to the north, until becoming more and more advanced, they form a semicircle, which is completed beyond the Var, and upon that surprising mountain the Esterelles. The plain thus formed is encroached on by the sea, which, meeting no obstacle, has produced a most delightful bay, extending as far as Antibes to the west, and to a corresponding prominence on the shores of Italy to the east.

Nice, in its present state, does not exceed a mile and a half in length, and about a mile in breadth. The suburbs and the town are divided by the Paglion; but in the summer months the waters are so low that the inhabitants pass and re-pass on a bridge of planks, which they construct in order to obviate the circuit they are obliged to make by traversing the stone bridge.

The Paglion may be considered a very dangerous neighbour for Nice. If the ramparts be not raised, or some other precaution taken, it is much to be apprehended it will inundate the town, particularly the new end of it. This accident had nearly happened in November, 1803. The bridge was rebuilt in 1531, at the expence of the town, in consequence of its being carried away by the impetuosity of this river.* Upon a stone placed near the bottom of the bridge are inscribed these lines:—

“ Pons sacer ! exhaustas celsis de montibus undas,
Respuit et rapidas hinc Paglionis aquas.”

* Revelli says, in his Diary M. S. 1530, “ Die Dominica nona Octobris, maxima aquarum inundantia Nicææ Pontem, possessiones ac muros innumerabiles violenter ruinanterque dejecit.”

TOPOGRAPHY.

It is likewise recorded that the fall of waters had been so considerable, and the Paglion so extremely augmented, that, in 1744, some thousands of French and Spanish troops were lost in attempting to cross it during an engagement with some Piedmontese soldiers.

The ancient splendour of Nice has greatly suffered from the many sieges it has been exposed to. The triumphant army of Francis I. and the fleet of the Ottoman pirate, Barbarossa, almost consumed the town and destroyed the edifices. The effects of its deterioration were, for a while, lost sight of in the repairs accomplished by the generosity of the House of Savoy, but, gradually losing its former consideration, and ever involved in war, the monastery, churches, convents, and other public buildings, have almost all since fallen into decay.

Anterior to the French revolution, Nice was infinitely more interesting than at present, though its pristine magnitude and importance had already been considerably reduced. Of its ancient suburbs there only existed at that period the

relics, and especially of those which ran in a north easterly direction from the gate of Pairolera.

The extensive suburbs, which equally embellished the road on the western side of the stone bridge are now reduced to those of the Croix de Marbre, but being of modern architecture are spacious and lofty, and the usual residence of opulent strangers.

The castle, built on the summit of a steep rock, and once deemed impregnable, with all the fortifications which defended the town, are now but a heap of ruins. During the war of succession it was taken by Marshal Berwick, fifty-five days after the trenches were opened. The garrison, which was reduced to six hundred men, forced the commandant to capitulate. Berwick ordered it to be demolished in consequence of the express commands of Louis XIV. The walls of the remaining ramparts are by no means strong, though when Nice was under the sovereignty of Duke Emanuel Philibert, the whole town, castle, fortifications, and walls, were in the best state of defence. Bastions were erected in

several places, and many precautions taken to augment the force of the outworks.

There are two fine squares at Nice. The houses which form Place Victor are regularly built, and have piazzas. It was intended under the government of the House of Savoy to erect the statue of the prince whose name it bears. A monument of some kind is wanting to counteract its uniformity. Since the French have added this part of the continent to their dominions, the Place Victor has taken the name of Place de la Republique. The road to Turin has its beginning here, and forms a large opening in the square: another pass to the right, leads to Villefranche and the adjacent hills.

The south west quarter of the town is the handsomest, and of modern architecture. The streets are wide and run in a straight line. The public walk is in this neighbourhood, and is a delightful resource in the summer, when the sun is above the horizon. Its beautiful scenery is, however, much obscured by the terrace which stretches along the coast. In the middle of the

walk a fountain has been lately constructed, whereon a paltry figure has been erected, representing Catherine Sequeiran, heroine of Nice, with a Turk at her feet, whom she had knocked down with a club. The fact to which this alludes constitutes a memorable event in the History of Nice.

In the eastern part of the town are the university, hospital, and botanical garden; but the streets throughout are so narrow and dirty, that few people take the trouble to go thither. A foul air also circulates around, which annoys every body but the inhabitants, who are habituated to it.

The shops are well stored, but small, dark, and filthy; a number of people occupy the same house, which, added to the circumstances just mentioned, by no means renders a residence in that quarter desirable.

Nice possesses a theatre, which awakens the hopes, without realizing the expectations, of the public. The edifice, without being despicable, offers little to admire, and, perhaps, it is not an

unfortunate circumstance, that, in such a warm climate, the valetudinarian should be so little tempted to expose his health. It is sufficiently large for the number of spectators ; but a common failing in this, and most provincial theatres, is that the finances of the company do not admit of an illumination sufficient to give the objects an interesting colouring. The decorations and scenery are exceedingly indifferent, while a small expence might render the house commodious and tasty, and the affluence of strangers encourage the directors to procure more worthy performers. I learn, that previously to the revolution the theatre was well frequented, and the company on a better footing.

It is absolutely necessary for those who live in the suburbs to have a carriage, which may be hired for the day or the evening ; the same thing, in point of payment, for fifteen francs, or at the rate of fifteen pounds per month. Whether you use your own carriage, or the coachman's, the expence is just the same, although the convenience is materially different.

The public library, though the foundation is of modern date, contains a number of volumes, and some manuscripts. It is open every day to the public, but, as there are not many scientific men at the present day in Nice, the arts and sciences are not so much advanced by them as they might be. Fortunately for the Nissards, the library has escaped the pillaging hands of the revolutionists in the last war, an omission they could not justly be taxed with throughout the republics of Italy and other countries which they subdued. The librarian is a man of considerable information, and takes much pleasure in shewing attention to strangers.

The port is situated where there were very fine gardens formerly. It was left unfinished at the time the county of Nice passed under the dominion of France, and was to have extended as far as the Place de la Republique. It is defended at its entrance by a mole, which is by no means handsome, and often requiring repair on account of the violence of the surf, and the consequent yielding of the stone-work. The government has

it in contemplation to repair it, and to prosecute the other works. A greater service cannot be rendered to the department, and to Nice in particular, to which a good port would be a source of riches. Besides, it is of much consequence to Piedmont, being the only place where the produce of that part of Italy can be exchanged for what is imported by sea. The entrance to the port is so small, that vessels of great burthen cannot enter; but small coasting vessels, feluccas, and open boats, are commonly to be met with in it. On the side of the harbour are several good warehouses, which, since the peace, are again open to merchandize.

The port is very commodious to those who are fond of swimming; but the entrance into it I think more so. The months of December and January are not too cold for bathing; on the contrary, I never omitted the opportunity when it was in my power. There are boats and men at the port whom you engage, at a louis per month, for this purpose; but, as the shore is rather dangerous, it is difficult to embark, either

behind the Croix de Marbre or elsewhere. You must therefore put up with the inconvenience of riding or walking to the harbour. With respect to meer bathing, ladies should venture in with great caution, and never stoop without taking hold of a rope when a wave passes them. There is no convenience for that salutary purpose, those, therefore, who are willing to try, must adopt the plan proposed, or run the risk of receding with a wave, which, on account of the rapid descent of the coast, retires with equal celerity and strength.

A handsome terrace supports and consolidates the banks which oppose the inroads of the sea, and forming a delightful walk for the inhabitants, may be considered amongst the principal embellishments of the place. The lodgings situated on the terrace are not very numerous, but command an extensive view of the Mediterranean. The terrace often exhibits a concourse of the *beau-monde* of Nice. The English families seldom reside in this quarter, though there are very few parts either of the town or suburbs where they could be

more comfortably situated. It is seldom that the invalid cannot exercise himself on the terrace; and if the day be fine, the beauty of the surrounding prospect must infuse new hilarity and life into his veins. The public walk is close to the sea, and extends from the port to the extremity of the ramparts, forming a very considerable circuit. It is generally well frequented at five or six in the evening. The inhabitants, who for the most part amuse themselves on the terrace or the walk, for two or three hours, go from thence to the theatre, and there conclude the amusement of the evening.

Descending the stairs on the left, which lead you into the town, is another walk, parallel with the terrace, agreeably shaded by a row of trees, whose extended foliage forms a canopy of the most refreshing nature during the burning heat of summer. There is also a walk which leads quite round the town, and is delightful from the variety of views it commands.

On leaving the Place de la Republique to go to the ramparts you see the Paglion, the suburbs, and the chain of hills, which stretches from north to

south, forming a semicircle. Advancing onwards you have a delightful perspective of the sea and coast as far as Antibes, which is peculiarly beautiful by the light of the moon, when her pale and sombre beams, streaming through the dusky waste, quiver on the wave, and tint the adjacent hills with a soothing association of light and shade.

I visited Nice at a very unfavourable moment, and write rather to describe the marks of barbarian fury than the ingenuity of the architect. The rage of the revolution, carried to an almost inconceivable excess, has scarcely left any hotel or mansion of grandeur without marks of degradation.

The houses in the suburbs of the Croix de Marbre, and on the side of the road leading to the Var, as well as a variety of buildings in the town, have all shared the same fate.

Nice has been continually involved in a succession of misfortunes. In the year 1218, 1618, and 1644, but principally in July and August, 1564, the villages of St. Martin, Bolena, Belvidere,

Venanson, &c. were nearly destroyed by an earthquake. It is said that the shock was so great, that it stopped the course of the Vesubia for some hours, that chasms opened large enough to receive entire mountains, and that others fell with a frightful 'crash. Since then the bottom of the port of Villefranche is observed to be lowered.

The misfortunes of this town terminated in 1748 for a while, and day after day improvements became more general, obliterating in some degree the scenes of misery and devastation she had been so often doomed to witness. But, in the year 1799, an epidemic visited the town, and carried off a sixth part of the population. The first cause of the disease was the continual motion of the troops: without exaggeration, a million passed through Nice in the course of the revolution. It is well known that the armies were frequently in want of every thing. Bad nourishment and bad clothing were soon followed by the most distressing consequences. The hospitals, which were crowded, could not accom-

modate all the sick, a circumstance which obliged the inhabitants to lodge them in private houses: infection was by this means soon propagated, and every house became a lazaretto.

SECTION II.

MANNERS, CHARACTER, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, AMUSEMENTS, OLD AND NEW ADMINISTRATION, COMMERCE, AND MANUFACTURES OF THE NISSARDS.

THE Nissards differ in their manners from the inhabitants of Provence and Italy. Sordid interest and unprincipled selfishness, notwithstanding the allegations of many travellers, are by no means the characteristics of every class of this people. The Nissards are in general mild, humane, peaceable, and complaisant. They are gay, lively, and pleasant in company; in one word, their manners upon the whole are interesting, and congenial with the mildness of the climate. The inhabitants of the country, though poor, and, as it were, sequestered from the world, are civil, and perfect

strangers to the vices engendered by luxury, and to the violent passions which agitate the great. They are constantly occupied in providing for the subsistence of their families, in cultivating their fields, or watching their flocks. Nothing can equal their persevering patience at work; no obstacle disheartens them; and they bear with equal firmness, bodily fatigue and mental anxiety. Fashion has not extended her imperious dominion over them, for they still retain the dress and manners of their forefathers. Whenever a traveller arrives in any one of their villages, let him be ever so little known to them, they hasten to welcome him, and invite him to partake of their frugal repast. They often give up their beds to strangers, and in every respect present us with an emblem of ancient hospitality: but this character only applies to the inhabitants of the interior of the country. Towards the frontiers of Piedmont they are irascible, and subject to gusts of passion, which frequently produce very desperate conflicts. When they cannot find employment at home, where there are neither commerce nor manufactures,

they seek a subsistence in foreign countries. Those who can afford to buy a little merchandize hawk it about the country, until they acquire enough wealth to begin shop-keeping. With such small beginnings, by arrangement and economy, some of them have left fortunes, which their industrious children have augmented to immense property, even to millions sterling. There are many instances of this kind, and two are well known at Lyons and Marseilles: one is the house of Folsan, the other is the family of Bruni, two members of which were presidents of the second chamber of the parliament of Aix before the revolution.

It is from the northern district that so many of them emigrate with their organs, cymbals, and magic lanterns, to amuse the people and children over all Europe. After an absence of eight or ten years, the greater part of them return with some little savings, which assist them to enlarge their fields, to buy cattle, and get married. Tired of a wandering and laborious life, they return to finish their days under the humble roof that gave them

birth, far from the noise and tumult of towns. It is there they relate to their children what has most attracted their attention in their travels. It might be supposed they would contract some of the vices prevalent in great towns; they retain, however, their former simplicity of manners and industry. They consider their present situation happy when they compare it with the fatiguing life they have led to attain it; even their little vanity is gratified in being considered the richest of the hamlet, respected by all, and looked upon as the oracles of the country. These advantages turn the heads of the young peasants, and make them sigh for an organ and magic lantern.

The inhabitants, particularly those on the coast, live very frugally: a small quantity of bread (for lately the pound of twelve ounces has been sold from four to six sols), with some fruit, herbs, and vegetables, generally compose their food: sometimes they have a little salt fish, very rarely any fresh, and still more rarely meat. The effects of this mode of living on their persons are very visible: corpulency and florid complexions are seldom

to be met with: the most of them, particularly near Monaco, are tawny and very thin. The forced sobriety and labour of these people recall to mind the *assuetu's malo Ligur* of Virgil.

It is probable that the state of these unfortunate Ligurians has undergone little or no change during the lapse of two hundred years. In the greater number of the small towns and villages situated in the interior part of the country, and among the mountains, the peasants have neither clocks, sun-dials, nor barometers of any description: the crowing of the cock, and the position of the stars, regulate the hours of the night, and the course of the sun those of the day. The inhabitants, by their observations of the planets, will tell you the hour with nearly as much precision as if it were indicated by a clock. They also predict with a great degree of certainty the changes of the weather. Passing most of their time in the fields, and being endowed with a quick sight and retentive memory, they collect a number of little facts, which enable them to acquire a kind of confused foresight that resembles in great measure,

that instinctive presage of approaching changes of weather which we observe in animals. By this, and with the assistance of some local circumstances, such as a fog at a certain hour, and on a certain part of the horizon, a cloud of a particular colour on the top of some mountain, or the flight or chirping of birds, they can prognosticate the alterations of weather as well, if not better, than any meteorologist.

With respect to the persons and appearance of the Nissards, they have nothing very agreeable or interesting. The men have a very tawny complexion; their face is rather flat, and their eyes small and dark. They are of a good stature, and well made, but for the most part thin. The women are neither ugly nor pretty, neither dark nor fair: most of them are of an intermediate complexion. Their society would be more agreeable were their understandings better cultivated, and the French language a little more familiar. There are, however, many exceptions to this in several of the towns, particularly at Nice. They dress nearly in the same manner as in other parts of

France: some of them still wear fringed caps, which become them very well, and to which a stranger is soon accustomed. In their dress they appear to prefer white to other colours. I recollect going to the cathedral of Nice on a holiday, and on entering my eyes were quite dazzled with a display of snowy white, which is rarely to be seen elsewhere. This habit, which is expensive in large towns, is here very suitable to the climate, where they have frequently six months of the year without rain.

LANGUAGE.--RELIGIOUS CEREMONIES.

THE language of Nice, and of that part of the department contiguous to the Var, is the dialect of Provence, mixed with a number of words derived from the Italian. This patois is not unintelligible to the inhabitants of Marseilles, though that of Monaco, at the distance of four leagues from Nice, is entirely so. The patois of Monaco differs from that of Menton; each of them is composed of the dialects of Provence, Liguria, and Piedmont; but the idioms of the two latter predomi-

nate. A few Spanish words have crept into them, which might have been expected, as the Spaniards kept a garrison at Monaco, while that principality was under their protection. They pronounce the final syllables in a singing tone. Before Julius Cæsar, three different idioms were known in Gaul. 1. The Cantabric, of which there are yet traces in Biscay. 2. The Belgic, which is a root of the German. 3. The Celtic which was employed from the Mediterranean to the British Channel.

The Celtic was used in Provence till the fourth century, by which time the Phoceans had generally made known the Greek language, and the Romans had introduced the Latin. The Celtic idiom became softer by this mixture, but less pure. The Goths, Huns, Vandals, Lombards, and other barbarians, introduced their particular idioms, so that about the tenth century a language, composed of all these jargons, took the name of Provencal. From the tenth to the seventeenth centuries, the African, the Arragon, Spanish, and Italian expressions gradually crept in. The Em-

peror Julian said the Gauls croaked like crows, and the inhabitants of Draguinan have to this day a guttural pronunciation. At Grasse the language is cadenced.

The French language is not so generally used in the department of the maritime alps, as could be wished: every where, except in that part of the country belonging to the diocese of Glan-deves, the Italian is used for education: hence, even some of those employed in public situations write bad French. As people go regularly to mass and sermons, it might be useful to direct the ministers of worship to deliver their instructions in French. Even at Monaco, the Italian is preferred, though the French have been there upwards of one hundred and fifty years.

“La langue Provencale,” says Mr. Dulaune, “qui est généralement en usage à Marseille par ses mignardises et ses diminutifs reçoit dans la bouche des femmes un charme qui reflue sur celles qui la parlent tandis que chez un homme du peuple elle rebute par ses sons aigus, ses durs et aigres grasseyemens.” I here present the reader with a specimen of the dialect of Provence.

It is the Lord's Prayer, copied from a celebrated work presented to one of the Popes, containing that Prayer in all the known languages.

“ Oratio Dominica provinciali dialecto.”

“ Nouastre Paire què sias ouu ciele, que vouastre noum siegue santificat ; què vouastre rouyao-umè nous arribè. Que vouastre voulounta siegue facho su la terro, coumo din lou ciele. Dounas-nou encui nouastre pan de cade jou. Pardounas-nou nouastreï ooufensas coumo leiï pardounan à n'aqueleiï que nous an ooufensas. E nou leïssez pa sucumba a la tentatien : maï delivra nou doou maou.”

“ En sin sie.”

It is however probable that the French language will ultimately obtain universal reception, as all the proclamations and orders of government are now published in it.

The Nissards are fervent in their devotion, and though not altogether exempt from superstition, are less credulous than the inhabitants of other places in the same department. I extract from the author of a Tour through the Maritime Alps, the following account of the devotion of the inhabit-

ants of Monaco.—“ Having witnessed their religious ceremonies during the whole day, which were performed with great fervor, after vespers there was a grand procession round the square, which is before the church. Two beings, sick with the palsy, were dragged about by their friends and relations; and, besides the fatigues of a long journey, they were exposed with their heads bare to the scorching rays of the sun, which occasioned the most violent perspiration. They continued this excessive exercise for a long time, in confident expectation of a miracle being worked. However, the Holy Virgin was not pleased to use her intercession, though I am far from disputing her influence; nor, what was still more singular, did these extreme measures produce any favourable or unfavourable crisis. While some accompanied the procession, others in the church were imploring the Virgin. Women and children were seen prostrated before the altar, stretching forth their supplicating hands, and rending Heaven with their cries. This scene being as disgusting to the philosophic eye of reason as the wretches dragged

about at the procession, I retreated under the shade of a wild fig-tree, and meditated on the weakness and infirmities of the human race.

“Several towns and villages in this department have a saint celebrated for the cure of some disease. The inhabitants of Monaco possess St. Roman, who cures quartan fevers; other fevers are not under his controul. St. Devote is the patron of the town, and in truth his name and the fame of his miracles have not a little contributed to its welfare. An orator composes an annual penegyric. I was present at that delivered last year. It would be difficult to form an idea of the absurd fictions delivered from the pulpit. These holidays are not always appropriated to devotion. While some are praying others are seeking less holy amusements, not forgetting dancing, without which, these people could not exist. In general they have not much religion; but this is not the only instruction in which they are deficient. Whether it proceeds from a want of taste for the sciences, literature, and the arts, or whether they have not the means of procuring instruction, I

cannot determine, though I imagine that both of these causes operate. All branches of knowledge are here in their infancy. Their favourite study is jurisprudence, which, before the conquest, opened the way to places of emolument."

Before I take leave of this subject I ought to observe, in justice to the Nissards, that I never witnessed any thing in their worship deviating from the strictest decency and most fervid devotion. All the religious ceremonies, commonly performed in other Catholic countries, are scrupulously observed at Nice; and, though the author of a tour through the department of the maritime alps has justly rallied the inhabitants of some parts of the country upon the absurdity of their devotion, his remarks do not, nor could they, with the least truth, apply to the Nissards.

AMUSEMENTS OF THE INHABITANTS OF NICE.

THE *beau-monde* at Nice generally ride or walk out in the morning, and content themselves with an airing along the coast of the Mediterra-

nean upon the road leading to the Var, or by the banks of the Paglion, near which runs the great road to Turin. Such was at least the custom of the inhabitants previously to the revolution, whose society proved an agreeable change for strangers, who came thither from most parts of Europe. It must be confessed that these roads are not now much frequented by the Nissards, except on a Sunday; the revolution having ruined the richest families, there remain but few whose circumstances or education put them on a footing to keep company with strangers. No roads but those just mentioned are practicable for carriages; the curious, however, may find an infinite variety of agreeable walks and rides between the enclosures of the country, and in the various valleys which intersect the mountains in almost every direction.

Balls are frequent in the winter, to which the English and other strangers of rank are invited. It was formerly usual to give one or two in return, but, to the best of my recollection, that custom was omitted in 1802.

The Carnival is, of all festivals, the most celebrated and gay, and is here, as in all Roman Catholic countries, observed very scrupulously. Scenes of festive mirth are very general among the better classes of society, and prove a source of pleasure and entertainment to the stranger.

The amusements of the lower classes are ridiculous enough, though they can scarcely surpass the motley assemblage of every rank and every description at a masquerade. It is an interesting scene to witness the gaiety of the peasants and their families at wakes, which are held in several villages at certain periods of the year. The diversions of all, young and old, consist for the most part in dancing, singing, and in music. Buffoons perform to the gaping spectators, and entertain them highly by their burlesque gestures.

The respectable families assemble alternately at each others houses, and pass the evening at cards, in concerts, and in dancing, when a party to the play is not made up.

With respect to the customs which obtain, in

the general intercourse of the society of the Nisards, the traveller will find little or no difference from those which prevail generally throughout the neighbouring districts of France.

OLD AND NEW GOVERNMENT OF NICE.—BOARD
OF HEALTH.

THE king of Sardinia, to whom the county of Nice belonged, took great pains in regulating the laws which applied to the judges and magistrates. Justice was administered in three supreme courts, established under the name of the Senate of Turin, Chambery, and Nice. It was stipulated by the princes of the House of Savoy, that the persons appointed for magistrates should make oath that they neither gave silver nor gold, nor a compensation of any sort, for the situation with which they were about to be invested: that they would be true and trusty to the employment given them, exercise their authority with justice, and decide, and advise, without the least regard to persons implicated whenever so required to do.

Moreover it was enacted that, representing the king, they should support the dignity of their station in a manner suitable thereto. At the courts of Turin, Chambery, and Nice, the *Appels des Baillages*, and other matters of adjudication, were determined. Of the three senates, Turin held the first rank, and was composed of three presidents, two attorney generals and their substitutes, an advocate general for the poor, and twenty-one senators, who were formed into three chambers, two for the civil and one for the criminal. The senate of Chambery consisted of two presidents and ten senators, an advocate, an attorney general, some substitutes, and a clerk of records, all which were divided into two chambers.

The senate of Nice had only one president, six counsellors, and so on in proportion. The members of the senate were not allowed to absent themselves from the town where the meeting was held, on the day of their assemblage, without permission from the king or the first president. When the meeting was opened, no

member could go out, nor could the president give them permission. Any counsellor revealing the secrets before them was liable to be deprived of his place. The examinations of advocates were exceedingly rigid, a circumstance on which the King of Sardinia insisted with much severity. The senators were obliged to interrogate the candidate for forensic advancement, and satisfy themselves of his being eligible for the office he aspired to. In the same manner were they obliged to examine the deputies of provincial chiefs, and other subordinate officers, before they could take possession of their places. In short, unless merit obtained appointment, money or interest were unavailing, even ignominious, subjecting either party to penalty or disgrace. If an advocate undertook an unjust cause he was suspended from his employment, and obliged to refund the cost to his client. It was ordered that the examination of the attorneys should be more rigorous than those of the barristers. They were under the necessity of seeking numerous certificates, and after all were not received,

unless they had practised a year under the *Procureur* of Nice, Turin, or Chambery. *

Any person aiding the escape of a deserter was punished by working two years in the galleys, which was more severe if in time of war. The King of Sardinia was remarkably strict with regard to natives always residing in his kingdom. No family could relinquish their estates to fix themselves in another country without incurring a penalty of five hundred crowns, and five years labour in the galleys. If an absence exceeded ten years, all their goods were confiscated, even though permission were granted them either by the king or governors of districts to go abroad.

* The obligations required for taking an oath in a suit for money, exceeding the amount of four hundred francs, were the most severe imaginable. The words composing the declaration were enough to make the hardiest shudder. The attestation to the Almighty of their not being in debt to that amount was most sacred, invoking the omnipotent to bear witness, and demanding his chastisement in case their declarations were false ; that he would never give them succour or consolation ; that he would afflict them with perpetual misfortunes ; and that his curse should be eternally on them. It was less rigid when the debt was smaller.

Any subject that placed his money in a foreign bank, was at least forced to pay to the treasury a sum of the same amount. The king did not allow any other decorations than those of the country to be worn, with the single exception of the order of Malta, which was universally admitted. The dukes of Savoy had many orders of military chivalry, of which the most conspicuous was the Annunciation, under the title of Collier, or Lac d'Amour. The mark of the order is a blue riband, to which is suspended a medal, representing the mystery of the Annunciation, with a badge embroidered, which the chevalier or knight wore upon the left side of his coat.

The administration of the department now consists of the following establishments: a commandant for the military, a prefect and two sub-prefects for the civil jurisdiction. The judicial is composed of one criminal tribunal, and three of common pleas. The criminal, and one of the tribunals for common pleas, are held at Nice; the two sub-prefectures, and the other two tribunals, are at Puget de Theniers and

Monaco. The latter was constituted, during the time of the convention, the principal town of the district, though it is situated at one of its extremities, where it would be very difficult to consult the other magistrates in case of necessity. It is also deficient in the common necessaries of life. There are several communes in the same district, more considerable, more central, consequently more conveniently situated for the public offices. Such is the situation of Sospello, which affords every thing in which Monaco is deficient. It would be worthy of the present prefect's attention to endeavour to bring about this change, which is earnestly solicited by twenty thousand inhabitants.

It is well known that this department, which is much poorer than those contiguous to it, pays considerably more taxes in proportion. The cause of this appears to be the conduct of those charged with the administration of the department in the time of the convention. Either from ignorance or motives of private interest, they demanded from government a much larger sum than was neces-

sary to defray the public expences of the department. Government established this as the standard for regulating the contributions of the country. This is what I have been assured at Nice.

The police is very well regulated, and strangers reside in perfect security. Though there were assassinations in Piedmont, and robberies from the banditti who retreat in the mountains, there was no risk in the town and suburbs of Nice. There are few thefts remain undiscovered, and there are occasionally ruffians executed who infest the department of the maritime alps. With respect to the peasants, I may venture to say that vice is but seldom seen among them, and as the best proof of it, I refer to the rare punishments of that description of people. Drunkenness and all its coincident misdemeanors and quarrels are almost unknown.

The chief members of the senate, and most renowned physicians, formed a council of health to watch over the public safety, to concert measures for the suppression of serious diseases,

and were possessed of considerable power in case of public exigency from sickness. They were also charged to appoint officers to guard the health of the public in different districts. All persons concerned in the medical treatment of criminals, or in administering remedies, were compelled to apprise the magistrates, upon oath, of the nature of the invalid's sickness, his name, country, &c. upon pain of being fined in case of disobedience.

At the present day there is a board of health formed by the principal physicians and surgeons of the town, who assemble once a week, or in every ten days, to enquire into the nature of the prevailing diseases, and regulate the affairs of the hospital, and report to the prefect all such matters as come under his cognizance. The board is composed of five or six members, amongst whom the most distinguished are, Messieurs Fodery and Schuderi. The former has rendered himself conspicuous by the skill he displayed in the army of Italy, and since by his writings.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

THE commerce of Nice is at present very trifling. Its exports consist of the principal productions of the country, such as oil, oranges, lemons, essences, &c. The imports are clothes, linen, hosiery, cutlery, spices, sugar, coffee, &c. A considerable quantity of salt is also brought here from Provence and Languedoc. The greatest part of it is sent to Piedmont, which returns rice and cattle. The quantity of cattle now imported is much smaller than before the revolution. On this account it is difficult to find good beef at Nice: that of the country is indifferent. The aromatic plants, however, with which the country abounds, render the mutton and game excellent.

The low price of money, and the heavy duties laid on foreign goods, were the reasons why the commerce of Piedmont was rather confined, to which must be added the scruples of the Custom-house officers, to let foreign goods enter even after the payment of the duties. The quantity

of mulberry trees which are planted throughout Piedmont, and in a part of the country of Nice, shew that silk is no inconsiderable article of trade. It is a very principal commodity at Turin and Nice; and a certain as well as abundant source of defraying taxes, and conducting an extensive commerce in exchange for other merchandize. The King of Sardinia, to encourage the growth of mulberry trees, laid a heavy imposition upon land, promising at the same time to diminish the burthen of this tax in proportion to the number of mulberry trees planted in each field, and to the quantity of silk produced. Until the late revolution in France, the land-holders enjoyed the advantage of this grant of the king, and even held their territory free of imposition. So effectual was this edict, and so productive to the natives, that the manufacturer was no longer obliged to get silk from the Milanese or states of Venice, nor the king to complain of the want of trees to nourish silk-worms. The silk stockings of this country are said to be of better quality than those manufactured in Languedoc and Paris.

There are several valuable manufactories of soap, paper, and leather, in this town. Liqueurs, wax and tallow candles, and perfumeries of all kinds, abound here. The perfumers of Grasse come to Nice every year to distil their orange flowers. A large manufactory of salt petre has been lately established. A new kind of paper made of *fucus rivularis*, which grows in abundance near all the rivers, succeeds very well: it is generally employed to pack the oranges exported from the town. There is likewise a rope manufactory. Various fruits are exported to Marseilles, but its principal and most valuable source of riches is the olive. The fair of Beaucaire is also a great mart for its merchandize. The olives in the territory of Nice produce an oil as rich and as well flavoured as those of Aix.

During the revolution, and in the short interval of peace, a number of French merchants established themselves on the coast of Italy, and carried on an extensive trade with Nice and Marseilles; but the superiority of the British navy having enabled us to shut up all the ports of the

Mediterranean, they are not likely to carry on their concerns with so much success in future.

SECTION III.

PROVISIONS.—HOUSE RENT.

EVERY article of provision is much increased at Nice since the French revolution. Butcher's meat in the year 1790 and 1791 was bought for about three sols a pound, veal about four sols, twelve ounces to the pound. Fish three or four sols: thirty sols was the price of a hare, fowl, or a brace of partridges. Fish is dearer at present than any other article of diet, and at times cannot be procured for any amount. Beef, mutton, veal, fowls, and game, were very dear in 1802, though they sold at an exceedingly low price the two preceding years. In the depth of winter cauliflowers, beans, asparagus, lettuces, radishes, and cabbages are to be met with; but these vegetables were far more plentiful formerly,

when the number of strangers that occupied the suburbs and country rendered it profitable for the gardener to cultivate them. In short, after the repeated calamities which have befallen Nice, it is surprising that the necessaries of life can be obtained in any sort of abundance. Generally speaking, the market is well supplied, and the traveller at no loss to find a good dinner. The poultry, it is true, is not of the finest flavor, but woodcocks are abundant and extremely delicious, though rather dear. The vegetable scarcity of 1802 was abundantly compensated by the dessert. Olives, oranges, figs, lemons, grapes, pears, apples, pomegranates, chesnuts, almonds, medlars, filberts, dates, &c. made a part of each repast. The wine is very good at Nice, the best, the vin de bellet, may be had at about fifteen sols a bottle. The stranger generally drinks adulterated wine, and pays dearer for an inferior quality. Butter is of a bad flavor; that made from goat's milk exceeds by far the sheep's milk: it is dear. The water before it is potable ought to be boiled, or at least exposed to the air for some time after

it is drawn from the well. There are springs of water, but they are too far distant from the town to profit by them.

Under the article of provisions it may not be uninteresting to mention some fish, which, if not abundant at Nice, may be met with in most places of Provence in the way thither: the sea of Provence affords a great variety of the best and choicest. Marseilles and Antibes are the most plentiful markets. Amongst other fish we find soles, the roach, sea perches, the gold-fish, anchovies, and sardines, the former of which abound in the vicinity of Frejus. Several species of the mullet. Authors mention many more: the turbot, the stock-fish, the sturgeon, taken in the Rhone: the tunny, the dolphin, the shark, the conger, &c. The Rhone furnishes in abundance pikes, shads, and barbels; and in various parts excellent carp and tench.

House rent is very dear at Nice, particularly in the croix de Marbre. Apartments are commonly furnished and adorned after the fashion of the country, though they are far from being comfort-

able to those who know the pleasures and conveniences of a good house in England. It would not be adviseable to furnish a house, unless you proposed passing several winters there; in which case, I should not only please myself, but would make an additional expence in qualifying the house for a winter's campaign.

A tolerable house in the suburbs, large enough for twelve or fifteen persons, could not be hired for five or six months for less than one hundred and thirty pounds sterling: some of the best might amount to something more. It is true, that to these are added delightful gardens, abounding in orange, lemon, almond, and peach trees; but the oranges never belong to the person who hires the house. In the vicinity of these gardens peasants are industriously employed in cultivating barley, hemp, oats, maize, vines, &c. and in the months of December and January you see men and women eagerly collecting the olive harvest.

This fruit is allowed to remain on the trees until it becomes of a deep purple or black colour, when it is in a state to have the oil pressed, as

well as for eating. The peasants consume a vast quantity of them, but they never eat them green, as we have them in England.

SECTION IV.

DESCRIPTIVE OBSERVATIONS ON MONT-ALBAN, AND ON THE NATURE OF THE TERRITORY OF NICE.

ALTHOUGH the road from Nice to the summit of this mountain is very bad and fatiguing, the traveller cannot regret having gone that way at least once. On the upper part of the mountain a fort of considerable importance is erected, and with a French garrison resisted all the hostile efforts of the Austrian army during the last war. Its position is very commanding, and effectually defends the bridge over the Paglion, as well as the suburbs of the town. Advancing upon Mont-Alban, a vast extent of sea is seen on the right, and on the left a great part of the maritime alps, whose summits are covered with snow during seven or eight months of the year. After traversing a barren soil for an hour and a half, the road

is more agreeable, and you see a small village built on a rock, which is perpendicular to the sea. There was formerly a post at the foot of this rock, which is mentioned in the Maritime Itinerary of Antoninus, under the name of *Avissa*.

Nothing can be more beautifully picturesque than the position of Nice viewed from Mont-Alban and all the adjacent hills. The traveller cannot withhold his admiration when the *tout ensemble* of the view unfolds itself to his eye. How delightful the port, the ramparts, the bridge, the Paglion, the sea, and the suburbs! He observes from hence a country glowing with the richest cultivation, the most fertile soil, and the choicest beauties of nature. This scene, contrasted with the barrenness of some neighbouring hills, is beheld with greater ecstasy, and the difference is more strikingly perceptible. We must not, however, comprehend in this description the other side of the mountains, as the beauties of the country are here indisputably concentrated.

From hence I proceed to describe the country adjoining the suburbs, though I confess that my

pen is inadequate to the task, so numerous are the beauties that swell the difficulty of description.

At the first view of the country on the other side of the Var, no one can contain the expressions of admiration which the richness of the landskip excites ; but this view, *en passant*, is by no means sufficient to impress a proper idea of the real magnificence of the scenery in all directions. The country is delightful on every side from Antibes to Nice, particularly near the Var, and from thence to the suburbs of the town.

I could not help thinking I had taken my abode in Italy as soon as I crossed the ancient boundary of that country, for, in spite of the battlements which the French have erected on the banks of the river during the last war, and the new geographical division of this beautiful spot, I still retained the memory of Lucan's Line,

“ Finis et Hesperiae promotæ limite Varus.”

There are many agreeable *coup d'œils* from the banks of this river, which are not a little heightened by the murmuring noise of the waves so dis-

tinctly heard, owing to the silence of the vallies, through which several streams run to join their waters with those of the Var. In rainy weather, and during the melting of the snows, this river becomes equally rapid and dangerous.

“ Là, parmi des rocs entassés
 Couverts de mousse verdâtre
 S'élancent des flots courroucés
 D'une écume blanche et bleuâtre :
 La chute et le mugissement
 De ces ondes précipitées,
 Des mers par l'orage irritées
 Imitent le frémissement.”

On every side valleys and hills alternately charm the eye with the endless variations of their height, figure, position, and cultivation. Not a mountain can be ascended without producing the agreeable contrast of hill and vale, enriched with a profusion of sweet scented herbs, and diversified with flowers in all the various garbs and glowing hues of nature. In one part a sterile rock lifts its lofty head amidst luxuriant vegetation, and attaches us yet more fondly to the surrounding gaiety. In another, the industrious spirit of man

has covered the base and summits of a lofty hill with the vine, the olive, or the fig tree. The valleys are enchanting, and produce every where oranges, grapes, and almonds. How many situations are there on hill and dale that the man on whom fortune frowns, or who loves to meditate in silence, might rejoice to find! Here might the statesman, the philosopher, and the student, in tranquil retirement from the tumultuous turmoil of civilized life, study nature's laws, whilst the invalid might hither bend his feeble step, and direct his anxious hope in pursuit of health and happiness.

There are several pleasant villages in the plain of Nice, none of which however comprise more than a few houses; one, amid its rural beauties, contains an excellent house, which commands a view of the sea, a good garden, reservoirs, and fountains. To this delightful residence a small chapel is annexed. It is situated in a valley, directly under the abrupt division of one of the hills, surrounded by olives, almonds, figs, and corn.

Not less eminent for its striking scenery is Chateau-neuf, the abode of the prefect of the Mari-

time Alps. What exquisite gardens, and how elegantly adorned with fountains, cypress trees, and all kinds of fruits and flowers! I do not in truth recollect a walk, whichever road you may choose, where there are not some interesting objects, now meeting, now retiring from the view, something romantic and picturesque, ever varying the interest of the scene. An endless variety leaves no satiety on the mind. There may be some spots, particularly at the foot of mountains where the soil is not so productive; but I remember none where fruit trees, corn, and vines, do not flourish in perfection.

The pasturage is plentiful, and kept in good order, though the roads are almost impassable in particular spots, which in some degree diminishes the pleasure that we might otherwise enjoy. One pathway leads to many others, and one fine scene discovers a thousand still more engaging. The freshness of an extended foliage on the summit of the hills tempers the burning rays of a meridian sun, and affords in the midst of summer a cool retreat. In winter a southern as-

pect receives those genial beams which are seldom felt in any other part of the world with equal delight and satisfaction. The same mountains which protect you from the heat at one season, and save you from the unwholesome vapours of damp and cold at another, are covered with a copious growth of shrubs, fruit, and herbs, which encourage exercise, and amuse the mind.

The republican arms of France have depopulated this charming country, and either destroyed or ruined most of the families, country houses, and every work of art. The gardens, however, adorned with orange and fruit trees, formerly with every plant and flower, still invite the efforts of industry, and promise a plentiful harvest. Much I confess is wanted to repair those shattered villas, where once lived a happy people; and long I fear it will be before the new proprietors diffuse, like their ancient inhabitants, joy and gladness and plenty around them. The deficiency of money, the want of confidence, and the natural distrust a new government inspires, are obstacles not easy to

be surmounted. Under the protection of the King of Sardinia, the public were happy, trade flourished, and the merchants were even favored by other nations.

Nice, although adorned by all the beauties of nature, and situated on one of the most fertile plains, secure from the piercing cold of winter, and refreshed by the cooling breezes of the sea in the summer months, wants the comforts of a select few to render it a happy retreat. Not now, alas ! not now, as in the days which La Lande celebrates, when the assemblage of strangers from every part of Europe rendered it a scene of hospitality and social joy. The ravages of war have spread their desolation around, and chased from their habitations the native and the foreign friend. May the period soon return, when the inhabitant and stranger shall again partake of ancient gratifications, endeared by the recollection of dangers past ! May every hillock boast a house of modern taste and comfort, and possess a cheerful and happy society.

Nice could formerly boast of every thing that renders a home delicious, admirably situated for

the exportation and importation of colonial produce ; no rival port to check its rising grandeur, an industrious and numerous population. No climate possesses a more genial atmosphere, no soil a more smiling vegetation. The blossoms of the orange, the vine, and the laurel rose, the infinite variety of flowers, plants, and shrubs, at all seasons of the year, excite us to repeat

“ Vertumne, Pomone, et Zéphyre
Avec Flore y règnent toujours ;
C'est l'asyle de leurs amours,
Et le trône de leur empire.”

O, Nissards,* did you but appreciate the auspicious clime, which providence has given you, with an enthusiasm equal to the stranger's, what display of taste would embellish the beauties of your plain ! To the verdant and beautiful gifts of nature would be added the wonders of art ; we should admire the rustic cascade, the limpid stream winding in an endless variety of forms, and the meadows enamelled with other fruits, and flowers not their own.

* “ O Fortunatos nimium, sua si bona norint,
Agricolas !”

The fragrant and brilliant offerings of Flora would not perish and fade unregarded, garlands of lilies would adorn the meanest habitation, and every spot bear the tokens of the highest cultivation. But, in spite of your indifference, Nissards, this goddess reigns with beautiful variety on the summit of the Maritime Alps, and sports her gaudy blossoms for the industrious bee in a thousand forms and shades, entwining many an odorous offering, seldom enjoyed by mortal sense.

The irregularity of seasons, so detrimental to vegetation in other parts of the world, is here exchanged for a progress so uniform and imperceptible, that the tenderest plant delights to feel the change, and acquires new vigour by it. Every day brings forth another flower, every month its fruits, and every year a copious harvest. The light tinges of the spring yield to the brighter hues of summer, and autumn boasts in darker state, of the deep crimson and the orange. Unexposed to the bleak influence of the north, the pendent grape soon comes to full maturity; the almond and the peach already tempt the taste; the citron and the orange promise an ample recompense for the husbandman's toil,

The luxuriance of the valleys must make that man's heart rejoice who regards and admires the rich productions of the earth. The sterility of some mountains gives him an idea of the mourning of nature, which at the same time that it offers the most striking contrast between rural magnificence and rural degradation, impresses the mind with the strongest sense of the transient pleasures of the world, and of the insufficiency of present enjoyment. It equally awakens melancholy reflections on the future. Whose soul is not stricken with solemn admiration at the majestic mounds that encircle the spectator's eye, the barren wild of some of the contiguous mountains, the high cultivation he gazes on, the fertile valley, smiling plain, shady wood, and murmuring stream?

The mind of man recoils upon itself, and sinks into awful contemplation at the wise and wonderful dispensations of providence.* A shapeless

* *Philosophe tranquille, ami de la Nature,*
J'y contemple avec soin sa superbe parure.
Un insecte, une fleur, un arbrisseau naissant,
Me rappellent sans cesse un être tout puissant,
Dont la main libérale et prodigue en merveilles
Mérite nos transports, notre amour et nos veilles."

Bertrand. Mont Jura.

chaos contains the most valuable riches: on the declivity of a barren rock flourishes the luxuriant vine, on the summit of some tremendous hill the woodman fells the sturdy oak and lofty pine. The valleys abound in delicious fruit, corn ripens on the plains, and an immense sea bounds the horizon, whose bosom, swelling and subsiding at the propitious call of Auster, foams on the echoing shore, recedes, advances, and exhausts its force. The hollow murmur of the waves from rock to rock, their terrible noise on being precipitated in mass on the confines of the coast, the distant foam, or a tranquil secession on a calm summer's day, and gentle reflux, equally enchant as they astonish our senses. A spectacle so grand is worthy of the poet and the painter.

Nature also displays all her charms in the neighbourhood of Cimiez, although the scene is somewhat changed. Near the town is a spring, which the ancients called Fons Templi, and from the amenity of the situation figuratively, the pleasant fountain of Tempe.*

* Est nemus Hemoniæ, prærupta quod undique claudit
Sylva, vocant Tempe per quæ Penæus ab imo
Effusus Pindo spumosis volvitur undis."

The fields around are watered with a variety of streams, which are in general salubrious, intersecting a number of gardens, vineyards, and meadows, and by their numerous ramifications promoting a constant verdure. Some pass through woods, others at the base of hills, but all contributing to preserve an ever living vegetation, and to truly constitute a perpetual spring.

———“*Fontibus omnia puris
Hic sunt irrigua et rivi de rupe cadentes
Prata per, et campos labuntur murmure dulci.*”

A cavern of considerable depth, of capacious mouth, overhung with trees and shrubs, is situated near this spot. It receives the falls of water that in very dry weather constantly trickle down the adjacent mountains, and at times swells with its watery treasures. A solemn silence reigns in its environs, which is never interrupted, but by the big drops which agglomerate and fall in its center, or on its sides. A parching heat prevails above, but the sun-beams seldom penetrate it, so that in the scorching months of summer the traveller may there breath a refreshing air.

Before I quit the topography of the country around Nice, my inclination leads me to say a few words on the beauty of the plain of Fonchaud, and some contiguous spots.

Nature here displays all her charms. The same kind of trees and shrubs are seen which cover the plains of the Paglion : the scene, however, is completely changed, but the air is equally mild, and the imagination never damped by the sight of sterile objects. Every thing the eye embraces is animated. Gardens, meadows, and fertile fields, overspread the plain, which is bounded by verdant hills that terminate the view in a manner equally agreeable and romantic.

Let us from nature proceed to art, and mark the inspiration which succeeds the survey of ancient grandeur. Let the mind's eye extend itself to the antique walls of Cimiez, meditate on the ample edifices and superb temples that adorned that once famed city. Be the tombs which contain the ashes of heroic virtue, honored worth, and modest beauty, incentives to solemn admira-

tion and exemplary patriotism ! Let the remains of those lofty structures, that once ravished the human eye, that inspired the citizen with love for his country, which the foe envied, and the savage ruined, receive at least the tribute of compassion for their honors lost. The massy pillar, bright monument of victory, and the convents famed for penitential confession, all undistinguished lie. How the mind recedes within itself, and vainly pictures the magnificence of a former prospect ! What lavish gaiety an ever smiling territory displayed ! What surprise and pleasure must a noble city, beautifully built on the declivity of a hill, have given to the imagination ! Let the reader conceive the bold addition of splendid strength which a distant navy must add to a flourishing town, an extensive bay, and delicious gardens. Certain it is, that no spot on earth was ever better calculated for building a city, none where nature has more liberally supplied the wants of man : in the hour of peace a delicious asylum, in the moment of danger presenting an impregnable front. The soil around scarcely waiting the husband-

man's toil, and producing almost spontaneously whatever he pleases to demand.

“ Here summer reigns with one eternal smile ;
 Succeeding harvests bless the happy soil.
 Fair fertile fields, to whom indulgent heaven
 Has ev'ry charm of ev'ry season given.
 No killing cold deforms the beauteous year,
 The springing flowers no coming winter fear ;
 But as the parent Rose decays and dies,
 The infant buds with brighter colours rise, }
 And with fresh sweets the mother's scent supplies. }
 Near them the violet grows, with odors blest,
 And blooms in more than Tyrian purple drest.
 The rich Jonquils their golden beams display,
 And shine in glory's emulating day :
 The peaceful groves their verdant leaves retain, }
 The streams still murmur, undefil'd with rain, }
 And tow'ring greens adorn the fruitful plain.
 The warbling kind uninterrupted sing,
 Warm'd with enjoyments of perpetual spring.”

Lady Mary Whortley Montagu.

In this favoured clime every town, every territory, becomes interesting as it affords subjects of melancholy and pleasing reflections. The ravages of time lead us to the contemplation of futurity, of the littleness of the works of the greatest men, of the folly of human grandeur. War strikes

us with horror, on witnessing the devastation it creates; art claims all our affection, from the gratification it affords the mind, and from its incentives to honorable and independent industry. He who explores the inestimable *chefs d'œuvres* of Corinth, Athens, or Megara, must naturally trace with solicitude the history of these countries and their renowned inhabitants. Great in action, indefatigable in science, celebrated for wisdom and valour, how worthy are they of the historian's panegyric, and the admiration of posterity!

If the cottage of the peasant, or the chateau of the country gentleman, is neither adorned with gold or silver, nor decorated with massy columns of marble at their entrance, in their place the fig and the almond form an agreeable shade; the pliant branches of the vine entwine themselves around the door, and form also a rich casement to the windows. The plain of Nice may with truth be compared to the habitation of Calypso, which Telemachus so beautifully describes.—
“ From the declivity of a hill one beholds the sea, sometimes idly irritated against the rocks on

which it breaks, bellowing and swelling its waves like mountains, sometimes clear and smooth as glass. At a distance are seen hills and mountains, which lose themselves in the clouds, and form by their fantastic figures as delightful an horizon as the eye could wish to behold. The neighbouring mountains are covered with verdant vine branches, hanging in festoons; the grapes, brighter than purple, cannot conceal themselves under the leaves, and the vine is overloaded with its fruit." The fig, the olive, the pomegranate, and all other trees, overspread the plain, and make it a large garden.

O, Zimmerman, who was ever here, and felt the delight of a tranquil evening, without calling you to recollection? The mind revolves, the imagination warms at thy sublime cogitations; yet flighty fancy subsides into a well-arranged collection of thoughts, and under thy fascinating precepts is never moved but in perfect harmony with the heart. On this desirable connection then, charming author, rests the basis of happiness, the offspring of good which thy lessons on morality have

so finely taught us to distinguish, and so invitingly disposed us to pursue. Happy they whose felicity depends not on the caprice of fortune; far happier still, who seek it by other paths than those of grandeur. Where virtue reigns, content is near, and let him who is in search of it follow thy instructions.

How frequently, on this spot, have I seen, with secret pleasure and delight, the rural amusements of the peasants, and how highly have I been captivated with the scenes of mirth and innocence. Each swain trips over the lawn with his chosen fair, listening with inward rapture to the echoing accents of the lyre, sweetly passing time in the bosom of happiness, and in the simplicity of a smiling country. Actuated by an honest passion, his heart opens to the artless conversation of his modest partner; love occupies his bosom, and a pastoral song explains his amorous desires. What a lovely image of happiness, of social concord, and virtue, these contented swains afford us! We, poor, irresolute, and feeble imitators of the lesson given us by

untaught man, fancy their joys fleeting; and, instead of having courage to be virtuous, indulge in vice, assume a face of serenity, and thus disguise the corroding pains of a wounded conscience.

SECTION V.

PRODUCTIONS.

THERE is a great variety of fossils in this country; the mineralogist has, therefore, ample room for his scientific search. The indifference of the Nissards with regard to the produce of their country, and their neglect of the public roads, are notorious; but why they should not work the mines of marl, argill, *platre*, vitriol, orpiment, alabaster, porphyry, other fine marbles, lead, iron, and copper, I am really at a loss to discover. Every one of these is to be found in various parts of the province. Nothing is wanted but the hand of industry to call forth the treasures of the soil. Surely these would become a great article of commerce, and the means of enriching the capital.

The mineral waters of Rocabiliare have gained a merited reputation, both from their internal and external use. The analysis of these waters shews them to be of a sulphureous nature, but the springs do not emit them in the same state of heat; one or two are moderately warm, but the other is cold. The village of Rocabiliare is difficult of access, the apartments shocking, and no other sort of accommodation, reasons sufficiently cogent for their being abandoned, since a mineral water not unfrequently works a surprising cure by the agreeable society that is formed, by the delights of a pleasant journey, and fascinating abode. Still farther in the Maritime Alps are the celebrated minerals of Vaudier and Vinai, which it is very probable are more commonly resorted to than those of Rocabiliare. This, one would suppose, is another produce of nature which might be converted to profit and pleasure, but this shares the fate of all the others which surround it.

The department of the Maritime Alps abounds in various parts with excellent carp and tench; a vast variety of birds, such as the red-legged par-

tridge, the moor-cock, the woodcock, and the pheasant, which four may be looked upon as the foremost. The first of these birds is supposed to have been brought from Sicily into Provence by Robert, Count of Provence. There are a great many birds of prey and singing birds. Among the latter are the hedge-sparrow, goldfinch, and a small bird called *Tarin*, &c. Amongst the aquatic tribe are the water quail, the phænicopter (a bird whose tongues Roman luxury sought as a delicious dish) the cormorant, the plover, ducks, &c.

Travellers mention the passage of different kinds of birds into Africa, and of their return into Europe. There is a great number which resemble the blackbird, whose feathers are of a dark ash colour. Many of them, exhausted with hunger and fatigue, fall into the sea. They are often washed ashore by the waves, and collected by the children, but being very lean afford but a meager repast. It is not known whether they stop at Sardinia or Corsica in their passage.

With respect to the insects distributed over the different plains and mountains of this country, there is a variety scarcely to be named. An able naturalist may give a tolerable description of them ; for me, I abandon the effort, after naming the most common, such, for instance, as the grasshopper, the bright-fly, and another, which destroys the olives, called *la mouche-à-dards*. An endless tribe of butterflies, beetles, lizards, &c. Innumerable insects of curious diversity are to be met with in a walk on the mountains which surround Nice.

The wild boar, bears, and other beasts of prey, are seldom seen at the present day in any parts of this department. The stag and roebuck are occasionally to be met with. Hares, foxes, and chamois, are abundant.

There is a lead mine, containing a little silver, near Tenda, and is almost constantly surrounded with snow. The Romans must have set a high value on that metal, to search for it in so wild a country; perhaps it might be on account of the silver, which was then found in greater quantities.

The excavations they made in the rock, which is very hard, are yet to be seen. The mine was again wrought about sixty years ago, by order of the King of Sardinia: a native of Piedmont has latterly had the privilege of working it on his own account. He employed upwards of a hundred people last year, but, if we may believe his report, the mine produces very little.

OLIVE TREE.

ALL the trees common to the climate are found in the vicinity of Nice, particularly the olive, which surpasses them all in beauty. There are many of them near the Var, whose trunk is six feet in circumference, and branches proportionally large. The leaves are about an inch long, and a quarter of an inch broad, their upper surface is of a greenish brown, and the under is white. From this circumstance, when the tree is agitated by the wind, the leaves seem variegated. Its fruit ripens in autumn, and is gathered towards the end of November. The tree which resembles

most the olive is the willow. Its growth is slow, and proportioned to its duration, which is frequently three hundred years; but when the branches of an healthy trunk have been lopped off, in less than twenty years they recover their former size: there are many species of this tree. The Athenians had a kind of veneration for the olive; they considered the person who had the audacity to injure it as laden with crimes, being persuaded that this tree was the offspring of the olive tree in the citadel of Athens, which was esteemed a gift of Minerva. It was only employed by them to reward the conquerors at the Athenian games. The olive tree also flourishes in its greatest beauty at Menton.

LEMON TREE.

THE lemon tree of this place is very curious; while some of its branches are in full blossom, the rest are covered with lemons of all sizes, from the moment of their formation to maturity. The description of the tree in the

second book of the Georgicks, is thus translated by the Abbé de Lille ;

“ Vois les arbres du Mède, et son orange amère,
 Qui lorsque la marâtre aux fils d'une autre mère
 Verse le noir poison d'un breuvage enchanté
 Dans leur corps expirant, rappelle la santé.
 L'arbre égale en beauté celui que Phœbus aime ;
 S'il en avoit l'odeur, c'est le laurier lui-même.
 Sa feuille, sans effort, ne se peut arracher
 Sa fleur résiste au doigt, qui la veut détacher
 Et son suc du vieillard qui respire avec peine,
 Raffermit les poumons, et parfume l'haleine.”*

This passage suggests two interesting remarks, the first that the ancients † considered the fruit

* “ Media fert tristes succos tardúmque saporem
 Felicis mali : quo non præsentius ullum
 (Pocula si quando scævæ infecêre novercæ,
 Miscuerúntque herbas, et non innoxia verba)
 Auxilium venit, ac membrîs agit atra venena.
 Ipsa ingens arbor, faciémque simillimã lauro ;
 Et, si non alium latè jactaret odorem,
 Laurus erat ; Folia haud ullis labentia ventis ;
 Flos apprima tenax. Animas et olentia Medi
 Ora fovent illo, et senibus medicantur anhelis.”

Virg. George, Lib, 11, l. 126,

† Athenæus tells a very foolish and improbable story of a malefactor condemned to die by the bite of serpents, saving himself by this kind of antidote.

endowed with the properties of a counter poison, the other that it has been improved by culture, if it be true that it was better in the time of Virgil. This tree must have been very scarce during the reign of the first Roman emperors, as its fruit was not eaten in the time of Pliny. It was then used for perfuming and preserving clothes from moths: hence the *vestis citrosa* of some authors. Cicero had a table made of its wood which cost two thousand crowns, and Asinius Pollio one which cost ten thousand.

This tree is divided into several species, the three principal of which are easily distinguished by their appearance and the taste of their fruit, viz. the citron, the lemon, and the *cedrat*. The fruit of the latter, whose odour is so exquisite and so highly valued, weighs from five to six pounds. It is to be lamented that the tree is subject to the disease called *marfee*. When it is attacked by it the peel of the fruit acquires a dark-brown colour, and is sometimes covered with a web resembling the spider's. The inhabitants have neglected nothing to remedy this evil, but hitherto without

success. The fruit contaminated with this disease, sells for two-thirds less in price.

ORANGE TREE.

THERE are several species of the orange tree. Botanists reckon upwards of twenty, but many of them differ so little as scarcely to be distinguished. Three of them, however, cannot be confounded, the sweet, the bitter, and the hermaphrodite, so named from its partaking equally of the lemon and orange. This tree has been known in Greece and Asia time immemorial, but, as well as the lemon, is believed to be a native of Africa. Fable seems to confirm this opinion. Hercules is said to have stolen the golden apples from the gardens of the Hesperides, after having killed the dragon that guarded them. The learned do not coincide in their opinion concerning the situation of that celebrated garden. Some suppose it to have been in Lybia, others in Mauritania, and many imagine, from a passage in Hesiod, that it must have been in one of the Canary Isles, but they all agree that it was in some part of Africa.

The golden apples have been a perpetual theme for the poets. They ascribed to them wonderful virtues. While they delighted the eyes they influenced the heart so much that it was impossible to resist them. When Juno espoused Jupiter, she presented him with some of these apples as her dowry. It was by throwing one of them on the table at the nuptials of Thetis and Peleus that discord produced the quarrel betwixt three of the goddesses, and troubled the peace of Olympus. It was by means of these apples that Hippomenes succeeded in softening the heart of the proud Atalanta. The "Hesperidum miratam mala puellam" of Virgil is well known. On seeing them, Theocritus assures us, she was inspired with the ardour of ungovernable passion. So much for Fable. But there must have been oranges in Phrygia before the Trojan war; for Homer would never have put them in the hands of Paris had they not been known in the time of that prince. It is probable the Phoceans were the first who brought the orange and lemon tree into Provence, as they did the olive, the laurel, the fig,

and some other exotics. They must have been known in the territory of Nice before the foundation of the town, particularly the orange tree, as that soil is well adapted to its culture. The soil of Menton is more favourable for the lemon tree, and on that account they have many more of them. They are more profitable than the orange trees.

LAUREL ROSE.

NEXT to the orange and lemon the laurel rose is the tree the most agreeable to the sight. Some of them have red flowers, others white; they are in blossom from May to September, and have always the same bloom and beauty. Some of them are twenty-five feet high, and their branches are proportionally large.

Nothing can be more curious than the banks of the Nervia, which empties itself into the sea between Vintimiglia and Bordiguière; it is a great plain covered with laurel roses. Perhaps it has given name to the little town Campo rosso, or red field, which is situated at one of its extremities.

A number of small barks are annually loaded with these roses, and sent to Italy; but this does not seem to diminish their number here, where their growth is spontaneous.

PALM TREE.

AMONG the remarkable trees this deserves not to be forgotten. The poets have consecrated it to their heroes, and religion to her martyrs: hence it is become the emblem of victory. There is a great number of them at Bordiguère, three leagues from Menton, where the soil is light, sandy, and nitrous. "On my arrival there," says the author of a tour through the Maritime Alps, "I thought I was in the vicinity of Jericho. This tree requires no culture, and, having few roots, occupies but a small space. The branches are cut in Lent and sent to Rome, where a great quantity of them are sold on Palm Sunday and in the holy week. The great utility of this tree to the ancient hermits of Ægypt is well known. Its leaves afforded them clothing, and its fruit was their principal food. They also made mats of the

leaves, the sale of which enabled them to procure a scanty subsistence. The fruit does not ripen on this coast, probably from the climate not being warm enough. Another cause, however, is assigned by botanists, who say it is in consequence of there being no male trees in the neighbourhood. They assert, that a female palm tree, when there is no male palm tree in the vicinity, produces no fruit, or at all events that the fruit cannot arrive at maturity, as it is necessary that the power of the stamen of the male flower be applied to the female flower in order to produce fecundation. In the Lives of the Fathers of the Deserts it is observed, that good St. Anthony wore, on Easter and Whitsunday holidays, a garment of palm tree leaves, which he inherited from St. Paul, who was the first hermit."

Besides the fruit trees already mentioned, brought from Africa and the Levant, the Nissards have the pomegranate, the pistachio, and the jujube. These are natives of the same countries, and thrive very well at Nice. They have also the caper-shrub, which creeps along the walls. As

heat is congenial to this shrub, it is generally planted at the foot of a wall with a southern aspect. The fruit still retains the Greek name in the language of the country, viz. tapenos, which signifies creeping. What is most remarkable in this shrub, is the manner in which the fruit is formed. It is not preceded by the flower, as in other plants, but is formed from the bud itself.

THE VINE.

THE vine has been known, time immemorial, in Provence. Justin tells us that the Phoceans found vines there, and taught the inhabitants how to dress them. The wine of Monaco is of an indifferent quality, but the grapes are very large; some of the bunches weigh seven or eight pounds; and I have been told that they sometimes weigh twelve. There are cantons of the department, which produce very good wine, particularly *Muscat*; and some parts of the territory of Nice produce a red wine equal to that of Menton: as it becomes old it is difficult to distinguish it from foreign wine.

SECTION VI.

ON THE CLIMATE OF NICE.

EVERY impartial observer acknowledges that the air of France is temperate, healthy, and agreeable. If the northern departments are cold, and little superior to the climate of England, the southern provinces are of a very benign and equal temperature: perhaps few are more so than Provence. In that agreeable country, flowers of different kinds appear in one part, and fruit in another, even in the severest months of winter. Mulberry and olive plantations, which never thrive but in a mild climate, adorn the upper part of it as far as the banks of the Var, and the fertility of the soil is well evidenced by the quantity and quality of the wine and corn. The upper part of Provence is the most luxuriant and rich; the inferior being exposed to a burning sun, and uncultivated, forms a miserable contrast, and is as frightful to the eye as the other is agreeable. The parching heats of summer are, however, moderated even in this part of the department by the

cooling breezes of the Mediterranean. Here, from the small quantity of wood and barrenness of the rocks, the air is very dry and elastic, little favourable to the patient's recovery from many complaints. The properties of the air vary, notwithstanding this, in different spots of the same district. If it is piercing and dry from the action of the sun and influence of cold winds in one part, in another the highly cultivated state of the soil, and excellency of position, give it a great pre-eminence over other departments. The temperature of Provence is attributable to the resistance made by the mountains to the passage of winds which come from that part of the horizon situated between the north and north east ; but, although such a defence is excellent against the winds and perpetual colds that reign upon the alps, the shelter thus formed is by no means so complete as one which similar mountains make around Nice. We must not, however, suppose that the plains of the latter town are not occasionally visited by the local winds of Provence. When the *Mistral*,

which is a very piercing wind, prevails, it sometimes passes over the mountains, and makes its effects sensibly felt in this country.

The mountains of Provence being very high, the circumjacent plains preserve nearly the same degree of temperature as when the summits of those lofty barriers were covered with forests. It is said that the temperature has suffered little variation for the last century, and I am inclined to believe that assertion, as snow does not remain longer upon the ground, nor the thermometer often descend below the point of congelation, and still more seldom in those spots under cover of the mountains. The thermometer in 1791 was seven degrees below the freezing point; but that was a very unusual circumstance, and proceeded from the winds blowing from the sea, and the side of the county most exposed. The remark I have made with regard to the temperature of Provence, being almost the same as at a remote period, is applicable to the district at large; for it is clear that the temperature of certain plains, covered

with extensive forests, was somewhat milder than at the present day, as there is now scarcely any wood to intercept currents of cold air. Besides, the well known fact that trees essentially resist the passage of winds, the constant evaporations from the earth beneath them render the air around so mild, that a cold atmosphere, brought by northerly winds, would be first impeded in its progress, and modified afterwards by its union with the air which is found in woods; therefore the air would be less cold in winter, though the temperature would be lowered in summer, from the interruption of the solar rays to the surface of the earth. Trees being also great conductors of caloric, may subtract heat from the earth, and distribute it in the surrounding air; an exposed surface, on the contrary, retains, for a length of time, the heat which the sun communicates to it.

Since the demolition of forests in various parts of the department of the Var, and particularly near the department of the Maritime

Alps, springs of water are also less abundant than in former years. It is obvious that trees retain water upon them a long time, and that their roots, ramifying in many directions, form small openings in the earth, through which the rain is admitted, and then conducted from fibre to fibre, until it is thoroughly imbibed. These apertures are reservoirs for the water, and, in reality, admit no inconsiderable quantity. If there were nothing to impede its progress on the declivities of hills, it would fall in torrents to the bottom, and there rush into the great streams.

We judge of the salubrity of a country from the nature of the vapours and exhalations which form the bulk of the atmosphere designed for our constant respiration, and for the preservation and growth of every being of the animal and vegetable kingdoms. These particles, put into motion by some subtle agent, prove injurious or salutary to the constitution, as they happen to be more or less diffused and acted upon by the meteors. Nothing is perhaps so susceptible of modification as the air: at one time it is thick, and charged

with many exhalations, at another rarified, and containing very few; which properties, and many others, it acquires from the quality of the situation, the action of subterraneous fires, the proximity and distance of the sun, &c. It is not difficult to conceive that a soil, containing particles of a saline, or sulphureous nature, will, from the influence of various agents, promiscuously distribute, in evaporation, each of these substances in the surrounding air. Thus then a situation near the banks of the sea will be impregnated with the saline matter which constantly, and in great abundance, detaches itself from that immense body. Such is the case with the territory of Nice. A southerly wind directs the evaporations of the Mediterranean over the town and plain of Nice, which the circumjacent mountains, from their peculiar form, keep within a certain space.

In the summer months a cool breeze refreshes the air, and moderates the heat which always prevails in the interstices of the mountains, owing to the reflection of the solar rays from the surfaces

of uncultivated portions of rock. But the greater part of the plain of Nice, and the southern side of the surrounding mountains, being highly cultivated, and having a soft soil, the sun-beams penetrate into the earth with little or no difficulty, so that heat accumulates in it, in the summer, to that degree, that the subsequent evaporations, even for many months, partake sufficiently of caloric to moderate a cold air brought from the summits of the alps: the frost from that circumstance seldom becoming permanent in the country.

Evaporation undoubtedly refrigerates the earth to a considerable degree, but the proportion between evaporation and the absorption of solar rays, decreasing as the summer solstice approaches, heat accumulates upon heat, until a great quantity is collected, sufficient in this part of the globe to render the evaporations of the earth very mild the ensuing winter.

The air of Nice, in some places, abounds in aqueous exhalations, of which there needs no

other proof than the quantity of insects engendered there. Without water they could not exist, but the soil, excepting near the banks of the Var, is not moist enough to furnish a large supply of those vapours, consequently there are not so many of them in other parts of the department. If you quit the territory of Nice, and travel westward in Provence, the air is charged with insects to a surprising degree, as on the plains of Frejus, Hyères, La Napoule, &c. The miasmata arising from the marshes in the summer and autumnal months, must render an abode in those places very prejudicial, particularly to strangers, who, unaccustomed to the climate, are more susceptible of the influence of such evaporations.

Nice has always a smiling aspect, notwithstanding the cold which ever reigns upon the Alps: the human frame, and the productions of the earth, equally feel and evince it. The fibre, neither in a state of too great relaxation nor rigidity, admits of a healthy perspiration, and the constitution but seldom falls into extreme

extenuation, or attains extreme plethora. The animal economy, like the vegetable, flourishes, and feels a joyous existence, when winter locks up the treasures of the earth, and spreads its gloomy mantle over other parts of the globe.

Soft, however, as the temperature of the air around Nice is, the northern part of the department is very cold. At only a few miles distance from this agreeable plain we witness a different scene; we feel and respire another atmosphere; we leave, in short, a perpetual spring to visit a wintry region. The second and third rows of mountains that surround the plain are equally uncultivated and barren on one side as the other, and constantly chilled with currents of air from the Alps or the northern hemisphere. They are never tempered by the solar rays, nor the benign exhalations of high cultivation. The farther you proceed in making the circuit of these mountains the climate is less propitious to vegetation; nature is more rude in all her appearances, and fewer are the marks of human industry. It is from the combined advantages of cultivation, position, and

climate, that we see vegetation ever flourish in the country about Nice, that the vegetable kingdom makes such rapid strides to maturity, that one crop succeeds quickly to another, and that fruit comes to perfection at an early season.

“ Est enim Nicæensis ager, licèt exiguus, fertilitate omnium fertilissimus, aquarum inundantiâ irriguus, ac omnium arborum genere consitus, soli fertilitate, pabuli ubertate, situ salubritate ac temperie, benignoque ventorum afflatu, undiquè perpollens.”—*Revell* :

“ Clementia Cœli
Mitis ubi, et riguæ larga indulgentia terræ :
Ver longum, brumæque breves, juga frondea subsunt.”

In the coldest days of the winter of 1802 I have oftener than once observed that even the oblique action of the solar rays, with the heat extricated from the earth, were sufficient to maintain a temperature some degrees above the freezing point, when the thermometer was below Zero in other parts of the department. It is true that the heat was not always sufficient to disperse the vapours which hovered about the atmosphere,

and made it thick and hazy, although the contest was frequently so great between them, that the same day was at one moment clear, and at another hazy, as may be seen in my meteorological tables. Whenever a gentle wind arose the vapours disappeared, the sun was brilliant, and the day delightful. If, however, the wind blew from the Mediterranean, and was not very impetuous, the vapours collected into clouds, and hovered about the summits of the mountains, where, meeting a local wind, they recoiled, seldom or never completing a passage over them : if they became large and heavy, they dispersed in rain.

With regard to the snow which falls at Nice, it is always small in quantity, and seldom or never remains more than twelve or twenty-four hours upon the earth, melting in part in its approach to our globe, and soon disappearing altogether when once in contact with its surface. It is not here, as in other parts of the world, renowned for temperature, for the latter snows remain no longer upon the ground than those that fall at the beginning of winter, a very unusual circum-

stance elsewhere, and a certain proof of the quantity of caloric existing in the earth. In some parts of Provence, where the air, from the exposure of the country, is cold, the snow remains upon the ground several days; but in other places it melts almost as soon as in the plain of Nice. The only circumstance that could make snow remain longer than usual on the plain of Nice, would be a visit from the *Mistral*:* this, passing the mountains to the north-west of the town, freezes rain in a state of vapour, and so much chills the regions of the air, that hail falls in a considerable quantity. In that case, of course, the snow would not melt so soon.

The department of the Maritime Alps is subject to currents of air, the influence of which is felt to a great extent. The winds that blow from the northern part of the horizon over Provence and this department, reaching the curtain of the Alps, meet with so considerable an obstacle to their passage, that they recoil and become

* A cold wind, of which I shall speak presently.

reflected on themselves, whence arise various winds which have obtained the name of *local*. Similar interruptions occurring to winds on the mountains adjoining the sea, local winds are generated also there, and sometimes prove very dangerous to navigation.

When the *Mistral* passes over the curtain I have already mentioned, it insinuates itself into different canals between one Maritime Alp and another, and collecting new force in those places, rushes out at their extremities with such violence as to precipitate men and cattle into chasms on the side of the road: this calamitous circumstance occurs at least once a year to the unfortunate travellers who are exposed to its influence. Accidents are continually happening in the vicinity of Sospello, and the Col di Tenda, where there is real danger, owing to the precipices which adjoin the road. Westerly winds are also dangerous, and not unfrequently produce consequences of an equally serious nature.

Vapours collecting together as soon as they are formed between the mountains, generate very

violent winds, which are more properly local than those I have just described. If the concentration of the particles of vapour be quick, the wind, I apprehend, will be impetuous; if, on the contrary, it be slow, the wind thereby produced will be moderate. The topical winds of the alps, the mountains of Hungary, and Dauphiny, probably have their origin from the immediate concentration of the immense evaporations which abound in those places. Snow gives rise to that profusion of vapour, the particles of which uniting near the spot of their formation, become on a sudden agitated, and thus occasion a wind more or less impetuous.

The most remarkable winds of Dauphiny are the *Pontias*, the *Vezine*, and the *Solere*. The latter is peculiar to the river Drome, and almost always reigns there.

The *Mistral* is the wind that generally predominates in Provence, and also blows in a determined space. It is severely felt in the western part of the Maritime Alps, the passage of which being long and narrow, conducts it, as through a

canal, to the circumjacent countries. The ancients knew that this wind prevailed in Provence, were perfectly well acquainted with it, and gave it the name of Circius. Lucan, in his *Pharsalia*, alluding to the old port of Hercules, says,

“ Quàque sub Herculeo, sacratus Numine Portus
Urget rupe cava pelagus : non Corus in illum
Jus habet, aut Zephyrus : solus sua littora turbat
Circius, et tuta prohibet statione Monæci.”

The Circius is what is now called the *Maestro* of the Mediterranean. It reigns, says Seneca, in Narbonnoise Gaul, and produces considerable mischief, though the inhabitants of Provence attribute the salubrity of the air to its dominion. When Augustus came into Gaul he caused a monument to be erected in commemoration of it, as if it were the preserver of the human species, and the promoter of vegetation. The Provençaux, however, of the present age differ in opinion with the ancients as to its beneficial effects. They look upon it rather as one

of the greatest evils of the country. Hence the vulgar saying,

“ La Cour de Parlement, le Mistral, et la Durance
sont les trois fléaux de la Provence.”

Another wind, known also by the name of *Maestro*, reigns in the kingdom of Naples, but blows from a different point of the horizon. It is termed *Yapix*, or the *Maestro ponente*, or *levante Sirocco*.

We may form an idea of the chilly nature of the *Mistral* of Provence, by its effects upon vapour. When the exhalations from the earth are abundant, and concentrate into dew or clouds, the influence of the *Mistral*, even for a few hours only, is sufficient to convert them into clouds of hail, the grains of which are so enormous, as to desolate the country, and totally destroy vegetation. If the upper regions of the air are less refrigerated than usual, these clouds disperse in rain, and torrents of water fall, mixed with hailstones. The whole atmosphere is then in a state of the greatest commotion, and you think you see a cloud of dust, intermixed with small stones,

and a kind of foam, such as is perceptible on the sea. The mischief these storms commit is so much the greater, as they fall upon the base of mountains, and those parts of the earth which are most cultivated, and where vegetation is the most luxuriant. The ravages made by them, the Var, and the Paglion, are incalculable: trees are torn up by the roots, houses washed away, and the whole face of the country desolated. Besides producing storms and freezing vapours, when the *Mistral* is very impetuous, it destroys the fruit, which, if not already of considerable magnitude, perishes, and falls off the trees.

The *Mistral* is a north-easterly wind, and the ill effects of wind from that point of the horizon are felt in many other countries as well as in Provence. To the mischief it produces to vegetation we may add a number of diseases very destructive to the human economy. When the *Mistral* blows, you undergo all the sensations and changes which supervene on passing suddenly from a mild to a cold temperature. It is difficult to ascertain the cause of the dominion of this

wind, though it is remarked that its violence is in proportion to the quantity of rain that falls in the Cevennes and the Vivarais.

During my residence at Nice I recollect to have felt, oftener than once, the influence of the *Mistral*; and, in the tables which I have submitted to the public, it appears that this wind occasionally blew for several hours with great impetuosity; though, generally speaking, its effects are but slightly felt in this spot.

The *Sirocco*, a predominant wind in Sicily and Italy, sometimes extends its influence to the Maritime Alps and the coast of Provence. It relaxes the fibre in an astonishing manner—depresses the spirits, excites ill-humour, and induces such a torpor over the mind and body, as to unqualify for work or study. I am by no means sure of the following circumstance. It is said that even birds feel so forcibly the impression of it, that they cease to warble. At the same time a gloomy silence prevails throughout the country, animals become torpid, and rheumatic people, or such as have been wounded, experience a renewal of their

pains. This latter circumstance is common in a change of weather in other parts of Europe.

As Nice is open to the south, winds that come from that quarter are sensibly felt there. Its vicinity to the sea, and exposure to southerly winds, are the reasons that in the summer months the air which surrounds it is fresh and moist; for, as evaporation from the sea is constantly going on, the air which passes over an immense tract of water, like the Mediterranean, must be necessarily loaded to such a degree with aqueous particles, that the atmosphere, even for some extent from the coast will be impregnated with them. The constant movement of the sea, and the irregularity of its surface, are also obstacles to the entrance of the sun-beams into it, from which circumstance the sea is not heated in summer in proportion to the earth, another reason why climate is milder near the sea than elsewhere. Besides, the sea always remaining fluid, and never resisting the extrication of heat contained within it, will, by the same rule, render the atmosphere in winter mild in comparison with that which passes over a surface covered

with ice and snow. Every one, likewise, knows that the air, contiguous to bodies, partakes of their heat or cold. Winds from the sea, therefore, will always be warmer in winter than those from the land, though more or less moist in proportion to the quantity of vapour. Southerly winds, being likewise heated by a vertical sun in Africa, are generally mild, and often productive of rain, owing to the immense evaporations with which the Mediterranean charges them before their arrival upon the coasts of Europe. Besides the rain which they bring and distribute in abundance upon the coasts, they produce those refreshing dews that invigorate plants, and occasion a smiling vegetation. The particles of rarified vapour, of which these winds are composed, remain suspended in the air until they reach the shores and territory of Europe, where, coming in contact with a cold atmosphere, they become condensed, hover about adjoining mountains, and disperse in rain in the direction of the wind.

Persons who have never travelled in Italy, or the southern provinces of France, can scarcely

have an idea of the mildness of the air of Nice after a gentle fall of rain. The sulphureous and other terrestrial exhalations that are occasionally suspended in it being precipitated to the earth by a few showers, the atmosphere is left in a very pure and genial state. At these moments, the softness of the climate, the serenity of the sky, the brilliancy of the sun, and the numerous beauties of nature that on every side surround you, may be better conceived than described. The breathing is free, the body light, and the same harmony seems equally to prevail in the human frame as in the circumjacent scenery. The valetudinarian has a respite from his sufferings, and the voluptuous man finds new pleasures occupy his mind.

“ Parturit almus ager, Zephyrique tepentibus auris
Laxant arva sinus ; superat tener omnibus humor :
Inque novos soles audent se gramina tutò
Credere ; nec metuit surgentes pampinus Austros,
Aut actum Cælo magnis Aquilonibus imbrem :
Sed trudit gemmas, et frondes explicat omnes.”

Virg. Georg. lib. 11.

It is no unusual circumstance in this part of the world to have a clear sky for five or six months after March or April. The same fine season how-

ever does not reign in every part of the department at the same time. The environs of Nice and Menton are more especially blessed with this mark of divine favour. No rain fell at Nice in the year 1803 from March to July. To compensate for the dearth of water, gentle dews covered the earth, and vapours arose from the sea, which refreshed nature with their "genial stores," until Phœbus, peeping through the loaded horizon, illumined the portal of the east, and hailed the approaching morn. The author of a tour through the Maritime Alps observes that the sun was so hot at Christmas in the year 1803, that he was frequently obliged to repose under the shade of the lemon trees, where the verdant turf, enamelled with a vast number of small flowers, resembling the violet, flourished in all its beauty.

Chapelle and Bachaumont speak of Hyères in the following manner, but the author of a tour through the Maritime Alps thought the lines so applicable to the climate of Nice, that he has given them a place in his work, and I have transcribed them.

“ Que c'est avec plaisir qu'aux mois
Si fâcheux, en France, et si froids,
On est contraint de chercher l'ombre
Des orangers qu'en mille endroits
On y voit sans rang et sans nombre,
Former des Forêts, et des bois !
Là, jamais les plus grands hivers
N'ont pu leur déclarer la guerre :
Cet heureux coin de l'univers
Les a toujours beaux, toujours verds,
Toujours fleuris en pleine terre.”

Walk or ride in whatever direction your curiosity may incline you, and even in the months of November and December, your senses will be gratified with the wild and beautiful display of flowers on each side of the road. The gaudy butterfly, in the depth of winter, is seen to flutter and repose on the delightful beds which Flora deigns to offer him. Other insects sport in the airy element, and announce the mildness of a spring or summer season. Such agreeable objects, the temperature of the climate, and the luxuriance of the orange and the olive tree, produce those sensations which we are unaccustomed to experience elsewhere, but at the meridian of the loveliest summer.

It is natural to suppose that the heat at Nice and other towns of the department of the Maritime Alps is very great in summer, but I doubt whether it be so excessively hot there as strangers at the first point of view would be induced to imagine. The reflection of the sun-beams is very powerful between the mountains, and occasions a great degree of heat to reign around, which, however, soon disperses in thunder, if the evaporation of sulphureous and nitrous particles be considerable from the earth. The explosion very much resembles the report of artillery placed in the interstices of the mountains, or sometimes a rolling fire of small arms. But what most corrects the heat is a gentle breeze that blows from the west and south west, and which reigns from eight or nine o'clock in the morning until six in the evening. It refreshes the air, and revives the inhabitants, who might otherwise find the heat oppressive. So very true is this remark, that strangers, intending to pass the summer at Nice, seek apartments of a south-westerly exposure, in order to respire this welcome breeze. The windows are

commonly left open, and the virandas closed, so that it may find a passage into the chambers. It is just strong enough to give a gentle motion to a curtain, produce a regular succession of fresh air, and invigorate the body. It was known to the Romans, who gave it the name of Favonius. The Greeks termed it Zephyr. It blows, as fable says, with such mildness, yet with that degree of force, that it gives life to men, animals, and vegetables ; and also is the defender of the empire of Flora. Indeed, it has a right to be the champion of this beautiful goddess, since tradition says the nuptials of the two have long been celebrated.

The reader may treat the latter observation with the degree of credit it seems to merit, though I beg the favor of him to believe that the properties of this breeze are such as I have described. Those persons who travel in this part of the continent, and who have a desire to convince themselves of the fact, need only ascend an eminence, and they will soon be persuaded of its beneficial effects.

Besides the services of this friendly guest, the perpetual evaporations of the Mediterranean, and

the alpine snows, contribute greatly to the enjoyment of the inhabitant, by maintaining an agreeable freshness in the air, and performing the same kind office at an early hour in the morning that Zephyr accomplishes during the middle of the day. If the traveller wishes to clearly distinguish the slight fogs of the sea and the vapours that collect around the mountain tops, he must rise at an early hour, and ascend a rising ground, where he will see them gradually disperse, seldom reaching the upper regions of the air to be compressed and converted into rain. It would undoubtedly be more salutary for man, and more propitious to vegetation, if these vapours oftener became condensed, and terminated in showers; for a great deal of heterogeneous matter, which renders the air impure, and frequently does harm to the constitution, would by this means be precipitated to the earth.

Hail storms, so common behind the chain of mountains opposite the sea, and so disastrous, as I have already mentioned, to vegetation, do not frequently happen on the plain of Nice. The sky is often clear and serene here when it is cloudy

and troubled over other parts of the same department.

Another delightful spot, not at all inferior to Nice, and blessed with an equally clear sky and agreeable temperature, is Menton, situated at the distance of three leagues from the former town. Before the revolution in France, the celebrity of the climate of Nice attracted strangers from most parts of Europe, and the inhabitants accumulated small fortunes by the residence of English, Germans, Russians, Poles, Italians, &c. All these quitted their native soil to spend six months of the year in a place where the pleasures of an agreeable society, joined to the mildness of climate, restored the valetudinarian to health, and afforded a source of amusement to him whose pursuit was pleasure.

Sick people should be circumspect in the choice of a house, or the various currents of air met with in most, and arising from an ill distribution of the apartments, and imperfect workmanship, will be very perplexing to those whose irritable lungs require a gentle succession of air, but which

cannot endure a variety of drafts. The Nissards have not so much constructed their houses against the chills of winter as the heats of summer, for which reason they have adopted a light manner of building, and paid little attention to the complete exclusion of air within. Many of the apartments have no chimneys in them, but this defect is supplied by a vast number of doors, which easily allow the cold to enter.

I am sensible that a few cursory observations made upon the climate of a country during a residence of a few months, are insufficient to decide upon its merits. The most exact statement of the elevation and depression of the barometer and thermometer, with accurate remarks on the meteors, cannot afford a just criterion of climate, unless continued for several years: one season seldom or never resembles another; it is colder or hotter, more moist or dry, owing to a variety of phenomena concealed in the secrets of nature: and if it be true that a revolution has taken place in the elements within a period of twenty years, it proves in a still stronger manner the difficulty of ascertain-

ing a true knowledge of the quality of climate. Neither a season unusually cold, nor particularly warm, can be chosen as a standard for the weather. Extraordinary circumstances, originating in the meteors, intervene between one season and another, and though they probably render a particular state of climate inexplicable, we are not less sensible of their effects. A thick fog spread itself in the summer of 1782 over a great part of Europe and the Northern part of America, which was followed by a great diminution of heat in the earth, and severe frosts the ensuing winter. Conjectures have been made respecting the cause of this event, but I doubt whether they satisfy the philosophic mind.

The winter of 1802, which I spent at Nice, was very cold, and so it was every where on the continent of Europe. The frosts were severe, and a great deal of snow fell in Languedoc, Provence, and other southerly departments, but we were little incommoded by them at Nice. It would not be impartial, therefore, to give that year as a criterion of the weather, though if my meteoro-

logical tables were compared with others made in various parts of France and Italy, I have no doubt but the temperature of Nice would be found equal to that of Italy, and superior to that of any of the departments of France.

I endeavoured to collect tables of the weather for several years back, but I failed in my researches. The papers I examined in the hope of collecting some useful remarks therefrom, were written so ill, at such a remote period, and so scanty in detail, that I could extract nothing worth my attention. Little regard was paid to objects of this kind in a time of civil and foreign discord: the minds of men were wholly employed in projecting plans of personal security, and fortunate were they who found the means of evading the scaffold.

It was during the short interval of peace between England and France that I collected the observations I have now the honor of laying before the public.

I shall be flattered, and perfectly rewarded for my trouble, by learning they had been of the least service, was it but to a single individual.

I have no doubt but that Pisa, Genoa, Hyères, and Montpellier, have all certain advantages for the residence of invalids, but the exhalations from the plains of one, and exposure to the north wind of another, are inconveniences which do not accompany an abode at Nice. If you made choice of Pisa or Genoa to reside at, you could remain there during the depth of winter only, as the excessive heat of the sun would oblige you to decamp to the northward at the commencement of spring, whereas you may with pleasure remain at Nice till the month of May. You would, at least, be glad to quit Genoa long ere this; and, as far as regards a comparison of climate with Montpellier and Nice, I do not hesitate to say the latter has an infinite superiority.

The country, for an extensive tract around Montpellier, is very level, and consequently exposed to the influence of winds coming from every point of the horizon. The air there is commonly too sharp for consumptive persons, and the extreme damp that prevails during the winter months would be found highly detrimental to many constitutions. Where the atmosphere is

loaded with vapour, as in the neighbourhood of Montpellier, and exceedingly cold at the same time, we must allow that a residence in it is not likely to favour the removal of a pulmonary complaint.

Those who quit Nice to pass a short time at Montpellier, always express the sense of cold they experience by the transition.

If, for the sake of discussion, we were to place the two spots in the same geographical position, one open on all sides, as Montpellier, the other closely encircled by mountains, as Nice, we should have no difficulty in declaring in favour of the latter country for the abode of the valetudinarian.

I am aware that not every season at Nice has been equally favorable to invalids, who have gone thither in the anxious hope of seeing their health restored; but, if some have not found the benefit from a change of climate, which their expectations formed, there are certainly many that have derived great advantages from it, and even warded off a disease that bade fair to strike deep root in

a less auspicious clime. It is but just to subjoin to the observations I made on this climate in a severe winter, the reports handed down to us thereupon by such respectable writers as Messrs. Sulzer, La Lande, Thomas, &c. all of whom unanimously agree on its great superiority over other countries in the same latitude. A longer abode at Nice, better grounded information, and facts corroborated by the test of years, enabled those gentlemen to speak with more freedom and exactitude on its properties than I should venture to do, whose stay there was short. The reader will perceive by the subsequent extracts, that I have by no means too highly appreciated the climate, and that I have likewise purposely avoided panegyric, in order that the sentiments of more minute observers might be canvassed, and their reports verify, if not surpass, the opinions I have delivered.

A description of the country is blended with an account of the climate in the letters of the gentlemen I have alluded to; I am therefore obliged to transcribe all, that the reader may lose nothing that relates to the subject I am now

treating: “ La température, dit M. La Lande, Nice, est telle qu'on auroit peine à en trouver une aussi douce, même en Italie. Le climat de Naples n'est pas plus doux en hiver, il est plus brûlant en été: le thermomètre n'y descendit pas à plus de trois degrés de froid. Le mois de Mai est rarement aussi beau en France que le mois Février l'est à Nice; et c'est au mois de Février que la température y est moins douce, et le temps plus inconstant. L'été est fort chaud sans doute; car la température moyenne est de vingt deux degrés, mais le thermomètre ne passe presque jamais vingt quatre, et cette chaleur est agréablement tempérée par une brise de Mer; qui tous les jours s'élève à dix heures du matin, et souffle jusqu'au coucher du Soleil, moment où commence la brise de terre, qui est également rafraichissante. On vit long-temps dans ce pays. La pleurisie est presque la seule maladie qui soit commune. La campagne, ou le territoire de Nice répond parfaitement à ce qu'un ciel si beau semble promettre; c'est une plaine coupée par des coteaux, derrière lesquels s'élèvent trois rangs de Mon-

tagnes graduées dans leur hauteur, dont le dernier rang se confond avec les Alpes. C'est à ce triple rempart qu'on doit l'avantage d'une si douce température. C'est cet abri naturel qui met tant de différence entre la température de Nice, et celle des lieux voisins qui n'ont pas la même exposition; aussi cette campagne est très peuplée.

“ On y est à l'abri du froid, dit M. Sulzer, des neiges et des brouillards; on y jouit, pour ainsi dire, en hiver d'un printemps perpétuel; l'hiver de 1775 qui se fit sentir avec tant de rigueur, fut fort doux à Nice, quoiqu'il parût aux habitans extrêmement rude. Le froid fut très supportable depuis le commencement de Décembre jusqu'à la fin de Mars: il ne tomba point de neige pendant tout l'hiver excepté sur le sommet des Montagnes, et trois fois seulement la gelée fut assez forte pour couvrir les eaux dormantes d'une légère glace, qui disparoissoit cependant d'abord après le lever du Soleil. Les pluies et les vents des mois de Janvier et Février étoient les seuls incommodités de ce rude hiver: cependant nous eûmes dans ces mêmes mois et surtout en Dé-

cembre des journées délicieuses: aussitôt que la pluie cessoit la saison redevenoit belle, et comparable aux plus doux printems de l'Allemagne. L'air d'ici m'a paru beaucoup plus pur, et plus serein que par-tout ailleurs. Il n'y a guere de ville en Europe qui soit plus propre que Nice pour un observatoire: car en temps de pluie même on ne s'apperçoit pas que l'air devienne humide, ou épais. Un Valétudinaire qui a besoin de respirer un air pur et sec, et de se tenir en exercice trouvera à Nice pendant l'hiver tout ce qui lui est nécessaire. Dans ce climat la Nature n'est pas en repos pendant l'hiver. Les jardins sont toujours verts, on y sème, et l'on plante sans relâche; les endroits incultes des montagnes sont perpétuellement couverts d'herbes: dans les plaines on voit des fleurs naissantes, des arbres chargés de fruit ou en fleurs: les oliviers, et les lauriers portent des fruits pendant tout l'hiver; les citronniers, et les orangers paroissent en même temps dans tout leur éclat, et forment un coup d'œil magnifique. Les promenades de ces contrées acquièrent un nouveau prix pour un étranger

accoutoumé aux pays septentrionaux, en ce qu'elles lui offrent de toutes parts des objets inconnus. La vue même des montagnes, et des rochers les plus stériles devient encore intéressantes par le contraste. D'un côté la nature se montre dans le dernier degré de sa pauvreté, et de l'autre elle étale dans les plaines et dans les vallées tous ses charmes, et toute sa beauté." Another writer says, "Hinc niciensis agri temperiem, atque amœnitatem datur conjicere. Illa equidèm tanta est, ut nulli hâc in parte urbi, non môdo in Italiâ, sed neque intrâ Europam concedat. Cœli verò clementiam non sâtis quis dignè laudibus celebret. Ex hâc beatâ, ac felici orâ, semper aspera hyems exulat, floresque ac varii generis fructus gignens, perpetuò vernat humus."

Mr. Thomas, director of the French academy, finding his health get worse every day resorted to Nice in the hope of repairing, by the salubrity of the air, what art had been unable to effect. This academician corresponded very regularly with the celebrated Mrs. Necker, and in a letter to that lady enters upon the merits of the air of Nice.

In a letter dated Nice, December, 17th 1802, he writes " Je suis dans un très beau climat, mais je ne sais si c'est celui qui me convient. Je crains que le voisinage de la mer, dont je suis entouré, ne soit point favorable à mon état. Du reste, je jouis ici d'un magnifique spectacle ; il n'y a nulle part ni un plus beau ciel, ni des promenades qui présentent de plus beaux points de vue : il est vrai qu'il faut aller les chercher à travers les montagnes et des sentiers pénibles ; mais on y rencontre partout l'olivier, le myrte, le citronnier, l'oranger ; et sous ses pas, le thym, le romarin, la lavande, et la sauge, que la nature a semés dans des déserts et au milieu des rochers. On y voit, du même coup d'œil, tout ce que la nature a de plus sauvage, et le luxe des jardins de plus précieux. Dans ces lieux élevés l'air semble composé d'aromates et de parfums ; on a sur sa tête un ciel resplendissant d'azur, un Soleil aussi brillant que dans les plus beaux jours d'été : autour de soi, des montagnes couvertes des jardins, et d'une foule inombrable de maisons de campagne qui semblent suspendues sur des rochers, et au

milieu des arbres ; dans le vallon, le terrain le plus cultivé et le plus riche, coupé par un vaste torrent, dont le lit souvent à sec, est tout couvert des débris des montagnes, et offre l'image de la destruction à côté de celle de la fertilité : devant soi, le miroir immense de la mer qui s'enfonce et se perd de tous les côtés dans l'horizon et réfléchit la lumière la plus vive ; et derrière, du côté de Turin, les Alpes naissantes qu'on aperçoit de loin, blanchées par les neiges, dans le même moment ou le soleil vous fait éprouver la chaleur la plus douce, et qu'on croit respirer l'air du printemps. J'ai contemplé, il y a quelque jours, pendant plusieurs heures, ce grand tableau, sur une des plus hautes montagnes ; je voyois Nice à mes pieds, Antibes au couchant, Monaco vers le midi ; je dominois sur les rochers qui couvrent le port de Ville-franche, et sur la mer qui conduit à Gènes : en même temps, je touchois à un fort qui, dans ce siècle, a été assiégé trois fois par nos armées, et nous a coûté en 1744, la perte de quatre mille hommes dont un grand nombre perit dans le torrent que j'avois sous les yeux.

Je déplorais les crimes et les malheurs de la guerre dans un pays si beau, et où la nature à tant fait pour le bonheur des habitans."

The same author writes to another friend in these terms, dated, Nice, December 28, 1802. " Vous m'absoudrez, mon cher ami, et puis je vous dirai que je suis à Nice, que je suis logé dans une charmante maison, située à la campagne et sur les bords de la mer, mais à mi-côte et à distance raisonnable. J'ai sous ma fenêtre ce beau et immense bassin que je decouvre de tous côtés, jusqu'aux bornes de l'horizon.

" J'entends la nuit, et de mon lit, le bruit des vagues; et ce son monotone et sourd m'invite doucement au sommeil. Je n'ai jamais vu de plus beaux jours que ceux dont nous jouissons ici: le soleil y est dans son plus grand éclat; la chaleur, à midi, est comme celle du mois de mai à Paris, lorsqu'il est beau. La campagne est encore riante et couverte de gazons. Les petits pois sont en fleurs. On trouve dans les jardins la rose, l'œillet, l'anémone, le jasmin, comme en été. L'orange et le citron sont sus-

pendus à des milliers d'arbres epars dans les campagnes et dans les enclos. Tout offre l'image de la fertilité et du printemps. Joignez à cela des promenades très agréables dans les montagnes, et ou l'on découvre à chaque pas les points de vue les plus pittoresques; partout le mélange de la nature sauvage et de la nature cultivée, des montagnes, qui sont des jardins, et d'autres hérissées de roches, entre-coupées de pins et de cyprès: et dans l'éloignement, la cime des Alpes couverte des neiges. Voila, mon cher ami, le séjour que j'habite; il est infiniment préférable à celui d'Hyères: la température, jusqu' à present du moins, y est plus douce et plus égale." In another place alluding to the symptoms of his complaint, he says: " Ils ne m'empêchent pas pourtant de jouir de ce délicieux climat, de faire des promenades charmantes, où la seule incommodité, à la veille de Noel, est la chaleur. Que n'êtes vous avec moi, mon cher Ami, vous qui avez l'ame si douce et l'imagination si forte! vous qui savez converser avec la nature ou belle ou terrible, et savez également l'entendre ou lui re-

pondre ! Je suis sur que vous seriez heureux et que vous ajouteriez à mon bonheur. J'ai vu dernièrement un des lieux les plus sauvages qui existent dans la nature : c'est un amas de rochers, et de montagnes couverts d'arbres toujours verts, et jetés cà et là par touffes irrégulières : des précipices de soixante pieds, creusés par des torrents ; l'eau qu'on entend à cette profondeur est du sommet des rochers, sans cependant la voir, parce qu'elle roule sous des rochers et sous des arbres ; enfin à travers un chemin étroit, suspendu sur le bord d'un abyme, on parvient jusqu'à l'entrée d'une caverne très vaste, formée par les eaux, tapissée des plantes, et dont la voute est en roches aigues qui pendent sur la tête, et semblent prêtes à chaque instant à se détacher. Dans l'enfoncement de la grotte, et tout-à-fait dans l'ombre, est une source ou une fontaine très considérable, et qu'on entend bouilloner en se brisant à travers les rochers, &c. &c."

I insert also in this place, part of a letter written on the 20th November, 1784, to a friend at Nice. " Je suis à Nice, mon cher ami, et après

avoir balancé longtems sur le climat que je préférerois pour mon hiver, j'ai choisi le plus agréable et le plus doux, quoique le plus éloigné. Je n'ai pu rester que ving-quatre heures à Avignon, car il y regnoit une bise violente et froide sous le plus beau ciel. On y voyoit l'été, mais on y sentoit l'hyver; c'est à peu-pres la même température dans tout le Comtat. A l'égard du Languedoc, il y regne aussi de tres grands vents; on y éprouve pendant deux mois des gelées assez fortes; en consequence, je suis revenu me mettre au soleil, comme un espalier entre la mer et les montagnes de Nice, &c. &c."

I here present the reader with tables of the weather.

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Month of Germinal, An. X. of the Fr Rep. Mar. Apr. 1802.

Day of the Month.	Day of the Moon.	BAROMETER.			THERMOMETER.						STATE OF THE WEATHER.			
		Six o'clock in the Morning.	Noon.	Ten o'clock in the Evening.	West. Six o'clock in the Morning.	East. Six o'clock in the Morning.	West. Noon.	East. Noon.	West. Ten o'clock in the Evening.	East. Ten o'clock in the Evening.	Morning.	Noon.	Evening.	
1	18	28 2	0 28 2	0 28 1	5 10	0 10	1 13	4 16	0 9	0 8	5 8	Changeable.	Changeable.	Fine.
2	19	28 2	0 27 11	5 28 2	8 8	1 12	0 13	0 14	0 11	8 10	5 9	Cloudy.	Ditto Easterly wind.	Ditto.
3	20	28 0	9 28 3	0 28 3	7 7	5 7	2 15	0 14	5 9	5 9	0 9	Fine.	Fine.	Ditto.
4	21	28 3	5 28 4	0 28 4	8 8	1 8	0 12	5 12	0 9	8 9	6 9	Cloudy.	Ditto.	Ditto.
5	22	28 4	1 28 4	0 28 4	7 7	9 9	9 12	0 15	0 9	5 8	9 9	Fine.	Ditto.	Ditto.
6	23	28 4	9 28 5	0 28 5	8 8	8 8	8 12	5 16	0 11	0 10	0 10	Ditto.	Ditto.	Ditto.
7	24	28 4	5 28 4	5 28 3	9 8	5 9	1 13	5 15	9 11	1 10	1 10	Cloudy.	Ditto.	Ditto.
8	25	28 2	5 28 1	0 27 11	9 9	0 0	5 13	5 16	0 10	3 9	5 9	Cloudy.	Rainy and fine.	Ditto.
9	26	27 9	3 27 10	0 28 0	9 9	0 9	0 15	9 16	0 9	9 10	4 9	Appearance of Rain.	Ditto.	Ditto.
10	27	28 1	0 28 2	0 28 2	8 8	1 8	9 13	8 15	9 11	8 12	0 10	Fine.	Cloudy, Easty wind.	Fine.
11	28	28 3	0 28 3	2 28 3	8 8	9 9	9 13	2 14	8 8	5 9	0 9	Ditto.	Same wind.	Ditto.
12	28	28 2	2 28 1	0 28 1	6 6	0 7	5 12	0 12	5 11	0 11	3 10	Ditto.	Ditto.	Ditto.
13	29	28 0	5 28 0	0 28 0	10 10	7 11	2 12	5 13	0 11	5 11	5 11	Strong Easty wind.	Wind more violent.	Wind violent.
14	1	28 0	5 28 0	5 28 1	8 8	1 10	1 13	5 14	5 9	6 9	6 9	Cloudy.	Wind variable.	Fine.
15	2	28 1	5 28 1	5 28 2	8 8	5 10	0 13	5 15	0 9	5 9	5 9	Clouds scattered.	Fine.	Ditto.
16	3	28 2	3 28 2	5 28 2	9 9	0 9	0 13	1 11	8 10	0 10	5 10	Fine.	Ditto.	Ditto.
17	4	28 2	5 28 2	5 28 2	9 9	0 10	5 13	5 17	0 12	1 11	1 11	Ditto.	Rain and wind.	Ditto.
18	5	28 2	5 28 3	0 28 3	9 9	5 10	2 15	5 18	5 10	8 10	8 10	Ditto.	Ditto same wind.	Ditto.
19	6	28 2	9 28 2	0 28 2	9 9	8 10	0 14	9 18	0 10	1 10	1 10	Ditto.	Fine.	Ditto.
20	7	28 2	9 28 1	5 28 2	9 9	0 10	0 14	0 17	0 13	0 12	0 12	Ditto.	Ditto.	Cloudy.
21	8	28 2	0 28 2	5 28 2	10 10	10 13	0 15	0 20	8 11	6 11	5 13	Ditto.	Clouds scattered.	Clouds scattered.
22	9	28 1	0 27 11	8 27 10	9 9	0 9	5 13	5 17	0 13	5 13	0 13	Ditto.	Strong Westy wind.	Strong Westy wind.
23	10	27 9	1 27 10	8 28 0	9 9	0 10	5 14	0 14	0 8	0 8	0 8	Clouds, some Rain.	Wind less violent.	Wind less violent.
24	11	28 1	0 28 1	9 28 3	7 7	0 7	0 12	2 16	0 7	3 7	0 7	Changeable.	Changeable.	Changeable.
25	12	28 3	3 28 3	0 28 2	5 5	6 6	0 14	9 12	0 9	5 8	8 8	Clouds scattered.	Westerly wind.	Westerly wind.
26	13	28 1	6 28 1	6 28 1	7 7	5 7	5 13	0 17	0 12	5 11	1 11	Fine.	Easterly ditto.	Easterly ditto.
27	14	28 1	4 28 1	5 28 3	9 9	0 9	0 13	0 14	0 9	5 9	0 9	Fine Rain.	Ditto.	Ditto.
28	15	28 3	0 28 3	0 28 2	9 9	0 9	0 13	3 12	5 9	8 9	5 9	Cloudy.	Cloudy.	Ditto, Rain.
29	16	28 2	0 28 2	0 28 3	9 9	0 9	0 12	5 14	8 9	5 10	0 10	Easty, wind & Rain.	Easty wind and fine.	Clouds scattered.
30	17	28 3	0 28 3	3 28 2	9 9	5 9	5 13	0 20	0 11	0 10	0 10	Fine.	Fine.	Fine.

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Month of Floréal, An. X. of the Fr. Repub. April & May, 1802.

Day of the Month.	Day of the Moon.	BAROMETER.				THERMOMETER.				STATE OF THE WEATHER.													
		Six o'clock in the Morning.	Noon.	Ten o'clock in the Evening.	West. Morning.	East. Morning.	West. Noon.	East. Noon.	West. Evening.	East. Evening.	Morning.	Noon.	Evening.										
1	19	28	2 0	28	1 8	28	2 0	28	9	1	8	10	14	0	19	0	11	6	11	0	Fine.		Fine.
2	20	28	2 0	28	2 5	28	2 5	28	10	1	11	1	14	0	18	0	13	0	12	0	Ditto.		Ditto.
3	21	28	2 0	28	2 0	28	2 0	28	10	4	11	0	15	8	18	5	13	0	12	5	Cloudy.		Cloudy.
4	22	28	1 8	28	7 8	28	2 0	28	11	0	11	0	16	9	17	0	14	0	13	0	Still cloudy.		Cloudy.
5	23	28	1 5	28	1 5	28	1 0	28	12	0	12	0	15	3	14	5	14	3	13	5	Cloudy.		Cloudy.
6	24	28	1 0	28	1 0	28	1 0	28	12	0	11	0	17	0	21	0	13	0	13	0	Cloudy.		Cloudy.
7	25	28	0 7	28	1 0	28	0 6	28	13	0	16	0	16	3	20	0	19	0	13	0	Fine.		Ditto.
8	26	28	0 2	28	0 0	28	0 0	28	12	8	13	5	16	0	19	0	13	0	14	0	Ditto.		Ditto.
9	27	27	11 5	28	0 5	28	0 0	28	15	1	15	0	15	1	14	9	15	0	15	3	Ditto.		Ditto.
10	28	28	1 3	28	1 3	28	1 3	28	12	8	14	0	17	0	20	0	13	0	12	0	Ditto.		Ditto.
11	29	28	1 3	28	1 0	28	1 0	28	12	0	12	8	16	8	18	0	14	1	13	0	Ditto.		Ditto.
12	30	28	0 5	28	0 5	28	0 5	28	12	5	13	0	16	9	18	5	13	0	12	0	Cloudy.		Cloudy.
13	1	28	0 5	28	0 2	28	0 2	28	13	8	13	0	16	0	19	0	14	8	13	5	Ditto.		Ditto.
14	2	28	0 2	28	0 5	28	0 5	28	11	8	13	2	16	5	18	0	14	9	14	0	Fine.		Fine.
15	3	28	0 9	28	0 9	28	0 9	28	12	0	13	0	16	1	18	0	15	0	14	8	Ditto.		Ditto.
16	4	28	0 5	28	1 3	28	1 3	28	14	5	16	0	17	0	18	0	14	1	13	5	Cloudy.		Cloudy.
17	5	28	0 2	28	2 5	28	2 5	28	13	1	15	0	17	0	19	0	14	0	13	1	Fine.		Fine.
18	6	28	2 3	28	2 5	28	2 5	28	13	0	14	0	18	0	19	0	13	9	13	8	Ditto.		Ditto.
19	7	28	2 1	28	2 2	28	2 2	28	13	5	14	0	17	0	20	0	14	2	13	0	Ditto.		Ditto.
20	8	28	1 8	28	2 0	28	2 0	28	11	5	11	0	17	3	19	5	13	7	12	0	Cloudy.		Cloudy.
21	9	28	2 0	28	3 0	28	3 0	28	11	0	12	0	16	8	19	8	13	0	13	0	Fine.		Fine.
22	10	28	2 3	28	2 8	28	2 8	28	11	6	12	0	16	8	19	0	13	0	13	0	Ditto.		Ditto.
23	11	28	1 5	28	1 0	28	1 0	28	12	2	13	2	19	0	19	0	13	0	13	0	Cloudy.		Cloudy.
24	12	28	0 1	28	0 1	28	0 0	27	10	0	13	0	16	8	16	5	13	0	12	0	Fine.		Fine.
25	13	27	8 5	27	8 5	27	8 0	27	12	5	12	0	14	8	16	0	12	0	12	0	Heavy Rain.		Heavy Rain.
26	14	27	7 5	27	8 5	27	8 8	27	10	8	10	0	10	6	10	3	8	0	7	8	Cloudy.		Cloudy.
27	15	27	10 5	28	1 0	28	0 0	28	9	8	9	0	13	0	15	0	10	8	10	0	Fine.		Fine.
28	16	28	1 0	28	1 0	28	1 3	28	9	0	11	0	14	0	13	0	10	8	10	0	Fine.		Fine.
29	17	28	2 0	28	2 0	28	2 8	28	10	0	11	0	14	5	15	0	11	3	11	0	Fine.		Fine.
30	18	28	2 8	28	2 8	28	2 8	28	12	8	12	0	14	8	17	0	15	0	14	0	Ditto.		Ditto.

Month of Prairial, An. X. of the Fr. Repub. May & June, 1802.

Day of the Month.	Day of the Moon.	BAROMETR.			THERMOMETER.						STATE OF THE WEATHER.		
		Six o'clock in the Morning.	Noon.	Ten o'clock in the Evening.	West. six o'clock in the Morning.	East. six o'clock in the Morning.	West. Noon.	East. Noon.	West. Ten o'clock in the Evening.	East. Ten o'clock in the Evening.	Morning.	Noon.	Evening.
1	19	28	2 5 28	2 5 28	0 15	0 15	8 18	0 15	0 15	5 14	0	Fine.	Fine.
2	20	28	2 5 28	2 3 28	0 17	0 17	0 20	0 17	0 15	0 15	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
3	21	28	1 2 28	1 2 28	0 17	0 17	0 18	0 15	0 15	0 16	5	Ditto.	Cloudy.
4	22	28	0 5 28	0 5 28	8 16	0 17	0 18	0 18	5 15	3 15	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
5	23	28	0 5 28	0 8 28	3 12	0 16	0 16	0 16	0 14	0 14	0	Rainy.	Ditto.
6	24	28	1 0 28	1 0 28	0 16	0 16	0 18	0 14	0 14	1 15	5	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
7	25	28	0 8 28	0 5 28	0 16	5 16	8 16	0 16	0 16	0 16	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
8	26	28	1 0 28	1 4 28	5 17	0 16	5 17	0 15	0 15	0 15	5	Fine.	Fine.
9	27	28	1 5 28	1 5 28	0 16	0 17	0 18	0 16	0 16	0 15	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
10	28	28	0 8 28	0 8 28	0 15	0 16	8 17	0 14	0 14	5 14	0	Fine Rain.	Cloudy.
11	29	28	0 3 28	1 0 28	0 16	0 16	8 18	0 16	0 16	0 15	0	Fine.	Ditto.
12	30	28	1 8 28	2 3 28	0 15	5 17	5 18	0 16	0 16	0 16	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
13	1	28	2 0 28	2 0 28	3 18	0 18	0 19	0 17	5 16	8 16	0	Cloudy.	Ditto.
14	2	28	2 0 28	2 0 28	0 17	0 17	8 19	0 17	0 17	8 18	8	Ditto, Easty. wind.	Ditto.
15	3	28	1 0 28	1 0 28	8 19	0 18	5 20	0 18	0 18	8 18	0	Ditto, ditto.	Ditto.
16	4	28	0 8 28	0 3 28	3 18	8 19	3 21	0 17	0 17	8 18	0	Ditto, ditto.	Ditto.
17	5	28	0 3 28	1 3 28	0 19	0 18	0 19	0 16	0 16	5 15	3	Ditto, ditto.	Ditto.
18	6	28	1 8 28	1 3 28	0 17	0 18	0 19	0 18	0 18	0 19	0	Ditto.	Rain.
19	7	28	0 5 28	0 8 28	8 17	0 18	5 21	0 16	0 16	5 16	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
20	8	28	1 5 28	1 8 28	0 17	0 17	8 19	0 16	0 15	0 15	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
21	9	28	2 0 28	2 0 28	5 18	0 17	3 18	0 14	0 14	8 14	8	Fine.	Ditto.
22	10	28	1 8 28	1 8 28	0 20	8 18	0 19	0 16	0 16	8 17	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
23	11	28	1 8 28	2 0 28	8 19	0 19	0 19	8 16	0 17	0 17	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
24	12	28	2 0 28	2 3 28	0 18	2 19	0 19	0 18	0 18	0 18	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
25	13	28	2 0 28	2 0 28	0 18	8 19	5 20	0 16	0 16	8 18	0	Cloudy.	Fine.
26	14	28	1 8 28	2 3 28	0 19	0 18	8 20	0 18	0 18	0 18	0	Fine.	Ditto.
27	15	28	2 0 28	2 1 28	6 22	0 19	0 20	0 18	0 18	0 19	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
28	16	28	1 8 28	1 3 28	5 20	0 20	5 22	0 19	0 19	0 19	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
29	17	28	0 0 27	1 1 8 28	8 20	0 20	5 21	0 19	0 19	8 19	0	Cloudy.	Easterly wind.
30	18	28	1 0 28	1 5 28	0 20	0 20	5 22	0 17	0 17	8 19	0	Fine, Easterly wind.	Ditto.

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Month of Messidor, An. X. of the Fr. Rep. June & July, 1802.

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Day of the Month.	Day of the Moon.	BAROMETER.			THERMOMETER.				STATE OF THE WEATHER.				
		Six o'clock in the Morning.	Noon.	Ten o'clock in the Evening.	West. Six o'clock in the Morning.	East. Six o'clock in the Morning.	West. Noon.	East. Noon.	West. Ten o'clock in the Evening.	East. Ten o'clock in the Evening.	Morning.	Noon.	Evening.
1	19	28	28	18	5 22	0 20	8 23	0	0 19	0 19	0	Easterly wind.	Fine.
2	20	28	25	18	0 21	0 20	5 22	0 19	0 19	0 19	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
3	21	28	23	18	3 20	8 21	0 23	0 18	8 19	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
4	22	28	10	18	8 20	0 21	3 22	0 18	0 20	0	0	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
5	23	28	0	18	5 21	0 20	5 22	0 20	0 20	0	0	Fine.	Fine.
6	24	28	0	18	5 20	0 21	0 22	0 19	5 19	5	5	Strong Easty. wind.	Strong Easty. wind.
7	25	28	1	19	8 21	0 21	3 22	0 20	0 20	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
8	26	28	0	18	8 19	0 21	0 22	0 20	8 20	5	5	Fine Rain.	Fine.
9	27	28	0	18	0 20	8 21	3 23	0 21	0 21	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
10	28	27	11	19	0 21	5 20	8 22	5 21	0 20	8	8	Strong Southy wind.	Strong Southy wind.
11	29	27	11	19	8 20	0 20	5 22	0 19	0 18	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
12	30	27	11	19	0 18	0 20	3 20	5 18	5 18	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
13	1	28	11	19	0 18	0 20	5 22	0 18	0 18	0	0	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
14	2	28	1	19	0 18	4 20	5 20	0 18	5 19	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
15	3	28	1	19	0 18	0 20	5 21	0 19	5 19	0	0	Fine.	Fine.
16	4	28	1	19	0 17	0 20	5 21	0 19	5 19	5	5	Ditto.	Ditto.
17	5	28	1	19	0 17	5 21	5 21	0 19	0 18	0	0	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
18	6	28	1	19	3 18	0 21	5 22	0 20	0 20	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
19	7	28	1	19	0 21	7 22	0 24	0 21	0 20	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
20	8	28	0	20	0 21	9 21	8 23	0 20	9 19	1	1	Ditto.	Ditto.
21	9	28	1	20	0 20	1 22	0 22	0 19	0 19	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
22	10	28	2	20	5 21	0 22	5 21	0 20	0 19	2	2	Ditto.	Ditto.
23	11	28	2	20	8 19	0 22	8 22	0 21	0 20	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
24	12	27	10	20	4 20	0 21	0 20	0 19	0 20	2	2	Ditto.	Ditto.
25	13	27	9	20	2 20	0 19	8 19	0 16	8 16	0	0	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
26	14	27	10	20	0 16	0 19	8 19	0 16	2 15	5	5	Rain and thunder.	Rain and thunder.
27	15	27	11	20	0 14	8 14	0 15	0 14	0 14	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
28	16	28	0	15	0 15	8 21	5 20	0 16	2 15	0	0	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
29	17	28	1	15	5 17	0 19	8 18	1 17	0 15	0	0	Do. strong wy. wd.	Do. strong wy. wd.
30	18	28	1	16	0 17	0 19	8 17	0 16	3 15	5	5	Ditto.	Ditto.
			2	16	5 17	0 22	0 19	0 16	0 15	3	3	Easterly wind.	Fine.
			2	16	0 22	0 22	0 19	0 18	0 18	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.

Lightg. in the night

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Day of the Month.	Day of the Month.	BAROMETR.			THERMOMETER.			STATE OF THE WEATHER.					
		Six o'clock in the Morning.	Noon.	Ten o'clock in the Evening.	West. Six o'clock in the Morning.	East. Noon.	West. Ten o'clock in the Evening.	Morning.	Noon.	Evening.			
1	19	28	2	28	7	16	8	21	0	17	0	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
2	20	28	1	28	18	18	24	21	18	18	0	Easterly wind.	Ditto.
3	21	28	1	28	18	18	21	21	19	17	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
4	22	28	1	28	19	18	21	21	19	18	0	Ditto.	Cloudy.
5	23	28	1	28	15	15	20	21	18	18	0	Ditto.	Easterly wind.
6	24	28	2	28	16	16	20	21	19	16	8	Ditto.	Ditto.
7	25	28	2	28	17	17	20	20	19	17	2	Ditto.	Ditto.
8	26	28	1	28	17	17	20	20	19	18	0	Cloudy.	Ditto.
9	27	28	0	28	17	17	20	20	19	18	5	Ditto.	Ditto.
10	28	28	0	28	17	17	20	20	19	18	2	Fine.	Ditto.
11	29	28	1	28	18	18	21	20	20	18	2	Fine.	Ditto.
12	30	28	1	28	19	19	22	21	20	19	5	Ditto.	Ditto.
13	1	28	1	28	20	20	22	21	20	19	0	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
14	2	28	1	28	19	19	21	21	20	19	4	Ditto.	Ditto.
15	3	28	1	28	19	19	21	21	20	19	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
16	4	28	2	28	19	19	22	21	21	19	5	Ditto.	Ditto.
17	5	28	1	28	18	18	22	22	20	19	0	Fine.	Fine.
18	6	28	2	28	18	18	22	22	20	19	7	Ditto.	Ditto.
19	7	28	2	28	19	19	23	23	22	20	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
20	8	28	3	28	20	20	23	23	22	21	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
21	9	28	3	28	20	20	23	23	21	21	8	Ditto.	Ditto.
22	10	28	2	28	20	20	23	23	21	20	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
23	11	28	2	28	20	20	23	23	22	20	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
24	12	28	2	28	19	19	23	23	22	20	3	Ditto.	Ditto.
25	13	28	3	28	19	19	23	23	20	20	5	Ditto.	Ditto.
26	14	28	2	28	19	19	23	23	21	20	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
27	15	28	2	28	20	20	25	25	21	21	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
28	16	28	1	28	20	20	25	25	21	21	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
29	17	28	0	28	21	21	25	25	21	21	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
30	18	28	1	28	21	21	24	24	22	21	5	Ditto.	Ditto.

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

BAROMETER.

THERMOMETER.

STATE OF THE WEATHER.

Day of the Month.	Day of the Moon.	BAROMETER.			THERMOMETER.						Morning.	Noon.	Evening.
		Six o'clock in the Morning.	Noon.	Ten o'clock in the Evening.	West. six o'clock in the Morning.	East. six o'clock in the Morning.	West. Noon.	East. Noon.	West. Ten o'clock in the Evening.	East. Ten o'clock in the Evening.			
1	19	28	2 0 28	2 0 28	21	20	23	24	20	19	9	Fine.	Fine.
2	20	28	2 0 28	1 8 28	21	21	23	22	20	8	5	Ditto.	Ditto.
3	21	28	1 7 28	1 5 28	21	21	23	24	22	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
4	22	28	1 8	No observation.	20	20	0						
5	23	28			21	21	23	24	20	5	9	Fine.	Fine.
6	24	28	2 5 28	2 5 28	21	21	23	24	20	5	9	Fine.	Fine.
7	25	28	2 1 28	2 5 28	19	18	23	22	20	5	5	Ditto, Easty. wind.	Cloudy.
8	26	28	1 0 28	0 5 28	19	19	23	25	21	0	0	Ss. wd. changeable.	Fine.
9	27	28	1 5 28	2 0 28	19	17	22	24	21	0	0	Cloudy.	Ditto.
10	28	28	2 0 28	2 8 28	19	17	22	23	20	1	5	Ditto.	Cloudy, Rain.
11	22	28	2 7 28	2 8 28	17	17	22	22	20	5	5	Fine.	Ditto.
12	30	28	2 7 28	3 0 28	18	18	22	24	20	5	5	Ditto.	Fine.
13	1	28	3 0 28	3 0 28	18	18	22	25	20	5	5	Ditto.	Ditto.
14	2	28	2 0 28	2 0 28	19	17	21	21	20	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
15	3	28	1 0 28	1 3 28	19	17	22	22	20	1	1	Ditto.	Ditto.
16	4	28	1 5 28	1 8 28	19	18	21	21	20	1	1	Ditto.	Ditto.
17	5	28	2 0 28	2 0 28	19	19	22	22	20	1	1	Ditto.	Ditto.
18	6	28	2 0 28	2 0 28	18	17	23	22	20	5	5	Ditto.	Ditto.
19	7	28	1 5 28	1 8 28	18	18	21	22	20	1	1	Cloudy.	Ditto.
20	8	28	1 0 28	1 3 28	18	17	21	22	20	5	5	Ditto.	Ditto.
21	9	28	1 1 28	1 0 28	18	17	21	25	20	0	0	Fine.	Ditto.
22	10	28	1 0 28	1 0 28	19	18	22	24	21	0	0	Cloudy.	Air thick.
23	11	28	1 0 28	0 5 28	19	18	22	22	21	5	5	Ditto, and windy.	Ditto.
24	12	27	9 0 28	0 0 27	18	18	21	25	21	1	1	Cloudy.	Fine.
25	13	27	11 7 27	11 5 28	18	17	23	25	20	5	5	Ditto.	Cloudy.
26	14	27	11 9 28	0 9 28	18	18	20	22	20	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.
27	15	28	2 0 28	2 3 28	17	17	21	22	19	0	0	Ditto.	Cloudy.
28	16	28	2 8 28	3 0 28	17	17	20	22	19	1	1	Fine.	Ditto.
29	17	28	2 8 28	2 8 28	16	15	20	21	17	1	1	Ditto.	Ditto.
30	18	28	2 5 28	2 3 28	16	15	19	20	17	0	0	Ditto.	Ditto.

[moon, eclipse of]

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Day of the Month.	Day of the Moon.	BAROMETER.			THERMOMETER.						STATE OF THE WEATHER.								
		Six o'clock in the Morning.	Noon.	ten o'clock in the Evening.	West. Six o'clock in the Morning.	East. Six o'clock in the Morning.	West. Noon.	East. Noon.	West. Ten o'clock in the Evening.	East. Ten o'clock in the Evening.	Morning.	Noon.	Evening.						
1	19	28	2	28	2	13	7	17	0	19	8	13	9	13	3	Cy. threats. to Rain.	Sun pale, cloudy.	Fine.	
2	20	28	2	28	1	13	9	17	0	19	8	13	9	17	0	Sun pale, cloudy.	Do. sg. Easty. wind	Cloudy.	
3	21	27	10	27	10	15	5	14	0	15	0	12	3	12	0	Rain, Easterly wind	Rain.	Fine.	
4	22	27	11	27	11	13	0	15	0	15	0	13	0	13	0	Rain.	Ditto.	Rain.	
5	23	27	11	27	10	14	5	15	2	15	0	13	0	12	8	Heavy Rain.	Cloudy.	Ditto.	
6	24	27	11	27	11	12	0	11	1	14	0	12	4	11	1	Cy. threats. to Rain	Ditto.	Heavy Rain.	
7	25	27	8	27	7	10	5	10	5	10	0	12	5	10	1	Cloudy.	Ditto.	Heavy Rain.	
8	26	27	7	27	7	9	7	12	8	15	0	11	0	9	4	Fine Easterly wind.	Hy. Rain, Eay. wd.	Ditto, Easty. wind.	
9	27	27	7	27	7	8	6	10	3	9	0	9	0	8	0	Rain.	Heavy storm, Hail.	Cy. storm after mid.	
10	28	27	7	27	7	8	6	9	8	9	0	8	0	8	0	Cloudy.	Heavy Rain.	Hy. R. thund. & lig	
11	29	27	6	27	6	9	5	8	5	14	0	9	0	8	5	Sun very pale, cldy.	Ditto.	Fine, a few clouds.	
12	30	27	9	27	10	8	4	13	0	15	4	9	6	8	4	Ditto.	Fine.	Ditto.	
13	1	28	0	28	1	8	0	13	0	16	0	10	8	9	5	Ditto.	Ditto.	Cloudy.	
14	2	28	2	28	2	9	0	14	0	17	0	12	8	11	6	Cloudy.	Ditto.	Ditto.	
15	3	28	2	28	0	9	2	15	3	19	0	12	5	11	1	Fine.	Ditto.	Ditto.	
16	4	28	1	28	0	11	2	15	3	19	0	12	5	11	1	Cloudy.	Ditto.	Ditto.	
17	5	27	8	27	8	13	9	13	1	13	7	13	8	12	9	Heavy Rain.	Sun very pale.	Ditto.	
18	6	27	7	27	8	12	0	11	10	13	5	10	3	9	5	Cloudy.	Air thick.	Ditto.	
19	7	28	0	28	0	7	6	11	5	15	0	8	9	8	1	Ditto.	Ditto.	Fine Rain.	
20	8	28	1	28	0	7	4	11	5	14	3	8	4	8	0	Fine Westerly wind.	Ditto.	Fine Westerly wind	
21	9	27	9	27	9	7	6	7	8	13	0	7	3	8	0	Sun pale.	Ditto.	Cloudy.	
22	10	27	9	27	9	6	6	10	3	13	0	7	3	8	0	Heavy Rain all night.	Heavy Rain.	Ditto.	
23	11	27	9	27	9	6	7	10	1	15	5	7	0	6	1	Fine.	Fine.	Fine.	
24	12	27	11	27	11	7	0	10	8	14	3	10	0	9	0	Sun pale.	Ditto.	Fine Rain:	
25	13	27	10	27	9	9	3	10	5	10	0	10	7	10	0	Rain.	Ditto.	Ditto.	
26	14	27	9	27	10	11	0	11	1	11	6	10	0	9	5	Ditto.	Hail storm.	Ditto.	
27	15	28	0	28	0	9	1	12	5	11	6	10	0	9	8	Ditto.	Deluge of water &	Cloudy.	
28	16	28	0	28	0	8	4	11	8	13	5	9	0	8	8	Fine.	Ditto.	Fine.	
29	17	27	11	27	11	8	4	11	5	13	0	10	6	9	6	Sun pale.	Ditto.	Ditto.	
30	18	27	10	27	8	10	4	10	10	12	7	12	7	11	0	Heavy Rain.	Heavy Rain.	Cloudy.	
																		Do. s. Southy. wind.	

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Day of the Month	Day of the Moon	BAROMETR.			THERMOMETER.			STATE OF THE WEATHER.											
		Six o'clock in the Morning.	Noon.	Ten o'clock in the Evening.	West. Morning.	East. Morning.	West. Noon.	East. Noon.	West. Evening.	East. Evening.	Morning.	Noon.	Evening.						
1	19	27	7	27	10	2	10	8	11	0	11	8	14	0	9	0	Inundat. in the nigt.	Fine.	Cloudy.
2	20	27	10	27	10	0	10	7	10	0	12	9	13	5	12	0	Cloudy, sun very pa.	Ditto.	Fine, windy.
3	21	27	11	27	11	0	10	5	9	5	14	0	15	0	10	0	Cloudy, North. wind	Ditto, West. wind.	Ditto.
4	22	28	0	28	0	8	9	5	8	3	9	8	10	0	11	0	Ditto.	Fine Rain.	Ditto.
5	23	27	9	27	8	5	7	4	11	1	12	0	11	0	8	4	Ditto.	Rain, hail, & thund.	Ditto.
6	24	27	7	27	7	5	7	7	7	7	11	2	12	4	9	0	Sun pale.	Northerly wind.	Ditto.
7	25	27	8	27	8	0	6	6	6	5	11	0	15	0	8	0	Ditto.	Fine.	Fine.
8	26	27	10	27	10	0	5	5	5	0	10	5	11	0	7	8	Cloudy.	Ditto.	Ditto.
9	27	28	1	28	1	6	5	9	9	5	9	0	11	0	4	3	Sun pale.	Ditto.	Heavy Rain.
10	28	27	11	27	11	0	8	8	8	3	11	0	14	0	9	0	Rain.	Cloudy.	Fine.
11	29	27	10	27	10	0	8	5	5	5	10	0	13	0	6	3	Sun pale.	Fine.	Fine.
12	30	28	1	28	1	9	8	0	7	1	11	0	11	0	8	7	Cloudy.	Fine Rain.	Ditto.
13	1	28	1	28	1	9	10	2	0	3	11	5	11	3	10	0	Ditto.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
14	2	27	10	27	10	8	11	5	10	1	12	2	14	5	10	0	Ditto.	Cloudy.	Mistral.
15	3	27	11	27	11	9	7	2	7	0	11	0	14	0	7	4	Ditto.	Fine.	Cloudy.
16	4	28	2	28	2	4	2	7	7	5	9	4	9	0	8	6	Ditto.	Fine Rain.	Ditto.
17	5	28	2	28	2	7	2	9	8	0	9	0	11	0	10	9	Ditto.	Ditto.	Ditto.
18	6	28	2	28	2	9	1	5	9	0	13	2	12	0	10	0	Ditto.	Cloudy.	Cloudy.
19	7	28	1	28	1	0	9	11	8	4	12	4	14	0	9	4	Sun pale, cloudy.	Ditto.	Westerly wind.
20	8	27	9	27	8	9	12	4	10	6	13	4	16	0	9	1	Westerly wind.	Ditto, high wind.	Mistral.
21	9	27	9	27	9	4	9	2	9	4	11	0	12	8	7	0	Fine.	Ditto.	Fine.
22	10	27	11	27	11	0	5	0	5	0	9	6	13	0	6	2	Ditto.	Ditto.	Ditto.
23	11	28	0	28	0	0	5	0	5	0	8	9	12	0	5	8	Sun pale.	Ditto.	Ditto.
24	12	28	0	28	0	0	5	0	3	0	10	0	12	5	6	3	Cloudy.	Ditto.	Ditto.
25	13	28	0	28	0	1	6	0	9	1	9	0	10	2	6	0	Ditto.	Ditto.	Very fine.
26	14	27	10	27	10	8	7	1	7	3	9	8	11	0	6	1	Ditto.	Fine.	Ditto.
27	15	27	10	27	11	4	5	2	7	1	9	2	10	2	5	7	Ditto.	Ditto.	Ditto.
28	16	27	10	27	10	11	4	0	8	2	9	0	9	2	6	4	Fine.	Cloudy.	Ditto.
29	17	27	1	27	1	5	5	0	7	2	9	0	9	2	4	9	Cloudy.	Fine.	Ditto.
30	18	27	2	27	2	5	6	0	6	1	9	0	10	4	5	1	Sun pale.	Ditto.	Ditto.

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Day of the Month.	Day of the Moon.	BAROMETR.			THERMOMETER.						STATE OF THE WEATHER.						
		Six o'clock in the Morning.	Noon.	Ten o'clock in the Evening.	West Six o'clock in the Morning.	East Six o'clock in the Morning.	West Noon.	East Noon.	West Ten o'clock in the Evening.	East Ten o'clock in the Evening.	Morning.	Noon.	Evening.				
1	19	28	1 2	28	5	3	0	9	7	10	0	11	5	10	5	Cloudy.	Cloudy, NE. wind.
2	20	27	8 4	27	11	0	12	9	0	12	0	9	1	8	5	Fine Rain.	Do. Southernly wind.
3	21	27	8 9	27	8	5	8	0	11	0	11	0	7	7	5	Cloudy.	Ditto.
4	22	27	11 6	28	0	0	7	0	10	0	13	5	8	1	9	Ditto.	Cloudy.
5	23	28	0 9	28	0	9	6	0	7	8	4	3	7	4	0	Ditto.	Fine.
6	24	28	0 2	28	0	3	2	0	9	0	9	0	6	6	7	Storm at b ^k . of day.	Ditto.
7	25	27	9 2	27	7	6	2	0	8	2	9	0	6	6	0	Rain.	Ditto.
8	26	28	0 1	28	1	1	2	0	8	8	11	2	5	6	0	Fine.	Fine.
9	27	28	2 5	28	2	1	2	0	9	8	9	8	9	9	0	Rain.	Cloudy.
10	28	28	0 6	27	11	7	2	0	7	3	13	0	6	9	5	Cloudy.	Ditto.
11	29	27	10 0	27	11	7	2	0	8	3	11	0	9	9	0	Rain.	Rain.
12	30	28	0 0	28	0	6	2	0	9	0	13	0	10	0	0	Fine Rain.	Cloudy.
13	1	27	0 9	27	9	9	2	0	9	0	13	1	13	8	0	Cloudy.	Do. strong E. wind.
14	2	27	10 8	27	10	8	2	0	11	0	12	0	8	5	8	Rain.	Heavy Rain.
15	3	27	10 5	27	10	6	2	0	7	0	10	0	7	7	0	Cloudy.	Fine.
16	4	27	11 0	28	1	7	2	0	6	7	12	0	7	8	0	Fine.	Ditto.
17	5	28	1 6	28	1	7	2	0	8	7	13	0	8	8	3	Sun pale.	Cloudy.
18	6	28	0 6	27	11	0	2	0	7	8	0	6	5	8	0	Heavy Rain.	Ditto.
19	7	27	8 8	27	7	9	2	0	8	3	10	2	11	1	10	Cloudy.	Ditto.
20	8	27	4 9	27	3	9	2	0	10	5	9	5	7	6	6	Ditto.	Ditto.
21	9	27	6 0	27	6	6	2	0	6	0	11	0	7	6	0	Less cloudy.	Ditto.
22	10	27	6 6	27	0	0	2	0	8	0	0	0	6	7	0	Cloudy.	Ditto.
23	11	27	9 2	27	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	8	0	0	Cloudy, rain in night	Rain thro't. the day.
24	12	0	0 0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	Rain.	Ditto.
25	13	27	11 3	27	11	3	2	0	7	0	7	0	7	6	0	Cloudy.	Ditto.
26	14	27	11 6	27	11	6	2	0	7	0	9	4	7	6	3	Ditto.	Fine.
27	15	28	0 0	27	11	9	2	0	8	1	0	5	6	6	2	Rain.	Heavy Rain.
28	16	27	11 0	27	11	0	2	0	7	0	8	4	8	7	4	Ditto.	Ditto.
29	17	27	9 3	27	9	3	2	0	7	4	7	4	6	7	4	Ditto.	Ditto.
30	18	27	9 1	27	9	6	2	0	7	7	12	0	9	6	8	Cloudy & rainy.	Cloudy.

SUMMARY OF OBSERVATIONS ON THE CLIMATE
OF NICE.

April begins the 12th Germinal, and terminates the 11th Floréal, inclusive, having 30 days.

The greatest elevation of the barometer was 28..7..8, on the 22nd day of the month, at noon.

The greatest depression was 27..9..1, on the 12th day of the month, in the morning.

The mean height is 28..2..4½. the difference is 10..7.

The greatest elevation of the thermometer was 21 on the 25th day of the month, at noon.

Its greatest depression 5..6, on the 14th day of the month, in the morning. The difference is 15..4.

The temperature of this month was mild and dry. There was no fog.

The 6th, 12th, 16th, 17th, 18th, 24th, days, were rainy, but the showers were gentle and favorable to vegetation. It was perfectly fine

on the 1st, 5th, 7th, 8th, 15th, 19th, 20th, 21st, 27th, 28th, 29th, and 30th days: the 10th, 14th, 22nd, and 24th, were cloudy: the 3rd, 4th, 9th, 12th, 15th, 18th, 23rd, 25th, and 26th, were changeable, but mild: the 2nd and 11th were very windy.

May begins the 12th Floréal, and terminates the 12th Prairial, having 31 days.

The greatest elevation of the Barometer was 28..3..0 on the 10th day of the month, at noon.

Its greatest depression was 27..7..2 on the 14th day of the month, in the evening.

The mean height is 27..11..1, the difference is 5..10.

The greatest elevation of the thermometer was 20..5 on the 8th day of the month, at noon.

Its greatest depression was 7..8 on the 15th day of the month, in the evening. The difference is 12..7.

The temperature of this month was mild and dry. It rained on the 13th, 14th, 15th, and 29th days: the 12th it was stormy: the 3rd, 4th, 6th, 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 16th, 17th, 18th, 19th, 20th,

21st, 22nd, 23rd, 27th, 30th, and 31st, were very fine days: the 25th, 26th, and 28th, were cloudy: the 1st, 2nd, 5th, 12th, were changeable: the 5th the wind was high. The same wind prevailed during the month.

June begins the 13th of Prairial, and terminates the 12th of Messidor, having 30 days.

The greatest elevation of the barometer was 28..3..2 on the 19th day of the month, in the morning. Its greatest depression was 27..10..0 on the 28th day of the month, at noon.

The mean height is 28..0..7. The difference is 3..2.

The greatest elevation of the thermometer was 23..0, on the 19th, 21st, and 27th, at noon.

Its greatest depression was 14 on the 8th day of the month, in the morning. The difference is 9.

The 6th, 7th, and 26th, days were rainy: the 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 14th, 15th, 16th, 18th, 19th, 20th, 21st, 23rd, and 29th, were serene and fine: the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 6th, 17th, 24th, 25th, 27th, and 30th, were cloudy: the 4th, 8th, and 22nd, were changeable: the 22nd there was a

storm: the 6th it blew hard: the 28th it blew strong from the south. The prevailing winds were from the east and west.

July begins the 13th of Messidor, and terminates the 13th of Thermidor, having 31 days.

The greatest elevation of the barometer was 28..3 on the 24th day of the month, in the evening.

Its greatest depression was 27..0..3, on the 31st day of the month, in the evening.

The mean height is 27..9..0. The difference is 1.

The greatest elevation of the thermometer was 24..0 on the 6th and 20th, at noon.

The greatest depression was 14..0 on the 14th day of the month, at noon and in the evening. The difference is 10.

The 11th and 14th were rainy, and thunder was heard on both these days towards the north: the 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 12th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 18th, 20th, 21st, 23rd, 24th, 25th, 28th, 29th, and 31st, were fine: the 13th, 19th, 22nd, 26th, and 27th, were cloudy: the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, and 30th, were changeable.

The prevailing wind was from the east.

August begins the 14th of Thermidor, and terminates the 14th of Fructidor, having 31 days.

The greatest elevation of the barometer was 28..3..2 on the 27th day of the month, in the evening.

Its greatest depression was 28..0..5 on the 16th day of the month, in the morning and at noon.

The difference is 0..2..7.

The mean height is 28..1..9 $\frac{1}{2}$.

The greatest elevation of the thermometer was 27 on the 17th day of the month, at noon.

Its greatest depression was 17, on the 26th, 29th, and 31st, days of the month, in the morning. The difference is 10..0.

Rain fell on the 27th day of this month only.

The 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 14th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 18th, 19th, 20th, 23rd, 28th, 29th, 30th, and 31st, days were fine: the 24th and 26th were changeable: the 25th it blew a strong easterly wind.

September begins the 15th of Fructidor, and terminates on the 8th of Vendemiaire.

The greatest elevation of the barometer was 28..3..9, on the 24th day of the month, at noon.

Its greatest depression was 27..9 on the 10th day of the month, in the morning. The difference is 0..4..9.

The mean height is 28..0..4½.

The greatest elevation of the thermometer was 25..5 on the 7th day of the month, at noon.

Its greatest depression was 12..5 on the 8th day of the month, in the morning. The difference is 13..0.

No rain fell during this month. The 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, 17th, 18th, 20th, 21st, 22nd, 23rd, 24th, 25th, 26th, 27th, 28th, 29th, and 30th, days were fine: the 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 14th, 15th, and 16th, were fine and changeable: the 19th, the wind blew strong from the south east.

October begins the 9th of Vendemiaire, and terminates the 9th of Brumaire, having 31 days.

The greatest elevation of the barometer was 28..7 on the 17th of the month, in the morning.

Its greatest depression was 27..1..3 on the 15th day of the month, in the evening. The difference is 1..5..9.

The mean height is 27..10..1 $\frac{1}{2}$.

The greatest elevation of the thermometer was 22, on the third day of the month, at noon.

Its greatest depression was 8, on the 31st day of the month, at noon and in the evening. The difference is 14.

The 12th, 14th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 18th, 20th, 22nd, 24th, 25th, 26th, 27th, 28th, 29th, and 30th, days were rainy: the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, and 12th, were fine: the 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 14th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 18th, 19th, 21st, and 23rd, to the 31st, were cloudy and changeable: the 27th and 31st it hailed; the 13th and 21st there were storms: the 30th it thundered, and there was a severe storm: the 10th and 24th a strong impetuous easterly wind: the 17th a northerly wind: the 18th, 24th, and 25th.

November begins the 10th of Brumaire, and terminates the 9th of Frimaire, having 30 days.

The greatest elevation of the barometer was 28..5 on the 19th day of the month, at noon and in the evening.

Its greatest depression was 27..1..2 on the 10th day of the month, in the evening. The difference is 1..3..10.

The mean height is 27..9..1.

The greatest elevation of the thermometer was 19, on the 6th day of the month, at noon.

Its greatest depression was 5, on the 29th and 30th days of the month, in the morning. The difference is 14.

The 1st, 8th, 9th, 13th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 20th, 21st, 22nd, 25th, 26th, 27th, and 30th, days were rainy; the 17th deluges of rain: on the above mentioned days of the month, there fell a great deal of rain, much more than commonly falls at this or any other season of the year. The 3rd, 4th, 6th, 11th, 12th, 14th, 18th, 19th, 25th, 28th, and 29th, days were fine: the 2nd and 10th were

cloudy: the 5th, 7th, 10th, and 23rd, were changeable: the 17th and 25th it hailed, but no harm was done to vegetation: the 26th it thundered: the 21st it blew strong from the south.

December begins the 10th of Frimaire, and terminates the 10th Nivose, having 31 days.

The greatest elevation of the barometer was 28..2..9 on the morning of the 9th day of the month, and in the evening of the 8th.

Its greatest depression was 27..1..5 on the 20th day of the month, in the morning. The difference is 1..1..4.

The mean height is 27..8..1.

The greatest elevation of the thermometer was 16 on the 11th day of the month, at noon.

Its greatest depression was 3 on the 27th day of the month, in the morning. The difference is 13.

The 1st, 3rd, 4th, 7th, 8th, 23rd, 28th, and 30th, it rained very much: the 2nd, 12th, 13th, 14th, 19th, 20th, 21st, 29th, were fine: the 5th, 6th, 9th, 15th, 16th, 18th, 22nd, 24th 25th, and 31st, were cloudy: the 10th, 17th, 26th, and 27th,

were changeable : the 26th there was a storm : the 11th and 23rd a violent southerly wind.

During these nine months I find the greatest degree of heat was in August and September, which months were much the warmest of the year. The mercury rose in August to 27, above the point of congelation ; but I ought to observe the situation of the thermometer was not the most favorable, and I think the 27 may be reduced to 23. The thermometer was Reaumur's, and the observatory was seventeen feet above the level of the sea.

Three months only of observations were made whilst I resided at Nice.

The account of the state of the weather during the above mentioned time commences on the 12th of Germinal, and ends on the 12th of Nivose, though the tables begin on the 1st of the former month, and terminate on the 30th of the latter. It may be necessary to inform the reader, that I have employed the Republican Calendar, in order to accommodate the person who assisted me in making my observations.

SECTION VII.

TOPOGRAPHY OF VILLA-FRANCA, NOW CALLED
VILLE-FRANCHE, AND ITS ENVIRONS.

FROM Nice to Ville-franche the distance is a league. As the road is bad it is preferable, in calm weather, to go by water. The passage is made in half an hour. In the way thither the eye is fatigued with the continued glare of rocks, bleached and worn by the waves. The harbour is spacious, deep, and of safe anchorage. It is only exposed to southerly winds; to the west it is sheltered by Mont-Alban, to the north by very high mountains, and to the east by a neck of land covered with beautiful olive, and every kind of fruit trees. At the entrance of the harbour there is a light-house defended by the cross fire of formidable batteries. Emanuel Philibert, Duke of Savoy, ordered the fort to be built, which commands the port that is situated below it, and is about three hundred yards from the

town. The King of Sardinia lately kept two frigates here to protect the commerce of Nice against the pirates who infested this coast. There is also a prison where the galley slaves are confined.

The town contains about two thousand inhabitants. It is situated at the bottom of the harbour, and is built in the form of an amphitheatre. No place on the coast of Provence or Italy enjoys milder winters. The climate in general is said to be as mild as that of Naples, which is much farther to the south. It is even supposed that the anana would grow here if pains were taken to cultivate it: The Olivula of the ancients was situated on the extremity of the peninsula. It existed until the end of the thirteenth century. At that period the incursions of the pirates forced the inhabitants to take refuge at Villa-franca, which had just been founded by Charles II. Count of Provence and King of Naples.

To go from hence to Monaco or Menton by sea, which is the most agreeable way, the

traveller must embark at *Beau-lieu*. Along the beach are several caverns, which bring the fabled grottos of the Nereides to recollection. To travel by land it is necessary to depart from Villa-franca, by which the road from Nice to Menton passes. In consequence of orders given in 1802 this road is to be altered. It was once in contemplation to follow the Aurelian road, which led from Rome to Empurias, in Catalonia. This road passed along the declivity of the north side of the mountain from Cimiez to Turbia: the new road is to pass by the declivity of the south side, and afterwards over the summit of the mountain as far as Eza. The neck of land already mentioned, which forms a peninsula to the east of Villa-franca, is a delightful spot, and is very properly called *Beau-lieu*. Its southern extremity, where it stretches a little towards the east, is defended by a tower. There was formerly a fort here, demolished by Catinat.

This point is considered famous in the country for the virtues of the hermit called Hospitius, who predicted the invasion of the Lombards.

He died towards the end of the fifth century, and the place now bears his name. It forms a creek, where tunny is caught.

In order to protect Villa-franca, the Duke of Savoy had a citadel constructed on a rock commanding the sea. The precipice was so rough that both iron and fire were required to destroy its irregularities. He planted many pieces of artillery there, and appointed a governor. Fort-Alban, of which we have already spoken, also contributed to the defence of the town. The subsequent Dukes of Savoy made a free port of Villa-franca, for general advantage, in commemoration of which the inhabitants of Nice erected a monument with this inscription :

“ Magno Carolo Sabaudiaë Duci,
 Et Victori Amedeo invictissimo filio,
 Quod immensa Regalium animorum amplitudine,
 Non suos tantum populos,
 Sed universum terrarum orbem complexi nationes omnes,
 Gratuita portuosi littoris immunitate
 Magnis aucta commodis recipi voluerint,
 Eternum grati animi monimentum
 Ab omnibus ubique populis debitum
 Nicææ fidelis collocavit.”

It was at Villa-franca that Honoré d'Urfé died, who was formerly so celebrated, and whose memory is now almost buried in oblivion. He rendered the banks of the Lignon *famous, and his passionate love for Diana of Château-Morand, gave origin to the romance of *Astrée*. It is well known that his attachment was succeeded by the coldest indifference, to say the least of it, when Diana became his wife. He quitted her, and retired to the Court of Charles Emanuel, to whom he was related on his mother's side, who was daughter of Claudius of Savoy, Count of Tenda, and Governor of Provence. He sometimes travelled in the states of Emanuel, and was at Nice when he was taken ill. He went afterwards to Villa-franca, where he died in 1625. Besides the romance of *Astrée*, which was finished by Baro, his secretary, he wrote several other works. Among the rest is a poem in stanzas, the subject of which is the departure, absence, and return of *Sirène*, that is the

* A small river that has its source in the ci-devant county of Auvergne, discharging itself into the Loire.

author himself, who under that name sung his amours with Diana.

SECTION VIII.

TOPOGRAPHY OF MONACO.

At a few miles from Turbia Monaco is seen. It is situated on a rock joined to the continent by a neck of land, which gives it the appearance of a peninsula. The descent from Turbia to Monaco is so steep as to be dangerous, even for foot passengers. Virgil alluding to this rock says in the *Æneid* :

“ Aggeribus socer alpinis, atque arce Monæci
Descendens.”

Cæsar, father-in-law of Pompey, descended from the Alps and rock of Monaco to attack his son-in-law. Lucan, in his *Pharsalia*, makes the legions of Cæsar pass by Monaco, when ordered, at the commencement of the civil war, to march to the banks of the Rubicon. There was formerly a temple dedicated to Hercules, from which

it has been concluded he must have passed that way in the course of his travels. All fables are not pure fictions. It is certain there were several Hercules. Cicero, in his treaty "de Naturâ Deorum" reckons six, and if we can believe Varro, there were forty-four warriors to whom antiquity gave the same name. It is very probable that one of them, named Monœcus, or the solitary, passed from Greece into Italy, France, and Spain, not as Æschylus represents it in his tragedies, to fight the Ligurians with the flint stones which Jupiter rained for that purpose, nor to separate Mount Calpe from Abyla, in order to join the Mediterranean to the ocean, but for some other purpose with which we are unacquainted. At a time when boats, like the American canoes, were employed for the purposes of navigation, this Hercules might have been forced by a storm to take shelter under the rock of Monaco, and perhaps may have erected a monument in testimony of his gratitude to the gods.

Ammianus Marcellinus says the inhabitants themselves consecrated a temple to the Theban

Hercules. If this be true, it would be difficult to account for the rock being called by the name of Hercules Monœcus.

Lucian, who resided some time in Gaul, where he exercised the profession of an orator, says, that the painters of that country represented Hercules with a long white beard, a bald head, and a tawny wrinkled skin, which gave him the appearance of an old sailor, or rather of Charon himself. In short, he had nothing of Hercules but the lion's skin, the club, and the bow and quiver. "At first," adds Lucian, "I imagine they represented him thus, in order to ridicule the Greeks, or to revenge the incursions he made into their country on his way to Spain; but when I saw a multitude of people tied by the ear with a number of little golden strings to the tongue of the figure, I requested one of the learned men of the country to explain the enigma. He replied, We do not believe with the Greeks that Mercury is the God of eloquence, but we think it is Hercules, who is much more powerful. We think he has achieved all that attracts our admiration, not by the

force of his arms, but by that of his eloquence. We therefore represent him by an old man, because reason does not arrive at perfection till that period of life. The tongue by which the people are held is the instrument of their captivity, and their being tied to him by the ear is emblematic of his reason. The darts represent its force, and are feathered because it is supposed to have wings."

The rock itself has undergone no changes for many ages, although it is constantly washed by mountainous waves. The dreadful tempest of 1773 is still spoken of at Monaco with horror. It was supposed to be the consequence of an earthquake.

The Marine of Monaco consisted of about twenty small barks, which belonged to the inhabitants, who employed them to export oils and lemons to Nice and Marseilles. There is reason to suppose the population formerly occupied the grounds where the enclosure and gardens of Condamine now are.

The ruins of ancient buildings are sometimes

found, which renders the supposition more probable. All this coast was cruelly ravaged by the Lombards and Saracens.

This little principality has been in the possession of the house of Grimaldi since the tenth century. They held it till 1715, under the protection of Spain, afterwards under that of France, which kept always from five to six hundred men in garrison at Monaco. That year the heiress of the house of Grimaldi having married, it passed to the house of Matignon, who held it till the revolution. The inhabitants had nothing to complain of, yet this did not prevent the revolutionary spirit which reigned in France from reaching them.

They formed a convention, which was engaged in drawing up a constitution to render them happy, and to establish a republic next in rank to that of St. Marino, when one morning some troops arrived from Nice, planted the tree of liberty, made them vote their union to the department of the Maritime Alps, and thus ended the operations of the convention of Monaco.

The late principality was composed of three communes, which contained about five thousand inhabitants. The revenue of the prince was considerable, and arose from the duties of the ports of Menton and Monaco. This however did not form the whole of his revenue. The prince when he was in the country resided in a castle near Menton, which from the beauty of its situation recalls to mind the fabled gardens of the Hesperides. It is now the property of a citizen of Menton, who knows as little of the Hesperides as of their golden apples.

SECTION IX.

DESCRIPTION OF TURBIA, A MONUMENT ERECTED BY ORDER OF AUGUSTUS, TO TRANSMIT TO POSTERITY THE NAMES OF THE INHABITANTS OF THE MARITIME ALPS, WHOM HE HAD SUBDUED.

HERE are seen the ruins of the monument erected by Augustus, to transmit to posterity the

names of the inhabitants of the Maritime Alps, whom he had subjugated. The efforts must have been astonishing that this work required. In the first place, the Romans must have levelled a large piece of rocky land to make an area of an hundred and fifty feet square. But this was the least of the difficulties, for they had afterwards to bring from a considerable distance a great quantity of stones of enormous weight to lay the foundation. The edifice is composed of four concentric circles, and the walls included by them are so solidly built that antiquarians suppose they have been cemented with the mortar called pozzolana.* There is also the base of a pillar of a square form built with the same care. In the middle of the building is a round tower, terminating in battlements. This circumstance has made some authors think it is of modern date; but as

* The Pozzolana takes its name from a volcanic sand found near Naples. It is also to be met with in some parts of the department of the Var, particularly on the coast between Antibes and Toulon. The persons who are employed to obtain it, are obliged to dig deep, in order to get at the layers that have not been exposed to the air or water.

the workmanship is exactly of the same kind as the rest of the monument, it is impossible it can be less ancient. The battlements perhaps may have been added in latter times as an ornament.

It is said there was a statue of Augustus on the top of the tower, which was raised up on the west side by means of two stairs supported by columns of the doric order, and that on the north and south sides there were trophies resembling those of Marius at Rome. If this was the case, the names of the people that inhabited the mountains which extend from the sources of the Adige to the bishoprick of Trent, to the Durance and the Var, must have been engraved on the west side. The name of the Triumpilini is still seen on a stone which forms the archway of a gate belonging to a house at Turbia.

Three parts of the tower are now destroyed, and the remains have suffered so much, that it is necessary to consult the authors who have spoken of it, or the people of the country, in order to ascertain its dimensions. It still gives in its ruinous state a good idea of that sovereign people, who

seemed only to work for posterity, or with the intention of overawing the nations they conquered. They undoubtedly had some interested view in fixing on that spot for erecting a trophy. The armies that the Romans sent by Liguria into France and Spain went that way; hence it is not surprizing they should erect at this place a splendid and permanent monument, to commemorate the conquest of these savage tribes, and their submission to the dominion of the Romans.

The trophy must have been destroyed when the Lombards invaded the country. The inhabitants in their barbarous fury made use of the materials to form an enclosure, which served them as a kind of fortified camp. With these same materials they built their houses when tranquillity was restored to the country. Inscriptions are still seen on several of the houses of Turbia. The spot on which the stones were cut is about a mile to the west of the village, where there still are columns eight or ten feet high, and two or three feet in diameter, on which the scaffolding was supported.

SECTION X.

TOPOGRAPHY OF ESPEL, OR SOSPELLO.

THIS town is named Hospitillo in the ancient maps, though the modern have entitled it Lespitolium, or Souspetelum. It was probably so denominated from some inn built for the convenience of strangers. In succeeding ages the proprietors of the neighbouring castles having established themselves there, built a town honored by the name of Urbs; it is about fifteen miles to the north of Nice, and is divided into two parts by a small stream.

This river has a stone bridge, and often inundates the country in its vicinity. The town, surrounded by mountains and fertile meadows, terminates in a plain: it contains churches, monasteries, and one or two castles, tolerably well built. The public places are adorned with fountains, where there are abundant and good springs of water; there is likewise a venerable cathedral, near which is the

bishop's palace. The town has been long the capital of a county, and the principal residence of the counts of Vintimiglia. There was a judge, and an appeal to the senate of Nice from his decision. The population, which amounted to four thousand persons, was enlightened: many have distinguished themselves in the study of civil and canonical law, many in war. The country around produces all which is necessary for subsistence; corn, oil, wine, vegetables, and a great variety of fruits are to be met with in abundance.

SECTION XI.

TOPOGRAPHY OF SAORGIO.

THIS town is considerable by the number of its inhabitants; enterprising and industrious, they pursue principally arms and commerce. It is situated on the summit of a rock enclosed by the Roia, a river which Lucan and Pliny have mentioned as forming a peninsula with the Bendola. There are

near four thousand inhabitants, whose industry fertilizes a sterile soil, so that there are some excellent meadow grounds, and an abundance of cattle, milk, and wool, the latter of which is exported to Piedmont.

The Roia precipitates itself in cascades into a frightful valley, where nothing is heard but the noise of its waters, and the cries of birds of prey. Near this is the road from Nice to Piedmont, which Charles Emanuel I. ordered to be made two hundred years ago. The traveller cannot pass it without feeling a sentiment of horror, caused by the sight of huge masses of rock which overhang the road, several of which being separated by wide gaps from the mountains threaten him with immediate destruction. There were formerly two well merited inscriptions here, in honor of the princes who caused this road to be built. Although the monuments cannot be suspected to be the offspring of flattery, they have not at times been respected, and a barbarous hand has erased the most honorable of them. Opposite this defile is situated the fort of

Saorgio. It would be impossible to attack it from this side. It may with much propriety be compared to the pass of Thermopylæ, and the situation of the French army to that of the Persians, who had not artillery to force their way. They were obliged to take another road.

Opposite the Roia is a steep rock of free stone, almost inaccessible and isolated. On its summit is perceptible an ancient fortress, defended by three towers. It was esteemed by the ancients for commanding the course of the river which flows towards Nice. On another rock the ruins of a second fortress are yet visible. On the top of Saorgio was situated an impregnable fort, entitled St. George. Obligated to conform to the nature of the ground, its figure is irregular; on both sides there was a square tower joining one wall to the other, built after the manner of the ancients: the fort was capable of containing two hundred soldiers. The high road is next perceptible, and so exposed that a handful of soldiers are sufficient to stop the progress of an enemy. The rivers of Roia and Bendola abound in fish. The invincible

Charles Emanuel III. who formed projects worthy the grandeur of his reputation and genius, caused fresh excavations to be made in the mountains, in order to construct another road along the river Roia, across rocks and precipices which constitute a part of the Alps in this direction. After efforts of immense labour, after the construction of bridges, arcades, and walls, the traveller may now pass commodiously in this part of the Maritime Alps. This prince seems to have rivalled, if not surpassed, by such grand and important enterprises, all that the Egyptian or Roman annals can boast. After the completion of his project, the following inscription was made to eternize the memory of him who caused it to be constructed.

Publ. Cismont. Ac Citramont. Ditionis Bono

Ital. Ac Totius Orbis Commodo

Inviis Utrinq. Alpium Maritim, Præcipitūs

Ferro, Flammaque Præcisis

D. Car. Emanuel III. Sabaud. Dux XI. P. P. P. P.

Pace. Belloq. Feliciss.

Proprio Motu. Prop. Sumptu. Prop. Industria.

Hanc Viam Basil.

Perfecit.

About a hundred yards from Saorgio is a tolerable inn, entitled Fontano, from the quantity of fountains springing from a neighbouring rock. There is likewise a church, entitled the Visitation. Saorgio has two parishes, one consecrated to the Holy Virgin, the other to St. Antony. There was likewise a convent and chapels.

SECTION XII.

TOPOGRAPHY OF DOLCE-AQUA.

THIS town is situated in the part of the Maritime Alps formerly called the county of Vintimiglia, two miles from the sea of Genoa, and twenty from Nice. It is easy to suppose that it has received its name from the brooks and softness of their waters. After passing two or three towns, this river separates the town of Dolce-Aqua from what is entitled the *Bourg*. The waters turn the wheels of the olive mills not only of the inhabitants of this place, but likewise of Campo-Rosso, Kalbonne, and other spots de-

pendent on the Genoese. The town is surrounded by a wall formed of the houses of the inhabitants, who are very numerous in consequence of the mildness of the climate, and the contiguity of the sea and mountains, which enrich and protect it from the inconveniences of winter. The territory, moreover, produces what is necessary for the subsistence of the people, excellent wine, corn, figs, almonds, nuts, apples, lemons, oranges, and vegetables of all kinds, and principally an abundance of excellent oil. On the other side of the river appears the superb edifice of the castle and fortress, the conquest of which must have been difficult, so much have art and nature contributed to its defence. On the north it is defended by a steep and inaccessible rock, on the west by multiplied works dug in the rock. In the interior are some towers in the ancient style of architecture, and also a building protected by towers; there are large courts, and many halls, chambers, and dining rooms. Almost all the apartments are vaulted.

This country has been the victim of war,

especially in the reign of Robert King of Naples, and Count of Provence, and during the reverses of Queen Joan, grand-daughter of Robert. The Genoese also besieged the town of Dolce-Aqua with an army of six thousand men; but they were obliged to raise the siege from the vigorous resistance of the Marquis of Entragues, a man distinguished by his valor and information, and from the circumstance of having received intelligence of the succours which the Marquis of St. Damien was bringing. The *bourg* however was destroyed by fire.

SECTION XIII.

TOPOGRAPHY OF TENDA.

THEY who travel from Piedmont to Nice, after having descended the Col-de-Cornio, arrive at the town of Tenda, the capital of a county, once celebrated. It is situated on the declivity of a lofty mountain, on whose summit appear the ruins of an ancient castle. The other part of the town is

situated in a plain, embellished by many meadows, a large manufactory, and a convent. The principal church, dedicated to the Holy Virgin, is beautiful, and so well ornamented with marble statues, that the piety of the Counts of Tenda becomes conspicuous. Their tombs are here raised in marble, with their arms engraved upon them.

Besides the ancient fortress on the top of the mountain, the counts have built another, which commands the whole town, and defends the high road. The Counts of Tenda formerly inhabited this castle, and possessed another domain beyond mount Cornio, where they went to reside after the Genoese drove them from Vintimiglia. The counts of Vintimiglia were related to the principal families of Italy, France, and Spain, have married their daughters with the Dukes of Genoa and Milan, and have chosen spouses from the families of Savoy, and the German emperors.

The territory of Tenda is very productive, although surrounded on all sides by the Alps. On the side next Nice are some agreeable valleys, which abound in vines, apple, chesnut, and various other fruit trees.

The river produces trout, and the country is favorably situated for the importation of foreign merchandize.

BARCELONETTA.

Barcelonetta, situated in the Maritime Alps and district of Embrun, was founded in 1231 by Raymond Berenger, of the Arragon family, Count of Provence, who, in commemoration of his town of Barcelona in Catalonia, gave the same name to this. The inhabitants of Tencon were tempted, by the privileges and exemptions held out to them, to build and establish themselves there. The men are naturally industrious, and traffic in France, Italy, and the isles of Sardinia and Corsica, and in the most remote countries. The necessaries of life abound here, and the inhabitants of the town and valley have the reputation of being rich. There are several convents, and the founder of the order of St. Trinity was born here. The political authority has been exercised by the Princes of Savoy since the year 1388. The deputies of the town and country

assemble at Barcelonetta, and report to the general parliament of the country, and then to that of Nice, all that has been proposed and done. A captain, named by the prince, had the military defence of the country; a provost had the judicial department, who was generally a senator. There was an appeal from his decisions.

War has considerably injured the prosperity of this town, particularly in 1591 and in 1628, but on account of the industry of the inhabitants, and their attachment to their sovereigns, the Dukes of Savoy have ever had much predilection for the town, and honored its jurisdiction with the title of principality.

SECTION XIV.

GREAT MEN OF THE COUNTRY.

THIS country has given birth to a number of celebrated men. Cassini, and the two Maraldis, his nephews, were natives of it. They all belonged to Perinaldo. John Dominicus Cassini was

the restorer of astronomy in France, as Galileo was that of Italy, and Copernicus of Germany. It may not be uninteresting to mention some circumstances of the life and works of this celebrated astronomer. He was born in 1625, and after having finished his studies at Genoa, he devoted himself entirely to astronomy. He had made such progress in this science, that he was chosen professor of it in the University of Bologna, before he was twenty-five years of age. During his residence in that town, he traced his famous Meridian. By means of this admirable invention, the diurnal course of the sun could be observed, as he approached, or retired from, the zenith of the town. He bestowed such unremitting attention on this subject, that a celebrated astronomer could not help exclaiming—he was more than human. In consequence of the observations he made on this meridian, he published more correct tables of the sun, than any that had appeared before that time. He determined the parallax of that planet, established the theory of the comets, and discovered four of the five satel-

lites of Saturn: in short, there was no branch of this sublime science, in which he was not profoundly skilled. His celestial occupations, however, did not prevent him from attending to terrestrial objects. The inundations of the Po caused frequent disputes between the inhabitants of Bologna and Ferrara. He regulated them to the satisfaction of both towns, and was in consequence made by them superintendant of that river.

Louis XIV. who was ambitious of every kind of glory, wished to draw Cassini into France, and accordingly ordered Colbert to write to him. Cassini replied to this invitation, that he could not accept the honor that was intended him, without the consent of the Pope, and the Senate of Bologna.

The king supposing he could not succeed on these terms, requested them to allow him to reside a few years in France, which was granted.

Cassini arrived at Paris in 1669, and was received by Louis in the same manner that Sosigenes, when he was called to Rome to reform the Calen-

dar of Numa, had been received by Cæsar. Some years afterwards the Pope and Senate of Bologna demanded his return with considerable warmth: but Colbert disputed their authority with as much, and had the satisfaction of succeeding. Cassini married soon after, which was very agreeable to the king, who had the politeness to say to him, he was very happy to see him become a Frenchman for life.

He predicted in presence of all the royal family the course of the famous comet of 1680. He had made a similar prediction at Rome in presence of Queen Christina; with respect to the comet of 1664. Both of them followed the course he had traced.

Towards the latter part of his life, he lost his sight. The same misfortune happened to the celebrated Galileo. This made Fontenelle say, in the true spirit of fable, that these great men, who had made so many celestial discoveries, resembled Tiresias, who became blind in consequence of having seen some secret of the gods. He died in 1712, aged 87 years, without dis-

ease, without pain. His only infirmity was his loss of sight. His mind resembled his body. His temper was equal and mild, and never ruffled by those fretful irritations, which are the most painful, and most incurable of diseases.

There are still some families of his name in the country. In the church of Perinaldo there is a large picture, representing the souls in purgatory, of which he made a present to his country in 1663. The date is on the lower part of it. He was at that time professor at Bologna.

The famous Theophilus Rainaud the Jesuit, was born at Sospello. He has written twenty folio volumes, which, no doubt, contain a deal of useless matter, but where however he has left many marks of his good understanding, genius, and profound erudition.

Puget de Théniers gave birth to M. Caisotti, who died thirty years ago, chancellor of Piedmont. His merit alone raised him to that high station. One of the greatest generals of France, the spoilt child of victory, is a native of Levens.

Carlo Fea, of Pigna, is commissary of antiqui-

ties at Rome, which is a proof of his merit, but what is a better one, is his work entitled "l'Histoire de l'Art, de Winckelman."

L'Abbé Barruchi, another celebrated antiquarian, keeper of the cabinet of antiquities at Turin, is from Briga.

The Vanloos, excellent painters, of whom the younger brother was the ablest artist, are both from Nice. L'Abbé Alberti, well known as a Lexicographer, author of a French and Italian dictionary, is also from that town. To this list of celebrated men, I shall add the name of L'Abbé Papon, a man who does honour to his country. John Peter Papon was born at Puget de Théniers in 1734. After his first studies, his friends sent him to Turin, to attend a course of philosophy. He afterwards studied oratory, and professed the Belles Lettres, and rhetoric, at Marseilles, Nantes, and Lyons. He was in the last town, when the superiors of his congregation sent to treat with the minister of the King of Sardinia, concerning an affair which interested them much, and which he arranged to their satisfaction. On

his return from this mission, the library of Marseilles was put under his care. Having then leisure time, he began his history of Provence, which is one of the best works of the kind. He undertook a journey to Italy, in order to consult the Archives of the kingdom of Naples, which the Counts of Provence formerly possessed, on subjects relative to that history. When he returned, he went to Paris, where he made a number of friends, among people of the first rank. In order to cultivate their acquaintance, and have more time for his literary pursuits, he quitted oratory, much regretted by all who studied that science.

The Revolution deprived him of the fruit of his labors, and the favors he enjoyed under the ancient government. He supported these losses with philosophy, or rather indifference, preferring retirement and tranquillity to every thing else; he went to pass a few years in the department of the *Puy-de-Dôme*, and did not return till order was restored in Paris. He was employed in finishing his history of the Revolution, which

contains the transactions of the 9th of October, when he was attacked on the 15th of January with an apoplectic fit, which suddenly carried him off. His understanding was cultivated, his character, which was open and loyal, was strongly expressed in his physiognomy and conduct. His gaiety, his obliging and polished manners, and a peculiarly agreeable way of expressing himself, made his society courted by all who knew him: his death was consequently much regretted. Besides the history of Provence, and the manuscript history of the Revolution, he wrote the following works. An excellent treatise on Rhetoric, entitled, "*l'Art du Poëte et de l'Orateur*," of which there have been five editions. "*Un Voyage de Provence*," followed by some letters on the Troubadours. A history of the Plague from the earliest period, in the days of Pericles and Hippocrates, down to that of Marseilles. A history of the French Government, during the Assembly of the Notables, to the end of the year 1787. This work was anonymous: in it he predicted the greatest part of the events which have occurred since. Lastly,

his Method for acquiring easily the Greek Language, and some other less interesting works.

John Baptist Cotta, of the Order of St. Augustin, distinguished himself by his talent for poetry. Passeroni, likewise, was not without reputation. It is worth remark, these persons both embraced the ecclesiastic state.

Alexander Victor Anthony Papacino, born of an illustrious, but impoverished family, from the rank of a private soldier, attained the highest honors in the military career. Indefatigable in his studies, and justifying by his successes the splendour of his theories, he was revered by those that surrounded him; naturally independent, and grand, his character had much of the dignity, and something of the hardihood, of antiquity. His numerous works, all relating to the profession he embraced, have been translated into most tongues; but, if amidst so many admirable treatises, it were necessary to distinguish any, the examination of gunpowder, is perhaps, the most original, and most curious.

Peter Jofredi, who was born at Nice, in 1628, and died at Turin, the 11th of November, 1692,

was celebrated for his extensive knowledge, particularly in history. Charles Emanuel II. made him his librarian, historian, almoner, and then tutor to the Prince of Piedmont. After the Duke's death, he was presented with the cross of St. Maurice and Lazarus. When Victor Amadæus II. came to the throne, he augmented the employments, and importance of Jofredi. He deserved them not only on account of his great learning, but also for his virtues and probity. He wrote "Nicæa Civitas," the greater part of the articles of the "Theatrum Statuum Pedemontium," "Storia delle Alpi Maritime," in two manuscript volumes. The latter work was deposited in the library of the King of Sardinia, at Turin.

Paul Lascaris was born in 1560, at Nice. His family traces its genealogy from the emperors of the East. His virtues and merits rendered him worthy of being chosen Grand Master of the Order of Malta. As soon as he arrived at that dignity, he set about arming the inhabitants of the island, to resist the invasions of the Turks and pirates, and for their defence, caused

the fort of St. Agatha to be built. He enriched Malta with a noble library, and obliged the relations of deceased *chevaliers* to send the books there of every departed knight. He added, to the possessions of his order, the island of St. Christophers in America, with the adjacent islands of St. Bartholomew and St. Martin. Lascaris rendered important services to religion, of which he was one of the great champions during twenty years.

These, and many other illustrious men, were the bright ornaments of the country of which I have given a description.

SECTION XV.

SHORT DESCRIPTION OF SEVERAL OF THE TRIBES, THAT ORIGINALLY INHABITED THE MARITIME ALPS AND THE ADJACENT COUNTRY, THAT SO LONG RESISTED THE ROMAN ARMS; BUT WHOM FULVIUS DEFEATED, AND AUGUSTUS AT LENGTH ENTIRELY SUBDUED.

To furnish the inquisitive reader with satisfactory information concerning the memorable events

of this country, I purpose offering a concise account of the warlike tribes that made so valiant a resistance to the Romans, at the period of their earliest incursions into Gaul; before I trace the foundation, rise, celebrity, and vicissitudes of the principal Phocæan colonies on this side the Alps.

Pliny has preserved a multitude of names, in the relation he has transmitted us of the trophies of Augustus. The general appellation of "Ligures Capillati," comprehended these nations, though according to the traditions of other respectable authorities, there are yet some, whom he has passed over in unmerited disregard. The most remarkable were the

Adunicates.	Eguituri.
Oxybii.	Ectini.
Velauni.	Suetri.
Nerusi.	Beritini.
Deciatæ.	Trivillati.
Vediantii.	Veamini.
Oratelli.	Gallitæ.
Nementuri.	Esubiani.

Edenates

These nations were at a later period divided into five districts, that of Grasse, which contained the Adunicates, the Oxybii, and the Velauni, who occupied the part of the country between Cannes and Antibes.

That of Vence, comprehending the Nerusi and the Deciatæ, nations inhabiting the contiguous country as far as the mouth of the Var.

That of Nice, in which resided the Vediantii, proprietors of nearly the whole left bank of the Var, as far as the Vesubia; the Oratelli, who occupied the country, west of the Vesubia; the Nementuri, who inhabited the territory on the left bank of the Tinea, the Eguituri co-occupants with that people, in the same geographical direction; the Ectini, masters of the right bank of the Tinea; and the Suetri, who overran the plains of the Esteron.

The district of Glandeves, where the Beritini possessed the country of Penne; the Trivillati, that of Peyresc, and the Veamini, that of Torame. These three nations were situated on the right bank of the Var.

The district of Senez included within its boundaries the Gallitæ, the Esubiani, and the Edenates.

The writers who have recorded the existence of these people, assure us, that they were little better than tribes of wandering barbarians spread over the mountains of Vence, Nice, Glandeves, and Senez. They, conjointly with the Salii, and the Vagienni, who inhabited the summit of the vallies of Stura and Grana, made so long and successful a resistance to the Roman forces, that they frequently repelled those invaders, and disdained their yoke, until the victorious arms of Augustus entirely discomfited them 13 years before Christ, and blended all these various countries in the establishment of a Roman Province. Monuments were erected in commemoration of the victories of Augustus at Turbia, and at Suza. It was in the reign of this emperor, that public roads were first hewn across almost inaccessible mountains, that highways were established, and the country measured by large stones, placed at a mile's distance from each other.

It is probable the coast of Provence was

familiar to foreign sailors, long before the interior of the country was explored. The remoteness of the Greeks and Romans, the two most considerable nations in the universe, leads us to suppose that piracy was the primitive cause of the discovery of these countries. The situation of the inhabitants must have been wretched in the extreme, before the establishment of the Phocæan colonies. They lived like other savages in the rudest state of nature, without fixed habitation, and relied on fishing alone for a scanty and precarious subsistence. Buried in the recesses of forests, or roving over large tracts of land, oftentimes disputing with the beasts the aliment they devoured, without knowledge of other nations, and unknown themselves, they lived enveloped in the darkest obscurity; and it was not before the Marseillois had taught them agriculture, that they first experienced the blessings of civilization, and the improvements of art.

When the Romans first penetrated into that part of the Alps which these barbarians occupied, they flattered themselves with the hope of an easy con-

quest, and expected shortly to become masters of the whole country, from Genoa to the Var. But such was the obstinate resistance of the men, and such the desperate courage of the women, whose robust and masculine frames enabled them to undergo every hardship, that an interval of thirty years elapsed before they became sufficiently acquainted with the passes of the country, and the best mode of waging war against them, to enable them to overcome these courageous barbarians. However, their arms were finally successful, and they conquered at the same time all Provence Narboanoise. But now I pause, to trace the arrival of the Greeks in Gaul, and the establishment of their first colony, Marseilles, with which the history of Nice is so blended, that it would be absurd not to give it a place here.

SECTION XVI.

FOUNDATION OF MARSEILLES, 599 YEARS B. C.
COMPREHENDING REFLECTIONS ON THE POLITICAL SITUATION OF PROVENCE, AFTER THE ROMANS HAD GAINED A FOOTING ON THIS SIDE OF THE ALPS; AND A VIEW OF THE ADVANTAGES WHICH THE VICTORIOUS ROMANS DERIVED FROM THE MARSEILLOIS AND NISSARDS.

THE inhabitants of Phocæa, an ancient town in Ionia, from their proximity to the sea, were tempted, it is probable, to seek on that element the means of subsistence. Other reasons, likewise, conduced to this measure. The sterility of the soil, and the extent of their population were so disproportionate, that they were reduced to seek on the coasts, countries more favourable than those they inhabited. Such is the account Justin has left us of the situation of this people. and he adds, that commerce took its rise among them, from their perseverance in piratical depredations, which, however dishonorable in the eye of reason, were considered lawful by those barbarians. Their dexterity in fishing, and the exchange of their

industry, encouraged the desire of gain, their ruling passion, and while piracy rendered them bold and skilful, commerce enriched their country and remedied its sterility. They constructed vessels like the galleys which are in use at present, and they were so broad that Herodotus observes, they were obliged to navigate them with fifty oars, and taught other nations on the coasts of the Mediterranean to adopt the same plan.

The success which attended the Grecians from their knowledge of navigation, encouraged them to undertake frequent and remote voyages, and wherever they discovered a fertile and propitious soil, they formed a colony not from any dislike to the mother-country, but with the intention of abundantly supplying her wants, of provisioning the capital, and augmenting its commerce.

In one of their excursions on the banks of the Mediterranean, they discovered near the mouth of the Rhone, a country which appeared peculiarly favourable to their views. On their return, they gave so fascinating an account of it to their fellow-citizens, that numbers were tempted to

emigrate and establish a colony on the spot. Strabo informs us, that, after having consulted the gods, a custom from which they never swerved on important occasions, the Oracle commanded them to choose for their leader, the person whom Diana of Ephesus should designate. They immediately departed for Ephesus, accompanied by Simos and Protis, about the forty-fifth Olympiad, or more than 600 years before the Christian *Æra*, to learn in what manner they ought to proceed, and obey the orders of the goddess. Diana appeared in a dream to Aristarche, an Ephesian dame of unsullied character, and directed her to take one of her statues from the temple, and accompany the Phocæans. She obeyed, and on reaching the place of their destination they built a temple, consecrated to the goddess, appointed Aristarche chief priestess, and conferred the most distinguished honors on her person. Strabo adds, that the worship of the goddess was introduced in all the colonies they planted; and such was their religious exactitude, that the rites and ceremonies observed in these countries, were scrup-

pulously conformable to those offered to Diana at Ephesus.

We learn from the authority of Justin, that another division of the Greeks, coasting along the shores of Italy, disembarked at the mouth of the Tiber, and used every endeavour to form an alliance with the Romans, from the prospect of the advantages which might ensue.

As soon as the Phocæans arrived at the spot where they proposed laying the foundations of the town, they met a fisherman who had greatly assisted them in disembarking. From this circumstance they named the town ΜΑΣΣΑΛΙΑ, derived from the Greek word ΜΑΣΣΩ, signifying to constrain, and ΑΛΙΕΥΣ, a fisherman, and it has preserved the denomination ever since.

We shall have much difficulty in forming a just idea of the foundation of Marseilles, from the uncertainty and contradictions of the ancient historians on this point. I shall endeavour, from a review of the whole, to offer the most probable conclusions to the reader.

Herodotus informs us in the first volume of his

geography, that the Phocæans, unable to support any longer the vexations of the Persians under the dominion of Harpagus, Lieutenant of Cyrus, tyrant of Phocæa, fled with their wives and children to seek elsewhere an asylum.

They landed first at Chios, but the inhabitants, unwilling to permit their establishment, obliged them to depart for Corsica. Prior, however, to their arrival, they made a descent in Phocæa, and attacked the troops of Harpagus, and made so desperate a slaughter, that they bound themselves by a solemn oath never to return into their country, until a bar of iron which they threw into the sea should arise of itself. Herodotus, however, leads us to believe, that the foundations of the town were laid before that epoch, and that this was not the first emigration of the adventurers. It is moreover an indisputed fact, that in all the works which Thucydides has left concerning the first maritime powers of Greece, this author places the Ionians immediately after those who disputed with Cyrus the empire of the sea, and finally gives us very scanty information concerning

the Marseillois, a circumstance which unfortunately envelopes the discussion in still greater obscurity.

Isocrates acquaints us, that the Phocæans, disgusted with the tyranny of the great king, and sacrificing every interest to the love of liberty, abandoned Asia, and fled to Marseilles. Strabo advances, that fortune so entirely favoured the Marseillois in the earliest ages, that the Romans, as a token of their attachment, erected the statue of Diana on Mount Aventine, and decreed to it the same honours which were paid by the Marseillois themselves. The authority of these writers would induce us to believe, that the town was built before the 60th Olympiad, near 213 years after the foundation of Rome, but the testimonies of Livy, Dionysius of Halicarnassus, and Plutarch, who unquestionably would have noticed Marseilles when they transmitted the account of the consecration of Diana's temple on Mount Aventine, are wanting to corroborate this opinion. Livy, however, was not unacquainted with the foundation of the town, for describing the first

passage of the Gauls in Italy, he observes: “ Ibi quum velut septos montium altitudo teneret Gallos, circumspectarentque quanam per juncta cælo juga in alium orbem terrarum transirent, religio etiam tenuit; quòd allatum est, advenas querentes agrum ab Salyum gente oppugnari. Massilienses erant hi navibus à Phocæa profecti. Id Galli fortunæ suæ omen rati adjuvare, ut quem primum in terram egressi occupaverant locum, patentibus silvis communirent.” Lib. v. c. 34.

Athenæus and Justin repeat from the authority of Aristotle, that the Phocæans were hospitably received; but Livy affirms, they met with many obstacles to their establishment.

I have observed in the preceding chapter, that the coasts of Provence were inhabited by several nations equally independent. It is probable that the Phocæans, on their arrival in these countries, sought the protection of Nannus, King of the *Segobrigi*, whose dominions could not be far from Marseilles. Justin confirms this notion, and adds, that they presented themselves before the king the same day that his daughter was to

choose a husband, amidst the chieftains convened on the occasion. The king invited them to the ceremony, and the princess presented a cup full of water to Protis, a ceremony which these people observed, when the choice of the husband was determined. Flattered by this preference, and supported by the alliance of so powerful a prince, the Phocæans immediately laid the foundation of Marseilles. A temple consecrated to their tutelary goddess, Diana of Ephesus, was their first attempt in architecture. Her image was stamped on all their coin, and her worship extended to all the colonies they established. Justin observes, that at this epoch, the Ligurian and Catamundian wars began; and here let me add, that to the perpetual irruptions of the barbarians may be attributed the origin of the colony which this history is intended to record.

The Salii, according to Livy, were the most inveterate and formidable enemies of the Greeks, in whose defence the Gauls so vigorously exerted themselves.

Concerning the date of the foundation of Mar-

seilles, some historians of credit are inclined to fix it under the empire of Cyrus, about the 60th Olympiad; but the most exact chronologists, among the rest Livy, Justin, Strabo, and Athenæus, attribute it to the 45th Olympiad, and the presumption is in favour of this period: from which considerations we may conclude, that Marseilles was founded 154 years after Rome, and 599 before Christ.

Had not the Phocæans immediately after their flight sought an asylum in Gaul, no doubt can exist, but that Marseilles would have been the place of their retreat, in consequence of the consternation which pervaded the Ionians, from the success of the Persian arms. The probability is, that two distinct colonies established themselves at Marseilles, the latter, no doubt, arriving when the great king overawed Asia. Solinus observes, “*Phocenses quondam fugati Persarum adventu Massiliam urbem Olympiade qudragesima quinta condiderunt.*” But the Persians were not masters of Ionia, at the time when the Phocæans resolved on flight. There exists, consequently, a chrono-

logical error, or the reason which obliged them to quit their country is misrepresented. Lucan seems to have confounded Phocis with the Phœceans of Ionia, and the following lines seem very much to confirm that notion :

———“ Nunquam felicibus armis
 Usa manus patriæ primis à sedibus exul,
 Et post tralatas exustæ Phocidos arces
 Mænibus exiguis alieno in littore tuti,
 Illustrat quos sola fides———.”

Lib. 3.

The colony of Marseilles was no sooner established, and a form of government determined, than the inhabitants devoted their attention to commerce. They exchanged the productions of the soil for olives, wine, grains of different species, and all kinds of implements necessary for agriculture. The thirst of gain animated their industry, and became the leading feature of their policy. Navigators, geographers, and astronomers, were passionately admired and encouraged; and many enterprising, persevering individuals, obtained pre-eminence in these different sciences. Pythias

passed the straits of Gibraltar, discovered the Spanish shore, and advanced far to the north, more than 320 years before Christ: and another, not less celebrated navigator, sailed towards the south, and coasted along the western banks of Africa and Senegal. In the interior, excellent regulations were adopted, and the laws engraven on tablets were exposed in the public places, for the inspection of all classes of citizens.

These rising advantages augured well for a people whose establishment was but in its dawn, though their industry experienced severe interruptions from the perpetual wars, which the barbarians who inhabited the neighbouring countries waged against them. This cause, alike cruel and disastrous, obliged them, as their numbers augmented and their arms were successful, to plant new colonies, with the prudent intention of extending their possessions, and guarding the mother city from the irruption of these barbarians.

These objects were no sooner accomplished, than other advantages awaited the settlers. They rather endeavoured to form a virtuous

community, than to ameliorate the rudeness of the soil. Commerce and the arts flourished amongst them, an indefatigable zeal for the defence of the country, and the general welfare directed all their actions. To these noble principles, however, interest, poverty, and vice itself, unknown in earlier ages, hereafter added their influence; and it required an energy proportionate to the corruption of a civilized people, to check the disorders of the state. To effectuate so desirable an object, they applied themselves to the cultivation of national industry, and encouraged each other incessantly to pursue with ardour all that could contribute to the public glory.

The new colonies, from the earliest period of their foundation, had insensibly introduced their customs among the natives, and laid the basis of a happier organization. But the face of the country underwent the most memorable alteration at the time the Romans first gained footing within it. The customs and religion of the conquerors were insensibly introduced, and vassals of a great empire, these people aspired at

glory, and sought to ornament their minds with all that knowledge can bestow.

Narbonnoise Provence, in the time of Pliny, had made many advances towards civilization, and at the fall of the Roman empire, Marseilles, which according to the opinion of this author had been for many ages the Athens of Gaul, and by the suffrage of Cicero, pre-eminent in science, became the abode of wisdom, talents, and literature.

This town, subjected to the laws of a sage republic, and governed by impartial magistrates, augmented in force and renown. Its alliance with the court of Rome enabled it to overawe its enemies; and this was the happy epoch, when the fine arts were encouraged and the minds of men unenervated, when indolence was banished, and deeds of heroism imitated and extolled. Notwithstanding the advantages that resulted from the union of the two nations, their alliance unquestionably prepared the chains of slavery, and furnished a pretext for the Roman usurpation. At the commencement of the first Christian century, the independence of the country was at-

tacked, and with it liberty expired. Instead of the proud and ancient boast of being governed by their own laws, instead of obeying the decrees of their own senators, the power of electing the public authorities was annihilated, and not a spark of their former liberty remained. Such was the deplorable humiliation to which the settlers were reduced! Such were the effects of the Roman yoke.

The foundation of a colony at the mouth of the Rhone, situated near a pleasant bay, did not fail to unite the Ligurians and the Salii, the bitterest enemies to the establishment of the Grecian adventurers. The Phocæans, however, used every exertion that activity and industry could prompt to settle themselves on a respectable footing, and in proportion as they became powerful, drew on themselves the animosity and jealousy of their neighbours. The Ligurians and the Gauls, though industrious husbandmen and indefatigable warriors, were obliged to acknowledge their superiority. The city was embellished, its resources multiplied; victorious in all they undertook, they

introduced the Grecian customs, and founded new colonies with incredible rapidity.

The Phocæans, having taught the inhabitants of their new territory by precept as well as by example, to plant, sow, and labour for the general weal, had the satisfaction of witnessing the light of civilization dawn amidst the gloom of barbarism. Private interest gave way to public, or rather both were blended in one; agriculture employed every arm—the influence of literature began to be gradually felt—the arts and sciences embellished life, and commerce poured abundance among them; vines and olive trees decorated the hills and plains, affording at the same time agreeable landscapes and wholesome nutrition.

With whatever jealousy the natives might view the Marseillois, they were not less earnest to acquire the same advantages: though arms were their chief occupation, and a confidence in their force their proudest feeling, these passions imperceptibly decayed, and in time they united industry with courage. Nor can it be denied that, relying implicitly on their valour, they would have

preferred to have obtained by rapine the advantages which the industrious Greeks obtained by labour; but once completely subdued, the restraint which it was necessary to impose on them, unfavourable to the progress of a free people, tended to civilize them more rapidly.

Finding themselves members of a great empire, where ambition and the love of glory inspired men to the noblest enterprizes; where merit was rewarded by all the testimonies art could bestow, and all the distinctions society could confer, they strove to march hand-in-hand with the Greeks, and to rival them in literature and virtue.

Nor here should I forget to commemorate, if such names want commemoration, those of Plotius, and Cato Valerius, once inhabitants of Marseilles, but who afterwards excited at Rome the love of literature by their example, and facilitated its attainment by their precepts; whose lessons imparted to Cæsar and Cicero, the warrior and the sage, the principles of wisdom and the lights of philosophy. Nor can it be wondered at, that,

under such masters, the barbarians submitted to the yoke of reason, and became human in their conduct as well as in their persons.

When all-conquering Rome first displayed its fatal standard in Provence, she found the colonies governed by magistrates who respected religion, and knew how to make it respected; whose morals were irreproachable, and who sought by the mildest policy to establish the principles of social order, the surest basis of the prosperity of nations. Descendants of the wise Nestor, the inhabitants adopted his regulations, and knew that neither the strongest fortresses nor the best disciplined troops, nor the most experienced leaders offered so true a defence for a country as the unanimity and virtue of the inhabitants. They knew that, to be appreciated by the barbarians, they must subdue the fierceness of pride and passion, compel unprincipled ferocity to give way to civilization, and, by conferring on them the benefits of religion, concord, and morals, call into birth those seeds of gratitude which nature has implanted in every bosom. They succeeded to

the utmost of their desires, their enlightened policy commanded the admiration of the country; and never was their power so imposing, their population so numerous, their prosperity so complete. Many towns, whose history we may have occasion to notice, were then built—lasting tokens of their valour, or proud monuments of their commercial wealth.

The period at which the Marseillois were reduced to the greatest extremities was in the year 131. Harassed by the perpetual inroads of the Ligurians, and the hostilities of their other implacable enemies, and one of their principal towns in a state of siege, they resolved on sending ambassadors to Rome to declare the calamities they laboured under, and to implore the immediate aid of the senate.

Before determining on this measure, as if conscious of the mischief it was pregnant with, they employed every effort that genius, courage, and despair, could prompt to oppose forces so superior to their own. Prior to this unfortunate period they had constantly repelled the irruptions of the Barbarians, maintained the safety of their colo-

nial towns, and asserted their independence in defiance of the efforts of their enemies. But the distance which separated them from the mother colony incapacitated them from assisting, as they desired, these proud bulwarks of their prosperity, and the apprehension of being attacked at home prevented them from dispersing their troops, and urged them to seek the alliance of the Romans.

The senate, in reply to the ambassadors of Marseilles, engaged to send deputies to negotiate a reconciliation. Flaminius, one of the principal negotiators, had no sooner disembarked at the town appointed for the rendezvous, than the inhabitants, with menacing imprecations, required his immediate departure. He did not think proper to conform to their desires, and, so much was the popular spirit exasperated, that a skirmish ensued, in which he was grievously wounded. He then judged it eligible to re-embark without delay. This atrocious insult made so profound an impression at Rome, that the senate resolved to direct their arms against the Alps; and from this epoch may be dated the commencement of the conquest.

of the Gauls. The consul, Quintus Opimius, was now dispatched with an army sufficient to cope with the barbarians. On his arrival at Placentia, he continued his march along the Apennines, and reached the territories of the Oxybii and Deciatæ, who had some time since laid siege to Nice and Antibes. He pitched his camp on the banks of the river Apros, and awaited the approach of the enemy. Finding them make no dispositions to attack him, he conducted his army under the walls of the town, Y. R. 599, opposite the spot where the barbarians had so outraged the laws of nations in the persons of his colleagues.

The town was taken by assault, the inhabitants were made prisoners, and the authors of the insult dispatched to Rome with chains on their hands and feet, to undergo the punishment due to their offence.

No sooner had Opimius thus signalized his vengeance, than he marched his army against the united forces of the barbarians, and prepared for an immediate engagement. The Oxybii, unac-

quainted with the valour and discipline of the Romans, endeavoured to obtain, by one act of temerity and despair, advantages which superior numbers alone could realize. They attacked the Roman camp with four thousand men, without even waiting the arrival of the Deciatæ. Opimius soon appreciated the exertions of such an enemy. He perceived they had courage without conduct, and force without judgment. His military knowledge convinced him how ignorant they were of all system, and he apprehended little for the fame of the Roman legions in competition with such antagonists. He ranged his troops in battle array, placed himself at their head, animated them by his example, and marched them in slow order against the barbarians.

The undaunted composure of the Roman legions struck them with dismay. They were confounded on the very first shock; in a moment discomfited and pursued in every direction: the greatest part of their tumultuous hordes were left on the field of battle, and the survivors owed their safety to flight.

The Deciatæ in the mean time approached the enemy; but perceiving that unsupported they were not in a situation to offer battle, they overtook the remnants of the Oxybian army, and, having rallied their scattered forces, led them to the charge. The action was maintained with desperate temerity on one side, and invincible resolution on the other, till the tactics of the Romans prevailed; and, so complete was the defeat of their enemies, that they were obliged to abandon all hope of recovering their principal town.

After this event the Marseillois and the Nissards demonstrated every token of joy, and delivered from all immediate fear of the barbarians, they were re-instated in the territory which the Romans had conquered.

Opimius, crowned with glory, obliged the enemy to send hostages to Marseilles as sureties for their conduct: he disarmed their forces, and quartered his troops in their towns during winter.

The reflections which the consideration of these affairs naturally suggest to the reader must inform

him, that the petty tyrants who inhabited the coasts of the Mediterranean, could offer but feeble resistance to their ambitious enemies. The war soon broke out again, and other hordes of barbarians joined against the Romans, but always with the same result, and so little did they learn from their repeated combats with them, that the ensuing campaign, which at its commencement witnessed their recruited forces, and injudicious exultation, before its close, witnessed their complete and final subjugation.

The memorable defeat, however, of the Oxybii and the Deciataë, produced but a transitory impression on the roving inhabitants of these countries, and their tranquillity was but of short duration. Their natural propensity to war and outrage, restrained for a time, burst forth with redoubled violence, and frequent irruptions, accompanied with pillage and barbarity, again spread consternation through the same country. Such were the unfortunate occurrences which contributed to lull the Marseillois into a fatal security concerning the presence of the Roman legions, and the im-

mediate necessity of their services easily induced them to turn their eyes from the possibility of remoter danger.

Reciprocal advantages formed the basis of each treaty, but the profound policy of the Roman senate anticipated from this measure far more important results. The Marseillois had no alternative; this was the only means of redeeming their colonies, and of chasing the enemy back to their wild uncultivated countries. But unfortunately nothing could more effectually pave the way for the Roman despotism, and the ultimate subjugation of them all. The Romans were too vigilant not to see the advantages such an expedition offered, and far too ambitious not to profit by them to their utmost extent. They had long sought so favourable a pretext for passing the Alps, and carrying their arms on the Gallic territory. This difficulty once overcome, every thing appeared easy to them; they already planted colonies; they already nominated prefects to govern them.

We may easily conceive, that the profound

policy of the Romans readily took advantage of the disastrous position of their allies. New troops were expedited, and M. Fulvius Flaccus, a most experienced captain, appointed to the command. They had two objects, the first, to assist the Marseillois, the next, to subdue the undisciplined valour of the Ligurians, who were the people whom the Romans had principally to contend with, and to comprehend these sequestered countries within the limits of their own jurisdiction. The Romans, in short, gained all they desired; they established the glory of their arms in the territory of the enemy, and after gaining repeated victories, established, as a monument of their glory, in the country of the Salii, the now celebrated town of Aix. Y. R. 630. It was termed from Sextius Calvinus, the name of its founder, and from the waters for which it is famous, Aquæ Sextiæ, or waters of Sextius. “*Victa Salyorum gente, Coloniam aquas Sextias condidit.*”

It was the first Roman colony established in Transalpine Gaul.

The undisciplined warriors of Gaul offered,

however, a more difficult conquest than the Roman pride had imagined. Accustomed to savage independence, and spurning all restraint, the bravest troops in the universe could not intimidate them. Cruel and impetuous, dreading slavery, but despising death, they were ever eager to break the chains that were forged for them, and embraced every opportunity to expiate in the blood of their oppressors, the outrages offered to their liberty. They maintained with equal obstinacy and courage, the unequal contests till the days of Fabius Maximus. In a great and decisive engagement between the Isere and the Rhone, B. C. 120, no efforts could withstand the tactics and resolution of this general's army. The environs of the town of Orange were the scene of this victory, and he celebrated the defeat by a triumphal entry, equally remarkable for the pomp with which it was solemnized, and the prodigious slaughter which occasioned it. The carnage was almost universal. The few that survived, signaled their last moments by an act characteristic at once of their passion for liberty and contempt of death.

Finding all resistance impracticable, and no hope remaining, they led their wives and children to the field of battle, and slaughtered both them and themselves in the presence of the Romans, sooner than live under the yoke of slavery, and weep over the ruins of their country.

The Allobroges, the nation of which we have just spoken, with the other provincial tribes, were soon after entirely subjugated by the Romans. After a few unavailing efforts, they beheld their country swelling the list of Roman conquests, and the inhabitants reduced to patience and obedience.

SECTION XVII.

FOUNDATION OF NICE, 340 YEARS B. C.

THE repeated successes the Greeks obtained over the inhabitants of the territory of Nice and the Maritime Alps, first induced them to establish a colony in the midst of the hordes of barbarians on the farther side of the Var, and thereby erect

a proud and living trophy of the advantages their arms had acquired in the country of the Veditantii. More than 259 years had elapsed, since the residence of these adventurers in Gaul, during which period they had been engaged in perpetual wars with the Ligurians. The heights of the mountains, and the recesses of the forests to which these barbarians retreated, rendered any attack impracticable, and facilitated the irruptions with which they oftentimes desolated the country. A delightful territory, and the desire of vengeance, tempted the Grecians to project the conquest of this country, and they had all the success they desired.

Strabo acquaints us, that when the Marseillois had acquired a certain force, they made different excursions in the adjacent country, and delighted with the picturesque territory, and luxuriant soil which border the eastern banks of the Var, they resolved on its immediate subjugation. They accordingly built the town of Nice, as a barrier to resist the opposition of the Ligurians, on a position exceedingly strong, and it served at the same time

as a monument of the signal victory they had gained over the barbarians.

Leander Albertus attributes the origin of Nice to Nicius Laertes Duke of Etruria, and instead of the word Nicea, substitutes Nicia ; but Cluverius, with more probability, has restored to the Marseillois the foundation of the town, and corroborates his opinion with the authorities of Pliny, Ptolemy, and many other geographers. They who imagine Nice was built on the ruins of Cimiez, have to combat the weighty testimony of Sigonius, who assures us, that this last town, of which some vestiges remain, existed until the invasion of Gaul, by the Lombards, and that Nice was reputed the second considerable town in Italy in the days of Ptolemy. It is easy to verify the opinions of this last author, by examining his book of geography, where Nice is placed immediately after Rome, and before Tarracina, Naples, &c. One may conjecture, that he has blended Nice and Cimiez together, as they were situated so near each other.

The towns are ranked in the following order:

Roma—Regia.	Ravenna.
Nicæa—Massiliensium.	Aquileia.
Tarracina.	Beneventus.
Neapolis.	Capua.
Brundusium.	Valeria.
Ancon.	Mariana.

We have likewise treated in the preceding chapter of the colonies of Marseilles, on the authority of Polybius, who affirms this circumstance unequivocally. Ptolemy, perhaps, has confounded the cities of Nice and Cimiez in consequence of their proximity, but should we choose to discuss this question, we ought not to forget that their names were distinct, though sometimes under the jurisdiction of one, and the same bishop. The letter of Pope St. Hilarius, to Leontius, Veranus and Victorius, incontestably decide this fact, as well as the signature attached to the acts of certain assemblies, where the same bishop adopts the two titles. The letter written by St. Hilarius, conformably to the desire of his predecessor, proves the assertion. Vincentius Barralis supposes Nice was built on the ruins of Cimiez, and

Jacobus is of opinion, that before the demolition of the latter place, Nice was only a castle; St. Hilarius likewise entertained the same belief: but Jofredi thinks, and not without reason, that Jacobus has misunderstood Pliny's application of the word oppidum. It was the undoubted custom of the ancients, to give to the word oppidum the signification of town, nor is it astonishing that succeeding authors should have used it in the same sense. St. Hilarius certainly called Nice a castle, but if, in fact, it was nothing more when Cimiez was a flourishing city, why have not the ancient historians, whose exactitude is unquestionable, noticed it under that denomination? It is much more rational to infer, that from the time of the prosperity of Cimiez, Nice dated her decline. Jofredi apprehends, that the Pope has fallen into the same error as Jacobus. Many persons, attracted by the superiority of Cimiez, probably migrated from Nice, but one can by no means infer from this circumstance that this latter city was erected on the ruins of a contiguous capital. No doubt, many learned historians

maintain the opposite opinion; but there are others equally as numerous and respectable, who affirm, that Nice and Cimiez existed both at the same time, and corroborate their arguments with a quotation from Ptolemy, who declares expressly, that Nice was situated much nearer the Mediterranean than Cimiez. The same author uses these very words in speaking of Cimiez: "Vediantiorum in Maritimis Alpibus Cemeneleon," and Pliny adds, "Ab amne Varo Nicæa oppidum à Massiliensibus conditum, Fluvius Pado, Alpes, Populique Inalpini multis nominibus sed maximè capillati oppido Vediantiorum Civitatis Cemeneleon." Nothing in my opinion can contribute more to the conclusion we ought to form, than the text of this author. Can any thing prove more satisfactorily, more irrefragably, that it was a city and not a castle? Some difficulty has likewise presented itself on the derivation of the name of the town, for in ages so remote, almost every thing is tinctured with the marvellous.

Many persons believed that the votaries of Bacchus called the town Nice, from a neighbouring

mountain, dedicated to the god, which bore the same appellation. They attributed likewise to the town of Cemelle, or Simelle, a similar derivation. They traced it from Semele, the mother of this divinity. Several places in the neighbourhood of Nice were unquestionably distinguished by Grecian names. The adjacent mountains had their Pelion and Ossa : the plains their Olympia, &c.

Nicæa, Nicea, Nica, Nicia, Nicæa, Græcis, *νικα* dicitur, Ptolemeo, Straboni, Plineo, Catoni, Sempronio, Pomponio Melæ, nec non Livii, Stephani- que brevioribus. Cluverius remarks, “ Nomen haud dubiè sortita est Nicæa à rei eventu, id est à vincendo, scilicet cum Massilienses, devictis, ejectisque Liguribus ea littora obtinuissent.” Other authors also confirm the preceding quotations. This explanation of the word appears the most appropriate and correct; in fine, to avoid all uninteresting unnecessary speculations on this subject, I shall content myself with observing, that the word *νικη*, signifying Victoria, was applied to the town, as the only expression conformable to the word victory, in allusion to the triumph of

the Grecians over the barbarians. The greatest attention must be paid in detailing the history of Nice, not to confound the revolutions peculiar to this town, which took place in the remotest ages with those of other towns that bear the same name. The difficulty of acquiring accurate information concerning ancient history, renders this line more arduous to observe, while the historian of modern times scarcely meets any embarrassment from the same cause. The discordant relation of cotemporary authors, often throws a veil of incertitude and suspicion on the facts they explain. Without great attention, the variety of towns called Nice, will confound the person who endeavours to delineate the situation, and principal events, peculiar to any of them. There were several of this name in Asia, and Jofredi in his *Nicæa Civitas* thus expresses himself: “Numero octo sunt, quas præteream, qua de agimus, in Asia seu Bithynia apud Locros, Illyrios, Indos, Thraces, Bœotios, Corsos passim recensent geographi.” But of all these towns, there is not in our days any excepting Nice, situated on the banks of

the river Paglion, which enjoys a great reputation.

The territory of Nice, bounded by the Var on the west, is remarkable for having formed the line of demarcation between France and Italy : though we learn that Antibes, which was situated in France, was adjoined by a resolution of the senate of Marseilles to the prefecture of Italy, and Nice to that of Marseilles. Nice in succeeding ages became the capital of a province, which bears a similar name, and formed one part of the states of His Highness the Count of Savoy. It then comprised eighteen leagues in length, and thirteen in breadth : situated between the Marquisate of Saluces, Piedmont, the Mediterranean Sea, and Provence ; it was bounded by the first of these countries on the north, by the sea on the south, and by Piedmont on the east. The territory is bathed by seven rivers. The Var, which claims the first rank, the Tinea, the Vesubia, the Esteron, the Paglion, the Roia, and the Bevera.

I subscribe perfectly to the opinion of Andrew Thevet, who said, that he knew no site so conge-

nial for the foundation of a town, as that on which Nice is erected. He descants with enthusiasm on its natural advantages, and its superiority to all those he had seen. The Romans themselves were so alive to its attractions, that they visited it as a refuge from business, and a relaxation from more important concerns.

Nice, protected by the metropolis, for more than a hundred and ten years, courageously repelled the united efforts of the barbarians. The latter viewed with increasing jealousy the force and consideration this city obtained. Indeed, the whole community seemed to be animated with the desire of perfecting their commerce, policy, and agriculture. The religious and social customs of the Greeks were the model of universal imitation. Diana of Ephesus was worshipped with all the ceremonies observed in the parent colony. Their government and civil laws were the same, though in arts, literature, and science, Marseilles enjoyed the undoubted ascendancy.

Nice, from its vicinity to the sea, furnished a

number of vessels peculiarly appropriated to fishing; but united with Marseilles, she had little need of maritime force. That city was sufficiently powerful, and there were few apprehensions entertained from the sea.

When Nice was totally out of danger, her peaceable and laborious citizens beheld the adjacent countries fertilized by their industry, and recompensing their cares. All the plains which the Paglion waters on the east, and the Var on the west, assumed the cheerful aspect of successful cultivation. Even the triumph of the Roman arms introduced but little innovation among them; they were for a time governed by their own laws and customs, though they acknowledged the supremacy of the parent city; and indeed the recollection of the past inspired them with gratitude for those to whom they owed their present security.

Still, however, the Romans assiduously pursued the means of their aggrandisement from the moment the siege of Nice and Antibes furnished a pretext for introducing their arms in Gaul.

The towns they had rescued from the barbarians were the first to submit to the yoke, and to prepare the universal conquest of the country.

The Cimbri and Teutones, now powerful enemies of the court of Rome, after numerous successes, had determined to march their hordes into the heart of Italy. They demanded of the Romans a grant of lands, and proposed, as an indemnity, employing their arms in their service; the refusal of the senate fired them with indignation, and they attacked and routed, in the first moments of fury, a considerable portion of the army of the Consul Silanus. This catastrophe, which filled Rome with consternation, was attributed to the obstinacy of the Romans, who refused to retreat. Marius, who had been again named Consul, was now re-instated in the command of the army. He instantly passed the Alps, and, encamping himself on the banks of the Rhone awaited the return of the Ambrones from Spain. Their tumultuous hordes soon filled the neighbouring plains, but the consul thought proper to suffer them to pass uninterruptedly, and to follow them to

the banks of the Arc, where they pitched their camp. The Romans had long suffered from thirst, and evinced a strong desire to come into action. Marius placed his army on the heights of a contiguous hill, in sight of the river defended by their enemies, in order to infuse in it more fury in the moment of attack. The barbarians began the engagement by striking their shields with their sabres; the Ligurians and Provencaux did so likewise, and, with the aid of the Roman legions, succeeded in routing the enemy. The Cimbri, Teutones, and Ambrones, made a long and desperate resistance; but the bravery and skill of the Roman generals, who took advantage of every error, and offered none to their foes, gained a victory as honourable to themselves as to every part of the army.*

Marius acknowledged in his letters to Rome, that he owed the advantages he had gained in great part to his Provençal auxiliaries.

The 48th year B. C. was a melancholy epoch

* "Nos primi Senonum motus, Cimbrumque ruentem,
Vidimus, et Martem Libyes, cursumque furoris
Tentonici."

for the Marseillois and the Nissards. It was then they found all resistance ineffectual, and the asylum of liberty subjugated by the Roman eagle. These unconquered, flourishing, independent people, despoiled of all their trophies, were now obliged to bow before Rome, and submit to the limited indulgences Rome yet granted them. Even those, the Marseillois were on the point of losing through an act of despair; but had they displayed as much prudence during the siege of the town as their policy had been admirable before it, though they might not have avoided the yoke, at least they would have escaped the rigors of slavery.

The prudence of the Marseillois at the beginning of the civil war between Cæsar and Pompey was consistent with the wisdom of the senate; but the political horizon, pregnant at that period with great events, among which was the fate of this republic, obliged them to declare for one of the disputants. To remain neuter was more dangerous than an open avowal. Afraid of both, and obliged to both, it was difficult to know what measures to adopt the most compatible with

their safety. The Nissards never sided with either party, but the Marseillois, in defiance of their determination to remain neuter, at length declared in favour of Pompey. They were under almost equal obligations to the rival competitors; Cæsar had improved their finances and reduced their impositions, Pompey had extended their territory with various establishments in Languedoc.

Brutus, who had been dispatched to Marseilles by Cæsar, attacked the town, and, though inferior in force, engaged the enemy's fleet in the port, sunk and destroyed a considerable number, and obliged the rest to make a precipitate retreat. The Marseillois, after this defeat, soon repaired their fleet, and joined the squadron of Nasidius, which Pompey had ordered to hasten to their succour.

The siege of the town was then undertaken and sustained with incredible intrepidity; but the inhabitants, perceiving one of their towers destroyed, and fearful of the prodigious efforts of the enemy, opened the gates, and implored the compassion of the generals and the army. They entreated them to delay their operations until the arrival

of Cæsar, and to save the town from pillage and flame. They accorded their demand, but an act of perfidy soon after awakened their just resentment. They set fire to the machines: destroyed some of the Roman outworks, and Cæsar then obliged them to deliver their vessels, money, and arms, to his generals, and to receive two Roman legions in garrison in the town.

The proceedings of the Marseillois coincided little with the discourse they held forth to Cæsar. In their harangue to him, they entreated him to let them remain neuter in the war which then prevailed. “Dont stop,” said they, “to conquer us, when it is of such importance to you to pass into Spain. It will be little glorious to you to subdue us; we shall add nothing to your triumph. Our countrymen, who have abandoned their ancient territory, thirst not after victory, and though we have transported from Ionia, to these foreign climes, the greater part of our forces, our good faith alone constitutes our safety and our glory.”

After this conquest, each city was governed by the Roman laws, public games were insti-

tuted, and managers appointed to superintend them. The town of Cimiez was peopled in the first Christian æra with Romans, as well as natives. Nice, which had always been subjected to the dominion of Marseilles during the reign of Tiberius, was separated from it. At this epoch, not only Provence but the whole of Gaul became the prey of Roman ambition. If the reputation of Nice had eclipsed many towns of Italy during the earliest ages, yet her ancient consideration and splendor insensibly diminished, as soon as the Romans had acquired the territory and towns of Gaul. Cimiez surpassed her so far, that while she sank to the degree of a secondary city, all the efforts of the conquerors were employed to augment the prosperity of the other. The revolutions of Rome and Provence produced still more serious effects on this flourishing city, for having attained celebrity, she decayed from an excess of prosperity, and in a little time owed all her consideration to her port, castle, and the memory of her former importance.

SECTION XVIII.

CIMIEZ, FORMERLY THE CAPITAL OF THE
VEDIANTII.

I SHALL not transgress the bounds I had prescribed myself in tracing the history of Nice, in annexing some details on Cimiez, an ancient and celebrated city, connected with it by its vicinity, and a train of events common to both. Cimiez, in the days of its prosperity, was certainly as large as Nice. Situated on an agreeable eminence opposite to Mount Alban, the suburbs of Nice, extending from the high road to Piedmont, continued its boundary, and the river Paglion separated them from each other. Some persons have conjectured that the name of this town was derived from Cemenò Monte. But Pliny, Ptolemy, and Antoninus, have not satisfied us on this point. Jofredi supposes this name is composed of Cemen-Ilion, id est inter Cemenes Montes, Ilion.*

* Sicuti enim Æneas ex Asia aufugit,

“ Ilium in Italiam portans, victosque Penates.”

“ Sic Iones Phocæi Trojæ Asiaticæ monumentum aliquod
noyæ Urbis nomine fortasse servarunt.”

But without further delay on this discussion, I shall simply observe that when the Romans conquered the country, the word *Cemeneleon* was contracted into *Cimela*: *Cemelion*, *Cemelium*, *Cemelam*, and *Cimellam*, were also all primitives of *Cimiez*, and this accords with the statement of *Philippus Ferrarius*.

It affords a melancholy example of the instability of worldly grandeur, that this town, one of the capitals of the Maritime Alps, and once so renowned in Italy, should now possess only vestiges of its ancient celebrity.

“ *Agnosci nequeunt ævi monumenta prioris,
Grandia consumpsit mœnia tempus edax :
Sola manent intercætis vestigia muris,
Ruderibus latis tecta sepulta jacent.*”

We collect from the works of *Sidonius Apollinaris*, that the demolition of *Cimiez* did not take place before the irruption of the Lombards into this country. It must have enjoyed high consideration from being an archbishop's see, the abode of a Roman prefect, and the capital town of this part of the Maritime Alps. It was embel-

lished with monuments, public inscriptions, colleges, &c. and Cassiodorus informs us that the Roman prefects had planted their standards, and established the prerogatives and public amusements of the inhabitants on the same footing, as in the other Roman provinces. "Jus figendi clavi, gladii gestandi, infalarum, prætextæ, purpureæ, annuli aurei, vasorum, equorum, vehiculorum, apparitorum, scipionis eburnei, sellæ ecurulis, et similibus," were customs adopted every where. The Romans, guided by the plainest principles of policy, gave every encouragement to the improvement and celebrity of the town, and accorded to all those who were willing to establish themselves the same privileges that the most favoured citizens of Italy enjoyed.

There were three distinctions of people at Cimiez, as well as in all the Roman cities. They were entitled, as at Rome, Nobiles, Equites, and Plebs; many respectable families resided at Cimiez, amongst the rest the Servilii, the Valerii, the Veri, the Manilii, the Gabinii, the Cassii, &c.

Though the ravages of the barbarians have

almost annihilated the public monuments, the noble edifices, and the code of prefectorial laws rigorously observed in this city, yet their very existence can leave no doubt of its political importance. The authority of the commandant, in the time of the Roman emperors, extended on one side from Genoa to Digne, on the other, from Vence to the summit of the Alps.

Nor can it be considered as surprising, that after the various calamities Cimiez has sustained, the reiterated incursions of the Saracens and the Lombards, such few vestiges of antiquity remain. We may observe of Cimiez as Ovid has of Troy,

“ Hic locus est ubi Troia fuit,”
Nunc seges est ubi Troia fuit.

Notwithstanding, however, these commotions, which have so much dilapidated the monuments of antiquity, and razed so many marks of human industry, yet there are still some trophies extant, erected to the memory of illustrious men, which awaken the most interesting ideas. Among other inscriptions which have been discovered are the following:

P. Secundo. Severino. M. F.

Equiti, publico. III. viro.

Curatori. Cemenelensium.

2. Aliment.

L. D. Decr. Decc.

C. Albino. C. F. Faler.

2. II. Viro. Et. Curatori.

Kalend. Pecuniæ.

Cemenelensium.

L. D. Decr. Decc. Cemen.

C. J. Valenti. J. F.

Viro. Civit. Salin.

Alpium. Maritimarum.

Patrono Optimo.

Tabernarii. Cemenel.

Flavio. Verini. Fil. Qu. estori.

Albino. Decurioni. II. viro.—Sa

Lin. Civitat. II. viro.—For.

Ojaliens. Flamini. Provin.—ciæ.

Alpium. Maritimarum. Optimo.

Patrono. Tabernar. Salinien.—

Posuerunt. Curantibus. Matu.—

—Nsueto et.—Albuci.—

Imp. Commodo. III. Et. Antistio.

Burro Coss.

P. Aelio. Severino.

V. E. F.

Praesidi. Optimo:

Ordo. Cemen.

Patrono.

In 1787 a German traveller, who had permission to explore the territory of Cimiez, found two small statues in bronze, two feet and a half high, and one of marble nearly of the same size: two years afterwards a Polish princess was still more successful in her researches. She ordered different gardens to be dug up, and the following antiquities were then discovered. An ancient ring and key of gold; a figure representing Jupiter; upwards of an hundred medals of different emperors; several mosaic pieces, and the remains of a large aqueduct that conveyed water to Cimiez.

The terrace at the south end of the gardens, extends to the summit of the hill of Cimiez, behind which a part of the town formerly stood. The ruins of some of the houses are still to be seen, and near them the remains of a temple or

some other public monument, and the walls of an amphitheatre, where it is said Saint Pontius suffered martyrdom in the reign of Valerian. The road at Cimiez passes over the cells where the animals were kept: and the area, which is of small extent, is now covered with olive trees.*

A little beyond the town is a convent. It formerly belonged to the Recollets, an order of Franciscan Monks.

The veneration which the Christians felt for the relics of St. Pontius, whom they considered one of the most undaunted champions of Christianity, was so great, that when the Lombards were sacking the town of Cimiez, the place of his interment, they transported them with the utmost precaution to Nice. In the reign of Charlemagne a monastery was raised to his memory in this town, and in the 10th century, the inhabitants of Tomieres, in the province of Languedoc, procured half of the precious deposit to be removed to their town,

* “Clauditur in teretem longis anfractibus orbem,
Complectens geminas æquo discrimine metas,
Et spacium mediæ, quæ se via tendit arenæ.”

When Cimiez was the capital of the Veditantii, like all other barbarian cities, it was only attractive from its situation. It was not till the Roman conquests, and the light of civilization had overcome the ignorance of the age, that this city contained edifices worthy of her grandeur, and improvements worthy of her conquerors. The ruins of trophies, aqueducts, triumphal arches, and public monuments, are proud testimonies of the enlightened policy and gigantic resources of the victors, while their present condition must necessarily awaken melancholy reflections on the fragility of human labours, and on the inevitable ravages which time makes on the architect, as well as on his works.

“ Miremur periisse homines, monumenta fatiscunt,
Mors etiam saxi, nominibusque venit.”

What a contrast, on viewing at present luxuriant corn fields which once were the scene of patriot effort and heroic virtue! on beholding fertile orchards, where the sacrilegious hand of barbarism spread desolation and horror, or in contemplating

heaps of ruin, where once majestically arose the noblest ornaments of human industry! What a difference between the triumph of arms, and the cheerful aspect of a thriving population! Who can wander over the smiling plains of Cimiez, or the banks of the Paglion, and not be profoundly agitated in meditating on the fatal contention of kings, the ambitious thirst of military renown, and the successive scenes of famine, triumph, despair, and wretchedness, which in their turns have signalized these countries! As soon might one contemplate ancient Rome on the banks of the Tiber, and be unmoved at the recollection of what she was, and what she is.

SECTION XIX.

VICISSITUDES OF NICE.

No doubt can exist, I apprehend, after all the authorities I have cited, that Nice derived its origin from the Marseillois: that it was originally

a town, and not a castle; that it existed at the same epoch with Cimiez, and consequently could not be built on its ruins as some authors have imagined. Coeval with so celebrated a city, it certainly declined in reputation, as the other, endowed with multiplied resources and a prefectorial residence, extended its renown. To these unanswerable reflections, we must annex the alienation of the Marseillois government, and the disuse of their laws.

When the Roman armies freely passed the Alps, the prosperity of the great nation augmented every day. Masters of Italy, Lombardy, Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, Spain, Asia, Ætolia, Macedon, Greece, Africa, and Egypt; they yet aspired to conquer Gaul, and reduce all Europe to their subjection. The arts, sciences, and literature, were rapidly advancing to perfection, and when the Romans had subdued Provence, their dominion was equally as decided over learning and civilization. Besides the lyre of the muses, Italy boasted the altar of liberty, and the generous blood of her citizens had often been shed in its defence.

The arts, neglected in Greece, revived with new force among the Romans, and for a time the banks of Hesperia scarcely yielded to the immortal city of Minerva.

Provence insensibly changing her form of government, all the Roman customs were introduced, and the whole of this country, after the capture of Marseilles, yielded to the power of the emperors, and proved of great utility in the subsequent conquests of Gaul.

The prosperity of Marseilles was then no longer interwoven with that of Nice. She had hitherto been a part of an independent empire, which derived much benefit from her friendship; but Rome was now her mistress, and new interests were to be consulted. From the proximity of Nice to the sea, her maritime resources were to a certain degree important for a conqueror, but the ambition of Rome was to form grand and imposing alliances. Nice was unquestionably of utility to Rome in the conquest of Provence, though Rome afforded her little reciprocal advantage. She lost, on the contrary, all her commerce with Africa, through

the channel of Marseilles, and was very much oppressed by the frequent expeditions of the Romans into Gaul, during the civil war between Otho and Vitellius.

After these vicissitudes, the Goths, the Burgundians, the Visigoths, all overcame it with the intention of destroying it, and pursued its demolition with a cruelty peculiar to barbarians. The French, whose monarchy was first established on a solid basis during the reign of Clovis, now claimed it with eagerness, and obtained it by conquest and right of arms. Victim of the Lombards and Saracens, they ruined its resources and plundered its habitations. The Kings and Counts of Arles re-united this town to the territory of Provence, which soon after was subjected to the Princes of Arragon, the house of Anjou, the Kings of Naples, then the house of Savoy, and finally belonged altogether to the crown of France.

Nothing can appear more natural than the resolution of the inhabitants of Provence, to deliver themselves from the tyrannical yoke of the Roman government, which from the sanguinary reign of

Tiberius bore the seeds of its own dissolution. They had remained faithful to Rome as long as she preserved her conquests, and maintained her laws. It was the relaxation of the laws, the pusillanimity of the emperors, and the frightful progress of vice, which fomented the different factions. In the reign of Honorius the volcano burst, and was ever after inextinguishable. The Goths, a formidable nation, had already made in the time of Tiberius and his successor, various incursions in Italy, with those advantages which savage and intrepid ferocity may naturally expect to obtain over a degenerate and corrupted people.

Nice, always obedient to her successive sovereigns, was important in proportion to her interference in their different contentions. Discontented however with her governors, and attached to her ancient liberty, she eventually found the means of emancipating herself, and blending her interests with those of the neighbouring republics. She cultivated with incredible solicitude the friendship of Pisa and Genoa, who were far from being adverse to her advances. But the days of her

greatest prosperity were at the time of her union with the house of Savoy, to which power she continued faithful until the last war of the King of Sardinia with France.

Nice, once the prey of barbarians, then exposed to the devastation and pillage of the perpetual inroads of the military into Gaul, sometimes in peace, but oftener obliged to seek safety in combat, presented a melancholy monument of those barbarous and unenlightened ages. But in defiance of these calamities, we shall observe the rising ameliorations of an industrious well disposed community, we shall witness all classes of society devoting themselves to civil or military pursuits, and the polish of civilization succeeding the ferocity of savage independence. They succeeded in associating arts, agriculture, and commerce, with other perfections; in a word, they equalled all Provence in improvement.

SECTION XX.

IRRUPTION OF THE GOTHS, BURGUNDIANS, AND
FRANKS, INTO THE TERRITORY OF NICE.

It is difficult to determine the exact period when Nice was pillaged by the Goths. However, the Gothic historians, whose testimonies I confide in, unite in affirming, that their first irruption into the Roman territories took place in the reign of Tiberius, or perhaps yet earlier. It appears however indubitable, that prior to this, Thrace and Mœsia, were victims of their depredations. The first invasion of the country and towns contiguous to Nice, according to these writers, was made by Goths and Vandals through Piedmont, where, as soon as they arrived, they sacked Grasse and Antibes, towns contiguous to Nice, and their dominion extended with their success. The Vandals at the same time ravaged the provinces of Spain and Gaul, pushed their conquests through Provence as far as the Maritime Alps, and entered into Italy on a part already subdued by the Goths. Historians suppose that Cimiez was plundered

and demolished by the barbarians between the fourth and fifth centuries. It is probable that Nice met with a similar fate at the same epoch. The system of barbarian war was slaughter and demolition; no town escaped where the plunder was inadequate to their cupidity, nor was that in all cases a sufficient safeguard. At the time that Italy fell into the power of the Goths, and the Alps were no longer a position of importance, we may be assured that the towns situated on the other side of the Var were the victims of their success.

When Provence was no longer under the Imperial yoke, and the Goths, inhabitants of the country, it was not less exposed to the inroads of the Vandals, and various other tyrannical usurpers. These barbarians now maintaining their holds in the Alps, had nothing to hinder their descending at pleasure on the plains of Nice. They could at all times invade the country, near the sea, and the banks of the Var, and ever find a safe retreat in their mountainous habitations. Nice, also, from the Gothic, passed under the Ostrogothic, sway.

The conquests of Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, leaving him master of the country which belonged to the Visigoths, the unfortunate inhabitants of Provence were obliged to submit to the supremacy of another sovereign. This change was, however, desirable, as they might expect much good from the high qualities and moderation of Theodoric.

So delightful a part of Europe, no doubt, allured by its attractions every barbarian tribe to endeavour to overcome, if not the whole, at least a part of it for themselves. The Goths, who had formed themselves a kingdom in the territory of the Gauls, found it necessary to live as peaceably as possible, in order to preserve what they had obtained, and form those political connections which were essential to their security. In the natural course of things, the Roman empire, after making many perilous sacrifices, ought now to enjoy the sweets of peace; but, alas! its misfortunes were but begun, and it seems that the days of its decline were the signal to ambitious and enterprising barbarity to destroy or sub-

due it. Provence and Italy were, at this epoch, the nests of innumerable adventurers, whose first desire was to plunder, and then to occupy them. The Burgundians, who had great possessions in Gaul as well as the Goths, were an uncivilized race, whose depredations yielded in no respect to those we have already related. This warlike and cruel horde, abandoning their native country, spread themselves over the banks of the Rhine, in the hopes of ameliorating their condition. Innumerable difficulties opposed their first establishment, for being in perpetual hostility with the Romans, they were often compelled to retreat, and seek in their own country, or northern situations, a less precarious abode. Their incursions along the banks of the Rhine took place about the second or third century, and by degrees they imperceptibly encroached on Dauphiny, Savoy, Provence, &c. The Vandals, said to be ancestors of the Burgundians, encountered likewise various obstacles in determining their residence. During the Roman supremacy all parties were

held in equal subjection, but as soon as that influence diminished, and the emperors deigned to court the alliance of these barbarians, the Burgundians elected a king, who led them to conquest and glory.

Under his guidance they subjugated successively Lyons, Dauphiny, Languedoc, Marseilles, Arles, the greatest portion of Provence, Nice, and the adjacent territories, as far as the Alps; the last unfortunate town fell so immediately under the oppression of the conquerors, that the traces of their ferocity are still visible, and the name commemorates the event.

But the Burgundians, still more victorious under Gondebaud, added to their vast dominions a part of Helvetia, so fortified and strong that Theodoric himself, king of the Ostrogoths, was not without apprehension. But the critical position of these two princes with respect to the French monarch, whose courage and wisdom spread terror amongst other sovereigns, induced them to form an alliance. Gondebaud viewed with distrust the proximity

of the Franks, although at the commencement of his reign he entertained little fear for the safety of the further side of the Alps.

From all these circumstances it appears that the Burgundians, like the other powerful nations, overran Provence and the fertile plains of the Var, the Maritime Alps, as far as Dauphiny and Savoy, so that there can be no doubt but Nice was often a victim of their incursions, and exposed to the devastations and power of the conquerors.

What other object could the civilized nations seek but their personal and territorial safety in these ages of darkness and barbarity? At this epoch an indefatigable pursuit of gain menaced and destroyed the sciences. War, famine, assassination, and the revolution of governments, were the unfortunate substitutes of that amelioration and humanity which had previously existed at Marseilles. Anarchy and ambition armed brother against brother, father against son. Force was the only law, and man was conducted, by obeying these passions, to

the most ferocious and unheard of excesses. Such was the reign of the Burgundians in these delightful countries! Such the deplorable condition of the inhabitants!

The Burgundians, however, routed in their turn, yielded to the victorious Clovis. Gondobaud had been defeated, and became tributary to him. Theodoric thought it prudent to assume an appearance of friendship, although he secretly countenanced his enemies: and Alaric, who had been put in possession of Provence by Euric, dreaded a rupture with so formidable a warrior. Alaric had sought to ruin the reputation of Clovis, but fearful of the consequences of war, dispatched ambassadors to persuade him of his wish to maintain a good understanding. The message was graciously received, but each prince availing himself of the prejudices of their respective nations, and desire for war, to which may be added mutual jealousy, it was impossible to prevent the flame that had long been kindling from bursting forth. Its effects were dreadful to each of the contending parties, but the fate

of the Visigoths was determined in a battle near Poitiers.

Alaric was a brave prince, and strove in the ensuing battle to rally his retreating troops, but being discovered by Clovis in the broken ranks, was dared to single combat. He accepted the challenge: the armies contemplated in awful anxiety the conflict of their leaders: each excited by his undaunted bravery the admiration of the soldiers, but Alaric, who was less robust than his adversary, yielded him the victory in the forfeit of his life.

This event put the Franks in possession of nearly all the country of the Visigoths, but the Ostrogoths, who had now successfully engaged in war against Clovis, both with the view of checking his ambition, and revenging the death of Alaric, obtained in 508 a transfer of a part of the kingdom of the Visigoths over to their sway.

After the death of Clovis, his dominions were divided amongst his four sons. Thierry, to whom the kingdom of Metz devolved, sent his son Theodebert in 534 to command an army in the south of France, with a view to overthrow the remaining

power of the Visigoths and Ostrogoths. He did not accomplish his object to its full extent, but yet diminished the strength and resources of the enemy.

Soon after this, Amalasantha, the daughter of Theodoric, was put to death, by the order of Theodotus, whom that princess had generously called to the throne, an event which induced the Emperor Justinian to make war against the Goths, in order, as it is said, to revenge her death. The emperor then wrote to the Franks, and persuaded Theodebert to unite with him against the Goths; but the Ostrogoths having deposed their prince, and called to the throne Vitigez, a man of great military knowledge, Theodebert was prevailed upon to change sides, renounce the emperor's interests, and join his forces to the Gothic chief.

With the view to confirm their alliance with the Franks, and secure the strenuous support of this formidable nation, the Ostrogoths thought it advisable to make a sacrifice of the territories which the Goths possessed in Provence, so that we find this country, by the agreement of all parties, became finally annexed to the crown of France.

Nice during these changes naturally underwent the same fate as the other towns of Provence, submitting at one time to the Visigoths, at another to the Franks, to whom however she remained obedient, notwithstanding the incursions of the Lombards and Saracens. Thus we see the powerful kings of France augmenting with wonderful rapidity their dominions and their importance. Italy dreading them, Burgundy suffering from their persecution, and all circumstances contributing to extenuate the forces of their enemies, and to augment their own.

The misunderstandings which existed between the sons of Clotaire I. who inherited in 561 the possessions of their father, created new and serious dissensions. The inhabitants of this country enjoyed but a few years of tranquillity, after the conquest of Provence by the French. Besides the disputes of the French monarchs, other calamities menaced it. It became, however, an object of reciprocal advantage to them, to lay aside their own dissensions, and form a prudential alliance to oppose with energy a warlike and pe-

rilous enemy, who had already ravaged Italy, and who prepared to penetrate into Gaul.

SECTION XXI.

PILLAGE OF NICE BY THE LOMBARDS.

THE barbarous tribes of the north who traversed Germany, signalized their rout by the ruin of the towns they passed through, demolishing the habitations, and assassinating the people wherever they appeared. The Lombards pushed still farther the depredations of the Goths and Burgundians, and rendered even the despotism of these latter desirable in comparison with their own. Illyria, Gaul, but especially Italy, were the scene of the greatest calamities. But, besides the Lombards, says Diaconius, the Winili, a people of Scandinavia, who are descended from them, created every where a solitude around them. Their first competitors were the Vandals, over whom they gained every possible advantage, and wherever fortune prospered their arms, desolation and slaughter attended them.

The Lombards perceiving the ambitious intentions of the Vandals, determined on uniting with Narses,* who, at the time (552) was waging war with Totila King of the Goths. This coalition completely succeeded, and was also very advantageous for the Romans, who found this nation of the greatest utility in their struggles against their enemies. The successes of Narses drew on him the hatred of Justin II. the successor, and nephew of Justinian, who hearing he aspired to the purple, at length disposed the court of Rome against him, which had been long jealous and apprehensive of his power. Some historians assign the irruption of the Lombards in Italy to the solicitations of Narses to revenge himself on Justin, but that opinion is controverted by others.

It is pretty certain, however, that Narses sent ambassadors to the Lombards, to invite them to abandon their wretched abode, and establish themselves

* A Persian eunuch, first appointed to the command of the Roman army in conjunction with Belisarius, but afterwards made general in chief with absolute authority.

in the flourishing territory of Italy. He accompanied the message with different productions of the country. The people, delighted with the prospect, eagerly embraced the offer, and transported themselves, their wives, and children, into Italy.

Success in various enterprizes augmented the natural courage of the adventurers, and rendered them more confident in the prowess of their arms. They sought every where to extend their boundaries, and indeed, what can oppose a people who derive from their victories the uncontrouled right of plundering the vanquished, and who delight in the horrors of war?

Notwithstanding the possessions the Lombards had in Italy, and the security they enjoyed in this delightful country, their dispositions to pillage still incited them to new expeditions. They determined on entering Gaul, and their resolution of destroying every obstacle to their progress caused the famous prophecy of St. Hospitius, which predicted the ruin of many towns of Provence. This pious father lived in a monastery at Nice, and revealed to the inhabitants the calamities with

which Provence was menaced, announced to him by a revelation of the Holy Ghost.

This celebrated Christian of blessed memory, whose abstinence was extreme, announced the arrival of the Lombards in Gaul. "They will ravage," he exclaimed, "seven cities, because of their iniquity in the eyes of God; their whole nation shall be the prey of carnage, of theft, of murder, without any vestige of justice: for they do not succour the stranger, nor support the poor, nor clothe those who are naked, and these are the reasons that such calamities will overwhelm them." Convinced of the approach of these barbarians, "Fly," cried he, to his friends, "fly from this devoted spot, carry with you all you possess, for their hordes advance;" and they replied, "O, Holy Father, we will not abandon you;" but he answered, "though great calamities must befall me, yet they will not arise from them; fear nothing for me, they will not even attempt at harming me."

His colleagues by the advice of the Holy Father departed, and the Lombards, pillaging and destroying every place they passed, drew near,

When they arrived at the tower where the saint had retired, they endeavoured to enter it with respect, but Hospitius appearing at a window, augmented their desire to seize him, and though some time elapsed before they could force the door which conducted to his apartment, two soldiers more hardy than the rest burst it open, and perceiving him covered with sackcloth, and girt with a cord, they exclaimed: “*Hic malefactor est et homicidium fecit, ideo in his liguminibus vinctus tenetur.*”

Hospitius, accused of homicide and other crimes by these barbarians, unwilling to dispute with them, acknowledged he was guilty of all they accused him. One of them on hearing this confession raised his sword over his head, and extending his arm to strike him, it instantly became immoveable, and the sword fell from his hand. His companions, confounded at this miracle, offered up their prayers to Heaven. But Hospitius perceiving their deplorable situation, with ineffable goodness restored vigour to the sacrilegious arm, and life to its owner. The Lombards, witnesses

of this prodigy, were converted to the Christian religion, and the soldier who after his cure became priest, passed the remainder of his life on the same spot, devoutly fulfilling the service of the Lord.

The saint, who before had prophesied by the inspiration of Jesus Christ, now addressed himself to two of the Lombard generals, who, convinced of the truth of his exhortation, returned in safety to their country, but the rest perished deplorably in the defence of an unjust cause.

The devastations of the Lombards here, and in other parts of Gaul, assuming a more serious aspect every day, various generals in 571 marched against them with numerous armies, but perishing in their enterprizes, the barbarians gained a complete ascendancy. They marched over impervious mountains, and with sword and flame laid waste every thing before them. Thus the predictions of the saint were verified.

Despair and disaster marked every where the passage of these barbarians, and all the towns contiguous to the Alps and the Var were victims

of their fury, and the whole of Provence partook of the same fate.

These successes encouraged them to undertake new enterprizes, though the same fortune did not attend their arms hereafter. An officer of the name of Mummol signalized his military talents, by obliging them to retreat as rapidly as they had advanced before.

Notwithstanding, however, this defeat, they again in 572 traversed the plains of Nice and Cimiez, pillaged these towns, and spread desolation every where in Provence, when Mummol a second time arrested their progress and gained a complete victory. He obliged them to indemnify all the expences of his army, and repair the mischiefs they had occasioned.

How numerous were the calamities which Provence underwent in the days of the descendants of Clovis! ever engaged in war, her towns were pillaged, her inhabitants massacred, though the laws established by the Roman conquerors underwent but little alteration. The Lombards did more mischief of every

kind to this country, during their quarrels with the Burgundians and the Provencaux, than all the battles between the Goths, Franks, and the Romans.

Nice and all Provence had not for a long series of years tasted the sweets of repose, and scarcely knew their legitimate sovereign, until Clotaire II. re-united Provence to France, the former, previously to this event, having formed a part of the kingdom of Burgundy.

The French empire was then restored to tranquillity, and Clotaire, who was of a peaceful disposition and without a rival, took measures of an effectual nature for consolidating his interests. With this view, he nominated a mayor to each kingdom, who was to hold the office for life, an appointment which could not fail of flattering the governors, and which gave them also an air of royalty.

He convoked a council at Paris, to deliberate on the affairs of the nation, to revise the ancient laws, and form such new statutes as seemed requisite. He shewed the greatest zeal for render-

ing his subjects prosperous, but the best administration could not cover the injustice of his usurpation of the kingdom of Austrasia; and the appointment of the offices of mayor for life laid the basis of the overthrow of the Merovingian kings.

The government of Provence was nearly the same as in former days, but underwent some change with the emperors, who afterwards became her sovereigns. The origin of the laws is of great antiquity, and may be deduced from the Justinian code. The jurisprudence therefore of Nice, Marseilles, and the whole of Provence, originated at the court of Rome. The Grecian colonies had equally their customs and laws as I have already explained, previously to the conquest of the country by the Romans, but the victors granted, by degrees, the inhabitants of conquered countries the civil right.

SECTION XXII.

IRRUPTION OF THE SARACENS INTO THE TERRITORY OF NICE.

THE Saracens had no sooner quitted the banks of Africa, than they made a descent in Spain, being invited, as is supposed, by Count Julian, a Visigoth nobleman, whose daughter King Roderic had violated, and who sought this means of avenging the atrocious proceedings of his sovereign.

When the barbarians had satisfied their cupidity they passed the Pyrenees, and took several towns in Aquitaine and Provence, spreading terror on every side. They aspired to the dominion of the latter country, and supported their pretensions as allies of the northern nations. In vain they experienced defeat after defeat, the arms, renown, and successes of Charles Martel were not sufficient, after an interval of many years, to prevent their new devastations in Provence. He did, indeed, repeatedly check the career

of the infidels, and even rescued France, whose annihilation seemed approaching, from their dominion; but notwithstanding the dreadful carnage, which he and Eudes, Duke of Aquitaine, made, their hordes again returned, and universal depredation succeeded. In the 8th, 9th, and 10th centuries, Provence and Languedoc witnessed a renewal of those atrocities, which had so often signalized the track of the barbarians. Scarce a town escaped from pillage under the second race of the kings of France, though King Pepin gloriously drove them from the town of Narbonne, and Charlemagne obliged them to quit Arles with the same precipitancy. The victories of this great monarch taught them to respect and fear him; and the French empire under his reign, though a scene of bloodshed, gained strength, territory, and ultimately respectability.

Constantly persecuted by the Saracens, it is probable the Christians fled to Nice, as the position of this town enabled them with some confidence to oppose the arms of the barbarians.

Authors assert that the heaps of large stones which are found on the mountains, are proofs of this opinion.

The Saracens, however, always undaunted by their defeats, continued to infest the Spanish, Provençal, and Italian coasts, and became masters of the islands of Corsica and Sardinia, so that the greatest part of those who fled to the latter place from Italy were victims of the enemy. It was an invariable rule with the Saracens, in case of defeat in one spot to try their success in another; thus, though finally destroyed in Corsica and Sardinia, they made a descent on Nice and the Etrurian shores in returning into Spain.

Nice would have been too fortunate to have suffered but once the calamities attached to the Saracen invasion. The local advantages of the town invited them to new enterprizes. Different monarchs would have found there the best safeguard against the incursions of the barbarians, but their perpetual jealousies, their various pretensions, and continual disputes, reduced the inhabitants

to a still more calamitous situation, and even paved the way for the Saracen oppression.

The Saracens remained many years in considerable force in Fraxinet, a place naturally strong, difficult of access, and well fortified. They retained possession of it for a great length of time, against the attacks of the Provencaux, and other Christian soldiers. Inhabiting this fortress till 972, they were constantly making incursions into Provence, but more especially in the territory of Nice, which was so contiguous. Thus this town was continually obliged to submit to new masters, and to all the horrors that such changes imply. Notwithstanding her natural attachment to her lawful princes, her loyalty was perpetually insulted by the barbarians. Yet nothing could shake the fidelity of her principles, and in defiance of the fury of her prevailing enemies, and the galling chains of despotism, she ever embraced the earliest opportunity of acknowledging her legitimate masters. We have, it is true, seen Nice in uncommon misery, we have traced her to the tenth century through all the struggles of

barbarism, we have seen her loaded with care and oppression, but never yet stigmatized with reproach.

It is indeed a justice due to the Nissards, to observe that from the earliest ages, they have ever merited the same eulogiums of courage and loyalty. Inclined to industry and commerce, they were by no means of little consideration in the mercantile world, and deservedly obtained the cares and solicitude of every monarch they obeyed.

If the affairs of Nice, its history and antiquities until this period are involved in obscurity, we cannot be much surprized, since we know that the Saracens have almost annihilated, by their repeated incursions, those monuments which other barbarians, before their time, had scandalously mutilated. Nay, it cannot fail to excite our astonishment, that in so few years after these ages of barbarism, after the desolations of the 6th, 8th, 9th, and 10th centuries, Nice should regain not only a certain degree of consideration, but even of splendour. It would seem indeed that she flourished amidst the horrors of war and

tyranny, instead of being obliterated from the page of nations. We shall trace her shortly, not merely recovering from the abyss, but vying with other maritime towns, her alliance courted by some, and her enmity dreaded by all.

Fraxinet fell into the hands of the Saracens in the following manner. It happened that some of these barbarians, not many in number, making an excursion in a boat between Sicily and Spain, were driven by a storm into a bay near Nice. On reaching the land they began to explore the country, and discovering a castle hard by, entered it by night, killed the garrison, and took possession of it themselves. Fraxinet was situated in a peninsula, and commanded the sea from a lofty eminence. The approach of this fort was moreover extremely difficult from the irregularity of the ways, and from a number of thorns and stones which formed a thick fence around it. The Saracens, masters of this place, began to take measures to reinforce themselves, and dispatched some of their troops to Spain, from whence they soon obtained assistance. The possessions of

the strangers became more and more extensive, their force augmented by the dissensions of the nations around them, and from the accidental seizure of a small fortress, they acquired considerable power and an extensive tract of territory. Reserving their more serious depredations, until the Christians became weakened by their quarrels, and their own power more confirmed, they contented themselves with the plunder of Nice, and the pillage of the adjoining country, and then pushed their ravages through a great part of Provence.

SECTION XXIII.

AFTER THE DEATH OF CHARLES, KING OF PROVENCE, NICE PASSES UNDER THE SOVEREIGNTY OF THE KINGS AND COUNTS OF ARLES.

HERE it may be observed that the feudal system which originated with the Merovingian Kings, now gradually acquired strength and stability. Since the reign of Charlemagne, the

nobles had been held under very little restraint, and it had become customary for the sovereigns of the present epoch, to recompense and secure their adherents by the donation of estates, and the governments of towns, in perpetuity, by which means a number of petty sovereignties were established throughout the empire, which in later ages planted the standard of rebellion.

The vast empire of Charlemagne, which had been divided amongst his grandsons, was now upon the verge of undergoing other distributions. The death of Lothaire, one of the sons of Louis the Gentle, or Debonnaire, who had been invested with the dominions of Italy, Provence, and Lorraine, gave the country, whose vicissitudes we are tracing, a distinct sovereign.

Having spent a life in restless ambition, as inimical to the repose as the prosperity of the empire, he laid aside the plumes of royalty, to devote the remainder of his days to the service of Heaven. He retired, as his end approached, to a monastery, and hoped by such an act of humility to expiate all his crimes.

But he had no sooner divested himself of the cares of governing, and sought an asylum in solitude, than he regretted having resigned his power. And although his subjects gained during his seclusion repose and happiness, yet he wished to resume supreme authority.

However, Provence was erected into a kingdom for Charles, his youngest son, by a new distribution of Lothaire's estates made by himself on his death bed, and comprised the country which is situated between the Durance, the Alps, the Mediterranean, and the Rhone, to which was also added the Duchy of Lyons. This sovereign did not, however, long enjoy his possessions; he commenced his reign in 855, and ended it in 863.

The famous Gerard de Roussillon was appointed tutor to Charles the first king of Provence, by the Emperor Lothaire, and he so deservedly and completely acquired the friendship and confidence of the young monarch, that he was called by him in his acts, father, nurse, and master. Indeed, this great man was worthy of all the affection of Charles, for the zeal with which he defended him,

and for his excellent counsels upon every occasion.

Boson, son of Theodoric, count of Autun, next aspired to the purple. Endowed with great qualities, and instigated by Hermengarde, his wife, who embraced every occasion of exciting his ambition, he became king of Provence in 879: justifying his pretensions by his merits, his right, and the important service he had rendered the country. But his ostensible appearance of attention to the interests of the two young princes, Louis and Carloman, his mildness of disposition, and courteous manners, contributed more especially to make him popular and beloved.

His friends urged that the Carlovingian family was declining in fame, that the young princes, who reigned in Neustria and Aquitaine, required an able counsellor to give them advice and protection: finally, as Provence had laws and customs peculiar to itself, that it ought to remain a distinct kingdom. They also argued that the nobles and clergy would prefer to bow at the throne of the illustrious Boson, rather than pay

homage to two unexperienced youths, and that he alone knew how to establish a happy government, and was alone worthy of supreme power.

Boson was, however, treated as an usurper by the French kings, defeated in several engagements, and besieged at Vienne, where, by valor and prudence, he had the good fortune to recover the estates he had lost.

When Boson died, his subjects were equally zealous for the success and prosperity of his son Louis, as they had been for him. They placed the diadem on his head, but being a weak and ambitious prince, he found more satisfaction in flattering his passions, than in studying the welfare of his people. Such conduct was the cause of his overthrow; and although he succeeded in being crowned Emperor and King of Italy, the elevation was temporary, and an awful forerunner of the adversity that awaited him. He had to submit to the misfortune of having his eyes put out, and then to the humiliation of seeking refuge in his first kingdom, where a

nobleman of the name of Hugh had exercised during his absence absolute authority.

Hugh was the first person who seized upon the county of Arles, a stretch of power that was the more easy to him, as his sovereign was defenceless and weak. Scarcely had Louis breathed his last, than he made himself entire master of the whole of his kingdom, and he became sovereign, without the title of it, to the prejudice of Louis the legitimate successor.

But Hugh having fallen into the displeasure of the Italians; who were fickle subjects, ceded the kingdom of Provence to Rodolph, King of Transjurane Burgundy.

Hugh was induced to make this accommodation from the alarm he took at the disasters to which his kingdom was exposed, and from the inclination and threats of the Italians, to recall Rodolph in 913 to the head of affairs. The exchange of Provence for Italy was therefore made, on condition that Rodolph let him remain peaceable possessor of the latter country; and they confirmed, by an intermarriage of their children,

the solemnity of their friendship. By this treaty Rodolph united Provence to his other dominions, forming together the kingdom of Arles, of which he was the sovereign.

This monarch allowed a nobleman of the name of Boson, who had married Berthe, daughter of Hugh, to be acknowledged Count of Arles, though he was to remain his vassal.

Conrade the Pacific, successor of Rodolph, gave the county of Arles to another Boson, who took extreme pains to restore the strength of all the maritime towns, which had been almost annihilated by the barbarians. His son William succeeded him, from whom descended, in a male line, the first counts of this country, till the reign of Bertrand.

From the transmission of Provence to Rodolph, all classes of society seemed to be inspired with a love of glory; the fine arts were prosecuted with vigour, and refinement of manners supplanted that savage ferocity which the ages of barbarism had imperceptibly stamped on the people. Austerity of conduct was softened by the pursuit

of literature, and politeness and a thirst of renown inspired men to noble achievements. A still greater difference, however, manifested itself in the character of the people during the reign of the next race of sovereigns.

It is worth observing here, that the kings of Provence, with the exception of the first, were counts and dukes of the country, who, as the spirit of independency manifested itself, aspired to the royal authority. In proportion as they usurped supremacy, they nominated deputies to the places which they themselves held, and these also in turn, profiting of the weakness of their sovereigns, insensibly acquired independency too, and finally converted their appointments into hereditary descent. As Arles was the capital of Provence, it was the reason they took the name of Counts of Arles. Their power was very great, and the major part of the nobility submitted to them. Some indeed, despising the dominion of the counts, acknowledged only the emperors for their sovereigns, and to them alone rendered homage. The effects of such insubordination

was the separation of those estates from Provence.

We may discern in referring to the annals of this country, during the tenth and eleventh centuries, a gradual endeavour amongst the nobles to usurp petty sovereignties, and towards the close of this epoch they displayed their intentions more openly. The troubles which menaced Provence, whilst Bertrand II. held the sceptre, were chiefly caused by the efforts of this count, to vindicate the party of the Pope, Gregory VII. against Henry IV. king of Germany. The great towns, and principally Arles, though Bertrand had submitted almost the whole of Provence to the Pope, acknowledged the title of Henry, and refused to accept the mandates of Bertrand.

In the reign of Gilbert, the expedition was undertaken against the Holy Land. After the capture of Jerusalem, the renowned Order of St. John of Jerusalem was instituted, an order of such reputed advantage to the Christian world. The Provencaux claim the merit of the establishment. From amongst them was chosen a Grand

Master, when it was on the instant of dissolution, so that its commencement and consistency are due to the efforts of the great men of Provence. A number of commanderies and the priory of St. John of Aix, are proofs of this assertion. Besides the commanderies of Nice, Avignon, and Gap, Provence boasted several similar institutions. After the death of Gilbert, another race of counts ruled over this country.

SECTION XXIV.

NICE IS INDEPENDENT IN 1108, AND HAS CONSULS. SHE ALLIES WITH THE REPUBLIC OF PISA.

NICE and all Provence, when transmitted by Rodolph to the emperors, his successors, underwent a material alteration. The various ameliorations of civilized society, the prosecution of the fine arts, literature, politeness, and the thirst of renown, softened that austerity which the Saracen invasion had superinduced, and imperceptibly

dissipated the clouds of ignorance and barbarism. The most memorable alteration in this country occurred at the accession, and during the government, of the Berengers. With respect to Nice, at this epoch, it followed the fate of the celebrated cities of Italy. Genoa, Lucca, and Pisa, from their maritime situation, had so prospered by their commercial relations and activity, that notwithstanding the troubles of Italy, they evidently surpassed the rest, and sighed to lay the foundations of liberty, or rather to cherish the independency which had already made some footing, and acknowledge no authorities but those constituted by their own citizens. The example pervaded the neighbouring towns, and these illustrious republics had the satisfaction of seeing other people pursue a path which conducted them to happiness and grandeur.

Neither the vicissitudes of Provence, nor the perpetual change of its monarchs, had shaken the principles of attachment of the Nissards, to their monarchical government. It was the dissensions of the governors, the pretensions of the command-

ants to the provinces, the ambition of the nobles to usurp royal authority, which first excited the desire of freedom in the bosom of those citizens, who lived far from the seat of government. Nice had suffered so much during the disasters of Provence, that she had her marine to re-establish, her commerce to cultivate, and to engage herself with an ally both willing and able to protect her. The principal cities of Provence, Aix, and Marseilles, so engrossed their sovereign's attention, that Nice in a remoter position was neglected and forgotten. Notwithstanding the rapacity of the barbarians and the attacks of the pirates, commerce, by affording her the means of constructing vessels, and thus protecting her trade, would inevitably render her formidable. In short, the period was arrived that Nice was free, and she now sought to connect herself with other states that already were so. Neither ambition nor the Arragon dominion, which she despised, nor a reluctance to be governed, led her to disunite herself from the imperial yoke, but the honorable wish of participating the independence of her neighbours, and

seeking consideration by the same path by which they had already attained it. The offers of the republic of Pisa were flattering to Nice ; reciprocal advantages made each cultivate a good understanding, and an alliance in 1115 was the effect of their friendship.

It was in this city that several noble personages of Genoa and Pisa assembled in 1201, to settle the differences which then prevailed between these republics ; but after a tedious negotiation and reluctance on both sides to come to terms of peace, the congress ended. Not any thing favorable came of this meeting ; and in a few months more serious disputes arose.

SECTION XXV.

NICE UNDER THE DOMINION OF THE ARRAGONESE.

THE illustrious antiquity of the counts of Barcelona, and the prospect of enjoying peculiar favors, were circumstances highly gratifying to the Provencaux in their new change of sovereigns.

Raymond Berenger I. who succeeded his father in 1082, was chosen in 1112 for the husband of Douce. He was one of the most potent princes near Provence, and possessed both the power and ability of conducting the government of this country. The marriage was solemnized between them under the auspices of Giberge, and by right of his queen, he became inheritor of Provence. Douce was the daughter of Gilbert and Giberge, and became mistress of this country by the partiality of its legitimate heiress, her mother, then widow queen. The Count of Barcelona had no sooner become the defender of the rights of Douce, than he commenced hostilities with the Count of Toulouse, who was determined to dispute the claims of his queen to Provence. His rival was a formidable one; he had brought over to his interests several noblemen of distinction; and thus strengthened, many engagements ensued with nearly equal advantages. The two counts perceiving that this kind of warfare only served to exhaust their resources, without deciding in favor of either, thought it most advisable to terminate

the dispute by negotiation. A treaty was soon concluded, wherein it was stipulated that either should adopt the other in case of failure in the regular succession.

During the dominion of the Berengers, an infinitely austerer mode of government was adopted. Timidity or caution had previously prevented that usurpation of authority, which the boldness of the Berengers assumed. They gradually seized all the prerogatives of royalty under the different progressive titles of Count, Marquis, Duke. They then ventured on the investiture of lands, the protection of the church, and the assumption of "By the grace of God," of which the annals of their country are not wanting in proofs. The pretensions of the emperors repressed temporarily the spirit of the counts. From one step, however, they proceeded to another, till at length they assumed the title of majesty, with the addition of "Gratiâ Dei." The counts of the first race could never obtain permission to stamp coin * with

* Until this epoch Roman coin had been the current money, both at Nice and all the towns throughout Provence. It con-

the emblems of sovereignty, though the emperor Conrade III. during the second race, granted that privilege to Raymond de Baux, in 1146, when he invested him with Provence.

Notwithstanding, however, these amicable arrangements, the country enjoyed repose for a few years only; dissensions and discontent prevailed amongst the nobles, and in 1122, a civil war broke out between Alphonso Count of Toulouse, and the Count of Provence. The cause of the rupture was the pretensions of the former to this country by his marriage with Faydide. He flew to arms in order to confirm his right; the Count of Provence also, on his part, availed himself of his

sisted of Othonian, and Melgorian *sols*: in latter ages the *sols Provencaux* were called *sols royaux*, and when the Counts of Forcalquier coined, there were the *sols Raimondins*, and the *sols Guelmings*. This money retained its worth to the full amount, till the time of Charles *le Boiteux*, when it lost something of its value from the circumstance of Philip the Handsome causing the allay to be diminished in the coin of France.

Other *sols* were afterwards coined, double the value of those above, which occasioned the former *sols* to be called, and considered, *petite monnoie*. It was the custom to reckon by *deniers*, *sols*, and *livres*, and in succeeding ages by florins.

force to preserve what was the dowry of his queen, but after a few skirmishes an accommodation took place. Raymond and Douce ceded to the Count of Toulouse several castles, and their pretensions on that part of Provence situated between the Durance and the Isere, only reserving a right over Avignon and some other towns. On the other hand, Alphonso abandoned all his pretensions to this part of Provence. Nothing could be more desirable than such a negotiation, as it embraced the interests of two princes who were generally on hostile terms.

But in spite of this, the political situation of Provence at the accession of Raymond Berenger the young to the throne foreboded many troubles, and but for the wisdom, moderation, and virtue of his uncle the Count of Barcelona, Raymond Berenger IV. would have experienced the want of an able defender. The new war which had been kindled between Berenger Raymond, the father of the young prince, and Raymond de Baux, now became more alarming. The distance of the late count from the seat of government, had

given an opportunity to his enemies to promote faction: the people, at this moment, hailed the Count of Toulouse, and wished to see him sovereign, probably from the idle hope of profiting by a revolution. The uncle of the young count caused the states to be convened in 1145 at Tarascon, and when he entered Provence, received from all descriptions of people the assurances of submission and fidelity. With the view also of completing his projects, and supporting a helpless child, he assumed the title of Marquis of Provence; conceiving by such a measure, that he should intimidate those who encouraged revolt, and cherished faction. He defended his nephew's interests during the minority with the most dignified disinterestedness and care, reduced some revolted nobles, vanquished others who were too powerful, released the oppressed, and governed with great discrimination. Raymond de Baux was beaten several times, deprived of nearly all his estates, and so much reduced as to have no hopes of recovering his patrimony, but in the conqueror's clemency. He was obliged to ask for peace, which the count

granted him on the most honourable and advantageous terms, restoring him all the places he had taken during the war, and reinstating him, on the condition of rendering homage to the Count of Provence his nephew. When his authority seemed to be established on a solid basis, the Count of Barcelona departed for his own estates, and led Berenger with him, confiding in the nobility to support the cause of the young monarch. In this they were so unanimous, that Raymond de Baux was ever after disconcerted in his projects, and compelled to adopt a new system to revive his drooping interests. Raymond Berenger was thus possessor and absolute master of Provence, from the Durance to the Mediterranean, and from the Rhone to the Alps. Indeed, such was his power, that no rival now dared to contest it with him. The death of this great prince, which happened in 1162 at St. Dalmas, when he was going to ratify the treaty he had concluded, left Raymond Berenger the young in great perplexity. He had many obstacles to surmount, which to avert required his uncle's skill. The revolt of

Nice compelled him to decline the war, which he proposed waging against the Count of Forcalquier, and occupied all his attention. Berenger besieged the town in 1166, but the Nissards made so vigorous a resistance, that after strenuous efforts on both sides, he was obliged to quit his enterprize, highly dissatisfied with so mortifying a repulse. Some historians assert, that he perished in the siege, though it is controverted by others, and even said, that he was alive in 1167.

No sooner had the citizens of Nice recovered from the severities of the siege undertaken by Berenger, who would neither regard their entreaties nor their offers, than they sought an alliance with the Genoese. Their vicinity to Italy, and the states of the latter people, joined to the probability of deriving immediate succour from so powerful an ally, tempted her to court their friendship. Risking therefore every thing, and despising all past dangers, she determined on remaining free, and coalescing with a neighbouring power. Genoa gladly offered her protection, which the Nissards as gladly embraced.

Douce was the only daughter and heiress of Raymond Berenger II. and had been promised in marriage by her father to the Count of Toulouse, but the solemnization not taking place, the Count married her mother Richilda, in order to confirm his usurpation. Alphonso II. king of Arragon, and cousin of Douce, dissatisfied at this proceeding, determined to contest the claim which the Count of Toulouse now had to Provence by his late alliance. He soon entered the country at the head of a large army, and complete success attending his first enterprizes, he already looked upon himself as the sovereign of the country, and in 1168 he gave it to his brother Raymond Berenger III. on condition that he should restore it whenever he made the demand. Thus, master of Provence, and having many troops at disposal, he joined his two brothers, and directed his march towards Nice, to revenge on the inhabitants the defeat of Raymond Berenger the young. The approach of the troops alarmed the Nisards, and submission was their only safe alternative. The citizens went to the banks of the

Var, and by imploring pardon of Alphonso, and promising obedience in future, the king was pleased to listen to their entreaties, allowed them to take the oath of fidelity, and granted them his protection, on condition of their paying a sum of money.

The emperor Frederic, having come to Provence in 1178, confirmed the rights of Alphonso, and re-established his own, by causing himself to be crowned king of Provence with the empress and his son Philip, in the cathedral of Arles.

There is a charter, dated June, 1176, wherein Alphonso confirms to the town, the "Consulatum, consuetudines, et usus cum omnibus justiciis." He renewed the grant, by an act bearing date October, 1188, and this happened from the circumstance of the inhabitants forming a new alliance with the republic of Pisa, the 29th of March, of the same year. So strong was, it appears, their hatred to the dominion of the Arragons.

SECTION XXVI.

NICE IS AGAIN DETACHED FROM HER SOVEREIGNS, AND FORMS ALLIANCES WITH VARIOUS REPUBLICS.

As Pisa and Genoa were the two most flourishing republics of Italy, in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, it is natural to imagine their jealousy augmented in proportion to their prosperity. Their relative situations, their commerce, and even their celebrity, were circumstances which caused suspicion in peace and exasperation in war. They were both of great maritime force, strong in internal policy, and courageous in battle, and both equally eager to embrace any cause of rupture.

An alliance therefore was soon formed between the Pisans, Nissards, and the republics of Provence; which latter, were ready, from policy, to defend the Pisans against the Genoese, for the obvious reason of their having acquired such an ascendancy over their neighbours.

In 1209, they declared for the Pisans, and sent eight galleys to their assistance; but William Embriachi, whom the senate of Genoa had dispatched with an equal number, attacked them with so much success, that he captured seven of their vessels, and obliged the Provençaux to sue for peace. Hugh Debaux, with ten Marseillois gentlemen, were dispatched to Genoa, and a treaty of peace very advantageous for the republic was concluded. Vintimiglia, of which we have spoken in a preceding part of the work, supported a long siege against the Genoese, but being reduced to the lowest extremity, was obliged to capitulate in 1222. This, however, formed but one of the many exploits, which about this period redounded to the honor of the Genoese arms. The inhabitants of Nice threw themselves on the clemency of the senate, after being informed that eight galleys were destined against them.

The Genoese availing themselves of the peace with the Pisans, sent emissaries to Nice, in order to reconcile the trifling differences which yet existed between them. The senate, says an his-

torian, had another object in view, that of receiving the oath of fidelity from the Nissards, and giving orders for the erection of a fort on the summit of the mountains, in order to convince them that what they could not acquire by negotiation, they would by arms. It does not, however, appear correct, that Nice gave herself to the Genoese. She made a treaty of alliance with them, for their common defence, which lasted till the year 1229.

The Nissards, previously to detaching themselves from their sovereigns a second time, which occurred in 1215, reduced into a code all the municipal laws, and gave an independent form to the government. This code was compiled in 1205, from which period may be dated the desire to manifest their freedom once more.

Nice, allied with Genoa, for the space of several years defied the menaces of Raymond Berenger IV. who saw with a jealous eye the independent spirit of the Nissards. Notwithstanding the siege of several of the revolted towns, undertaken by Berenger, and his insisting on the immediate allegiance of all the nobles and cities, the Nissards

maintained their liberty; and it was not until after the reduction of Marseilles and Avignon, that Nice acknowledged the supremacy of the conqueror. This event occurred in 1229, and after the complete subjection of the country, Berenger appointed as governor, Romée de Ville-neuve, who had assisted him in the wars of Provence with such exemplary fidelity, a man of excellent reputation and enlightened mind.

The illustrious Berenger, who had shewn himself worthy of immortal glory for his liberal patronage of the sciences, died in 1245, leaving his subjects to regret his virtues, moderation, and valour.

The court of this prince had been the center of politeness, and during his reign, Provence acquired celebrity for the gallantry, and urbane manners of the inhabitants. Berenger was the founder of the town of Barcelonetta in the Alps, of which we have already spoken; and in him ended the sovereignty of the Arragons over Nice.

SECTION XXVI.

NICE UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF THE HOUSE
OF ANJOU, AND THE KINGS OF NAPLES.

FROM the dominion of the Berengers, Nice passed to that of the family of Anjou. Beatrix, the youngest daughter of Berenger, who had married Charles, the brother of St. Louis, was heiress of Provence. The amiable disposition of this princess had endeared her to the Provencaux, who gave every token of joy and satisfaction at seeing her succeed to her father's estates. Their predilection to her was very conducive to the interests of her husband, who was shortly after declared heir and Count of Provence. The king of France, gratified by the alliance of his brother, promised him protection, and as a mark of his approbation, united to his other estates the counties of Anjou and Maine.

From this epoch, however, until 1382, the history of Nice offers nothing remarkable. In that year Joan, the eldest daughter of Charles

Duke of Calabria, succeeded her uncle Robert in the county of Provence, and the kingdom of Naples.

This princess, anxious to avert the calamities which had, during several years, menaced her estates, adopted even as early as 1380, Louis I. duke of Anjou, and made him her legitimate successor. She sought in the alliance of the Duke an antidote to the mischief, nor did she doubt, from the inclination of this prince to become sovereign of Provence, of his accepting her proposal of being chosen her successor. She then convened the nobility, and the deputations of the various towns of the kingdom, and publicly adopted the duke. Joan trusted by this alliance, to employ the principal forces of France in her behalf. The duke received the news of the solemnization with extremest joy, and desired to evince his gratitude by the grandeur of his actions.

The Provencaux did not certainly shew unanimous approbation at the adoption of the duke, and a party even formed itself for Charles de Duras,

whom the queen had excluded from the kingdom of the two Sicilies, and from the county of Provence. Joan first ensured the succession of her estates to Charles, but as she afterwards formed new alliances, and Charles, in the sequel, gave proofs of strong attachment to the king of Hungary, her enemy, she disinherited him and secured the protection of France, by adopting the Duke of Anjou. It may, however, be necessary to observe here, that Charles remained firm to the queen's interests until she married Otho, the eldest son of the Duke of Brunswick, a measure inimical to his views, and at which he took umbrage. From that time Charles indignantly quitted the queen's party, and became her most formidable enemy. They who espoused the Duke of Anjou's interests, pleaded his natural right to the crown from the queen's adoption, a right inherent in the sovereign. They insisted on his virtues, valour, and wisdom, and the atrocious ingratitude and crimes which had sullied the career of his competitor. The friends of Charles argued that successions could

not depend on caprice, but on proximity of blood, in the eyes of the Provencaux, so renowned for fidelity to their lawful sovereign.

They censured the conduct of Louis at the siege of Tarascon, they reprobated his ravages at Arles, and stigmatized him as a mere usurper. In short, the populace, the most numerous part of the community, declared for Charles, and Louis was obliged to confirm his right by arms. Nice was very conspicuous on this occasion, and supported with vigour the party of the former. Louis, however, submitted almost all Provence, but died without taking possession of the kingdom of Naples.

When he heard that Joan was besieged in a castle, near that city, by Charles, he quitted Provence with a large army, in order to rescue his benefactress. His intentions were laudable, though he did not enjoy the satisfaction of seeing them realized. He had no sooner commenced the expedition, than the troops under his command were assailed by disease, his friends either were unable, or did not choose, to support him, and

he could not procure succours of any kind. In this critical state he was apprised of the murder of Joan, which circumstance so much exasperated his other misfortunes, that he died broken-hearted in September, 1384.

Louis II. of Anjou, succeeded his father, but as he was very young, he was put under the guardianship of Mary de Blois his mother. His minority gave an opportunity for faction to ferment, and the queen apprehensive that delay might weaken the affections of his subjects, and enable the discontented to strengthen their interest, conducted him to Avignon, where Pope Clement VII. invested him with the kingdom of Naples. They also compelled this young prince to declare, that he would never make peace with Charles de Duras, a traitor, and the murderer of their beloved queen.

But notwithstanding the subjection of Provence by Louis I. the party of Charles was very active, for relying on the justice of this prince's claims to Provence, they formed several great coalitions, whilst Louis brought to his standard a number of

gentlemen, and with them the towns of Arles, and Marseilles. There can be no doubt, but the conduct of Charles was impeachable. The murder of Joan tarnished a life, which otherwise would have adorned the annals of history. The Provencaux, however, always displayed great partiality for him, and his succession was indisputably legitimate. The hour of Charles approached, for being invited to a banquet by some nobles after the death of Louis I. he was assassinated in 1386, in the same manner that Queen Joan had been before him.

An opportunity now offered for Otho, the last husband of Joan, to revenge upon Charles's widow, and the helpless Ladislaus, the three years imprisonment he had endured by Charles's order, and the shocking murder of his queen. He quickly joined the partisans of Louis, put himself at the head of his troops, and after gaining a signal victory, compelled Margaret to seek safety in flight. This event was certainly highly glorious to Otho, but his good fortune from this time seemed again to desert him. Either the reputa-

tion that the victory obtained him, or the undue advantage he took of it, prejudiced him in the eyes of Mary, who sought every occasion of mortifying his pride, and moreover deprived him of his post of captain-general. But piqued at the ingratitude of the queen, he took up arms against her, and espoused the cause of Ladislaus her rival.

Nor did Margaret, widow of the deceased Charles, neglect during this period to have Ladislaus his son, though but ten years of age, crowned king. At the same time, however, faction was augmenting its forces every day. Almost all Provence had submitted to the Duke of Anjou, and since the partisans of the late monarch saw that their efforts had hitherto been useless, and that their hopes from Ladislaus his son were not likely to encourage them to persevere, they began to desert his standard. Besides which, the queen his mother was without interest, but ambitious, and unable to make any resistance, so that the Provençaux generally acknowledged Louis for their sovereign.

When Charles fell, his friends fell too, and the

death of the father was the ruin of the son. Ladislaus was abandoned and left to struggle with a host of foes, when valour combined with judgment, might, if not have fixed him on the throne, at least, have disconcerted and harassed his enemies, and attached to his name brilliant recollections. But this prince, though very young, displayed much presence of mind at Naples, and received homage from many noblemen, as well as marks of felicitation from the people. Yet too weak to resist the efforts of his enemies, and disgusted by the conspiracies of the Neapolitans, he quitted their towns and returned to Provence.

Nice alone undertook the generous defence of this sovereign, and though besieged by the Count of Savoy in favor of the Duke of Anjou, bravely maintained the contest until all her forces were exhausted. Seeing herself at length on the point of falling into the power of the duke, she sent two deputies to Ladislaus, to expose to him her extreme distress, and the necessity of being quickly succoured. Ladislaus having numerous enemies to encounter, had scarce forces enough to oppose

to them, for the preservation of the kingdoms of Naples and Hungary, and consented for the town and county of Nice to submit to a prince of their own choice, excepting the Duke of Anjou, on condition that he should be reinstated in his rights over the county, if he returned in three years to re-emburse the expences it had cost the inhabitants during the siege. The choice was soon made; the royal house of Savoy had the preference.

SECTION XXVII.

HOUSE OF SAVOY RULES OVER NICE.

SUCH was the origin of the claim, which the house of Savoy had to the sovereignty of Nice, and the reason that the successors of that throne had an indubitable right to it. In 1388, Amadæus VII. was elected sovereign, and a few years after Amadæus VIII. succeeded, and took the oath of fidelity accordingly. Amadæus VIII. sur-

named the red, aware, however, of the slight bond which united Nice to this crown, availed himself of the opportunity to secure it on a surer basis. He saw that seizing it from Ladislaus, or maintaining it under the pretensions of the house of Anjou, were no stable engagements. A precarious title, or the avowal of usurpation, were far from being agreeable to the feelings of Amadæus. He therefore addressed himself to Louis III. when he could not well advance money for the defrayment of the expences incurred during the wars of Naples, at the same time taking admirable care to remind him of his former services, and the claims which he undoubtedly had for such immense sums. A demand of this nature was well calculated to astonish the king, who was both young and little aware of the selfish interest of individuals. In this posture of affairs, and fearing that he might be interrupted in the preparations for his voyage, he begged of Yolanda, his mother and tutress, to arrange it. Negotiation seemed to be the only way which promised success, and the queen therefore chose that method.

She was anxious to make the duke feel the little right he had to his claim, and deemed that it would be advisable to make him know it as soon as could be with due precaution. A conference was proposed to the duke, and accepted by him with great eagerness, who, at the same time, expressed that all differences ought to be compromised between allies.

Were it not rather foreign to my purpose, to take a retrospect of the events which have contributed to the rise of the extraordinary reputation of the house of Savoy, during several years prior to the acquisition of Nice, I should have joyfully undertaken the task. They who may feel an interest in the subject, would meet with ample satisfaction, by referring to the reign of Amadæus VI. under whom the Savoyards, and inhabitants of the adjoining states, daily acquired prosperity, strength, and energy; and this because every petty potentate and powerful emperor began to court the count's alliance and friendship, and referred to his counsels the decision of the weightiest disputes.

On the 5th of October, 1419, the Duke of Savoy secured Nice, Villa-franca, and their dependencies for sixty-four thousand livres, and declared himself creditor for fifteen thousand florins of gold. He only allowed four months for paying it in.

René, King of Naples, entertained some hopes of recovering Nice, over which he pretended he had a right, and concerted measures for the purpose of weakening the claim which the Duke of Savoy now indisputably had to it. The king was deeply afflicted at the late transaction of the duke, whose usurpation had become insupportable in his eyes. His silence no longer authorised the act, and he determined to represent the futility of the duke's pretensions, and the illegality of the possession; but as his words were not backed by force, he was obliged to be satisfied with making this formal effort. Nice, its dependencies, and the valley of Barcelonetta were all demanded; but the Duke of Savoy, as might be imagined, replied,—I possess these lands by a good and just title: my right, and peaceable possession of them, will assure them to me against the pretensions of

others. The king had no army to support his claim, and was obliged to submit to this mortifying answer.

The first care of the new sovereigns was to attach the Nissards to them by their beneficence: they ordered the fortifications of the castle, which the Berengers had commenced, to be continued, and increased them to such an extent, that from the beginning of the sixteenth century, the castle was called the bulwark of Italy.

In 1533, Pope Clement VII. desirous of bringing about an interview between Francis I. King of France, and Charles V. Emperor of Germany, in order to reconcile and establish a solid peace between these two monarchs, asked the castle and town of Nice, of Charles III. for the purpose. He begged to have them without a garrison, and promised to restore them as soon as the interview should end; but as the Pope wished to put a garrison of his own there during that time the duke rejected the proposal. His highness offered to place a strong guard in the town for the security of His Holiness, and to command it in person,

but would not consent to give up the castle. In consequence of this refusal, the meeting was fixed at Marseilles; where the Pope had the supreme felicity of gratifying his pride, by concluding the marriage of his niece Catharine de Medicis, with the Duke of Orleans.

It must be admitted, that a decision made between the Pope and the ambassadors of France at Bologna of the above nature, could not be very agreeable to the feelings of the duke; for, whatever might be his highness's wish to oblige the Pope, and to assist in making peace between the two monarchs, it would have been a sacrifice too great, and too dear to his interests, to have complied with such a request.

The king took umbrage at Charles's conduct and obtained a bull of Paul III. by which his holiness suppressed the Bishopric of Bourg, to mortify the duke, who had caused its re-establishment. It is singular, that Charles should not make an effort to prevent its execution; on the contrary, he seemed to acquiesce in its fulmination. His highness's affairs by no means went

on smoothly, for the revenge of Francis augmented daily, and the Swiss threatened him with a rupture. He was shortly after desired to withdraw his troops from Genève, or to expect a declaration of war, as well from the Swiss as the French. The duke was willing to continue the peace if possible, and consented to go to Aoust, in order to negotiate with the Swiss ambassadors, but when they demanded the toleration of the new religion in Germany, the conference ended.

In 1535, the French king declared war against him, which is attributed to a variety of causes. Some persons presume the reason of hostilities was the duke's refusal to give him up Nice, and the places which were the rights of succession of Louisa of Savoy his mother, and of which he was heir: that the duke had accepted the investiture of the county of Asti, ancient patrimony of the house of Orleans, and that he had offered to abandon to the emperor all his possessions from Nice to Geneva, on condition of being compensated with other lands in Italy.

To these reasons, may be added another, more powerful than any. Revenge being natural to man, and jealousy one of the most inveterate causes, it is not surprising that they, whose interests are blended with the obnoxious person, should fall the victims of resentment. Charles and Francis hated each other, and the latter could not bear to see the duke a partisan of his enemy. Whatever suspicions the French king might entertain of the duke's partiality to Charles, he no longer wanted a proof to corroborate it, when Nice was refused for the place of interview of his majesty and the Pope.

But Francis should have remembered, although these circumstances were proofs of the duke's preference for Charles, that he had also received marks of friendship. The passage of the king's troops into Italy had always been allowed through his territory, and every assistance was given to expedite and ensure their march thither.

The offer of resigning this town, which was the entry into Italy from Provence, Geneva likewise, on the other confines, to Charles for an equiva-

lent elsewhere, were circumstances that irritated Francis exceedingly.

The duke, perceiving the king's resentment, and being driven to the last resource, determined on fortifying Nice in the strongest way possible, whither he was obliged to retire with the duchess in hopes of better days, since nothing favorable was likely to happen, while his estates were constantly wavering between the French and the Austrians: for what one of these powers had to-day it lost to-morrow, so difficult was it to know who was the master of each province.

To Charles's numerous misfortunes, another now added new chagrin. Beatrix of Portugal, his queen, died at Nice, which afflicted him deeply, as the news was unexpected, and they had always lived in perfect harmony.

A few days after this, in 1538, Paul III. made the same demand of the Duke of Savoy for the castle of Nice, as Clement VII. had done, and for a similar conference between him and the two rival sovereigns. As soon as the emperor arrived at Villafranca, he also sent deputies to the duke to dis-

pose him to lend his imperial majesty the castle, for forty days, for the purpose specified, which was granted him. The galleys of the emperor were dispatched to Savona, to conduct the Pope to Nice, and it was proposed to the duke to give up the castle to the Pope's son, who was then in the town under the guarantee of the emperor, for its being delivered up at the expiration of the time stipulated. The duke, however, was resolved to cede it to nobody but the emperor himself, and accordingly dispatched deputies to Villa-franca, to inform the emperor of his determination. On the 16th of May, the Baron de Menthon and La Guiche arrived at Nice, charged with a message from the king, that if the duke gave up the castle to the Pope, he would not come. The day following, the duke determined on going to Villa-franca, in order to confer with the emperor, as he was afraid of offending him, or the king. The emperor replied, that it was no longer time to deliberate, that his imperial majesty had engaged the Pope on the duke's word, and that he must execute what he had promised. Upon this, the duke set

off to Monaco and invited the Pope, who was there, to come to Nice, assuring his holiness of a lodging in the castle, though it should be against the king's wish.

But the Nissards, fearing lest the castle should be delivered to the Pope, and acting either by secret orders from the duke, or by their own impulsion, took up arms, carried the gates of the fortress and the town, established guards in every quarter, preferring rather to be buried in the ruins of the city than admit foreign troops. They pretended that their privileges authorized them to repulse from their walls any troops but those of the duke. The inhabitants intent on their design, took the Prince of Piedmont in their arms, and carried him to the castle, rending the air with the shouts of "long live Savoy." Many of them shut themselves in the garrison, determining to stand or fall by their young prince. Emanuel Philibert, for that was the name of the child, being conducted to the citadel, and perceiving a model of the castle in wood, exclaimed amidst the tumult, "Why are you so perplexed? Since we have

two fortresses, let us give them the wooden one, and keep the other for ourselves, without suffering anybody to enter." This exclamation from a child of twelve years of age excited laughter, and added new courage to the garrison. The Pope finding what was the determination of the Nisards, lodged in a monastery out of the town.

The duke on his part sent deputies to the emperor, to apologize for the conduct of the garrison, but Charles expressed his displeasure, as he imagined it to be a stratagem of the duke's. Other deputies were sent to the Pope for the same purpose. His Holiness gave them proofs of being highly offended, and soon grew impatient in consequence of the king's absence.

Wishing to soften as much as possible the event which had so recently occurred, the duke offered to give the Pope the town of Nice for his better accommodation, but the inhabitants would not suffer it.

In this posture of affairs, the Pope and emperor held a conference under a pavilion, hence the construction of a marble pillar, called the Croix de Marbre, to commemorate this event, when the

arrival of messengers at Nice assured his Holiness of the king's being on his road thither. On the 3d of June, the duke had the honor of paying a visit to the French king, who was also lodged at a short distance from Nice.

At this time the Queen of France likewise came here to see the Pope, and went afterwards to pay a visit to the emperor at Villa-franca. A curious circumstance occurred; bridges were formed from the queen's galleys to the shore, in order to facilitate the landing, at the end of which were the emperor, the duke, and a number of noblemen to receive her majesty; but as the queen approached, the bridge gave way, and all fell into the sea, an affair which began in consternation, but terminated in laughter.

The emperor remained at Villa-franca, but never saw the king. The Pope alone negotiated, sometimes with one, then with another, but the only success attending his mediation, was a truce of ten years, called the truce of Nice, between the two princes, and the taking measures for convoking the council of Trent.

Thus, Nice appointed the seat of conference, became the conspicuous theatre of negotiation, between the two greatest monarchs of the age. The re-union of the Pope, emperor, king and queen, in the town of Nice gave it a new consideration.

All the powers of Italy anxiously desired a peace, but the prince to whom it was most necessary was the Duke of Savoy, whose estates were almost annihilated. Some historians go so far as to say, that it had been in contemplation to make a desert of Piedmont, in order to prevent the French from penetrating into Italy. But it would be difficult to persuade an impartial reader, that the emperor could even for a moment entertain so barbarous a scheme.

Besides a truce of ten years, a treaty of commerce was signed between the subjects of the two monarchs, so that each country was bonâ-fide in a state of peace. The duke, however, feeble in resource, despised by one, disliked by another, and exposed to the revenge of all, was obliged to submit to the alienation of his estates during ten

years, and what was yet more ignominious, found himself necessitated to sign over his inheritance for that period, or not to be included in the treaty.

It is with pain I relate the persecution of a Prince of Savoy, since these rigorous measures can bear no other interpretation. Oppression almost always succeeds misfortune, for Francis having materially injured the feelings of an helpless monarch, wanted even to deprive him of his last possession. Go, said the king, to the duke, and advise him to relinquish the county of Nice, and I will make him compensation in France. I will give him other estates, that shall bring him in twenty thousand crowns rent. But the duke instead of listening to the insulting propositions of Francis, recollected that though unfortunate, and circumscribed in power, he was a man and a prince, and with a spirit and indignation becoming his rank and ancestors, replied, that he would never acquiesce in the views of France; on the contrary, that no one should impede his dying, at least, Count of Nice.

The French king had even the cruelty to inform the duke, that he, for form sake, would retain

Turin, Moncalier, and several other towns till a peace should be concluded with the emperor, at which proposal Charles was exceedingly mortified, but ended, by saying, that whenever his majesty would return him his country, he would willingly agree to his retaining a place as surety of his affection towards France,

The duke seeing no hopes of having his territory restored, went to the Diet of Ratisbon in 1541, to complain to the electors, and princes of the empire, of the wrong the king did him, exhorting them to espouse his quarrel. He was promised support, notwithstanding the intrigues of the French court.

During these commotions, those cities which the French did not take, the emperor took care to secure, so that at last, Nice was the only exception. From such active measures the duke naturally concluded, they sought to become permanent masters of his lawful inheritance, and such was his deplorable condition, that he saw no hopes, but in rekindling the flames of war. The devise he adopted in his desperation, was a naked

arm, with a sword, and this inscription ; “ Spoliat
tis arma supersunt.”

In vain did the ambassadors on the side of Francis and Charles V, strive to maintain the good understanding between their respective sovereigns. Hostilities recommenced after some time, and soon led to an attack upon Nice. The coalition of the French and Turks, which had been productive of such little advantage in 1536, from the scruples of the king and the cries of Europe against the league, was in 1543 more efficacious. The four greatest monarchs of the age, Henry VIII. Charles V. Francis I. and Soliman II. were engaged in the campaign.

Francis openly sought the alliance of the Turks, whose custom it was to burn every town belonging to the Christians, and to condemn the inhabitants to dungeons.

The result of the French embassy to the Ottoman empire, was that of Soliman's dispatching a hundred and ten galleys, under the command of the famous Barbarossa, to join the French fleet off the coast of Provence. Previously, however, to the

arrival of Barbarossa, Grignan, governor of Marseilles, proposed making an expedition against the castle of Nice. The French fleet was commanded by the Duke d'Enghien, who concerted with the governor upon this project, and then with his majesty, who entrusted the execution of it to so young a hero. It was undertaken from the promise of three Piedmontese soldiers to deliver up the castle. They were put on board the four galleys that were to approach Nice, whilst the Count d'Enghien followed with the rest of the fleet, taking his station in open sea off the height of Nice, either to assist if necessary, or to retreat in case of danger. Giannettino Doria, who had been written to by the Prince of Piedmont, and apprized of the intention of the French, was lying in ambush with several galleys: he rushed forward as the enemy approached, took four galleys before they could reach Antibes, and obliged the rest to fly. The Duke d'Enghien made the best of his way to Toulon, dissatisfied with the expedition. He was pursued by Giannettino for some time, who finding that he could not make up to

the duke's squadron, returned to Nice with his prizes.

Barbarossa arriving shortly after this event with 174 vessels of various descriptions, passed before the castle of Nice, and landed at an island in the sea of Provence, after which, the Ottoman and French fleets united their forces at Toulon and Marseilles. The Count d'Enghien and Barbarossa agreed to lose no time, but to proceed immediately to the siege of Nice. The reply of Montfort the governor, upon being summoned to surrender, was this; My name is Montfort, and my devise "il me faut tenir." Pressed, however, by the besiegers, he was obliged to give up the town and seek refuge in the castle, where the garrison retired, taking every thing that was valuable with them, being aware of the customary pillage the Turks make on entering a Christian town. The enemy, anxious to get possession of the fortress, erected several batteries of cannon, and being aided by a naval armament, played incessantly on the town, declaring they would not discontinue the fire until it capitulated. It was

with great difficulty the Duke d'Enghien prevailed on Barbarossa not to burn the town, an event which he the more desired, as there was no plunder. The declaration of the besiegers was, however, of but little consequence, for the walls of the castle were too strong, and the fortifications too well maintained to be demolished by the cannon of Barbarossa. This famous pirate pretended, that the French did not attack it with skill, and was of opinion, that it was impregnable. Besides which, the besiegers learned from intercepted letters, that the Duke of Savoy and the Marquis de Guast were marching to its relief, Of this they could have no idea, as it was scarcely possible that de Guast, should be in a state to come to the relief of the castle. On the 8th September, the allies worn out by fatigue, by the loss of men, and being disconcerted in their plans, raised the siege. Barbarossa sailed to Toulon, and the Count of d'Enghien to Marseilles, but the former did not quit his enterprize without giving a dreadful mark of his cruelty. It was stipulated in the surrender of the town to make no pillage, and to respect

the lives and liberties of the citizens, but the capitulation was violated. The Turks took away 5200 inhabitants, and sent them to Soliman,* but their captivity was not of long duration: for being luckily met by the combined squadrons of Malta, Naples, and Sicily, they were retaken and regained their liberty. The Nissards signalized on this occasion their courage, and attachment to the house of Savoy.

The defeat of the French and the Turks was a great triumph to the duke, who had a medal struck, bearing on one side the cross of Savoy, surrounded with attributes of victory: on the other was written "Nicæa a Turcis et Gallis obsessa."

On the 9th September, the very day after the siege was raised, messengers approached the castle, and announced the news of the duke's arrival, and on the 13th, the Duke of Savoy and the Marquis de Guast had the satisfaction to enter there with the army.

The galleys which landed the army were driven

* The statue of Catherine Sequeiran commemorates this event. (See page 7.)

on shore in the port of Villa-franca, and experienced so dreadful a tempest that Doria lost four, and had a great deal of difficulty to save his artillery. One of the officers of the guard of Barbarossa, hearing the news of this misfortune, hurried him to put to sea, to cope with the armament thus thrown into disorder. A contrary wind, however, changed Barbarossa's determination: yet he sent 25 galleys, and the same number of French vessels, but as no attack was made they returned again to the harbour of Toulon.

The enemy dispersed, the duke thought of collecting together the inhabitants, of extolling the valour of Montfort and Paul Simion, and of rewarding the soldiers and officers for the laurels obtained on this memorable occasion. The government of the town and county of Nice, with the rank of lieutenant general, were given to Montfort as a proof of his sovereign's esteem.

The misfortunes of Charles seemed to turn to the glory of Emanuel Philibert, and the servitude and loss of his country to the renown of his successor: for during the reign of this prince, we

observe a country almost shipwrecked by the arms of France and Germany, revive upon its ruins, and again become formidable.

Nice, however, was threatened with another storm in 1555, and Duke Emanuel Philibert, hearing it was the intention of the Turks to attack Nice by a naval armament, a circumstance which obliged him to be upon his guard, dispatched Andrew Provana to order the fortifications of Villa-franca to be strengthened, wherein he was so successful and diligent, that the Turks understanding this manœuvre, and aware of the courage of the governor and garrison, neither attacked Nice nor Villa-franca, but beat a retreat more agreeable to the Nissards than to themselves.

Emanuel Philibert in the treaty of the 3d April, 1559, was put in possession of a great many of those states, which Charles had seen successively fall into the power of Germans and Frenchmen. Turin, Pignerol, Quiers, Chevois, Verceil, and Asti, were restored to their legitimate prince.

But the duke could not rest without trying to

recover Turin, and at a conference held at Lyons in 1560, his ambassadors urged every argument to shew the duke's right over it. The ambassadors of France strove on their part to shew the claims of their sovereign to the county of Nice, the towns of Turin, Coni, &c. With regard to what concerns the former it was replied by the duke's deputies, that the county gave itself to Amadæus the red, and that the successors of his highness were invested with it by the Emperors of Germany: besides which, Francis I. had renounced all the pretensions that he, or his successors, could have to it.

The negotiation, however, turned to the advantage of the duke, and in 1563, he entered Turin amidst the acclamations of every rank of people.

Emanuel Philibert, not only recovered the states which his father had the misfortune to lose, but extended them considerably on the side of Nice.

I digress here for a moment, to relate a curious anecdote of the Duchess of Savoy. The Renegade Ochiali, a famous Calabrian Corsair, having made

a descent on the estates of Duke Emanuel, during his highness's stay at Nice, took a vast number of prisoners, whom the duke ransomed for 12,000 crowns. And it was furthermore stipulated that the barbarian, agreeably to his wishes, should have the honor of seeing the duchess before they were set at liberty. The duke consented, and Ochiali set off from Villa-franca, for Nice; but as her highness had no desire to receive the compliments of the pirate, she put on the dress of Madame de Raconis, and changed places with her, thus enjoying the error, and punishing the temerity of the barbarian adventurer.

In the subsequent disturbances of Provence, the Duke of Savoy was called upon by the inhabitants of that county, to assist them against the forces of la Valette, who with the view to suppress the revolt of Aix, Arles, Marseilles, and other large towns, had recurred to the Duke of Montmorency, governor of Languedoc, and to Lesdiguières, lieutenant of the King of France in Dauphiny. The duke dispatched some officers of distinction, and soldiers obtained from the county

of Nice, to the assistance of the league; and shortly after la Valette was obliged to relinquish his designs upon Antibes through the perfidy of a Nisard, but in revenge seized upon Toulon.

The duke supplied the league with fresh succours after the loss of that town; the troops, artillery, and ammunition, were all reviewed at Nice, and 12,000 crowns were given to pay the soldiers.

At the solicitation of the Provencaux, the duke was ultimately prevailed on to engage more warmly in their cause, though for some time he hesitated, pleading the greatness of his other occupations. On the 16th of October, 1590, he quitted Nice with all the forces designed for Provence, accompanied by the presidents of Aix, who were come thither to accelerate his departure. He passed Antibes, Grasse, and took two or three castles in his way to Aix, where the nobility of the town, and persons of rank, received him with extraordinary distinction.

Leaving his operations here in 1592 to return to Nice, he watched narrowly the conduct of the Count de Bar, governor of Antibes, whom he

suspected of being in alliance with Lesdiguières. The sequel proved that the suspicion was just, for as soon as the duke decided to attack Antibes, the mask fell by his calling Lesdiguières to his support. Incensed at this proceeding, the duke immediately besieged the town, and although Bar escaped, the conquerors obtained a great booty, money, and several pieces of cannon. The duke next departed for the battle of Vignon, where he met with a severe repulse; Lesdiguières attacked his troops, and put them to flight.

The situation of the French king was now ameliorating fast, many towns had submitted to his generals, and the duke began to fear for the security of his own estates. Amidst various events, the town of St. Stephen, in the county of Nice, was seized upon, to which place the duke instantly dispatched some of his Piedmontese infantry, and a proportionate number of horsemen, to rescue it from the enemy. The prudence of the duke was surpassed by the vigilance and activity of the governor of the county of Nice, who had without delay attacked the place and rendered himself master of it, as

well as of two others, which were occupied by the enemy's troops.

St. Stephen, however, again fell a sacrifice to the French, but was retaken in the year 1598. The inconveniences which the county of Nice suffered from the occupation of that place, made Beuil the governor of the county, besiege it very vigorously, so that after nine days, Gas, the commander, capitulated. But the war between the king and duke still raged with mutual violence: the Duke de Guise, in 1600, attempted to surprize the castle of Nice de-la-Paille, which owing to the courage and vigilance of Bobba, the governor, failed. The French fled after a few discharges of cannon. The duke, as a token of flight, did the inhabitants of the town the honor of leaving them his hat and sword, which were placed as trophies in the church.

In 1629, the King of France gave orders for the equipment of a large naval force in Provence, to guard the coasts of Nice, and gave the command of it to the Marquis de Guise. The calamities with which Nice was now menaced were

averted, for the duke fearing the consequences of a contest with the king, agreed by the treaty of Suza, to let his majesty and army pass through his states, in order to succour Casal, and as a pledge of his design, gave up to the king the citadel of Suza, and the castle of St Francis, on condition of their being garrisoned by Swiss soldiers. This pacification presaged a happy omen for Nice and its environs, for no sooner was the arrangement made, than the naval armament which appeared off the coast, and which had absolutely demanded a passage for some troops, of D. Felix, governor of the county, to enter Italy, hoisted signals of departure, and put back without delay. The treaty was however annulled, and another made in its place.

An event prior to the death of Charles Emanuel, is said to have occurred at Nice de-la-Paille. A dreadful thunder-bolt fell on the castle, ominous of this monarch's approaching end. A tall tree behind the castle was rent, and the gunpowder magazines at Montmelian exploded. A peasant is said to have predicted his death.

Besides erecting churches and other edifices, Charles ordered a waggon road to be cut in the midst of sharp overhanging rocks, from Saorgio to Nice, where mules formerly passed with extreme difficulty. The following approbatory lines were composed on the occasion :

“ Quem tibi parturiunt montes, silicesq. triumphum
 (Auis qui solus major es ipse tuis)
 Te duce Nicænam via dum proclivis ad urbem
 Quà modo vix avibus pervia præbet iter.
 Postera cognoscit, præsens mirabitur ætas
 Imperio montes succubuisse tuo.”

Nice witnessed a scene of social and royal amity in 1564, a circumstance highly gratifying on account of its rare occurrence within its warlike walls. During the period that the duke and duchess were preparing to meet King Charles IX. and Queen Catherine of Medicis his mother, at Lyons, by royal invitation, the children of the Emperor Maximilian, Rodolph and Ernest, Archdukes of Austria, arrived at Turin in their way to Spain ; on which the duke did not fail to send deputies to compliment them, to treat them with ex-

treme magnificence and invite them to Nice. Here they met with all possible attention, and had galleys lent them by his highness to go to Spain.

Nice had often the honor of a royal visit, and frequently received the family of its sovereign, and had given birth to several of the blood royal of Savoy. Sometimes health, pleasure, or the position of affairs, induced the dukes to reside there. At others, they only made a visit. Nice was the spot the dukes generally posted themselves in, during the wars of Provence and Piedmont: hence they drew their principal succours, while the county at large supplied them with good officers and loyal soldiers.

Nice was brought more into repute in 1585, by the immense retinue that followed Charles Emanuel in his voyage to Spain, whither he was going to marry Catherine, daughter of King Philip II. His highness proceeded from Turin, followed by 100 personages of the highest rank of Piedmont and Savoy. The embarkation of this illustrious retinue took place at Nice, on board the prince of Doria's galleys.

In 1616, the Spaniards made an attack upon the castle and town of Nice, but with no better success than the Ottoman pirate. The vigilance of the governor, and the bravery of the garrison, were superior to the efforts of the enemy. In 1617, a similar attempt was made by the French, but they met with the same resistance, and were compelled to retreat without completing the object of their wishes.

The Nissards, however, experienced a fatal reverse in 1691. The preceding year, Victor Amadæus II. King of Sardinia, had leagued with Spain and Germany against France, and no sooner were his intentions known, than the French king dispatched St. Ruth to carry hostilities into Savoy, and the Marshal de Catinat to act against Piedmont. The success of the French was so brilliant, that the King of Sardinia lost nearly all his estates, and was compelled to make a separate peace, by which means he recovered his possessions. The importance of the castle of Nice had drawn on the inhabitants, the animosity of Louis XIV. whose all-powerful arms were now directed against it. The

frequent repulses of the French at Nice had highly mortified the pride of the French nation, and acted as a new incentive to their sovereign to get possession of it at any rate. Louis, who had resolved to conduct the siege of Mons in person, could not conveniently march to Nice, but gave orders for the Marshal de Catinat, general of the army of Italy, to enter the county: two squadrons, one composed of vessels, the other of galleys, were directed to occupy the sea, and prevent the enemy throwing in succour, while the army attacked it by land. The town and castle of Villa-franca, the fort of Mont-Alban, and some other forts, surrendered at the first summons. The town of Nice resisted but a day, and the governor retired into the castle, which was vigorously besieged. Three brisk attacks were made, notwithstanding the difficulty of the ground, which consisting almost wholly of rock, rendered the enterprize dangerous and doubtful. The crews of the vessels disembarked the artillery, and erected several batteries, amongst others, one consisting of mortars, which was so directed that

three bombs fell into the magazine of powder, and blew it up, demolishing at the same time a part of the castle, and killing upwards of five hundred men. The French encouraged at this success, advanced their works nearer the fortress, and continued the bombardment with redoubled vigour. Another bomb destroyed a second magazine, containing bombs and grenades, together with a part of the fortification; a circumstance which created such panic in the besieged, that the governor shortly after capitulated, well satisfied at being able to obtain an honorable accommodation. This event gave rise to the coining of a medal. The town is thereon represented in the person of a woman, together with a shield bearing the arms of Nice. She is seen in great consternation at the citadel being demolished. The words are "Nicæa capta." On the reverse of the medal is the head of Louis XIV.

Succeeding attempts were made upon this formidable castle. The siege in 1691 demolished a great part of it and injured the town exceedingly, but its complete destruction was not effected till

1706, when the Duke of Berwick, at the head of a numerous army, laid it in ashes. The French king first ordered the Duke de la Feuillade to besiege Nice, hoping by that means to prevent the Duke of Savoy receiving any succour; but the operations of this officer were chiefly directed against Savoy and Piedmont, where he was so entirely successful as to make himself nearly master of the two countries. Amongst other exploits he besieged Turin on the 4th June, 1706, but the Duke of Savoy, and Prince Eugene having beaten the army of the Duke of Orleans, and gained a decisive advantage over it, he was forced to quit his enterprize. This victory, therefore, saved Turin, and enabled the Duke of Savoy to recover the whole of Piedmont. It was undertaken in March, but as the artillery and ammunition which came by sea, were retarded by adverse winds, the besiegers could not open all the batteries at the same time. However, the castle of Villa-franca, the forts of St. Ospicio, and Mont-Alban, which served as a defence to the town, were carried in a few days. The governor then judging it prudent to avoid an

assault, which he was unable to support, abandoned the town the 9th of April, and retired with the garrison into the castle, where there were 110 pieces of cannon and every sort of military stores. On the 14th of November, of the same year, the Duke of Berwick besieged it, and conducted the attacks with such vigour and wisdom, that the governor was obliged to capitulate the 4th of January following. The whole of the fortifications were entirely demolished, and have never since been repaired. A medal was also struck upon this occasion. On it, the town is seen in the person of a woman in chains, sitting at the foot of a monument, with a globe on the top, bearing the arms of France, and her shield lying at her feet. The citadel is seen behind, with several breaches in the walls. The words around it are "Nicæa iterum expugnata." On the other side of the medal is represented the head of Louis XIV.

The misfortunes of war were not the only ones the Nissards had to contend with, though the miseries it created from the year 1681, to the

month of September, 1696, and from 1701, to the peace of Utrecht, were incalculable.

French and Austrian troops constantly occupied their territory: their towns were ever besieged; the conquerors and conquered alternately in possession of their finest estates. The extortions of the one, and the miseries of the other, were alike disastrous. To these calamities succeeded the excessive cold in the month of January, 1709, which destroyed all their fruit trees, and a vast number of olive trees. Then succeeded the epidemic disease of 1735, which proved fatal to upwards of three thousand of the inhabitants.

Since the union of Nice with Savoy, they were both involved in a common fate, so that the war of 1741, in which most of the monarchs of Europe took a part, proved another source of vicissitude to the Nissards. Ambition conducting each monarch to the field of glory, the most flourishing countries were pillaged, territory taken from some and given to others, and the massacre of their subjects contemplated with the utmost sang-froid. When England, Austria, France, and Spain, had

entered into the war, Italy, which was peaceably governed by its little potentates, began also to take the alarm, and on the report of the approach of an army in their country sought a coalition with Charles Emanuel III. King of Sardinia, who promised to defend them against the French and Spaniards.

This sovereign, who was the master and the guardian of the Alps, was courted by all the contending parties, his central situation enabling him to promote or check the progress of the armies. He decided for the Austrians, and blocked up the passage of the Alps, which induced the Prince de Conti to force the highest mountains, and fall upon the Piedmontese soldiery. This success was followed by the capture of the garrisons of Villa-franca, Mont-Alban, an hundred and twenty pieces of cannon, and the whole of the county of Nice. Such events were highly glorious to the French arms, but frequent skirmishes between the rear of their army and the Sardinians, a desperate slaughter of them, when they approached the enemy's entrenchments, extreme distress

and want of sustenance obliged them to re-cross the Alps, and leave the field of battle to the King of Sardinia. The Austro-Sardinian army was now completely victorious, and succeeded in expelling the French and Spaniards from the western extremity of Italy. The Alps were again within the protection of their true guardian; and the towns of Nice, Villa-franca, Tortona, Plaisance, Parma, Pavia, Milan, &c. all fell into the hands of the victorious army. This was not all, for the allies soon passed the Var, took Grasse and Draguinan, and besieged Antibes. The latter town resisted the efforts of the enemy for four weeks, but was at the end of that period obliged to capitulate. The French now began to fear, as the Spanish army was retreating, that they must totally relinquish the banks of the Var. War was pushed with the utmost vigour in the vicinity of Nice, both by sea and land. The English attacked the island of St. Margaret, and bombarded the towns along the coast, at the time the Austrians laid siege to Antibes.

The misfortunes which befel Maillebois, were

aggravated by his disputes with the Spanish chief; and indeed, they so much increased the despondency of the French, that the Cabinet of Versailles deemed it advisable to send the Marshal de Belleilse to take the command of the army. The scattered remnants of the French forces were now collected with all possible dispatch, and ordered to encamp at Le Luc. Belleilse, more fortunate than his predecessor, marched, and took some posts from the enemy in the county of Nice; and being then on the other side of the Var, he began to entertain hopes of penetrating Italy, and that with the more ease, as the bulk of the King of Sardinia's forces were before Genoa.

In this object, however, he completely failed, for an Austro-Sardinian army, consisting of twenty-seven battalions, was distributed over the county of Nice, and the defiles of the Alps were occupied by entrenchments. A dreadful massacre of his troops took place on the Col-de-l'Assiette, the Col-di-Tenda, and in all the directions they endeavoured to cross the barrier before them. The Piedmontese were so posted, that they could

destroy all the advanced line of the enemy, without suffering from their fire.

After this shocking slaughter, and signal defeat, the theatre of war was transferred to Genoa, whither the Duke de Richelieu was sent to contend with the Austro-Sardinian troops.

These numerous misfortunes made the French very despondent; and, but for the energy of Marshal de Belleisle, they would have sunk under them. The Marshal had no sooner effected the passage of the Var, than he took possession of Nice, Mont-Alban, Villa-franca, and Vintimiglia, almost without resistance, and compelled the Austrians under Count Brown, to retreat towards Final: nor was he without hopes of obliging the King of Sardinia to quit his enterprize, and withdraw his troops from the other side of the Alps. The Marshal, however, met with too formidable a barrier in the entrenchments of the king, to penetrate into Italy by Fenestrelles, Exilles, and the Col-di-Tenda. A dreadful massacre succeeded the passage of the Var; the Piedmontese soldiers being so placed in the Alps, that they could fire

on the advanced line of the enemy without being exposed themselves. After this memorable event, the seat of war was transferred to Genoa.

The county of Nice suffered a great deal during the conflicts of the allies and the French, particularly in the cultivation of olives and vines; though the Marshal de Belleisle, to his very great credit, forbade the soldiers under pain of severe punishment to commit the smallest depredation.

France, from being exceedingly exhausted by the continuance of the war, and disgusted at the weakness of government for having entered into it, at the instigation of Madame de Mailly, was now anxious for a peace, even upon disadvantageous terms. Not any of the Belligerent powers were adverse to put an end to their disputes, hoping by that means, to be able to pursue their real interests which had been so long neglected. Madame de Mailly had all power and empire at the court of Versailles; she threw the apple of discord into Europe, and produced as great disputes amongst mankind, as formerly occurred in Olympus. It is singular, that the monarchs of the age

could not restore peace to the world, and that the address of a Madame de Pompadour was requisite to disarm those whom Madame de Mailly had persuaded to unsheath their swords.

The King of Sardinia was put in possession of all that was ceded to him by the treaty of Worms; the Duke of Modena was reinstated in his states; Austria resigned to Don Philip the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla: Silesia and the county of Glatz were joined to Prussia: and the fortifications of Dunkirk remained *statu quo*. The war of Flanders, Germany, and Italy, materially checked the external and internal resources of France, and tended, perhaps, to hasten her to the dreadful revolution which she has lately sustained. The various disasters brought on by the war in Italy, in 1744, were prolonged until the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748, when tranquillity was once more re-established in this unhappy country.

Here ended for a time the reverses of this town, and it now witnessed its happiest days. The year after the peace, the Nissards constructed a port,

which is entirely the work of art ; nature has merely formed the spot on a little projection of ground to the east of the rock, where formerly stood the castle, and to the west of the mountain of Mont-boron, near which is seen the fort of Mont-Alban.

The ancient privileges of the town were renewed the same year, and other prerogatives granted. A little time after this, the road to Turin was repaired and embellished, an improvement which has certainly contributed to render the town more flourishing.

SECTION XXVIII.

NICE RECONQUERED BY THE FRENCH, AND AT
PRESENT UNDER THEIR DOMINION.

It is worth observing here, that although Nice, after the second race of French kings, no longer formed a part of the French monarchy, the inhabitants, as well of the town as the county, enjoyed many privileges in France. They always succeeded to their fortunes, the same as if they were residents

of it, and in case of the death of their friends or relatives, who had fixed their abode in the French dominions, they could take possession of what was bequeathed them without quitting their own country. They enjoyed nearly the same rights as Frenchmen, and to be entitled to them, they had no need of letters of naturalization.

Neither will it be out of place to mention, that in the year 1760, a treaty of exchange was entered into, and ratified by the Kings of France and Sardinia, by which act, several towns in Provence were united to the county of Nice. His Sardinian majesty gave the French king an equivalent for them, in some other part of his dominions.

Affairs remained in this posture, until the beginning of the convention, in 1792, when a large body of French troops, commanded by general Anselme, entered Nice. The Piedmontese soldiers, to the number of about six thousand, alarmed at the approach of the republican battalions, evacuated the town two days before, and retired to Saorgio. This proceeding was not likely to encourage the Nissards, who, siezed with panic, in

their turn took flight also, together with a number of emigrants, carrying little else with them but their clothes. The greatest disorder succeeded in the town; the furniture and other property of the most respectable families were committed to the flames; the plunder became general, and to the disgrace of many of the inhabitants, they aided in the universal pillage, profiting by the presence of the French, to increase the misery of their neighbours.

The Piedmontese soldiery during this interval, sought every occasion of descending from Saorgio, to fall upon the enemy, and a variety of skirmishes ensued between them. The scene of their conflicts was the neighbourhood of Nice, of which there remain to this day, but too many vestiges. The houses in the Croix de Marbre, and the major part of the villas which adorned the surrounding hills, yet retain the horrid marks of republican fury. These demolished, the French next proceeded to cut the vines and olive trees, and in short, made a wilderness around them. The territory of Nice thus degraded, they put in exe-

cution the same wanton mischief on the fine soil of Sospello and Breglio.

The commencement of the campaign proving so highly advantageous to the republican armies, it was to be expected, that Villa-franca, Mont-Alban, and the adjacent country would soon fall into their hands. Whilst Anselme thus furnished himself with the artillery, ammunition, and provisions of the Piedmontese garrisons, Montesquiou, with similar success, overran the province of Savoy, and planted on the lofty mountains that surrounded him, the colours of the republic.

The hold, however, which the Piedmontese had, at the same time that it checked for a moment the progress of their arms, only served to inspire the French to new enterprizes. They resolved to get possession of Saorgio, and attempted to penetrate there by Breglio, but the narrowness of the defile, and the bravery of the Piedmontese, were obstacles more difficult to surmount, than they at first had imagined. They met this time with a considerable loss, and were obliged to relinquish the project of attacking it in front; but not without

much regret, and a determination to make a second trial. With this view, a column of the army was directed to pass by Vintimiglia, Dolce-aqua, and Mont-Tanardo, and then to descend by Briga, in order to attack the fort behind. The commandant, whose name was St. Amour, capitulated, to his eternal disgrace, the first day, notwithstanding he had a large supply of provisions, and, was in every way, in a state to make a vigorous defence. The fort was afterwards razed by command of the French.

At this period of the revolution, Nice was alternately the scene of the defeat and victories of the French. Cantoned to the number of 20,000 in this county, in 1793, the principality of Oneglia was the next adjacent county which felt the force of their arms. When they had secured this part of the Mediterranean coast, the army was formed into two divisions, of which one marched towards France, the other to compose an expedition to act against Sardinia.

But now the successful career of the republican troops, in an attempt to take the island

received a severe check ; and the only alternative left them, was a retreat as precipitate as it was disastrous. The loss they sustained upon this occasion, though not exactly known, was very considerable.

The army of Italy, of which the command had been given to Anselme, was also without its leader. This general having incurred the displeasure of the Convention, from some circumstance of suspicion, was put under arrest, and confined at Nice, the city which had so recently been the scene of his triumph.

Coni was the next object of enterprize, but here the besiegers met with such resistance, that after making several unavailing efforts, they were obliged to quit their undertaking, and once more seek an asylum in the county of Nice.

The King of Sardinia, however, closely pursued, in vain attempted to save Turin. Rather than sustain a siege, with which he was threatened, he abandoned to the enemy Savoy, the counties of Nice, and Tenda, by which means the French troops had ever after a free passage into Italy.

Nice then was again doomed to bear the misfortunes of war for several years ; it was always a post of great importance, generally the receptacle of immense magazines, and in turn possessed by the imperialists and republicans.

I now cease to describe the scenes of misery it must necessarily have witnessed during such a period, by remarking, that Melas, who had retired from the siege of Genoa, acquired great credit for his well conducted march across the Alps, to the territory of Nice. His approach, which proceeded from Mont Scarena, and the Col-di-Tenda, intimidated the French troops at Nice : they evacuated the city, but left a garrison in Mont-Alban. The year 1800 promised great advantages to the imperialists, but their successful career was checked on the banks of the Var, and their prospect from that time was less favorable.

Under the dominion of the King of Sardinia, Nice and its territory contained about 34,000 souls, but now there are not more than two thirds of the number. War, emigration, and

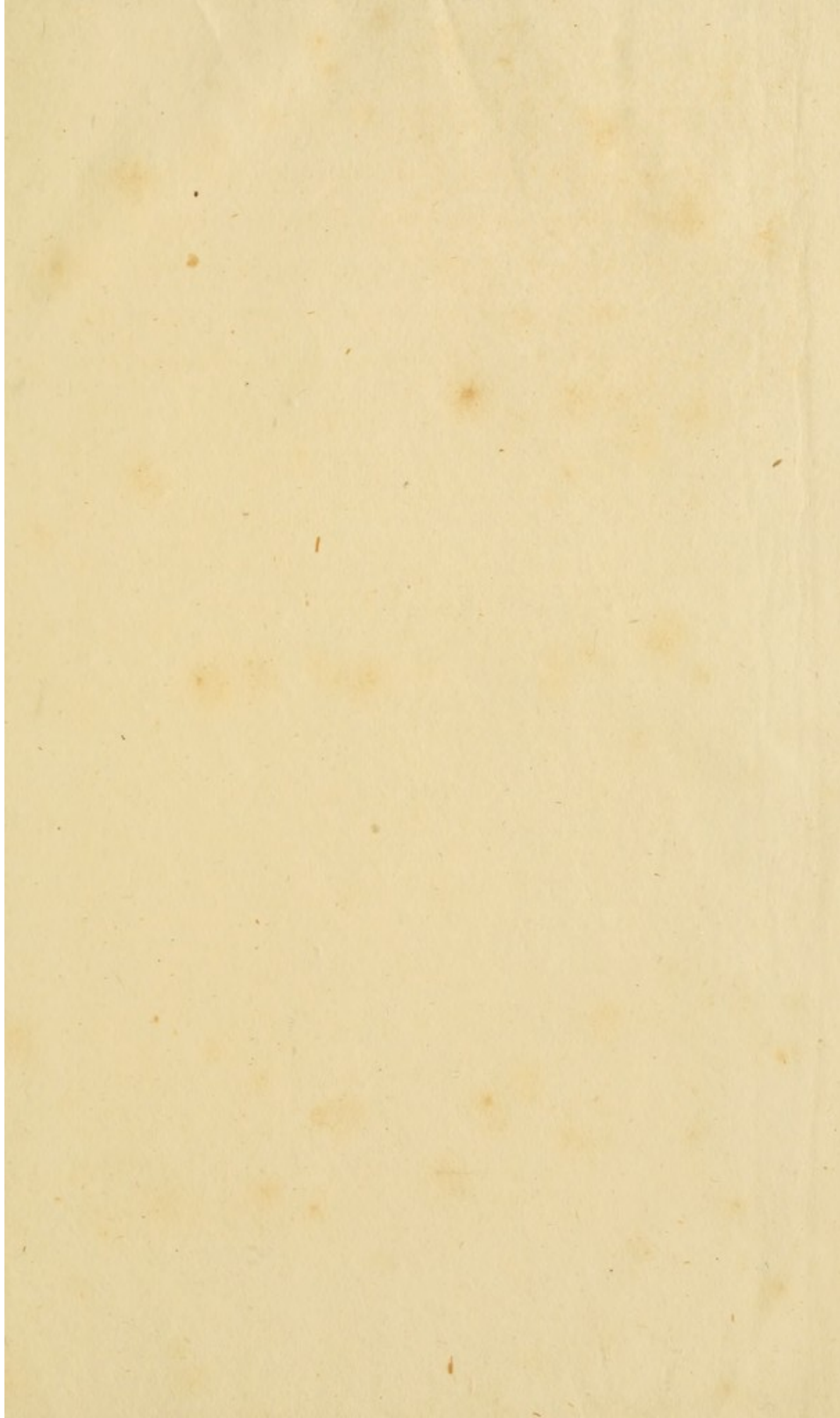
disease, have occasioned this diminution, and are the cause of the actual poverty of the country. We may also lament the ravages produced by the inundations of the Var and the Paglion.

There are a few rich individuals, who like many others in various parts of France, have profited of the moment of terror to make their fortunes by national purchases: but the property of the *ci-devant* nobility being almost all confiscated, and the owners dead or in emigration, there is little circulation of money, and great want of confidence among employers.

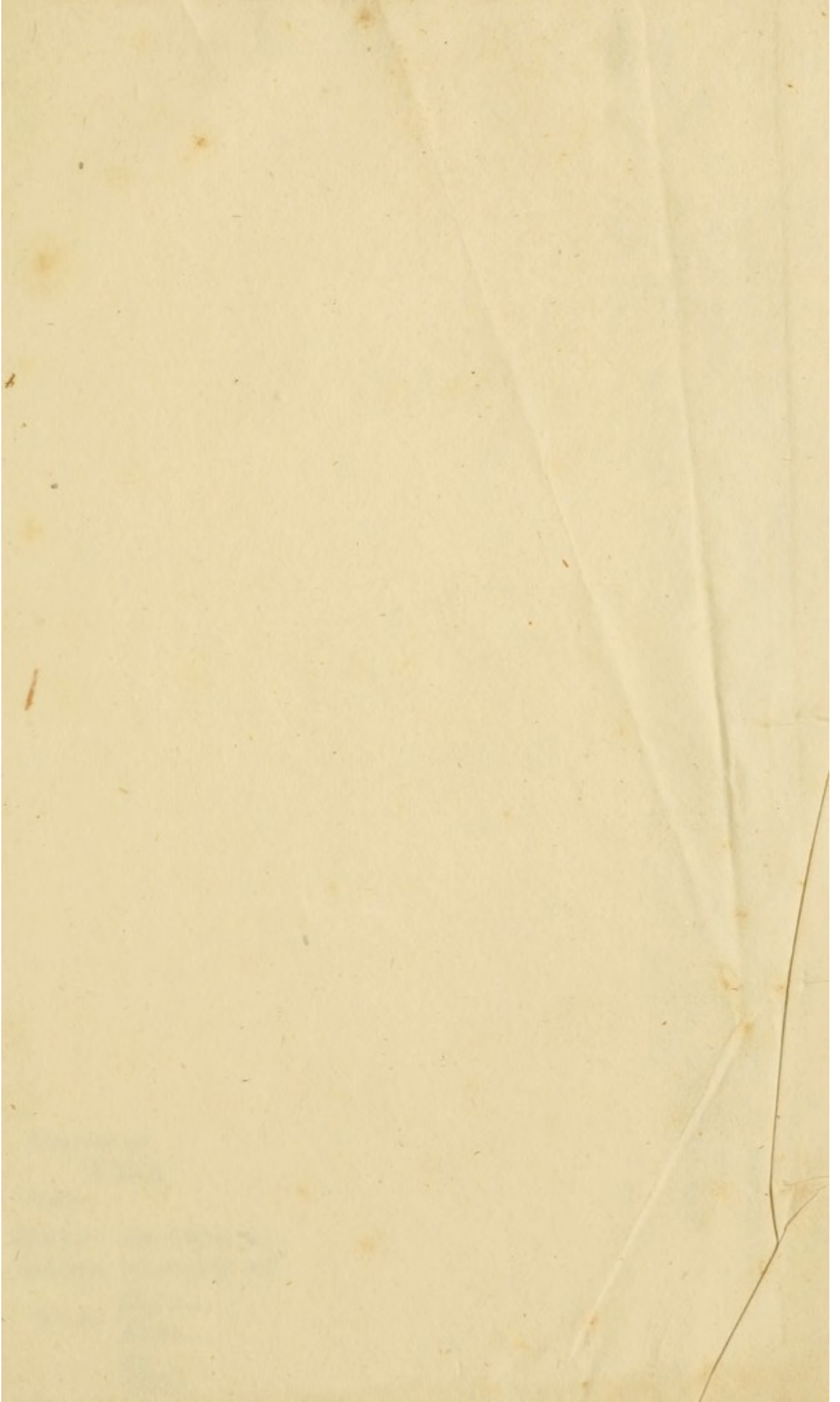
Formerly the Nissards could not export the wines and oils of Provence, on account of the heavy duties judiciously imposed, by the King of Sardinia, on all articles brought from thence to Nice, but there being no such taxes now, the produce of the eastern parts of Provence will be sent there for exportation, which, though it may enable the Nissards to carry on a little commerce in the time of peace, must necessarily hurt the interests of the Provencaux. The contiguity of Nice to Grasse, Draguignan, and other towns, where there

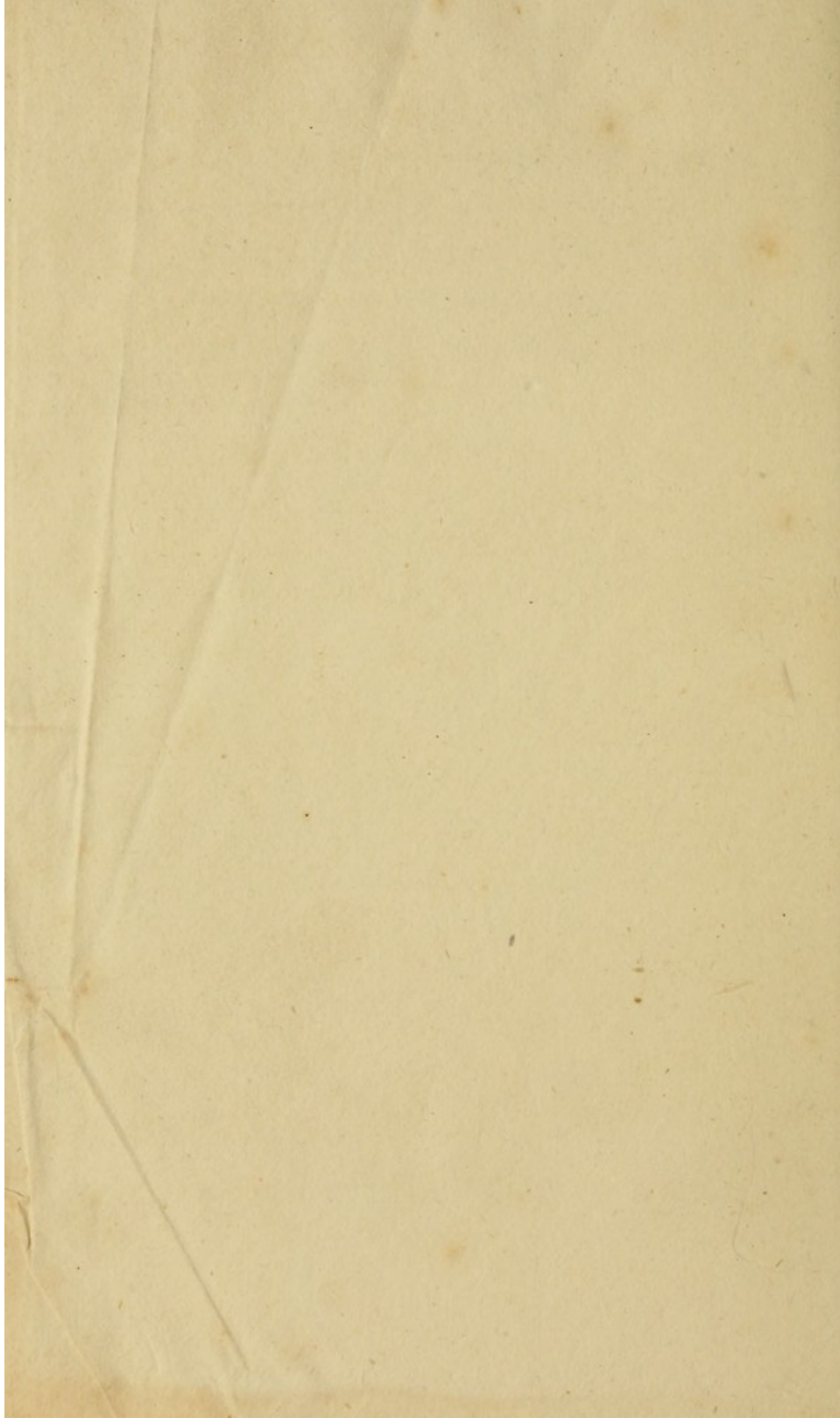
are large commercial establishments, will doubtless prove convenient to the merchants of the country : but the favors of the Provencaux can certainly never compensate the Nissards for the loss of the trade which was carried on between them and the Piedmontese.

THE END



The first of these is the fact that the
 government has been unable to
 secure the necessary amount of
 revenue to meet the expenses of the
 service. This has been the case
 since the commencement of the
 present year, and it is expected
 that the same will continue for
 some time to come.





O DAVIS, I. B. M. D. The Ancient and Modern History of Nice; comprehending
an Account of the Foundation of Marseilles (etc) with an Introduction,
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