

Geographical delineations: or, a compendious view of the natural and political state of all parts of the globe / by J. Aikin.

Contributors

Aikin, John, 1747-1822.
Royal College of Physicians of London

Publication/Creation

London : J. Johnson, 1806.

Persistent URL

<https://wellcomecollection.org/works/p4zp6pwy>

Provider

Royal College of Physicians

License and attribution

This material has been provided by This material has been provided by Royal College of Physicians, London. The original may be consulted at Royal College of Physicians, London. where the originals may be consulted. This work has been identified as being free of known restrictions under copyright law, including all related and neighbouring rights and is being made available under the Creative Commons, Public Domain Mark.

You can copy, modify, distribute and perform the work, even for commercial purposes, without asking permission.



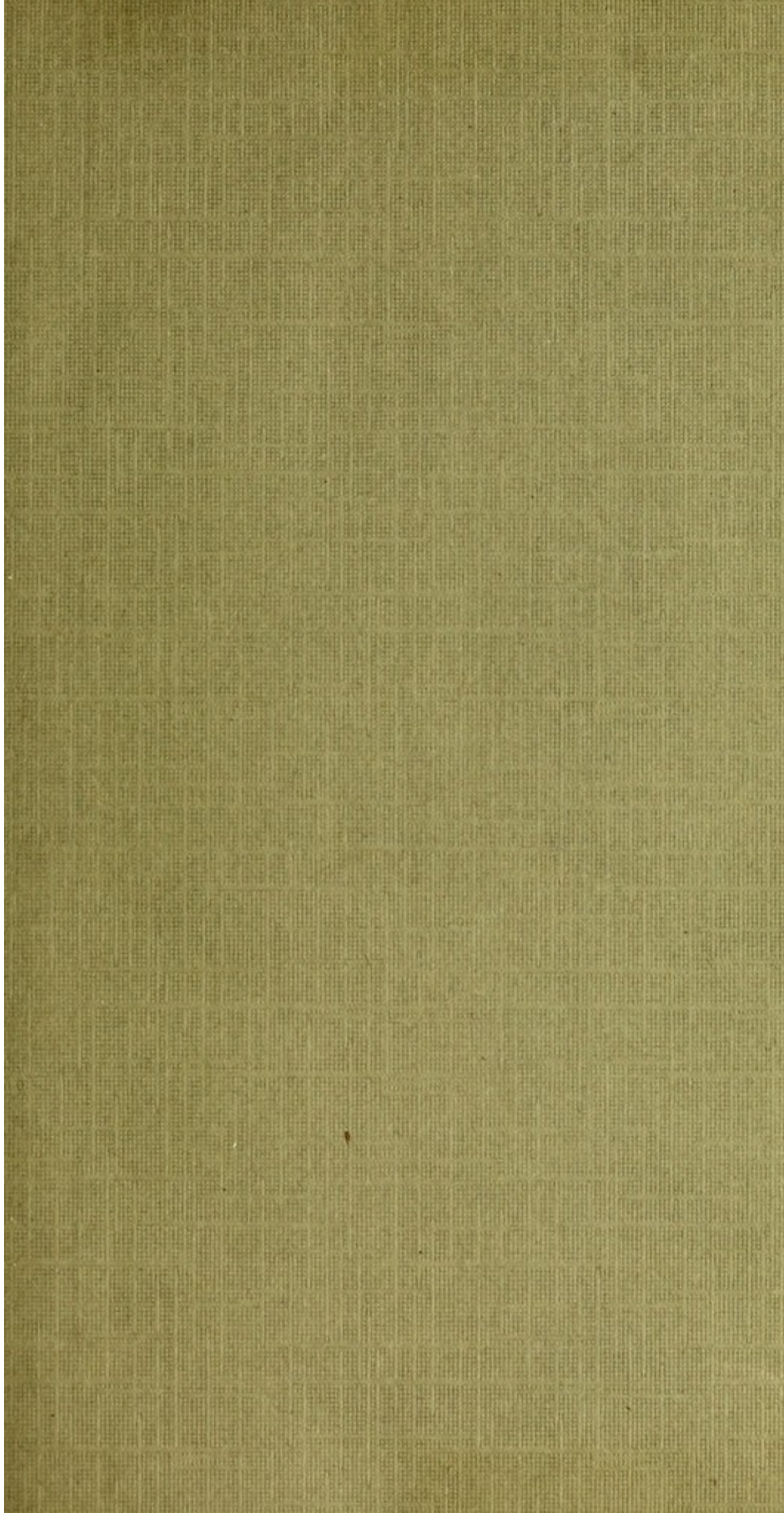
Wellcome Collection
183 Euston Road
London NW1 2BE UK
T +44 (0)20 7611 8722
E library@wellcomecollection.org
<https://wellcomecollection.org>

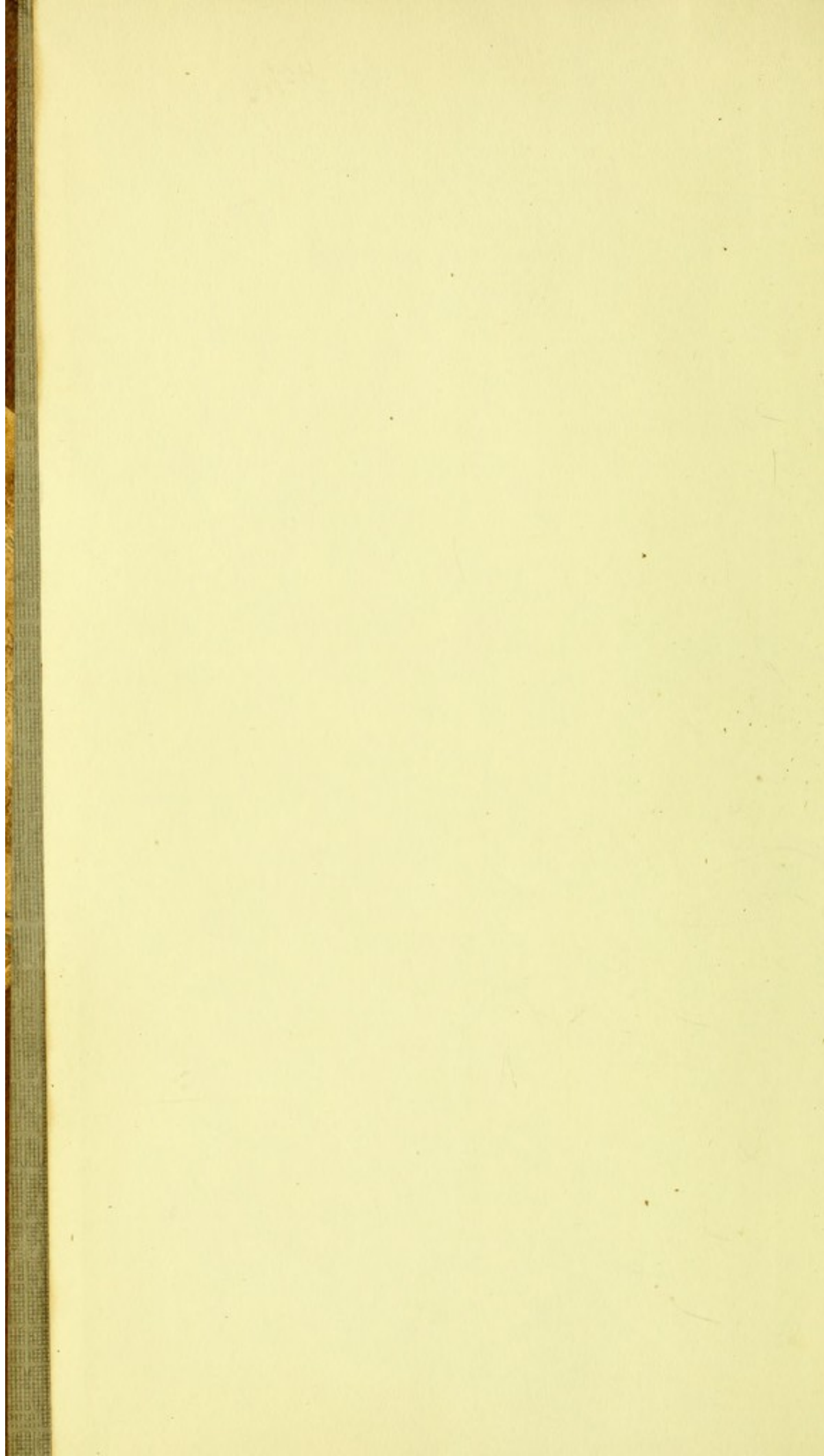


STA COLL

C 08A K







45/15

GEOGRAPHICAL DELINEATIONS :

OR

A COMPENDIOUS VIEW

OF THE

NATURAL AND POLITICAL STATE

OF

ALL PARTS OF THE GLOBE.

BY J. AIKIN, M. D.

Fertile of corn the glebe, of oil and wine ;
With herds the pastures throng'd, with flocks the hills ;
Huge cities and high tow'r'd, that well might seem
The seats of mightiest monarchs ; and so large
The prospect was, that here and there was room
For barren desert, fountainless and dry.

MILTON.

IN TWO VOLUMES :

VOL. I.

LONDON :

PRINTED FOR J. JOHNSON, NO. 72, ST. PAUL'S
CHURCH-YARD.

1806.

GEOGRAPHICAL DELINEATIONS

A COMPENDIOUS VIEW

NATURAL AND POLITICAL STATE

OF ALL PARTS OF THE GLOBE

27995

Lawson 52.2

...of the globe...
...the globe...
...the globe...
...the globe...
...the globe...

IN TWO VOLUMES

VOL. I.

LONDON

R. Taylor and Co. Printers, 38, Shoe-Lane.

(LONDON-YARD)

1801



Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2015

STA COLL

ROYAL COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS LIBRARY	
CLASS	B 08 AIK
ACCN.	27995
SOURCE	Lawson 20/0/-
DATE	25.9.64

P R E F A C E.

It is by no means the intention of this work to supersede either the common elementary books on Geography, or the more complete systems of that branch of knowledge. On the contrary, the reader's acquaintance with the first is all along supposed, as essential to the understanding of the terms employed in description; and the utility of the second for the purpose of exact and particular information can never be supplied by a compendium of any kind.

The precise object aimed at in these volumes is to afford, in a moderate compass, and under an agreeable form, such a view of every thing most important relative to the natural and political state of the world which we inhabit, as may dwell upon the mind in vivid colours, and durably impress it with just and instructive notions.

In the prosecution of this design I have been guided by the two leading considerations respecting each country—what nature has made it, and what man has made it. Of these, the first has taken the precedence, as pointing to circumstances which can never fail to exert a certain effect; which survive all temporary changes, and stamp an indelible character. The second, however, is frequently of greater interest, and inculcates lessons of more practical importance; it has, therefore, in the more civilized states, occupied the largest share of the description. Both together have as much as possible been brought to conspire in forming the characteristic strokes of the sketch.

As the first requisite in describing a country is to identify it, the boundaries of each have been traced with some minuteness; and it has especially been considered as an object of consequence to show how far the great portions or masses into which nature seems to have divided the land upon this globe, coincide with the territorial

territorial distributions made by human policy. Those grand features of country, mountains and rivers, have likewise been laid down with a degree of precision correspondent to their geographical importance. These details may, perhaps, to a cursory reader appear dry and tedious; but it is always supposed by the writer that they are illustrated by a good map; for, without such a kind of pictured representation, words must be very inadequate to convey the images required. Travelling in this manner with the eye and understanding conjointly, is an agreeable occupation, as well as the only sure method of fixing ideas of locality in the memory.

When the accompaniment of maps is confessed to be so essential to the proper use of this work, it might, perhaps, have been expected that they would have been given with it; but neither the size nor the price would have admitted of them, except upon so small a scale as not to an-

swer the purpose; and it may be presumed, that few houses in which attention is paid to instruction of this kind are unprovided with a modern atlas.

I have not been very solicitous with respect to the order in which the different countries have been treated of. Arrangement is of no great consequence, except where it is founded upon a system essentially connected with the subject; but there is no systematic reason why one part of the world should be offered to the reader's consideration before another. A commencement has been made with Europe, chiefly because an European naturally regards his own quarter of the globe as the centre of all relations and comparisons, political and moral; and, indeed, its influence over the rest seems to justify this precedence in rank. The other quarters have been taken in their usual order; and the particular divisions of each have followed each other according to contiguity, with a general course of progress from

from north to south. Particular reasons have produced occasional deviations from this course ; but it is hoped the transitions will commonly appear easy and natural.

The main matter of this work is necessarily compiled from other books ; and it would be easy to give a long list of works on geography, and voyages and travels, that have been consulted. But this would be useless ostentation ; and I only request that credit may be given me for having used due diligence and judgment in the collection of materials, and for having seriously attempted to divest myself of all partialities and prejudices which might give a false colouring to my delineations. The style I have always endeavoured to make my own ; and I have freely indulged a spirit of reflection whenever I thought it could be employed to a good purpose.

No particular class or age of readers has been in my view in this performance. If it prove answerable to my intentions,
young

young persons of both sexes, at the period of finishing their education, may peruse it with advantage, as a summary of what is most important to be remembered relative to the topics treated of; and it may afford compendious information and matter for reflection to those of maturer years, who are destitute of time and opportunity for copious research.

C O N T E N T S

OF

VOLUME I.

	Page
THE World	1
Europe	6
Denmark and Norway	10
Sweden	26
Russia in Europe	42
Poland	63
Germany	74
Hungary, Transylvania, &c.	101
Switzerland	112
Holland	129
Catholic Netherlands.	146
British Isles	157
Great Britain	159
Ireland	199
Smaller British Isles	212
France	223
Spain	243
Portugal.	259
Italy	266
Italian Islands	291
Turkey in Europe	302
Asia	321
Turkey in Asia	324
Asiatic Russia	345
Independent Tartary	364

CONTENTS

ERRATA.

For *Glinbotin*, i. 304, read *Gliubotin*.
—*Gablonoi*, i. 347, read *Yablonoi*.

GEOGRA-

**GEOGRAPHICAL
DELINEATIONS.**

THE WORLD.

ON a general survey of the surface of this terraqueous globe, two circumstances can scarcely fail to strike the observer: the great proportion of sea, amounting, at least, to two thirds of the whole; and the disproportion of land in the two hemispheres, that in the northern being more than double that in the southern. The latter inequality long maintained a persuasion among theorists, of the existence of large tracts of undiscovered land in the southern hemisphere; but the researches of modern navigators, especially of the celebrated Cook, have entirely done away this supposition, at least with respect

to the latitudes corresponding to those in which the great masses of land on the northern side of the equator are situated.

If the circumstances above mentioned be not exactly conformable to what our previous conceptions of creative design might lead us to expect, we have no reason to consider them as derogatory from the wise purposes of the creator. The sea is peopled with animated beings as well as the land. As far as the interests of the human race are concerned, experience seems to prove that the quantity of land is fully adequate to any probable increase of mankind; for in all past periods, as well as at present, vast regions have remained either totally unoccupied by man, or very imperfectly possessed by him, although situated in climates the best adapted to his culture. The ocean, too, which an ancient poet has termed *dissociable*, has been rendered, by modern improvements in navigation, the readiest medium of communication between remote parts of the earth. The conveyance from Europe to China by sea is much easier than carriage by land one fourth of the distance; and a vessel will sooner circumnavigate

cumnavigate the globe, than a caravan will travel the length of the Russian empire.

Nothing can be more opposite to mechanical ideas of regularity, than the form and disposition of the land on the globe as moulded by the circumfluent ocean. Two main continents or continued tracts appear, of which, however, large parts are nearly severed from the rest, and the edges are singularly broken by projections and indentations. In many places, separations seem to have been entirely effected by the force of the water, producing the detached spots called islands; unless it be a more probable conception, that from a gradual shrinking of the fluid which once covered the whole globe, the elevated parts and prominent points of a subaqueous land have disclosed themselves as islands, peninsulas, and promontories.

Of the two continents, the larger, which from the earliest records of the world has been the seat of all science, was by the geographers of antiquity divided into three portions, usually called quarters of the world, and this distribution is still observed. The

other continent, a new discovery, has been considered as a fourth quarter; and thus the number, as referring to parts of a whole, has been completed, although with great disproportion of the several parts. The islands have been adjudged to those quarters nearest to which they are situated.

The Ocean may, with respect to its universal communication, be regarded as one; but for geographical purposes it has been distributed into portions, relatively to the lands between which they are interposed, or their position with regard to the poles and circles of the globe. The greatest of these parts, constituting almost one half of the surface of the globe, has had the appellation of the *Pacific ocean*, from the tranquillity observed by navigators in crossing it in certain directions. It fills up the space between Asia and America, and is geographically divided by the equator into northern and southern: the northern may be said to be bounded by the strait between the two continents: the southern has no definite limit.

Another great ocean is the *Atlantic*, flowing between Europe and Africa on the one side,

side, and the eastern coast of America on the other. Northward it joins the *Arctic ocean*, an appellation given to the sea between the northern shores of the old and new continent, and the north pole; an expanse rather of ice than of water. An *Antarctic sea* around the south pole has also been marked by geographers, but no land has been discovered to give it a natural limit. The *Indian ocean* is that tract of sea which lies between the southern coasts of Asia, the eastern side of Africa, and New Holland. All the other seas may be considered only as arms or branches of these. The *Mediterranean*, however, flowing between the three quarters of the old continent, and communicating with the Atlantic only by a narrow strait, may claim particular notice.

EUROPE.

EUROPE.

OF the four quarters of the world, Europe is considerably the least. It occupies a portion of the north temperate zone, from the 36th degree of latitude northwards: a small part of it, however, projects beyond the arctic circle. Its boundaries are the Atlantic and Arctic oceans to the west and north; the Mediterranean and Black seas with their communicating branches to the south; and an indistinct line of rivers and mountains, separating it from Asia, to the east.

The outline of this mass is extremely irregular, being broken into islands and peninsular tracts, and intersected by bays and gulfs. Of the latter, the most remarkable is the Baltic sea with its annexed gulfs of Finland and Bothnia, making a peninsula of a large part of the north of Europe. The German sea and British channel cut off the British isles from the continent. The bay of Biscay interposes itself between France and Spain, and, by the approach of the Mediterranean on the opposite side, forms a peninsula

pēninsula of Spain and Portugal. The Adriatic or gulf of Venice renders a similar office to Italy.

The internal part of Europe exhibits the variety of surface that is to be found in all large tracts of the globe. Its peculiarities will be noted under the head of each country into which it is divided. It will suffice in a general survey to remark, that the land rises into the highest mountains towards the south, especially opposite to the centre of the Mediterranean sea, where they constitute the Alps of Savoy and Switzerland; and that the eastern side, for the most part, consists of one vast plain, extending from the Black sea to the Northern ocean.

Within such a range of latitude great diversities of climate must necessarily exist, but the prevalent character of Europe is that of moderate temperature. Of the two extremes, that of cold alone is felt; the heat in no part can be compared with that of the torrid regions. In no part is the human skin blackened by the rays of the sun; nor does nature in any part yield those spontaneous
products

products which sustain the life of man without care and toil. To these circumstances it is probably owing that the men of Europe have at all times displayed more vigour and energy than the inhabitants of the other quarters of the globe; and that in arms, arts, and sciences they have for a long course of ages maintained a superiority, which the progress of improvement has rendered more and more conspicuous. Whilst European colonies and settlements are spread over the richest tracts of the world, and every coast is visited by ships from Europe, she keeps herself inviolate from all extraneous dominion, and is only known to the unenterprising natives of the east and the south by the awe she inspires. It is in Europe alone (that part of America which may be called European excepted) that the human mind is in a progressive state; that improvement of every kind is assiduously cultivated; and that the principle of liberal curiosity is active. Here only, in short, man appears in the full exertion of all the faculties of his nature, and attains his proper rank in the scale of beings.

With

With the European countries, therefore, as the most worthy objects of contemplation, and as chiefly influencing the fate of the rest of the world, these sketches will commence. We shall begin our tour from the north, that we may enjoy the satisfaction of seeing the face of nature gradually improve upon us in our progress.

DEN.

DENMARK AND NORWAY.

THE most northern part of Europe is distinguished by a vast peninsular tract, disposed in a kind of horse-shoe shape, of which the Atlantic and Arctic oceans form the exterior boundary, while the Baltic sea, with its branches, the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, separate it from the southern mass of continent. On the east it is joined to Russia by a broad neck, though a chain of lakes leaves but a small space of connecting land.

Towards the south-western extremity of this peninsula, another peninsular tract, but of small comparative dimensions, runs out to meet it; and some islands form steps, as it were, between the two.

This great portion of land, of which the part known to the ancients received the general name of *Scandinavia*, now constitutes the kingdoms of Denmark and Sweden, and makes a small addition to the mighty empire of Russia.

DENMARK PROPER consists of the smaller peninsula above mentioned, and its annexed islands. From the borders of the duchy of Holstein, in Germany, about lat. 54. 20. the countries of *Sleswick* and *Jutland* extend northwards, till they terminate in a point or beak, bending eastwards, in lat. 57. 40. This tract, about 220 miles in length, is very narrow at its southern part, but increases in breadth northwards, till it approaches its termination. The principal islands are *Zeeland*, *Funen*, *Laland*, and *Falster*, stretching across the entrance of the Baltic sea, to which they leave only narrow channels of communication. The largest island, *Zeeland*, approaches very near to the Swedish coast, from which it is separated only by the strait of the Sound. This is the chief passage to the Baltic, of which Denmark, from its position, holds, as it were, the keys; an advantage it employs to levy a toll, which is a considerable branch of its revenue.

All this country, together with the province of *Holstein*, in Germany, which belongs to the crown of Denmark, is a com-

paratively low tract, and in great part level. The most fertile parts are the isles of Zealand and Funen, the southern portion of the peninsula, and Holstein. Jutland has many upland moors, forests, and marshes, and is intersected with wide shallow lakes communicating with the sea. The climate is moist, and, for the latitude, rather temperate, though the winters are sometimes very rigorous. Instances frequently occur of the freezing of the Sound, so as to permit heavy carriages to pass on the ice over to Sweden. The season of spring is scarcely known in these regions, and the change is almost instant from winter to summer.

The common products of northern agriculture are raised with success in Denmark, and the different kinds of grain are grown in sufficient quantity to allow of exportation in good years. Flax is a common object of culture, and affords a material for home manufacture. Although the climate seems little adapted to fruit-trees, yet cyder is the usual beverage of the peasantry of Sleswick. The pastures are rich, and rear domestic animals of remarkable bulk. The horses and
horned

horned cattle of Denmark and Holstein are noted for size and strength.

The countries above described form by much the smaller part in extent of the territories under the Danish crown, which also comprehend the ancient kingdom of Norway and the remote island of Iceland.

NORWAY is a tract of country forming the western border of the great Scandinavian peninsula. It extends from the 58th degree of N. latitude to beyond the 71st, in an oblique direction, from S. E. to N. W. Its breadth is very small in proportion. At its southern end, indeed, it swells out into a breadth of 200 or 250 miles, which suddenly contracts about the 63d degree of latitude, after which it is only a strip of land between the sea and the hills that separate it from Sweden.

The long sea-coast is singularly broken and torn through its whole extent into numberless creeks and islands, generally faced with high rocky cliffs, having deep water at their bases. Of the inlets, not many are fit for the purposes of navigation, and the
7 streams

streams that run into them are mountain-torrents, impeded by frequent shallows and cataracts. Off the northern part of the coast lies a whirlpool, named *Maelstroom*, the dread of mariners; capable of drawing in small vessels, and whelming them in an abyss beset with submarine rocky points.

The chain of mountains, which may be termed the back-bone of Scandinavia, descending from the extreme north, forms the limit between Norway and Sweden, in one continued ridge, to the 62d or 63d degree of latitude, when it divides into two main branches; a western, keeping within Norway, parallel to, and not remote from, the coast, quite to its southern extremity; and an eastern, continuing the barrier between the two countries, till at length it enters and loses itself in Sweden. The Norwegian mountains, though rugged and savage, cannot compare in altitude with the Alps and Pyrenees, and decline in height towards the north. Notwithstanding the rigour of the climate, they are for the most part thickly clothed with pine forests. They abound in spiry crags and horrible precipices, and are pass-
able

able only in particular spots, by winding roads and hanging bridges, which are among the most daring works of human industry.

The only river of Norway which finds room for a considerable length of course, is the *Glommen*, which, rising in that lofty part of the mountainous chain called the *Dofrine hills*, takes a southern direction across the widest part of Norway, till it discharges itself into the sea opposite to the point of *Jutland*. Though it brings down a large quantity of water, it is rendered nearly unnavigable by shoals and cataracts.

Lakes are numerous in the southern part of Norway, and some of them of great extent. They occupy the bosoms of the hills or the valleys through which streams take their course, and often present very beautiful and picturesque scenery, which would excite admiration were it placed in a more inviting and frequented country.

Although the general character of this region is that of a rude and steril land, yet its southern portion has a large admixture of pleasant and fertile country, agreeably varied in its surface, well watered, and not unfriendly

friendly to the labours of the husbandman. The climate, indeed, renders the harvests precarious, and the grain is scarcely ripened by the short summer before the autumnal rains threaten its destruction. In the hilly parts the rearing of cattle is pursued with advantage. The native growth of the mountains, the firs and pines of different species, affords a source of wealth which, under proper management, would be inexhaustible. Wherever these trees are accessible, they are cut down and rolled into the next torrent, whence they are conveyed to the sea-coast. Part are exported in the form of whole trunks, only stript of their bark and squared; and part are converted into deal boards at the numerous saw-mills erected upon the banks of the streams. The tar and pitch yielded by the same species of trees afford other valuable articles of exportation.

Of wild animals, the bear, the lynx, the glutton, the fox, and various smaller quadrupeds harbour in the forests and inaccessible crags of the alpine parts. The Kolen-rock is celebrated as the head-quarters of that curious species of rat, the leming, which

at

at certain periods issues thence in innumerable armies, devouring every thing before them, till their course is stopped by the sea.

The sea-coast of Norway is frequented by shoals of fish of various species, which greatly contribute to the sustenance of the inhabitants, and afford employment to a number of hardy mariners. The rocky shores are particularly favourable to the breeding of shell-fish; and large quantities of fine lobsters are exported to supply the luxury of the English metropolis. Among the wonders of the deep in these regions have been enumerated fancied creatures of enormous bulk, which are now considered as the offspring of fable or gross exaggeration.

Nature has compensated the scantiness of her products on the surface of this country, by the abundance of its mineral treasures. The silver mines of Kongsberg in the south were long reckoned the richest of that metal in Europe, but have latterly fallen off in their produce. The iron mines in the same quarter are still more valuable. Copper is yielded in large quantity by mines in the district of Drontheim. Lead, cobalt, and a
c variety

variety of marbles and other useful stones and earths add to the catalogue of the riches of the mineral kingdom.

The island of ICELAND would, by its bulk, constitute an important part of the Danish dominions, were it more favourably treated by nature with respect to soil and climate. Iceland is situated in the northern Atlantic, far to the west of Norway, chiefly between the 64th and 67th degrees of N. latitude. Its size is variously estimated, but probably equals 260 miles from east to west, by 200 from north to south. Its coast is extremely rugged, deeply indented with bays and creeks, which form secure havens. Ridges of lofty mountains traverse the country, and give it a most desolate appearance, aggravated by the horrors of perpetual winter, in which a large part of it is buried. Fire and frost here encroach upon each other's limits. Some of the loftiest mountains are volcanoes, which, by their internal heat and sulphureous exhalations, keep their summits free from the snow and ice that encrust the neighbouring eminences. *Hecla* maintains

maintains a conspicuous rank among these terrific exhibitions of nature, and its eruptions have been some of the most copious and destructive that modern times have witnessed. It was, however, from another mountain that the prodigious deluge of lava proceeded, which in 1783 filled up large valleys, and turned the course of rivers. Fountains of boiling water, some of which form magnificent jets to a great height in the air, further attest the dominion of intestine fire.

This island, however, in many parts affords tolerable pasturage, and is not entirely unproductive of grain, though in quantities inadequate to the wants of the inhabitants. Its shallow soil, and the violence of the winds, will not permit the growth of trees beyond the height of shrubs. The deficiency of fuel is, however, in some measure supplied by the drift wood thrown by the waves on its coast. The rural wealth of the Icelanders consists chiefly in their kine and sheep. The former are small, and mostly hornless; the latter, on the contrary, have large horns, and often more than the usual number. Their wool is used in domestic

manufacture. Of the wild animals of Iceland, the most dreaded are the white or polar bears, which are frequently brought to the coast from Greenland or Spitzbergen upon ice-islands. Besides the mischief of importing these unwelcome visitants, the huge masses of ice stranded on the shore bring with them a degree of cold which starves the whole adjacent country for months till they are dissolved.

Iceland has long been famous for its hawks, used in the noble sport of falconry. The finest of these are reserved for the king of Denmark, who sends his falconer annually into the island to purchase them. The highest price is given for a large species of falcon, sometimes of a pure white. The capture of seals is a source of profit to the Icelanders; and the fish, which resort in great numbers to their coast, might be much more so, were they enabled to pursue the fishery with due advantage.

Another appendage to the Danish crown is the FEROE ISLANDS, a group situated between the Shetland Isles and Iceland, about
the

the 62d degree of N. lat. These are mountains steeply emerging from the sea, some of them indented by creeks forming secure harbours, and separated from each other by deep channels swept by rapid currents. About seventeen of these isles are habitable. Their shallow but fruitful soil yields barley, and good pasturage for sheep, with which they abound. The rocky cliffs are the resort of great flocks of sea-fowl, which tempt the inhabitants to extraordinary exertions for the sake of their eggs, flesh, and feathers. In no country is the hazardous business of fowling conducted with more skill and intrepidity; and the most tremendous precipices are either scaled from below, by men raised upon the poles of their companions, or are reached from above by those who are let down by means of ropes fastened about their waists. The delicate eider down is one of the most valuable articles to the fowlers. The surrounding seas are full of whirlpools, formed by the struggle of the tides and currents in the craggy channels.

The

The *Kingdom of Denmark*, comprehending the countries above described, ranks among the secondary powers of Europe. Its government is a monarchy, changed, nearly a century and a half ago, from limited to absolute, in consequence of the voluntary surrender of their liberties by the lower orders of the state, insulted and oppressed by the higher. It is, however, administered with mildness and moderation, and is restricted by legal forms. The established religion in all the dominions is the Lutheran. Its superior order of clergy is dignified with the episcopal title, but enjoys only a moderate degree of power or splendour. The peasantry in Denmark Proper are mostly in a state of vassalage, and in their manners bear the mark of their servitude. Those of Norway, on the contrary, are mostly free, and in their character and demeanour display the generous tokens of liberty. They are brave, frank, and spirited; and, notwithstanding the rudeness of their climate, are possessed of more of the comforts of life than most of their rank throughout Europe.

The

The language of all these countries is a dialect of the ancient Gothic, of which the Icelandic is reckoned the purest. The Danes do not stand high as a literary nation; their principal writings consisting of historical compilations, for which Iceland in the early ages afforded considerable materials. That remote island, indeed, like Ireland, seems in the confusions of the continent to have been a place of refuge for letters, and its treasures in poetry, history, and mythology have engaged the curiosity of modern erudition. The genius of the Danes at present is chiefly turned to commerce and economical improvement.

The capital of Denmark, *Copenhagen* in the island of Zeeland, is a noted sea-port: its name, indeed, in the language of the country signifies *Merchant's haven*. It is one of the best built cities in the north of Europe, and has a population estimated at 95,000 persons. Its port is well fortified, and in one of its suburbs are docks and arsenals upon a large scale for the royal navy, which is usually laid up here. Copenhagen possesses

ses an university and a royal academy of sciences, neither of much distinction. Its citizens are hospitable, and much addicted to social entertainments and public amusements. *Sleswig*, the capital of the duchy of that name, is a well-built town in the German style. *Kiel* in Holstein has a respectable university. *Altona*, on the Elbe, almost contiguous to Hamburg, in point of commerce and population is the second city of the kingdom. Of Norway the capital is *Bergen*, a sea-port with a moderate share of trade. *Christiana*, on the southern coast of Norway, is, however, the principal port for the exportation of the timber and metals of that country.

The population of the Danish dominions is small in comparison with their extent. The whole amount is reckoned at two millions and a half, of which Norway supplies only 800,000, and Iceland not more than 50,000. The manufactures of these countries are few, and only for domestic use. The exports are chiefly of native products; those of Denmark and Holstein being corn,
cattle

cattle and horses ; of Norway, timber in great quantity, silver, copper, and iron, hides, and fish ; of Iceland, dried fish, feathers, and skins. The Danish settlements on the coasts of Coromandel and Guinea, and in the West Indies, afford other articles of commerce, and increase the number of sailors. The shipping trade is considerable, and enables Denmark to support a respectable navy, manned with hardy and brave seamen. The public revenue is not large, but adequate to the expenses.

SWEDEN.

SWEDEN.

THIS country composes the whole interior part of the great Scandinavian peninsula, and constitutes its chief breadth. From its southern extremity in about lat. 55. 20. it stretches in a northern direction inclined to the east to nearly the 70th degree of latitude, and then, bending round, forms an eastern branch, which comes down to lat. 60. The gulf of Bothnia interposes itself between the two branches, and the gulf of Finland forms the separation between the eastern branch and Livonia. The Baltic sea, with its entrance, the Cattegat, washes the rest of its coast. Its inland limit on the western side is chiefly the great chain of mountains mentioned under Norway. This, however, ceases to be the boundary towards the southern extremity, and the two kingdoms are there separated only by an imaginary line. The eastern boundary on the side of Russia is partly another mountainous ridge, partly an assumed line. The greatest length of Sweden is computed at 1150 English miles; its
greatest

greatest breadth, including the Bothnian gulf, about 600 miles.

Sweden, in general, is marked with the rude features of a northern region. Of these features many are highly picturesque, and afford assemblages of rural beauty which, in a more propitious climate, would greatly delight the lovers of nature. Its surface is diversified with numerous lakes, some of great extent, large and clear rivers, torrents, and cataracts, dark forests, craggy rocks, and verdant dales. A striking characteristic of the country in many parts is the frequency of detached masses of rock, starting out of the ground, and imparting a singularly wild and rugged appearance to the landscape.

Of the mountains of Sweden, the principal are those which form the boundary ridge on the side of Norway, and may be reckoned common to both countries. Branches are in many parts sent off from this chain into Sweden, especially towards the north, where they constitute the Lapland Alps. The long ridge which separates Swedish from Russian Lapland, and terminates in Finland, is a continuation of this chain. In the south-west,
branches

branches proceed from the Dofrine hills, which overspread the mountainous region of Dalecarlia.

These high tracts give birth to numerous rivers which take a direct course to the Bothnian gulf on its western, northern, and eastern sides. One of the principal of these, the *Tornea*, entering the head of that gulf, is noted for the access it affords, though by a difficult and interrupted navigation, to the remotest part of Lapland, bordering on the North cape. In the southern part of Sweden the rivers run into the Baltic and Cattegat, but have generally a short course and broken channel. The most important of the Swedish rivers is the *Dahl*, which, springing from the Dofrine ridge, waters the province to which it gives name (Dalarn or Dalecarlia), and enters the gulf of Bothnia at its southern extremity, near the town of Gessle. It has a cataract near its mouth, rendered awfully sublime by the breadth of the stream and the wildness of the surrounding scenery.

The lakes of Sweden surpass those of most European countries in number and magnitude. The *Wener*, nearly 100 miles by 50

or

or 60, almost deserves the name of an inland sea. The *Weter*, in its neighbourhood, is equally long, but narrower. The *Meler*, which communicates with the Baltic near Stockholm, is a large expanse of water besprinkled with islands. Lapland possesses numerous lakes in the course of its rivers: that of *Enara*, near the North cape, is the most extensive. Finland is overspread with lakes in such a manner, that a great proportion of its surface appears to be water. Many of the Swedish lakes abound in fish, and are serviceable as means of inland navigation. They are frequently skirted with forests, which greatly add to their beauty. Forests are likewise common in other parts, supplying timber for domestic use and for exportation, and fuel for the numerous founderies and forges.

Although the great extent of latitude occupied by Sweden necessarily implies considerable diversity of climate in its different parts, yet the whole comes under the denomination of a cold country, and the gradation is only from moderate to extreme severity. The sea on its most southern coast is

frozen in hard winters, and the Bothnian gulf constantly becomes a field of ice in that season, and is regularly crossed by travellers in sledges. Between the long winters and the short summers there is scarcely any interval of spring or autumn, and the labours of agriculture are crowded into a short compass. The great length of the days in the northern latitudes, where for a certain time the sun never sets, produces extreme heat, which, however, is too fugitive to bring to maturity any of the more valuable fruits of the earth. The most favourable circumstance in the climate is, that the interposition of the Norwegian mountains defends the country from those gales which bring deluges of rain from the Atlantic upon the north-western coasts of Europe, and thus renders the weather steady and equable.

The southern part of Sweden, under skilful culture, yields grain in tolerable abundance; wheat, however, is a rarity beyond the reach of the lower classes, and rye, barley, and oats compose their principal sustenance. In unfavourable years even these fail; and it is not uncommon for the poor
to

to be reduced to mix a large proportion of the inner bark of the fir with meal, in order to make out their due quantity of unsavoury bread. Fruit-trees are scarcely seen beyond the southern provinces; the moors and woods, however, supply a variety of berries, which make an agreeable and salutary addition to the common articles of food. The pastures in general are lean, and the domestic animals are of the smaller size. The forests abound in game, both footed and feathered. In Lapland, a species of elk, the renne or rein-deer, which in a wild state is an object of the chase, by domestication is rendered the most valuable possession of the inhabitants, and the foundation of their rural economy.

Sweden is peculiarly a mineral country, and its riches in this kingdom of nature have long been assiduously cultivated. Gold and silver are found, though not in quantities which render them objects of profit comparable to the inferior metals. Of the latter, copper is one of the most valuable. The principal mines of this metal are situated in the province of Dalecarlia: that near the town of Fahlun

Fahlun has been worked during many centuries, and is one of the largest in Europe. Lead is also a product of the Swedish mines; but it is for the abundance and excellence of its iron that Sweden is particularly celebrated. This metal is widely diffused, and forms a very considerable article of commerce. The iron of the mine of Danmora in Upland is chiefly exported to England, where it is converted into the best steel. Cobalt, zinc, and antimony, are met with in different parts. Coal has been discovered, but as yet is little used, the plenty of wood supplying the present demands for fuel.

The Swedes are a people chiefly of Gothic origin, and bear the national character of frankness, bravery, honesty, and hospitality common to that race. They have more vivacity than is usual among the northern people, whence they have been termed the French of the north. They also resemble that people in an insinuating accommodating turn, which fits them for making their way, and also in a disposition to make the most of their merits. They are generally well made and robust. In their complexions they vary ;

vary; the prevalent colour in some provinces being dark and tawny, in others fair. The Swedish language is one of the dialects of the Teutonic, and differs from its sister-dialects in a greater proportion of vowels, with which many of their words terminate. It seems to produce a pliancy in the organs of speech; for the Swedes are remarkable for their readiness in acquiring foreign languages, and speaking them well. The peasantry are chiefly employed in the labours of husbandry and in working the mines. There being few mechanics by trade among them, most of the peasants exercise various handicrafts for domestic use, in which they display much ingenuity. The towns are inhabited by persons engaged in commerce. The nobility and gentry reside much upon their estates in the country, few being able to afford the expenses incident to a court and capital. No nation has at different periods been more distinguished for a martial spirit, and under some of their kings they were the admiration and terror of Europe; but the political circumstances of modern times have

sunk them in the scale of power, and their spirits have fallen with their consequence.

The northern part of Sweden is inhabited by a very different race of men, the Laplanders. The wide region called *Lapland*, or *Lapmark*, extends, indeed, into the limits of Norway and Russia; but the greater part of it belongs to Sweden, of which it occupies the whole district round the northern part of the gulf of Bothnia. This country, near the gulf, is chiefly composed of granite rock; but inland it consists of vast marshy forests, intermixed with lakes, and terminating at length in mountains.

The rigorous cold which prevails in this tract has stamped a peculiar character on the persons and manners of the people inhabiting it. They are a diminutive race, with large heads, narrow eyes, black hair, and swarthy complexion, speaking a rude and scarcely articulate language, apparently proper to themselves, but said to bear a resemblance to the Finnish. In way of life they are divided into the fixed and the wandering Laplanders. The first are settled in villages near the sea

or lakes, and are chiefly occupied in fishing. The second are a truly pastoral people, living in tents or huts, and keeping herds of reindeer, which constitute their principal wealth. These animals supply them with food from their milk and flesh; with clothing from their skins; and there is no part about them which is not put to some domestic use. In summer the pastoral Laplander keeps his herds on the mountains, where they feed on the short grass, and escape the insects, which are a dreadful pest both to man and beast in that season. In the long winters they are brought down to the forests and plains, where their chief sustenance is a species of lichen or dry moss, produced in such abundance as to cover and whiten large tracts of ground. This useful animal, which can only live in an intensely cold climate, serves the Laplander likewise as a beast of draught, and, being harnessed to a light sledge, conveys him and his goods over the frozen snow to the fairs held at distant towns during the winter. The eggs of water-fowl and various kinds of game afford other articles of food to these people; nor are they entirely un-

provided with bread and vegetables. Many of them live in a kind of rustic plenty which compensates for the dreariness of their climate and the solitude of their abodes. They know little of the obligations or restraints of civil society, and nothing of the hardships of war, for which, from their timidity and smallness of stature, they are totally unfit. They are weak, ignorant, and superstitious, but harmless, and not void of the ingenuity requisite in their modes of living. They have a kind of rude poetry, in which they address their mistresses, or recount their success in the chase. The whole number of this nation is not considerable, the population of their wild regions being exceedingly thin and scattered.

Another race of men distinct from the Swedes is that of the Finns or Finlanders, who chiefly inhabit the eastern side of the Bothnian gulf. They speak a language of their own, and are distinguished by some peculiarities of person and manners; but those who live under the dominion of Sweden are continually losing their distinctions. A large part of their country has been given up to
Russia,

Russia, and their present connexions are principally with that power.

Various islands in the Baltic sea and Bothnian gulf belong to the crown of Sweden, of which the principal are *Rugen* near the coast of Pomerania, *Oeland*, *Gothland*, and *Aland*. These are in general tolerably fertile and well inhabited. *Wisby* in the isle of Gothland was once a great seat of commerce, and is famous in history for having given birth to a maritime code of great authority throughout Europe. The duchy of *Pomerania*, making a part of Germany, and only politically annexed to Sweden, will come more properly in another chapter.

The government of Sweden is a monarchy, which at different periods has received different degrees of limitation from the diet or general assembly of the several orders of the state. In 1772 the late king, Gustavus III, effected a revolution which rendered the crown nearly absolute. The exertion of the royal authority, however, is liable to great checks from the representations of the diet, and still more from the influence of foreign potentates, who are able to purchase a party
among

among the poor and venal nobility. Few countries have more severely felt the evils of faction, or the interference of foreign interests.

The religion established in all the Swedish dominions is the Lutheran in its episcopal form. All other modes of worship were severely excluded, till the modern spirit of toleration began to spread to this country. So small, however, is the resort of foreigners to it, that the number of separatists from the national church is inconsiderable.

The population of Sweden is small in comparison to its extent, probably less than three millions. The class of nobility is very numerous, and several orders of knighthood have been devised for the purpose of attaching them to the crown by cheap honours. The military establishment has been disproportionally great under some martial kings; but neither the fund of population nor the revenue can admit of such extraordinary exertions without lasting inconvenience. Indeed, Sweden has generally been subsidised by the powers with whom she has co-operated in arms.

Stockholm,

Stockholm, the capital, seated upon an outlet by which the lake Maeler communicates with the Baltic, covers several rocky islands, and, from the mixture of buildings and expanses of water, presents a singular and romantic appearance. It is tolerably built, and moderately populous, being both the residence of the court, and the centre of commerce. Its harbour is somewhat difficult of access, but secure and capacious when entered. The port of Stockholm is supposed to possess above one half of the foreign trade of the kingdom. It has a royal academy of sciences, and other literary institutions.

Gottenburg, or *Gotheborg*, is the second city for trade and population: it is the seat of the Swedish East-India company, and carries on a very extensive herring fishery. A water-communication between this place and the capital has been opened, part of which is a canal made with great labour and expense. *Carlskrona* is noted as being the station of the royal navy: its docks, hewn in the rock, are works of vast magnitude. *Upsal*, the seat of an archbishop, is distinguished

guished by its university, the principal in the kingdom, and celebrated throughout Europe for the eminence of its professors. It had to boast of the illustrious Linnæus, who rendered it peculiarly famous for the study of natural history. It likewise possesses a royal academy of sciences. *Lunden*, and *Abo* the capital of Finland, are also universities of repute. Education is cheap and well attended to in Sweden, whence a certain degree of literature is widely diffused; but this is rather of the useful than the ornamental kind. Mineralogy, as being connected with the most valuable products of the country, and chemistry, as teaching the most advantageous use of these products, have been cultivated by the Swedes with peculiar ardour and success. The disciples of the Linnean school have done great honour to themselves and their country, by their travels into various parts of the globe for the purpose of making researches into the objects presented by all the kingdoms of nature, and into the practice of the economic arts. The native language of Sweden, being confined within her own dominions, has not much engaged the
the

the attention of her writers; yet works in various branches have lately been composed in it, which have obtained local celebrity.

Sweden possesses few manufactures: those of iron and steel are the most considerable. It makes some articles of clothing, but only for home consumption. Its exports are chiefly products of the country, such as planks, beams, and masts, iron, steel, and copper, pitch and tar, potash, and cured herrings. It imports part of the corn requisite for its support, and various articles of luxury. Its East India trade is of late years become inconsiderable. Its only colonial possession, the island of St. Bartholomew, affords it a small share in the West India trade. With the European states, its principal commercial connexion is with England, and next to that, with France.

RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

THE three northern powers of Europe, as they have been usually termed, are Denmark, Sweden, and Russia. A kind of equality formerly prevailed between them; but the latter has within a century past been so much augmented in power and consequence, that all balance in the north is destroyed, and the utmost that the two smaller can do, is to maintain their independence against the greater.

In point of extent, indeed, no empire, ancient or modern, probably could vie with that of Russia. Situated in two quarters of the world, it possesses a surface of country in each greater than that under the dominion of any single power of either. It has likewise the advantage of unbroken continuity between all the parts of its vast territories; so that expeditions may be sent from one end to the other, in a progress of months, and even years, without requiring the co-operation of any other government.

But

But the greatest part of this tract is a region of cold and sterility, in which the utmost exertions of man can scarcely afford him a tolerable existence. It seems, indeed, intended by nature rather for the unmolested abode of the furry and feathered tribes to which it gives birth, than for the habitation of beings, whose nobler faculties can have no scope for exertion amid lonely deserts, where the whole attention must be occupied in resisting the evils of cold and hunger. It is, however, the Asiatic portion to which this description particularly applies. The European part, properly the seat of the nation, is sufficiently favoured by nature to maintain, in the necessaries and essential comforts of life, a population, thin indeed in proportion to the space over which it is spread, but numerous enough to constitute one of the most powerful communities in Europe.

The boundaries of Russia in Europe, as now extended by conquest and annexations, are, on the north, the Arctic or Frozen ocean; on the west, Swedish Lapland and Finland, the gulf of Finland and Baltic sea, the

the Prussian and Austrian parts of the late Poland, and Turkish Moldavia; on the south, the Black sea and sea of Azof, with the country of the Nogay Tartars. Its eastern limits are its own Asiatic territories, of which the boundary line is not exactly defined; but the small river Cara in Samoi-edia, with the great chain of the Uralian mountains, make a tolerably distinct natural division between the two quarters of the globe as far down as the 56th degree of N. latitude: thence it is artificially made to the junction of the Kama with the Volga: that great river next forms the boundary as far as its nearest point of approach to the Don; the line then passes to the latter river, which carries it to its termination in the sea of Azof. Between the southern point of Krim Tartary, and the northern extremity of Russian Lapland, Russia extends from about the 45th to the 68th degree of N. latitude, or nearly 1600 statute miles: its middle breadth may be reckoned about 1000 miles.

The face of country in this wide tract is more uniform than in any other of equal

extent in Europe. It is in general a vast plain, rising to elevated ground towards the centre, but affording few appearances of abrupt hills or lofty mountains. To the south are extensive *steppes*, or sandy deserts, continuous with those of Tartary: the borders of the Frozen ocean in the north are chiefly flat dreary marshes: near the great rivers Don and Volga are extensive meads, of a rich black soil, impregnated with nitre: the more internal parts have the ordinary varieties of soil and surface in arable countries.

Of the mountainous chains, two only, and those on the borders, are remarkable. These are the mountains of *Olonetz*, running several hundred miles in a northerly direction, between Swedish and Russian Finland and Lapland; and the great *Uralian* chain, forming a natural barrier between Europe and Asia for many degrees of the northern limits. Neither of these in height approaches the Alps or Pyrenees. What are called the mountains of *Valdai*, which are crossed between Petersburg and Moscow, seem to be only a line of heights or uplands, no where rising to conspicuous summits.

Krim

Krim Tartary has a chain of hills on its southern part, overlooking the shores of the Black sea.

The middle elevation of the country gives rise to numerous rivers, some of great magnitude and length of course. Of these the principal is the *Volga*, which has its source in some lakes of the Valdai mountains in the government of Tver, between Petersburg and Moscow. It flows in a winding course, bending to the south-east, quite across Russia, and, after receiving the *Kama*, becomes the boundary between Europe and Asia: at length, below Tzaritzin, it makes another sharp turn to the south-east, and, entering Asia, passes Astrachan, and discharges itself into the Caspian sea. The whole course of this noble river is computed at about 1700 miles, and it is navigable nearly to its source. Of its numerous tributary streams, the largest are the *Oka* from the west, which unites the waters of the most central parts of Russia, and the *Kama* from the north-east, descending from the Uralian mountains.

The *Don*, anciently Tanais, rises south of the *Oka*, and, after a long winding southern

ern

ern course, forms part of the boundary between Europe and Asia, and finally discharges itself into the sea of Azof, the ancient Palus Mæotis. The *Dnieper*, or *Borysthenes*, the largest river of the western side of Russia, takes its rise in the government of Smolensko, about the 55th degree of lat., and, being joined by several considerable streams on the east and west, proceeds to the Black sea, which it enters by the estuary called the *Liman*, below the new city of Cherson. Into the same estuary the *Bog*, formerly a Polish river, pours its waters. The *Dniester*, which enters the Black sea more westward, now forms the boundary between the Turkish and Russian dominions: its source is in the Austrian part of Poland.

Into the Baltic flow the *Memel*, which rises in the duchy of Lithuania, and makes the separation between the Russian and Prussian part of the Polish spoils: the *Duna*, the sources of which lie to the north of those of the *Dnieper*, and which reaches the sea at the gulf of Riga: and the *Neva*, which brings the waters of the Ladoga lake to Petersburg,

tersburg, and enters the gulf of Finland below that capital.

From the northern part of Russia the rivers flow into the Frozen ocean. Of these, the most important is the *Dwina*, which has a navigable course of 500 miles to Archangel, where it enters that gulf of the ocean which bears the name of the White sea. The *Mezen*, which discharges itself into the same gulf, and the *Petzora*, forming a large estuary further to the east, flow through the desolate regions of perpetual frost.

The largest lakes of European Russia are those of *Onega* and *Ladoga*, lying to the north and north-west of Petersburg. The discharge of the latter by the Neva has been already noticed: the Onega has a communication with it by means of a small river. Russian Lapland and Finland are sprinkled with numerous lakes, some of considerable magnitude. In Livonia is the lake *Peypus*, which gives rise to the Narva river. Several lakes lie to the east and south-east of the Onega. On the borders of the *Ilmer* lake is situated the antient city of Novogorod.

A coun-

A country extending through 23 degrees of latitude cannot but possess great diversity of climate; but the name of Russia invariably conveys the idea of one of the cold regions of the globe. In fact, although its middle tracts lie parallel to Great Britain, and its southern run some degrees further to the south, yet its remoteness from any considerable expanse of sea, and its continental elevation, render even its finest provinces subject to extreme cold in the winter. It is only in the new province of Taurida, including the peninsula of Krim Tartary, that the vine, olive, mulberry, and other products of southern Europe can be cultivated with advantage. A large proportion of the Russian territory, however, is capable of producing the common grains, and the other articles of food for man and beast, which are the agricultural objects of the middle temperate zone. Even in the northern latitude of Livonia the harvests are sufficiently abundant to yield a large surplus for exportation. The southern plains near the Volga and Don are almost inexhaustibly fertile; and the meadows are so luxuriant in natural grasses that

no aid is required from artificial crops. Hemp and flax are grown to a great extent in all the strong soils, and afford important articles for commerce and manufacture. The common fruits and garden vegetables succeed extremely well to the south of Moscow. Forests, consisting of all the usual timber trees, overspread vast tracts in the central parts of Russia, and the pine genus grows abundantly, even in the high northern latitudes.

Of domestic animals, the beeve kind are numerous and large almost through the whole country. The sheep of the south and south-eastern provinces are most valued for their wool. The flocks of the Krimea, indeed, are coarse-woolled, but the lambs afford a fine fur. The breeds of horses differ greatly, according to climate. Those of Lithuania are distinguished for strength; those of Livonia for speed; while the Tartarian steeds excel in beauty and spirit. Among its domestic servants Russia may reckon the two very different quadrupeds, the camel and the reindeer; the former being used in Taurida, and the latter on the shores of the Frozen ocean—a striking proof of its vast extent! Of wild animals,

animals, the forests and unfrequented parts are inhabited by the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the elk, and many of the smaller kinds; but the business of fur-hunting is chiefly pursued in the Asiatic part of the empire.

In mineral wealth, European Russia does not abound. The mountains of Olonetz contain gold, but the produce has scarcely defrayed the expense of labour. Their iron mines are worked with advantage; and of this metal, and copper, there are valuable mines in the district of Perm, near the Uralian chain. A productive mineral tract also occurs at no great distance from Moscow. The district of Perecop, and the isle of Taman, in Taurida, contain copious springs of naphtha.

The people who inhabit these wide regions are, for the most part, of Slavonic blood, and of Asiatic origin: their progenitors were known by the name of Sarmatians. Long disunited among themselves, and in a state of barbarism, they were reduced in the 13th century to vassalage under the Tartars. From this condition they were rescued in the 15th century by their czar, Ivan Basilowitz, who, with his grandson, of the same name,

men of vigour and talents, though rude and ferocious, extended the Russian dominion, and made the nation known throughout Europe. Succeeding sovereigns, among whom Peter I. and Catharine II. were pre-eminent, not only enlarged their territories, but promoted civilization and improvement of every kind; and at length raised the Russian empire to the dignity of a first-rate European power.

The Russian national character appears to be marked with sedateness and tranquillity, mixed with liveliness and sociability. They are hospitable and good-tempered among one another, capable of strong attachments, sagacious, and patient of hardships. The servitude in which the lower classes live, and the despotic rule exercised over the highest, have made them supple, cunning, and crouching; and manly elevation of soul, with steady principle, are rarely met with among them. The ancient nobility have vast estates, which they reckon by the number of vassals with which they are stocked; and they live in a kind of rude magnificence, shunning the court and public employments.

The

The Russian peasantry are remarkable for their readiness in acquiring the common arts of life, several of which they exercise for domestic purposes. In the higher departments of intellect nothing masterly or original has yet appeared among them; which may perhaps be owing to their recent civilization. Their implicit obedience, joined with natural robustness of constitution and habits of endurance, renders them excellent soldiers in the modern practice of war, where mechanic discipline is more requisite than enthusiastic ardour. They shrink at no danger or fatigue, and are only to be conquered by extermination.

A singular circumstance in the Russian manners is the universal use made of hot and vapour-bathing, in which they support a degree of heat that would be intolerable to one unaccustomed to the practice. It is common among those of the lower class to roll naked in the snow after leaving one of these ovens; nor does it appear that they suffer from this violent change. Their fondness for the bath seems to have been derived from an oriental source,

source, to which many of their other customs may be referred.

The Russian language is a dialect of the Sclavonian, having no affinity with the current tongues of Europe, either in sound or syntax. It is difficult of pronunciation to a stranger, yet it abounds in vowels, and possesses considerable softness and melody. Russian literature is of late date, and is not likely ever to have the advantage of being judged and admired in the rest of Europe. It consists at present chiefly of translations; yet some original works in history and poetry have been popular in the country. The German language is much employed as a medium, both in commerce and science: indeed it is the native tongue of many subjects of the Russian empire.

The government of Russia is uncontrolled despotism in the person of a sovereign nationally entitled the czar, but known to other countries by the title of emperor, or autocrator. There is a senate, but it is only a court of judicature, and the legislative authority is an emanation from the throne.

Like

Like other despotic thrones, that of Russia has been subject to sudden and violent revolutions. Late events have shown that it is unsafe, even for so absolute a monarch, to sport with the habits and feelings of the nation; nor does it appear that the rules of succession are fixed and determinate. The late empress Catharine, though only the foreign widow of the emperor whom she had deposed, enjoyed a long and undisturbed reign after her son was arrived at manhood. The spirit of the government is entirely military, and all rank is adjusted by military titles. The empire is divided into governments, or viceroyalties, which are administered by persons with the rank of generals.

The predominant religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, a circumstance owing to its conversion to Christianity under the influence of the court of Constantinople. It has a numerous clergy, both regular and secular, the latter of whom are permitted to marry. A patriarch is at the head of the hierarchy, whose power, formerly dangerous to the crown, was reduced by the czar Peter. The Russian clergy are reckoned in
general

general very ignorant, and by no means exemplary in their morals. Their flocks are extremely superstitious, and their religion consists chiefly in a rigorous observance of the fasts of the church, and profound veneration to the pictures of their saints. A full toleration is granted to all the numerous religions which are professed by the subjects of the empire, and also by strangers who reside in it; but they are not permitted to make converts: and those of the natives who belong to the established church must always continue members of it. Every thing in this empire is done by command, and nothing is left to the decision of individual will.

The European part of the Russian empire constitutes so large a share of its population and consequence, that a political sketch of it may be given without waiting for the description of the Asiatic part. Out of about forty governments, 34 or 35 are allotted to Europe. The whole population, including the recent acquisitions from Turkey and Poland, has lately been estimated at 36 millions, of which number only about three millions and a half are assigned to Asia. The
armies

armies which the edict of the sovereign may raise from such a mass of people can scarcely be reduced to calculation: the standing troops of all kinds are stated at five or six hundred thousand. It was the earnest wish, or rather the ruling passion, of Peter I. to render Russia a maritime power; and it was with this view that he made himself master of the former Swedish provinces on the gulf of Finland, and founded Petersburg. But nature has opposed almost unsurmountable obstacles to this project. The few ports that Russia possesses in the Baltic are frozen up during many winter months; and it is only by a very circuitous and hazardous navigation that her ships can come round to her ports on the Black sea, and form a junction with any squadron fitted out from thence. The Caspian is still more remote from the centre of her power; and is, besides, a sea utterly unfit for vessels of force. Russia, however, by great exertions, has created a respectable navy in the Baltic; and her flag is now seen in the Black sea in sufficient strength to give uneasiness to the Ottoman Porte.

The Russians are naturally little addicted to a seafaring life, and their commercial navy is inconsiderable. The exportation of the country is chiefly carried on in foreign bottoms. The principal articles of export are corn, iron, timber, tar and pitch, hemp, flax, potash, tallow, wax, isinglass, raw and dressed skins, and manufactured linen. Many of these articles come down from great distances in the interior country, their carriage being facilitated by the system of water communication, which is more extensive in the Russian empire than in any other, that of China, perhaps, excepted. By means of the canal of Vishnei-Woloshok, which unites the Tvertza running into the Volga, with the Shlina, communicating by other rivers with the lake Ladoga, and thence with the Neva, goods may be conveyed without landing from Astrakan to Petersburg, a distance of 1434 miles, or from the Caspian to the Baltic. By means of rivers alone they may be conveyed from the frontiers of China to Petersburg, with the interruption of only about 60 miles: this conveyance, indeed, is extremely tedious. Russia has
many

many manufactures of her own for common consumption, but articles of luxury are for the most part imported from other countries.

Of the cities in Russia, the first place in point of population and extent is due to *Moscow*, the ancient capital. It has a central and pleasant situation, upon a river which runs into the Volga; and, though deserted by the court, is still the favourite residence of the old Russian nobility. *Moscow* occupies a vast compass of ground, being built in the open straggling Asiatic manner, and presents a singular mixture of mean wooden huts with spacious palaces and public edifices. It has a great number of churches, the gilded spires and domes of which afford a very striking and splendid prospect on the approach. Its population is stated at about 250,000.

St. Petersburg, the wonderful creation of Peter the Great, is situated on marshy ground where the Neva issues into the gulf of Finland, near the 60th degree of N. latitude. The maritime passion alone could have induced the czar to found a new capital for his empire in a place destitute of every natural

natural advantage, under a rigorous climate, and remote from all the best parts of his dominions. It has, however, continued to be the imperial residence, and the seat of all public business, and by vast expense and exertions has been rendered not unworthy of its high destination. Its palaces and public edifices are built in a style of massy and solid magnificence scarcely elsewhere to be paralleled. Its quays or embankments on the Neva are faced with blocks of granite, and seem calculated for perpetual duration. The city may be said to be yet in its infancy, as the great outline of its plan is very imperfectly filled; nor does its population, computed at 170,000, yet place it among the first-rate capitals of Europe. Its streets present an extraordinary and amusing spectacle of natives of the numerous nations and races composing this vast empire, as well as of foreigners from various countries of Europe, distinguished by their several habits and manners. The port of Petersburg is frequented by a great number of trading vessels, especially from Great Britain, whose merchants occupy one of the best built streets in
the

the city, and live in great credit. Large ships cannot get over the bar of the Neva, but remain at Cronstadt, a port in the gulf, twenty miles below, which is also the station of the men of war. Petersburg possesses all the accommodations and amusements of a luxurious metropolis, and its court is surpassed by none in Europe in splendour and expense. It has an academy of sciences, which has published many valuable memoirs; but its principal members are foreigners.

The next important place in a commercial view is *Riga*, the capital of Livonia. Its harbour is greatly frequented by foreign merchants, who export from it large quantities of naval stores, grain, and other products of the country. *Archangel*, the most northerly harbour on the European continent, notwithstanding the short period of the year in which it is accessible, carries on a considerable trade in the export and import for that part of the Russian dominions. Very large ships, built of fir and larch at a great distance up the Dwina, are among its exported articles. At the opposite extremity of the empire, on the Black sea, ports have
been

been formed in the Krimea and the adjacent territory, which are beginning to rise to consequence: of these are *Cherson, Kaffa, Sebastopol,* and *Odessa*. The latter is said at present to be the most flourishing, particularly in the commerce of grain to the Mediterranean.

The cities in the interior of Russia will not bear a comparison with those in the more civilized countries of Europe, either in buildings or population. In general, however, improvement is taking place, and agriculture, commerce, manufactures, and population are upon the increase. No country is more secure against foreign foes; it has no colonial drains; and its resources are too great to be lastingly injured by distant wars. Russia can scarcely fail of being the future *mistress of the north*.

POLAND.

of ; anisimum to nisho a by a chain of mountains to
 the west by no marked boundaries from
 the east by the river Dnieper. **POLAND.**

ALTHOUGH the modern political system of Europe has expunged the name of Poland from the catalogue of separate and independent sovereignties, yet the permanent marks of distinct language, manners, and face of country, still give it existence in a geographical view, and serve to discriminate its lacerated portions from the other parts of the dominions of those powers which have shared it amongst them. It may be added, that Poland is too frequently met with in the pages of history to admit of its being consigned to oblivion.

By Poland then we understand that large tract of country, which has for its northern boundary the Baltic sea eastwards from Pomerania, and the gulf and province of Livonia ; to the east it is separated from European Russia partly by an indistinct line ; and partly by the river Dnieper ; to the south, from Little Tartary by some small streams ; from Moldavia chiefly by the river Dniester ; and
 from

from Hungary, by a chain of mountains; to the west, by no marked boundaries, from Germany. It lies chiefly between the 48th and 57th degrees of latitude, an extent of above 600 miles. Its average breadth is about the same.

The general face of the country in Poland is remarkably level, its only mountainous tract being that bordering on the Carpathian chain, from which branches extend into the neighbouring districts. Other parts are diversified with hill and dale; but vast plains frequently occur, stretching beyond the reach of sight, and presenting continual ranges of thick forest, blackening the distant horizon. These forests particularly characterize the great duchy of Lithuania, an extensive country on the north-east of Poland Proper, and formerly united with it by a federal league under a common sovereign.

The principal rivers of Poland are, the *Warta*, flowing parallel to the Silesian border, and at length uniting with the Oder in Germany: the *Vistula* or *Wisla*, rising in the Carpathian mountains, and after visiting in a long course the towns of Cracow, Warsaw,

saw, and Thorn, discharging its waters into the Baltic sea below the port of Dantzic : the *Bug*, a tributary to the Vistula from the middle of Poland : the *Pregel*, washing the city of Konigsberg : the *Przypiec*, running through the centre of Poland in an opposite direction to the Bug, and joining the Dnieper on the Russian border. The *Memel*, *Dnieper*, *Bog*, and *Dniester*, are already mentioned among the Russian rivers.

Lakes are numerous in the north-eastern part of Lithuania and in Prussia. The sea-coast of the latter district is remarkable for two inlets of the sea, spreading into extensive but shallow sheets of water, and fenced from the waves of the Baltic by long narrow slips of land. These are named the *Frische* and the *Curische Haf*, the latter word being a technical name for such salt-water lakes.

The climate of Poland does not materially differ from that of Russia under similar latitudes. In the north, the winters are rigorous, and the ports and sea-lakes are hard frozen. The south experiences a great degree of summer heat. The soil in such an extent is, of course, very various. Towards

the coast of the Baltic it is generally shallow and sandy ; but the profusion of wood, with which so much of Poland is overrun, indicates a prevalent strong and rich soil ; and those parts in which agriculture has been favoured, are so productive as to become the chief granary of the north. The pastures of the southern parts feed cattle of great size. A large and ferocious breed of the ox, called the urus, runs wild in the forests of Lithuania, which also afford many other wild animals, such as the bear, the boar, the wolf, and the lynx.

The mineral products of Poland are scanty, as might be expected from the general flatness of the country. The tract bordering upon the Carpathian chain contains mines of copper, iron, and lead. At the extremity of a branch of these mountains, near Cracow, are the most extensive mines of rock-salt in Europe. They are wrought under ground to a vast depth and compass, presenting spacious chambers, long galleries, massy pillars, and even whole edifices hewn in the solid rock, which, when illuminated by lamps, afford scenes of extraordinary splendour,
from

from the reflexion of the saline crystals. Another mineral product which Poland yields in greater abundance than any other known country, is amber. This fine bitumen is dug up from a considerable depth in the earth on the shore of the Baltic, especially on a neck of land formed by the Frische-Haf: it appears in lumps of different sizes, and affords an object of commerce, as a material for works of ornament and curiosity.

The human race in Poland is supposed to be of Tartarian origin, and has an Asiatic resemblance. The Poles are a people of lively appearance and manners. Those of the higher class possess considerable elegance of form and demeanour. They are accounted active, brave, and enterprising, but rash and unsteady. The peasantry have been so debased by servitude, that they are only remarkable for fawning submissiveness. The language is the Sclavonic, probably in greater purity than the Russian dialect, abounding more in consonants, and more difficult of pronunciation. It is copious and energetic, and has been cultivated by native writers; but as it is so little fitted for learned purposes,

poses, or communication with foreigners, the Latin language is of general use among persons of education, and is often spoken by innkeepers and others of the middle class. Jews are very numerous in Poland, and occupy most of the situations in the inland towns in which buying and selling are concerned.

The government of Poland, whilst it subsisted as an independent country, was a republic with an elective king at its head. The republican part consisted in an aristocracy of nobles, in whom all the civil authority was vested; the inhabitants of towns being without any share in the administration, and the peasantry mere vassals attached to the soil. Endless factions were the result of this ill-balanced constitution, which were aggravated by religious dissensions. The majority of the nation were catholics; but the separatists of the Greek church, and of different sects of protestants, were numerous, and perpetual contests arose from the intolerant spirit of the establishment on one hand, and the resentment and struggles for equality of the dissidents on the other. The sword was frequently

frequently drawn, foreign potentates were called in on each side, and the Poles became accustomed to look beyond their own country for protectors. The elections to the crown were effected under the influence of foreign arms or foreign money; and Poland fell from her rank among nations. At length three neighbouring powers, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, who had long interfered in her concerns, began, in the sight of all Europe, to appropriate to themselves portions of the country which lay contiguous to their own dominions. Finding their usurpations unresisted, they were encouraged to extend them; and, finally, they were not ashamed to divide the whole among themselves, and entirely abolish the kingdom of Poland, once regarded as the firmest bulwark of christendom against the arms of the Turks. This last transaction took place in 1794. Stanislaus, the last king of Poland, died a pensioner in Russia.

The loss of a constitution that doomed the mass of the nation to abject slavery, and the rest to anarchy and civil war, was little to be regretted; but the barefaced injustice of the
act

act excited the ineffectual indignation of the rest of Europe. The friends of liberty particularly lamented that a new and greatly improved constitution, in which king and people concurred, was not permitted to be tried, but was expunged in the blood of its valiant supporters.

It now remains to take a view of the country in its present partitioned state.

The *Russian* part of the spoils has already been in a general way reckoned into the territories of that empire. In point of extent it surpasses either of the other shares. It consists of all the great duchy of Lithuania, and the provinces which lie between the rivers Bug and Dniester, and the former Russian border; a country particularly valuable to Russia, as augmenting its European territories in those latitudes which enjoy the most favourable climate. Like the rest of Poland, it bears all the marks of poverty and neglect, but is capable of being rendered a very productive country. It is reckoned to contain near five millions and a half of inhabitants. The towns are not considerable
either

either for commerce or population. *Wilna*, the ancient capital of Lithuania, is the principal: it is the seat of an university, which the Russian government is taking laudable measures to render respectable.

Austria has obtained for her share the tract consisting of Galicia and Lodomeria, with some other districts, now forming the province of Galicia and the Buckovine. This tract extends along the northern frontier of Hungary and Transylvania, and internally as far as the southern bank of the Bug. It is partly a mountainous and mineral country, but chiefly a plain, overrun with forests, and poorly peopled and cultivated, though capable of producing abundance of grain. The famous salt mines of Wielitzka, near Cracow, are comprehended in this division, and contribute greatly to its value. Among the towns of Austrian Poland are *Lemberg*, or *Leopol*, a place of considerable population, and *Cracow*, the ancient metropolis of the kingdom. The latter presents some appearances of former splendour amid ruin and desolation.

Prussia

Prussia Proper, or Ducal, though geographically included in Poland, has long been in the possession of the electoral house of Brandenburg, to which, in 1701, it gave the regal title. The annexation of Polish Prussia, with the whole country on the shore of the Baltic, almost to the borders of Courland, and to a considerable extent inland, has rendered the dominions of the king of Prussia on this side a compact mass, equal in consequence to the sum of all his other territories. Though, upon the whole, one of the least fertile tracts in Poland, it produces grain sufficient for a large exportation; while the possession of the sea-coast gives the command of all the foreign commerce of the country. The capital of Prussia Proper is *Konigsberg*, a populous city near the sea, the seat of an university, and carrying on a considerable traffic. More distinguished for its commerce is *Dantzic*, once an independent state, and the head of the commercial confederacy called the Hanseatic League. Its subjection to the Prussian dominion has diminished its consequence; but it is still the chief place of export for the corn
and

and other commodities of Poland. These, and the other coast towns, in their language and customs are rather German than Polish. To the share of Prussia has also fallen the late capital of Poland, *Warsaw*. This city, agreeably situated on the Vistula, is of moderate size, and contains many buildings worthy of a royal residence, but intermixed with those appearances of poverty and meanness, which announced the declining prosperity of the country before the loss of its separate existence.

GERMANY.

GERMANY.

THIS large and important portion of Europe is divided among such a number of sovereigns, native and foreign, and is so obscurely marked by natural boundaries, that it is a difficult task to describe it as a single country. Yet in point of name, language, and inhabitants, it possesses an unity of character which well entitles it to occupy a separate place among the territorial divisions of this part of the globe; and although its extreme limits are not easily ascertained, the great mass of which it is composed is sufficiently identified.

Germany, in a general view, is that country which lies between Scandinavia and its ocean on the north, the Alps on the south, France on the west, and Poland and Hungary on the east.

In ancient times the Rhine was reckoned the boundary between Germany and Gaul; and modern France has lately renewed that limit, although several districts on the western

ern side of that river retain the German language and manners. After the Rhine has reached the border of the Dutch provinces, an indistinct line between them and Germany runs northward to the mouth of the Ems; from which point the ocean takes up the northern boundary, only interrupted by the Danish peninsula, which commences beyond the duchy of Holstein. The German coast of the Baltic then succeeds, terminating with the extreme point of Pomerania. The eastern boundary thence commencing, is reckoned to leave on the German side Brandenburg, Silesia, Moravia, the Austrias, and Carniola, down to the gulf of Venice. But this line is rendered indistinct by the mixture of the Sclavonian with the German tongue and manners, and the extension of the Prussian and Austrian sovereignties into the lately obliterated country of Poland. The states of Venice then carry on the southern or Italian boundary as far as the country of the Grisons. This country, with Switzerland, constitutes the district called Helvetia, which has formerly been included in Germany, and still, by its manners and language,

guage, attests a close affinity with it. If considered as a distinct country, the northern limit of Helvetia is the southern limit of Germany, to the borders of the French territory.

Germany lies chiefly between the 46th and 54th degrees of N. latitude, but projects somewhat further at both extremities. Its greatest length may be reckoned 600 miles, by a breadth of 500. Placed about the centre of the temperate zone, it possesses in general a temperature between the extremes of heat and cold. The Romans, indeed, who viewed it from Italy, regarded its climate as rigorously cold; and, in fact, its contiguity to the vast tract of north-eastern continent renders its winters, even in the southern parts, very severe.

The northern part of Germany is mostly a low country, extending in wide sandy plains, and marshy tracts accompanying the course of the large rivers which enter the sea on that side. The first mountains that occur on proceeding southwards are the Hartz, in the territory of Hanover, famous for their mineral products. To the south-

east

east of these are situated the mountains of Hesse; and other scattered ridges succeed towards the Rhine and Mayn. The angle lying between the upper part of the Rhine and Switzerland, and comprehending the district called the Black Forest, may be regarded throughout as a mountainous tract. This hilly country also extends some way along the course of the infant Danube. On the eastern side of Germany, the whole kingdom of Bohemia is encircled with a mountainous chain, which on the east sends off branches to Moravia, communicating with the Carpathian mountains of Hungary. Southwards across the Danube occur the mountains of Carinthia, which have to the west the lofty Rhetian or Tyrolese Alps, scarcely yielding in height to those of Switzerland, with which they are connected.

Germany is watered by numerous rivers, some of them among the most considerable in Europe. Of these may be first mentioned the *Rhine*, although neither its source nor exit are contained in the modern Germany. Springing from several heads in the country of the Grisons and Switzerland, it quits the latter

latter country at Basil, and for a long space forms the boundary between the French and German territories. It then strikes off through the Netherlands, and at length, "losing its majestic force in Belgian plains," and drained by numerous branches and channels, scarcely struggles to the sea in an inconsiderable stream below Leyden. Regarding, however, the Waal and the Leck as its main streams, it enters the sea with sufficient dignity below Rotterdam. By means of these channels it affords a noble inland navigation from Holland quite to the border of Switzerland, through a well-peopled and striking tract of country. The Rhine receives numerous rivers from the western side of Germany, of which the *Mayn* and the *Nechar* are the principal.

Of the rivers that enter the German ocean, the first, beginning from the west, is the *Ems*, which gives a port to the town of Embden. Next succeeds the *Weser*, a river of much longer course, which unites several streams of the north-west, and joins the sea below Bremen. The *Elbe*, one of the largest of the German rivers, augmented by a great
conflux

conflux of streams from the central districts, flows by the famous commercial city of Hamburg, and thence in a broad channel seeks its exit on the western side of Holstein. On the eastern side of that duchy the principal of the rivers, which discharge their waters into the Baltic is the *Oder*, deriving its source from the distant foot of the Carpathian mountains.

The southern part of Germany is traversed from west to east by the *Danube*. This mighty river, taking its rise from the mountains of the Black Forest in Swabia, soon becomes a copious and navigable stream, and receives continual accessions on both banks, till, augmented by all the waters of Upper Germany, it reaches Vienna. At a short distance from that capital it becomes a Hungarian river, and visits a variety of provinces in its majestic course, till at length it finds a remote termination in the Black sea, under the Turkish dominion.

Germany does not abound in lakes. To the north, the principal are those in the duchy of Mecklenburg. The large *lake of Constance*, or the *Boden-See*, belongs partly

to Germany, partly to Switzerland. Upper Bavaria and Austria contain several lakes in the bosoms of their hills, but of no considerable magnitude.

Of the forests by which Germany was in ancient times so much overspread, there are now only detached remains. The most extensive is the Black Forest, occupying a wide rugged district near the Upper Rhine. The Hartz mountains and the country of Thuringia are thickly wooded; and in many parts of the middle and south of Germany extensive woods are to be met with, which the passion for the chase, so prevalent among the petty sovereigns of the country, has preserved from the inroads of cultivation.

The extent of Germany affords a sufficient diversity of soil and climate to admit of considerable variety in its vegetable products. In general, however, they are those of the middle and northern temperate regions, and wine is almost the only article which assimilates it with the south of Europe. The wine country begins about the junction of the Neckar with the Rhine, and accompanies those rivers towards their rise. The lofty and

and romantic banks of the latter, about Mannheim and Heidelberg, and in the district called the Rheingau, are clothed with vineyards, the produce of which is in high repute; though a tendency to acidity in the Rhenish wines testifies a deficiency of solar influence for the full perfection of that liquor. Austria also affords wine, some of which is of excellent quality. The northern part of Germany, from its sandy soil, yields scanty harvests, and chiefly of the inferior kinds of grain: it is, however, favourable to turnips and green crops. Great quantities of flax are grown in Silesia and the neighbouring countries. Many of the districts of the middle and south of Germany are very fertile, and yield in abundance the most valuable objects of cultivation.

Of the animals of Germany there is little remarkable to be observed. Among the beasts of the chase to which its forests give shelter, the wild-boar is a frequent inmate, reared to a large bulk by the plenty of mast falling from the oaks with which they abound. Westphalia is particularly noted for this species of game. In the more moun-

tainous parts the lynx harbours; and wolves haunt the recesses of the Tyrolese Alps, and the other wild regions of the southern border.

Germany is rich in minerals. The Erzgebirg, or chain of hills between Saxony and Bohemia, yield silver, copper, tin, lead, iron, cobalt, bismuth, and various rare and valuable earths. Those of the Hartz, in the Hanoverian territories, afford most of the above-mentioned products. The mountains of Hesse are also metallic, though their mines are less celebrated than the preceding. Bavaria has mines of silver, copper, and lead, and is noted for its salt-springs. The duchy of Wurtemberg possesses silver, copper, and iron; and the mountains of the Black Forest contain various minerals. Salzburg, probably, takes its name from its salt-mines, which are a great source of profit; it is also enriched by metals, and even yields a moderate quantity of gold. The lower mountains of the Tyrolese Alps are metallic; and among their products are reckoned gold, silver, and quicksilver. Silēsia, Bohemia, and Moravia, contain a variety of

of mineral treasures in their mountains. The same quality pervades the mountains of Carniola, Carinthia, and Stiria. The iron of the two last countries is particularly famous as convertible to the finest steel. The quicksilver mines of Idria are of great fame, and yield large quantities of that rare and valuable product. Their romantic scenery and deep excavations have called forth the descriptive powers, and exercised the imagination, of writers in poetry and romance.

The German people were considered as indigenious by the ancients, and from early times have borne a high character for bravery and the masculine qualities of the mind. They are in general frank and open, but inclined to be boastful and boisterous. In point of understanding they have usually been reckoned better adapted to exertions of industry and judgment, than to the play of the fancy, or the refinements of delicacy. Many of their late productions, however, display much feeling, and considerable force of imagination; but seldom under the direction of good taste. They have contributed their full share to solid erudition, and

also to those inventions of mechanical ingenuity which are so serviceable to the arts of life. They are indefatigable in their pursuits, and engage in them with a seriousness and sense of importance which not unfrequently lead them to laborious trifling.

The German language is one of the numerous descendants of the Teutonic. It is strong and copious, but rough in the sound, and involved in the syntax. It is spoken with the greatest purity and elegance in Saxony and the vicinity: the southern dialects are harsh and uncouth. The valuable works which have of late years been written in this language have caused it to be much more studied than formerly by foreigners, and it has nearly acquired the rank of one of the classical dialects of Europe.

Germany was the principal seat of the reformation of religion in the 16th and 17th centuries, and was a fruitful mother of new sects and opinions. The long religious wars terminated in a kind of partition between popery and protestantism, of which the former retained the chief possession of the south, while the latter, in its two leading forms

forms of Lutheranism and Calvinism, almost exclusively reigned in the north. Both were professed with the zeal and stedfastness inhering in the national character, and very little change in their several limits has taken place since the first partition. The different effects of the two religions have, however, become very conspicuous; for in point of learning and general information, as well as of industry and activity of every kind, the protestant states are, without comparison, superior to the catholic.

The political constitution of Germany is more intricate than that of any other European country. The territory is divided into a vast number of independent sovereignties, extremely disproportionate in extent and consequence, but all united into a kind of federal republic, having for its head an elective emperor. This election, at a vacancy, is made by a few of the principal sovereigns, named electors, in whom the right is hereditary. The great diet of the empire is composed of delegates from all the independent states, and it is their office to determine upon matters concerning the common body. They can raise an army of the empire, composed
of

of a certain quota from each state, and direct it against any refractory members. It is unnecessary to enter into further particulars relative to a constitution which has lost all its vigour, and now subsists only in name. The great preponderance of the house of Austria, in consequence of its large hereditary dominions, has long secured the imperial dignity to its representatives, and rendered the election little more than a form. It would probably have overwhelmed most of the lesser sovereignties, had not the house of Brandenburg, by the acquisition of the throne of Prussia, and by various accessions of territory procured by the sword, formed another centre of power capable of balancing that of Austria. These two are at present the arbiters of Germany; Austria being at the head of the catholic interest; Prussia of the protestant. There are still, however, many princes, respectable for the population and wealth of their dominions, who maintain a degree of consideration in the Germanic system, although unable to act independently. Of these the principal are the electors of Saxony, Bavaria, Hanover, and Hesse, and the duke of Wurtemberg. The eccle-

ecclesiastical states were formerly important, but the conquests and overbearing influence of France have reduced some of the principal to insignificance. The smaller states, and the independent cities termed imperial, now hold their separate existence by a very frail tenure, amid powerful and ambitious neighbours, who are likely, by war or mutual agreement, (as in the case of Poland,) to consolidate them with their own dominions.

We shall now take a separate view of the principal sovereignties into which Germany is divided.

AUSTRIA. The German territories of the house of Austria chiefly consist of the archduchy of Austria, with Stiria, Carinthia, Tyrol, and Carniola; the kingdom of Bohemia with Moravia; a small portion of Silesia; and considerable districts in Suabia. Much of this country is mountainous, abounding in picturesque views and romantic situations. The climate, except in the alpine tracts, is mild and agreeable; even in the northern provinces there is warmth enough to ripen the grape. The soil is productive,
and

and where agriculture is practised with due attention, its labours are amply repaid. The mineral wealth of these districts has already been touched upon. Were not the lower orders so much oppressed, (as usual throughout Germany,) the natural advantages of the Austrian dominions could not fail of producing general prosperity.

The capital, and the imperial residence, is *Vienna*, in Austria Proper, seated on the Danube; a large and populous city, chiefly inhabited by the nobility and attendants on court, persons in public offices, and those who administer to the usual wants and luxuries of a metropolis. It has an university, but the restrictions upon free enquiry inseparable from civil and religious despotism prevent it from rising to literary celebrity. Indeed, scarcely any capital in Europe is at present subjected to more rigorous restraints on printing and reading than Vienna; whence its intellectual character is of a low rank. Licentious manners and gross sensuality are said greatly to prevail in it. The inhabitants are variously estimated at from 250,000 to 300,000. From the proportion of houses
to

to people, it appears that they must be more crowded than in almost any other European city; which circumstance will probably account for the very high degree of mortality observed in it. The environs are beautiful, and abound in places of public entertainment.

Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is a considerable city, chiefly remarkable for the number of its religious foundations. Its university is much frequented as a place of education for the catholic clergy. *Gratz*, the capital of Stiria, ranks the next in size: it has an university; which advantage is also possessed by *Inspruck*, the capital of Tyrol. The other towns of the Austrian dominion are of little consequence; for manufactures are not flourishing in this part of Germany, and its commerce chiefly depends on the native products of the soil. Bohemia (which contains a large proportion of protestants) is the most distinguished for its industry, and has many manufactories of linen, paper, glass, and other articles. The only sea-port of the south of Germany, which just touches upon the Adriatic, is *Trieste*, a place of considerable foreign commerce since it has
been

been declared a free port by the Austrian government.

A general view of the strength and resources of the Austrian empire must be reserved till an account has been given of its Hungarian dominions.

PRUSSIA. The Prussian dominions in Germany consist of Brandenburg, part of Pomerania, almost the whole of Silesia, and a number of smaller principalities dispersed through the northern part of the country as far as the frontiers of the Netherlands. Brandenburg is the ancient possession of the house, from which it derives its electoral dignity. Its capital, and that of all the Prussian dominions, is *Berlin*, situated on the banks of the Spree, a river communicating with the Oder. This is a considerable city, distinguished by the beauty and regularity of its buildings, which, however, being in great part erected at the royal expense, are not inhabited suitably to their appearance. Berlin has a royal academy of sciences and belles-lettres, which has obtained reputation in the learned world by its memoirs. It possesses

sesses a silk manufactory, originally introduced by a colony of French protestants; but it is not a place of much commerce. The new built city of *Potsdam*, in its neighbourhood, surpasses the capital itself in architectural decoration. It has a magnificent royal palace, and in its plan and style of building bears all the tokens of a favourite residence. A royal manufactory of fine porcelain is one of its ornamental appendages. *Frankfort on the Oder*, in the same province, is the seat of an university. *Magdeburg*, the capital of the duchy of that name, is a handsome and flourishing city. To the south of it is *Halle*, celebrated for its university.

In Pomerania is *Stettin*, a commercial town and port at the mouth of the Oder. The fertile province of Silesia, the richest of the German territories belonging to Prussia, has for its capital *Breslau*, a well built and commercial city, deriving opulence from the linen-trade of that province, which is one of the most flourishing manufactures in Germany. It has also a great trade in the sugar-refinery, and a share in the broad-cloth
manu-

manufactory, which is followed to a large extent in several neighbouring towns.

Having already taken a view of the Polish part of the Prussian dominions, it will now be proper to consider the kingdom of Prussia collectively.

Elevated to its present rank of one of the leading powers of Europe by successive conquests, it is essentially a military state, and can only preserve its relative consequence, surrounded as it is by states more powerful than itself, by the number and discipline of its soldiers. A succession of warlike sovereigns, among whom Frederic the Great stands conspicuous as the ablest and most fortunate monarch of his age, conferred on the Prussian arms a reputation which rendered them the dread of all the neighbouring states. Their character is now somewhat sunk in the scale; yet no country of the same population maintains troops equally numerous and well-appointed. This necessity cannot but be injurious to its progress in wealth and internal improvement; yet a course of prudent administration and pacific policy has in
some

some measure remedied the evil. The soldiers are encouraged to marry, and every opportunity is given them to exercise industry compatible with their military duties. The government is absolute, but administered by fixed laws, which are generally respected. The state religion is the Calvinist: an unlimited toleration of every faith and sect however prevails, and no difference in civil rights is made between the members of different religions. Agricultural improvements are assiduously promoted. Manufactures are numerous, but few of them furnish articles for exportation. The Prussian commercial flag is now very frequently met with in the northern seas, and commands respect, although protected by no armed navy. The population of these dominions is reckoned to exceed eight millions. The revenue is considerable and improving.

SAXONY. The territories of the elector of Saxony consist of the duchy of that name, of Voightland, Lusatia, part of Thuringia, of Misnia and Henneberg. These are in general fine countries, rich in products, both

vegetable and mineral. The capital is *Dresden*, on the Elbe, a city famed for its neatness and elegance, and the pleasures of all kinds with which it abounds. Its cabinets of pictures and curiosities are the admiration of lovers of the arts, and attract many visitors. Dresden has likewise several manufactures. Its porcelain is reckoned more perfect than any other in Europe. *Meissen*, indeed, is the principal seat of that fabric. The environs of Dresden are very beautiful, and abound in vineyards.

Leipzig is an agreeable city of moderate size, celebrated as a centre of German literature, and known in the commercial world by its half-yearly marts or fairs, to which commodities are brought from almost every manufacturing country. Among its articles for sale are more books than are any where else brought into commerce; and a great number of German writers regularly prepare new compositions for the Leipzig fairs. *Wittemberg* has an university of great theological fame, as the birth-place of Lutheranism. *Freyberg*, in the mineral country of Saxony, is the well-adapted seat of a
minera-

mineralogical school, where the science is taught in its most improved state. *Weimar*, the capital of an independent prince of the Saxon line, is a kind of Athens of Germany, from the number of distinguished men of letters who make it their residence.

Manufactures are carried on with great spirit and intelligence in Saxony: those of thread, lace, linen, velvet, paper, and porcelain are well known in foreign markets. These sources of wealth, together with its natural products, have rendered this electorate the most opulent country in Germany, in proportion to its extent. In point of power it is, however, only one of the subordinate states, and is politically dependent on Prussia, by whose armies it has more than once been overrun and pillaged.

HANOVER. The electorate of Brunswick-Lunenbourg belongs to the royal house of Great Britain. Its capital is *Hanover*, a neat city, but of no great consequence. *Gottingen* is the seat of an university, which has latterly acquired great renown by the advantages it affords for education, and the celebrity

brity of its professors. The most valuable products of this electorate are those of its mines in the Hartz forest. It possesses a fine breed of horses for cavalry and the draught. Its connexion with the crown of England has been disadvantageous to both countries. Unable to defend itself from a powerful foe, and lying out of the reach of protection from its British sovereign, it has either been defended by expensive alliances, or has fallen a sacrifice to disputes in which it had no concern.

HESSE. The landgrave and elector of Hesse, whose capital is *Cassel*, possesses a territory of moderate extent and fertility, with a population of hardy and warlike subjects, from whose hire, as mercenary troops, he is accustomed to derive a considerable revenue.

BAVARIA. The electorate of Bavaria, now joined to the palatinate of the Rhine, constitutes the principal secondary power to the south of the river Mayn. The upper part of Bavaria is a mountainous and woody
country,

country, affording various metals and minerals. Lower Bavaria is more fertile, and richer in agricultural products. The inhabitants are chiefly catholics, and little distinguished either for literature or ingenious arts. *Munich*, the capital, is a small but elegant city. The Palatinate is a fine tract, abounding in vineyards, and enriched by an industrious population. The protestant religion prevails in it. *Manheim* is its capital. *Heidelberg*, in the centre of the wine country, denotes its traffic by its celebrated tun, one of the curiosities of Germany.

WURTEMBERG. The duchy of this name forms the next state in point of consequence in this part of Germany. The country is populous, and flourishes by means of its mineral and other products. Its chief towns are *Stutgard* and *Tubingen*; the latter is one of the protestant universities.

It is common to all the sovereignties of Germany, great and small, to have assemblies of states, composed of different orders, which are images of the ancient mixed governments, and serve as some check to the

monarchical power of the head. There are likewise appeals to the general body of the empire in case of oppression or abuse; yet upon the whole it cannot be said that true political liberty exists in any of the German principalities.

IMPERIAL CITIES. There remains another species of civil community in Germany, that of the Free or Imperial Cities, which are a kind of independent republics, governed by their own magistrates, but forming parts of the Germanic body. Many of these, by virtue of their freedom, have become wealthy and populous through commerce. The most considerable of them at present is *Hamburg*, situated near the mouth of the Elbe, and the principal seat of foreign commerce in Germany. Its trade is general; but it is particularly the mart for the West India products, and other commodities with which Great Britain supplies the northern parts of Germany. Its population is reckoned to amount to nearly 100,000 persons, who are crowded within a small space for the sake of protection from the fortifications.

tions. The city, in its buildings and modes of living, displays many marks of opulence, but few of taste or elegance. Its environs are enlivened with the villas of the rich citizens.

Lubeck, built on an inlet from the Baltic, was formerly a maritime republic of great power and importance, but is much fallen off from its ancient splendour. *Bremen*, on the Weser, is rich, populous, and commercial. It has particular connexions with the elector of Hanover, who possesses considerable property in it. *Frankfort on the Mayn* holds a high rank among the German cities for commercial opulence, united with elegance and the pleasures of cultivated society. Its fairs are not less celebrated than those of *Leipzig*. *Nuremberg* is famous for its ingenious works of minute industry, such as toys, prints, and various mechanical curiosities. *Ratisbon*, or *Regensberg*, on the Danube, is distinguished as the place for holding diets of the empire.

In the progress of annexation, which seems at present to be the system of the

leading powers of Germany, it can scarcely be doubted that these rich but feeble communities will be among the first objects to tempt the hand of rapacious violence. The obnoxious example of their republican constitutions will be an additional motive for their extinction.

was formerly a maritime power and importance, but is much fallen off from its ancient splendour. It is now on the West, is rich, populous, and commercial. It has particular connexions with the elector of Hanover, who possesses considerable property in it. Frankfurt on the Main holds a high rank among the German cities for commercial opulence, united with elegance and the pleasures of cultivated society. Its fairs are not less celebrated than those of Leipzig. Nuremberg is famous for its intricate works of minute industry, such as toys, pins, and various mechanical curiosities. Nuremberg, or Regensburg, on the Danube, is distinguished as the place for holding diets of the empire.

In the progress of annexation, which seems at present to be the system of the leading

HUNGARY, WITH TRANSYLVANIA,
AND THE
NEIGHBOURING PROVINCES.

THIS tract of country, though composing a part of the Austrian dominions, possesses sufficient geographical distinction to claim notice as a separate division of Europe. Its local circumstances have for many ages given to the greater part of it an uniform independent existence in the catalogue of nations. The exterior parts, indeed, have alternately fallen under the dominion of different masters; but a christian kingdom bordering upon a mahometan one, and strongly discriminated from it by perpetual hostility and contrasted manners, has subsisted through all the periods of modern history under the name of the Hungarian.

The boundaries of Hungary and its annexed provinces are, to the north and east, the great Carpathian chain of mountains, stretching from the borders of Moravia to the confines

fines of Transylvania with Moldavia: from that point a branch descends in a south-westerly direction separating the rest of Transylvania and the Bannat of Temeswar from Walachia. This almost reaches the Danube, which river becomes its southern boundary till it is joined by the Save near Belgrade. The Save then separates the Austrian from the Turkish territory almost to the bounds of Croatia. Ridges of mountains and indistinct lines form the western limit, dividing Croatia and Hungary from the German provinces of Austria, up to the confines of Moravia.

The country thus circumscribed lies chiefly between the 45th and 49th degrees of N. latitude: its extent from east to west is more considerable. The districts of which it is composed are, the kingdom of Hungary, occupying all the northern and the principal part; Transylvania on the east; and Croatia, Sclavonia, and the Bannat on the south.

The general character of this portion of Europe is that of a low and level country, as might be inferred from the number of rivers which take their course through it.

The

The Carpathian or Crapack mountains, however, which form its grand northern barrier, imprint upon all the tract called Upper Hungary a hilly, and in some parts an alpine, character; which is also extended to the greater part of Transylvania. Branches from this ridge run southwards in several parts, usually accompanied with mineral treasures, which will in the sequel be particularised.

The great river *Danube* is one of the leading features of this country, to all the waters of which it gives a discharge. It enters Hungary a little to the east of Vienna, and soon washes the walls of Presburg its modern, and of Buda its ancient capital. Somewhat above the latter city it turns short to the south, and penetrates quite through Hungary to the borders of Sclavonia. Then, compelled to a new direction by the influx of the *Drave*, coming from Carinthia, it turns again to the east. The junction of the *Theiss*, which crosses all Hungary from the north, again gives it a southern direction; but the *Save*, coming in soon after from the west, renews its eastern course, which it holds till it enters the Turkish dominions.

The tributary rivers above mentioned unite almost all the other streams of these regions, and transmit them to the grand trunk of the Danube.

Hungary has two considerable lakes; the *Platen-See*, and the *Neusidler*, both on its western side, south of the Danube. They are accompanied with morasses and marshes, which are also frequent in the tracts of the great rivers.

In climate, Hungary approaches to the southern countries of Europe, although its inland situation exposes it to severe cold in the winter, by which its rivers are often frozen up. Its summer heats are very considerable, and often productive of those diseases which so generally attend high degrees of warmth accompanied with the effluvia of marshes and stagnant waters. All the rivers, except the Danube, are said to become fœtid in the hot season.

Hungary abounds in pastures, which are accounted poor, probably through overstocking or neglect; for the soil can scarcely fail of being rich in a country so well watered. The abundance of its products, indeed, proves
that

that there can be no defect of natural fertility. The hills in Upper Hungary, sheltered to the north by the Carpathian ridge, are favourable to the growth of vines. The wine made in the district about Tokay is of high repute for richness and strength, and is reserved for the luxury of the superior classes throughout Europe. Other parts of Hungary, as well as Transylvania and Croatia, are also productive of wine. The neglect of agriculture has left large tracts overspread with wood, which are stocked with wild animals of various species. The spacious pastures feed numerous herds of horned cattle. Horses are reared in great numbers; but for want of due attention the breed is small. The sheep have generally long spiral horns and hairy fleeces. The rivers abound in fish of the larger kinds.

Thus plentifully supplied as these countries are with the wealth of the surface of the earth, they also largely share in the riches contained in its bowels. The mines of the northern part of Hungary and Transylvania are the most considerable in the Austrian dominions. At Kremnitz are mines of gold and silver.

Shemnitz

Shemnitz has valuable mines of the latter metal; and the whole circumjacent country is mineral, yielding copper, antimony, coal, salt, and alum. That beautiful gem, the true opal, is a peculiar product of this part of Hungary, and is found in no other country. The mines of Nayag in Transylvania are rich in gold, together with various other metals. Gold is found in several other parts of that province; and valuable minerals of different kinds accompany the branches which descend from the Carpathian chain into the Bannat. In copper, Hungary and its provinces are accounted richer than any other European country. Its iron mines are inexhaustible; and it would be capable of supplying all the Austrian empire with salt, were it not too distant for carriage. Mineral waters, the usual attendants on metallic ores, are frequent in Hungary. The art of mining and the processes belonging to metals are conducted with much intelligence in these countries; and a mineralogical school, inferior only to that of Freyberg in Saxony, is established at Shemnitz,

The people inhabiting Hungary and the
connect-

connected provinces are various in their derivation and language. The original Hungarians, descended from the ancient Magiars or Ugurs, chiefly inhabit the flat country, and are averse to residence in towns: they speak a dialect approaching to the Finnish. The most numerous are the people of Sclavonian blood and language, who are divided into different tribes and dialects under the several names of Slaves, Slowacks, Rascians, and Croats. The Germans and Transylvanians at the foot of the Carpathian mountains were colonists introduced for the purpose of working the mines. They retain the German language, and generally profess the Lutheran religion. The commerce of the country is chiefly in the hands of Rascians, Greeks, and Jews, the latter of whom are numerous. The national farms are mostly held by Armenians, who also are the keepers of inns and coffee-houses. A number of zigeuner or gipsies wander about the country in their usual disorderly mode of living. A remarkable species of population is that of a line of husbandmen on the
frontier

frontier from the Save to the Danube, regimented and trained to arms, who form a kind of living barrier against inroads from the border banditti under the Turkish dominion.

The Hungarians of Slavonian race are a martial and spirited people, inured to war by their proximity to a natural foe, and accustomed to the assertion of their national privileges against the tyranny and usurpation of their Austrian sovereigns. The government is a monarchy, formerly elective, like that of Poland, but now hereditary in the house of Austria. The states of the kingdom are a kind of aristocratic senate, constitutionally possessed of considerable powers, but ill secured from the force or influence of the monarch. The nobility are very numerous, and possessed all the oppressive authority over the peasantry common to the feudal countries, till it was abridged by the late emperors Joseph and Leopold. The established religion of Hungary is the Roman catholic; but the members of the Greek and Lutheran churches are numerous, and enjoy a tole-

a toleration. Manufactures do not flourish in this country, and the foreign commerce consists chiefly in the products of the soil and mines. Great numbers of the Hungarian gentry serve in the Austrian army, and form the most esteemed part of the cavalry. The Croats and other borderers are well known as the irregular troops and pillagers in that service.

The present capital of Hungary is *Presburg* or *Posen*, a city of small magnitude, finely situated on the Danube. *Buda*, or *Offen*, the ancient capital, is larger and more populous than *Presburg*, if *Pest*, on the opposite bank of the Danube, be included. The latter place is the seat of the only university in Hungary. Several other towns, indeed, possess public schools or colleges; but instruction is in a low state in this country, and its literary reputation is small. The mining towns *Kremnitz* and *Shemnitz* are visited by curious travellers, on account of the employments of the inhabitants. *Hermanstadt*, the capital of Transylvania, is the chief seat of the Saxon colony of that province.

The

The population of Hungary and its dependencies is estimated at upwards of 7,700,000. This kingdom, and the German territories of Austria, constitute the great mass of the power of that house. Its other possessions, consisting of the former Venetian territory in Italy, and of Dalmatia, are only small portions of countries which will hereafter be treated of separately. The present will, therefore, be the fittest occasion to give a summary view of this powerful empire. It should be premised, that since the present ruler of France has assumed the dignity of an hereditary emperor, the head of the house of Austria, before only the *elected* emperor of Germany, has chosen to constitute himself also an *hereditary* emperor over his own proper dominions.

The loss of the Catholic Netherlands, though inadequately compensated by the acquisition of the states of Venice, has given a compactness to the Austrian dominions which they before wanted, and has cut off a frequent cause of wars and civil dissensions; so that this empire has rather been a gainer by the exchange. Its possessions,
in

in point of extent and value of territory, rank among the most considerable under an European potentate, and their population is fully proportional. By the latest estimates, the inhabitants of the whole, exclusive of the Venetian territory, amount to a little more than twenty millions. Of these, many are among the bravest and most robust nations of Europe; and no modern military establishment, till the late prodigious exertions of the French, could vie with the Austrian in the number and excellence of the troops. The revenues are considerable; but the total want of naval power, and a degree of narrowness in the system of government, are unfavourable to commercial prosperity, on which modern wealth so much depends. The weight of Austria in the European scale cannot fail to be great; and though powerfully checked by France on one side, and Russia and Prussia on another, she has full scope for future aggrandisement on the side of Turkey.

SWITZER-

SWITZERLAND.

IN all ages of the world it has been seen that certain small states have secured to themselves a place in the catalogue of nations by their eminence in arts or arms, or by peculiar circumstances of their policy, which they could not have claimed from the extent or opulence of their territory. In modern Europe, Switzerland is a remarkable example of this fact. Possessed of a small and rugged tract of country, without foreign commerce, with little distinction from science, art or literature, the Swiss have made themselves known and respected chiefly by their spirited acquisition and resolute defence of independence and civil liberty.

The ancient Helvetia, on account of its position with respect to the Rhine, was by the Romans reckoned a part of Gaul. Modern Switzerland, with the country of the Grisons, in language and manners may rather be considered as appertaining to Germany.

many. Its chief political connexions have been with the house of Austria, from the tyrannical dominion of which it broke off when it asserted its independence. Nature befriended this country in its claim to a separate existence; for though its boundaries on the German side are not precisely defined by natural limits, yet on the whole it possesses a strongly-marked local character, being a region overspread with mountainous ridges, presenting formidable barriers against an invader, and calculated to breed a hardy race of people, suited to the defence of their "rocky ramparts."

Switzerland, including under this denomination the country of the Grisons, and all the dependent districts of both, is bounded on the north and north-east by Germany, on the south and south-east by Italy, on the west by France. It lies chiefly between latitudes 45. 50. and 47. 40. Its extent from north to south is about 130 English miles, from east to west, about 200.

The face of country within this compass is by no means uniform; for the northern and western parts have considerable level

tracts, while the southern and eastern, comprehending the greater portion of the whole, consist almost entirely of branches of the Alps, with the interposition of narrow valleys. The celebrated mountainous chain which constitutes the *Alps* properly so called, extends in a wide semicircle round the northern boundary of Italy, from the gulf of Genoa to the Adriatic. The Swiss Alps are the northern part of this chain. They run for the most part in parallel ridges from south-east to north-west, interrupted in various places, and sending off shoots in different directions. In some parts they rise to very lofty summits, though not equal to the highest of Savoy. They are throughout of a rocky nature, commonly naked and spiry about the summit, with a middle girdle of green pasture, and clothed at the base with woods of fir. From a distance they seem to form detached pyramids, but on approach they are seen to be composed of ridges, of which some parts are more elevated than the others. Even the interjacent valleys are often very high ground, and bear the rugged mountainous character. An extensive chain of hills, which,

which, though they would elsewhere be regarded as lofty, are tame and humble compared to the Alps, is the *Jura*, forming part of the fence to Switzerland on the French border.

In the bosom of the Alpine region are formed numerous lakes, the reservoirs of the waters collected from the atmosphere by the attraction of the mountains. These are clear and deep; and, by the contrast of their smooth bright surface with the rude rocks and gloomy woods with which they are usually environed, afford scenes of exquisite beauty and picturesque effect. The most considerable of the lakes are those of *Constance*, on the borders of Germany, the most extensive of all; of *Geneva*, called the *Leman lake*, the next in size, and the first in fame, spread out between Switzerland and Savoy, in a rich country distant from the Alps; part of the lakes of *Locarno* and *Lugano*, which rather belong to Italy; the lakes of *Zurich*, *Lucerne*, *Thun*, *Brientz*, and *Neufchatel*, chiefly embosomed in the mountains. There are many more which would excite notice in a country less fertile

in the beauties of nature. The glaciers, or ice valleys, subjacent to some of the highest summits, and affording the resemblance of an agitated sea suddenly fixed by the power of frost, may be ranked among the watery reservoirs of this country. An icy crust clothes some of the loftiest pinnacles, and descends their sides, giving the appearance of eternal snow; while the fresh accumulations of winter's snows lodging in the cavities, afford perpetual supplies to summer rills and torrents.

Of the springs of his native country the illustrious Haller says, "I never recollect out of Switzerland to have seen those limpid and truly crystalline waters which gush, unpolluted by any earth, strained through the pure flints of our rocks." From these, and the sources above mentioned, rivers are generated for the supply of a great portion of Europe. The *Rhine* has its principal head in a glacier among the Alps of the Grisons: this infant stream is joined by two others springing from the Swiss Alps; after which it takes its course along the eastern side of the Grison country, till it mingles its waters
with

with those of the lake of Constance. It issues again from the western side of that lake, and, coasting the northern border of Switzerland, at length leaves the country at Basil, and turns into Germany. During its course through these regions it never lays aside a kind of savage character, leaping down cataracts, and hurrying through rapids, so as to be little fitted for the purposes of navigation.

The *Rhone*, rising not far from one of the Swiss sources of the Rhine, takes an opposite direction, and, flowing in a western course through the rich valley of the Valais, pours its waters into the Lemman lake. Soon after its outlet at the opposite end of the lake, it changes its country, and becomes a French river.

The springs of the *Aar*, a river confined to Switzerland, are among its loftiest central Alps. In its course it passes through the lakes of Brientz and Thun, and then, washing the city of Bern, takes a winding way to unite with the Rhine on the northern border of Switzerland. The *Reuss* from the lake of Lucerne, and the *Limmat* from that

that of Zurich, join it before it is lost in the Rhine. The *Inn*, a considerable tributary to the Danube; and the *Adda*, which swells the stream of the Po, both rise in the Grison country. Thus the Helvetian waters are conveyed to the German sea, the Mediterranean, the Adriatic, and the Euxine.

Although no country in Europe affords more in its scenery to delight and astonish the lover of nature than Switzerland, yet it is in many respects unfavourable to the comfort and enjoyment of the settled inhabitant. Its climate is extremely unequal, and subject to sudden and violent changes. A region of lofty mountains is necessarily a nursery of storms and tempests; and the general elevation of the land exposes it to rigorous cold and protracted winter, contrasted with the summer heat of a southern latitude, often locally augmented by the reverberation of the solar rays, and the stagnation of air in narrow inclosed valleys. The soil of the Alpine tracts is stony and meagre, and the plains and dales among the hills are generally boggy. There are, indeed, in the lower and more level parts of the country, tracts
of

of fertile land, adapted to every agricultural purpose; but, for the most part, valuable products are obtained only at the expense of great exertions of skill and labour.

Switzerland in general is a country of pasturage; its most elevated plains affording food to the herds of cattle during the midst of summer, while the lower meadows yield plentiful crops of excellent hay. The natural products of the vegetable kingdom in this country are remarkably numerous and varied, and its wild and medicinal plants are supposed to possess a superior degree of virtue and fragrance. The Flora, or vegetable catalogue, of Switzerland is one of the most copious in Europe; for, while the highest summits produce the plants of Lapland or Spitzbergen, the sheltered vales give birth to those of Spain and Italy. So near to each other in some parts are these different sites, that Haller has given an instance where, within half a day's journey, the botanist may gather the natives of countries from the 40th to the 80th degree of latitude. The cultivated vegetables partake of the variety consequent upon these diversities of climate.

Barley is grown to the very edge of the glaciers; the other grains successively in the lower and warmer spots: fruits of the choicest kind, even to the pomegranate and lemon, come to perfection on the southern side of the mountains towards the Italian border; and vineyards are not unfrequent in favourable situations throughout the country.

Some wild animals occupy the fastnesses of the Alps, and present objects of the chase; rather, indeed, for diversion than profit. The ibex, or rock-goat, haunts the loftiest and most craggy summits, and exhibits wonderful feats of activity in bounding over the steep rocks and horrible chasms. The chamois, now reckoned a species of antelope, ranges the woody cliffs in small herds. The marmot is often dug out in a torpid state from its winter retreat. Bears and wolves occur in some of the most unfrequented districts, but only when compelled by extreme hunger descend among human habitations.

Nature has been less bountiful of mineral treasures to this country than might have been expected from its mountainous character.

racter. Particles of gold are met with in the sediments of some of the streams, but in inconsiderable quantities. Silver has been discovered, but no veins of this metal are opened. Copper and lead are procured in some parts, but in no great abundance. Iron is diffused in sufficient plenty, and some mines of it are wrought to advantage. The scarcity of fuel is an obstacle to all mining adventures; for fossil coal, though said to exist, is in no part extracted, and the wood of the forests is barely adequate to domestic purposes. Of other minerals, rock-crystal is found in caverns, sometimes in masses of several hundred weight. Marbles beautifully variegated are met with in the calcareous mountains. Fossil salt exists in a district of the canton of Bern, and the brine springs proceeding from it supply the surrounding country with that necessary article. Mineral waters, both hot and cold, occur in many parts of Switzerland.

Nothing in this country, however, so much claims the notice of the speculatist as its human inhabitants. *Man*, in this narrow corner of Europe, has for centuries existed in a state
of

of moral and political respectability, which elevates him in the eye of reason much above the mass of which ordinary nations are composed. A band of rustic heroes, by their united bravery and prudence, burst, in the 14th century, the fetters of the Austrian domination, and founded a system of civil liberty which resisted all external attacks and internal dissensions, till the late political tempest which has overthrown so many independent states, and changed the face of Europe. The basis of this system was a confederacy of small republics, each sovereign within itself, but bound to mutual aid. They first constituted the thirteen Swiss cantons, to which the Grisons and other neighbouring communities joined themselves as allies, whilst a few districts were annexed as subjects and dependents. The several republics were formed upon plans of their own choice, exhibiting every variety of constitution, from pure aristocracy to pure democracy; the general result, however, was a greater share of personal liberty, and a greater equality of property, than subsisted in almost any other part of modern Europe.

The

The manners of the people corresponded to their situation and circumstances—plain, frugal, frank, honest, and somewhat rough; extremely attached to their native soil, to which they were impatient to return from all the ease and pleasures of happier climates. Their martial habits led them, when they had established tranquillity and safety at home, to engage in foreign service as mercenaries; and although they acquired great reputation for fidelity, as well as for valour and discipline, yet the readiness with which they employed their arms in any cause for pay, affixed a just stigma on their national character.

The Reformation, which, in its contest with ancient abuses, spread dissension and civil war through so many countries, also disturbed the peace of these retired cantons; and many years of hostility and bloodshed elapsed before the quarrel was terminated by an agreement, leaving to each religion the territory it then possessed, upon terms of perfect equality. The Roman catholic religion was retained by the greater number of cantons, including all the democratical or
central

central ones : the protestant religion, in the presbyterian or calvinistic form, was adopted in the great and opulent canton of Bern, and in some others, composing a majority of the population and wealth of Switzerland. The Grison league also, for the most part, acceded to the reformation. A spirit of moderation and equity caused both religions thenceforth to live on amicable terms with each other. In some cantons both were received, but each kept its own limits ; and no change seems of late years to have taken place in this respect. The steady temper of the people renders their attachments of every kind firm and durable.

The prevalent language of these countries is the German. In some districts particular dialects or mixtures of different tongues are in use, and a corrupt Italian is spoken in the subject territories bordering on Italy. French is the common language of the Pays de Vaud, a part of the canton of Bern, and also of some parts of the Valais. The writers of Switzerland employ both the German and French languages, but chiefly the former. In proportion to the advance of opulence

and civilization, a taste for literature has been cultivated, which has been much favoured by the liberty enjoyed in these once happy regions. Hence Switzerland, which a century ago was looked upon as behind all its neighbours in mental cultivation, has to boast of a number of modern authors in science and polite letters, who have obtained reputation throughout Europe; and knowledge is very generally diffused through the country. The protestant cantons, however, are much superior to the catholic in this respect.

The inland and detached situation of Switzerland is unfavourable to commerce and manufactures. The industry of the people, however, unable entirely to occupy itself with agricultural employments, has been turned to a variety of small manufactures for domestic use, and has even furnished some articles for exportation. The Swiss linens are in considerable repute, nor are their cottons and silks unknown in foreign markets. Their artists have succeeded in works of ingenious mechanism; and watchmaking is pursued on a large scale in
the

the neighbourhood of the lakes of Geneva and Neufchatel. Numbers of the Swiss, however, for want of scope for their talents in their own country, carry their industry and ingenuity abroad, and are to be met with in all stations, from the highest to the lowest, in most parts of Europe.

Few towns in Switzerland deserve particular notice. *Basil*, or *Basle*, on the bank of the Rhine, is an ancient city possessing an university which has produced many celebrated men. It is accounted an agreeable residence, and was the place selected by the great Erasmus as the retreat of his declining years. *Bern*, finely seated on the Aar, by its neatness and an air of opulence announces itself as the capital of the largest and wealthiest canton. *Zurich* enjoys a charming situation on the lake of that name, and is distinguished by its college and public library, and its enlightened citizens. *Lausanne*, on the lake of Geneva, with the use of the French tongue, has acquired a character for politeness and the charms of society, which have rendered it a favourite resort for men of leisure and cultivation.

Formerly

Formerly in alliance with the Swiss nation, though no part of it, was *Geneva*, the queen of the Lemman lake; a small sovereignty, raised to high distinction by its religion, laws, and learning. It was the centre whence the great reformer Calvin promulgated his system of doctrine and discipline, which held divided sway with that of Luther over the protestant world. Few cities in modern times, even of greatly superior wealth and population, have equalled Geneva in the number of its natives eminent in science and literature, or in the advantages it afforded of rational society and liberal education. It likewise acquired a decent opulence by the pecuniary transactions of its principal inhabitants, and the skill and industry of its artists and manufacturers. After long struggling with the internal dissensions incident to a republican constitution, and the external dangers from powerful and ambitious neighbours, it has finally sunk under the usurping domination of France, and is irrevocably annexed to that empire.

The French revolution likewise overthrew that Helvetic confederacy which had so long subsisted

subsisted as one of the independent powers of Europe, secure in the natural strength of the country and the valour of its inhabitants. When invaded by the arms of France, the small democratical cantons alone made a resistance worthy of the Swiss name; particularly that canton of *Schwitz*, whence the name was derived. They sunk, however, with the rest, under a force which they were unable to withstand, and were obliged to submit to the law of the conqueror. At present Switzerland possesses a nominal independence, but under actual subservience to France. Its constitution, though in several respects altered, preserves a resemblance of its former plan; but what it now is, or will in future be, has almost ceased to be an object of interest.

HOLLAND.

HOLLAND.

TAKING Germany as a point of union of the adjacent states connected with it by a common origin, we proceed to a country which anciently formed a part of it, and is associated with it by the indissoluble bonds of nature.

Under the name of Holland is comprehended the state of the Seven United Provinces of the Netherlands, of which that province is the principal. Situated on the north-western angle of Germany, it is separated from it, not so much by a precise natural boundary, as by a general diversity of aspect and local circumstances. It constitutes the *Low-country* of the German continent—a region in which land and water hold divided dominion; broken into peninsulas and islands, intersected with rivers and canals, and rescued, as it were, from the grasp of the ocean by the unremitting efforts of human industry.

Methinks her patient sons before me stand,
Where the broad ocean leans against the land,
And, sedulous to stop the coming tide,
Lift the tall rampire's artificial pride.
Onward, methinks, and diligently slow
The firm connected bulwark seems to grow ;
Spreads its long arms amidst the watery roar,
Scoops out an empire, and usurps the shore.

GOLDSMITH.

The Seven Provinces are bounded to the north and the west by the German sea ; to the east by Germany ; to the south by those provinces which have usually borne the name of the Catholic Netherlands. That part of it which fronts the sea exhibits strong marks of those encroachments made upon it by the destructive element which history records. A sweep of low islands to the north gives admission through narrow channels to an expanse of salt water called the Zuyder-Zee, which occupies the place of a large tract of land, the Batavian isle of the Romans. The waters of this gulf have a communication with those of the Haarlem Meer, which last is separated only by a narrow slip of land from the German sea. The southern part of the

the coast is torn into a number of islands, which constitute the province of Zeeland. The whole range of coast presents only land almost level with the surface of the water, or, indeed, beneath it, and defended by artificial banks, or by a line of low sand-hills, from the incursion of the tides.

The Dutch Provinces (for that is one of their appellations) lie between the latitudes 51. 30. and 53. 30. From east to west their extent is less; and in the whole they are estimated to contain only about 10,000 square miles. The face of the country is, for the most part, an unvaried level; but it gradually swells into gentle risings on approaching the German border. Its compass is too narrow, and its surface too flat, to give birth to any considerable river, but it is the drain and outlet of several from other countries.

The *Rhine*, on arriving at its south-eastern boundary in the province of Gelderland, divides into two main branches, of which the more southern, under the name of the *Wahal*, goes to join the Maes; the more northern soon forms two more branches; one, the

Leck, flows due west to join the *Maes*, not far from its entrance into the German sea; the other, under the name of the *Issel*, runs northwards to the *Zuyder-Zee*. A diminutive stream detached from the first of these branches, and passing by *Utrecht* and *Leyden*, alone bears the name of *Rhine* to the sea.

The *Maes*, or *Meuse*, coming out of the Catholic Netherlands, reaches the Dutch border a little southward of the entrance of the *Rhine*, and, turning westward, forms the limit between Dutch *Brabant* and the United Provinces. After the junction of the *Wahal*, it divides into several channels, forming islands belonging to *South Holland*. One of its channels, joined by the *Leck*, passes *Rotterdam*, to which it gives a fine harbour, and at length discharges itself into the German sea below the town of *Briel*. The *Scheld*, which is likewise a river of the Catholic Netherlands, passes, near the termination of its course, between Dutch *Flanders* and *Zee-land*, thus giving to the United Provinces the possession of the keys of its navigation to the sea.

That

That part of Holland which is the bed of the Rhine and Maes, and their branches, is naturally a fen or morass, rendered habitable only by numerous drains and canals, protected by embankments, which yet scarcely secure it from inundations. A large lake-like expanse of water near Dordrecht indicates the site of numerous villages, which, near four centuries ago, were suddenly overwhelmed by a sea-breach, with a prodigious loss of lives and property. The lake or meer of Haarlem has already been mentioned, which, with its communicating branch, the Ye, and other meers in North Holland, prove the low and watery surface of that district. The province of Friseland, on the eastern side of the Zuyder-Zee, is almost crossed by a line of meers; and several of the like kind are met with in the adjoining province of Groningen.

From this sketch of the country it will not be expected to afford much scenery attractive to the lover of the picturesque, nor even to abound in the common charms of rural landscape. The provinces of Utrecht and Overyssel alone present some of the agreeable

able interchange of hill and dale: the latter, however, near the German border, is deformed by wide naked heaths, which are continuous with those of Westphalia. The same features mark the eastern parts of Friseland and Groningen.

The climate is not more inviting than the face of the country. Its characteristic is moisture, with its concomitants of fog and mist, frequently enveloping both land and sea. The winters are often attended with severe cold, so as to freeze not only the rivers and lakes, but even the shallow Zuyder-Zee. The summers, however, are sufficiently warm and constant to bring to perfection the ordinary products of the latitude. The marshy exhalations and chill damps are prejudicial to health, and few European countries are less favourable to longevity.

The soil is chiefly sand, or the muddy deposition from rivers, with frequent intermixture of turf or peat, the fuel of the country. When properly drained and manured it affords excellent pasturage, on which domestic animals arrive at a great size. The cows of Holland are remarkable
for

for their produce of milk, whence butter and cheese are the principal objects of rural economy. On the light sandy soils, duly cultivated, abundant crops of green vegetables are grown. Some articles are brought to greater perfection in Holland than in most other countries, of which are madder and other dying drugs. Tobacco is successfully planted on the richer soils. For horticulture the Dutch have long been famous, and their florists supply the curious in that branch throughout Europe with the choicest flower-roots.

Nature affords so little in this country to engage the attention, that a survey of it must almost solely be occupied with the works of art. Man, and the operations of his industry, can no where be contemplated with more advantage and interest than in Holland. The people of these provinces, anciently celebrated for valour and the love of freedom, were rendered laborious, hardy, and frugal, by the necessities of their situation. The climate further contributed to fix their character, which was marked by phlegmatic patience and slow diligence. Fitted to undertake

dertake tasks of great toil and extent, and not easily disheartened by casualties or failures, they accomplished the arduous enterprise of first conquering their country from the ocean, and then rendering it a comfortable abode.

These provinces had acquired a large population and moderate opulence under the limited sovereignty of the house of Austria, when, in the 16th century, the tyranny of Philip II. of Spain impelled them to a revolt, which, after many years of bloody and dubious contest, terminated in their being acknowledged an independent state. No nation ever purchased liberty by more heroic and persevering efforts; for the cool phlegmatic character, when once sufficiently excited by great passions, is most to be relied upon for carrying its aims into full effect. The coincidence of zeal for religious with that for political reformation, infused double vigour into their exertions, and they at the same time freed themselves from the fetters of Spanish despotism, and from the chains of papal authority.

Their losses by land in the earlier part of

the struggle induced them to seek an indemnification on the other element, to which they were already habituated by means of their fisheries and their traffic in the neighbouring seas. They assaulted the Spanish trade and settlements (then also including the Portuguese) in both Indies, and laid the foundation of that vast system of foreign commerce and colonization which raised them to the rank of one of the great powers of Europe. They opened an asylum for the oppressed of all countries; their cities were filled with skilful and industrious artisans; their ports were crowded with shipping; and Holland became the grand depository and mart for the richest products of all quarters of the globe. Their population augmented far beyond the sustenance afforded by their native land; but they drew great resources from the ocean, and the harvests of all the neighbouring countries were theirs through the medium of commerce.

The form of government established by the Dutch when become independent was that of a federal republic, in which each of the seven provinces retained a domestic sovereignty,

sovereignty, while affairs of common concern were managed by the States-general, composed of deputies from every province. In times of particular danger a captain-general had been appointed under the title of Stadtholder, which office at length became hereditary in the house of Orange, and gave to the government a kind of monarchical mixture. The ecclesiastical establishment was of the calvinistical form, and adherence to it was required from all persons in public trusts; but a free toleration was granted to all religious sects, which accordingly existed in greater variety in Holland than in any other European country, England perhaps excepted. This liberal policy proved of the greatest advantage to the state.

The French conquest of Holland in the late revolutionary war has subverted its ancient constitution, and destroyed its independence; and it can at present be regarded in no other light than as a dependency of that overgrown and usurping power, obliged to adopt its friendships and enmities, and to accept whatever new form of government may be imposed upon it. The stadtholderate
has

has been abolished, together with the jurisdiction of the provincial states, and the supreme power is nominally vested in a Batavian republic. New changes, however, are depending, and it is impossible to conjecture to what degree they may be carried, or how long the separate existence of a Dutch nation may be permitted.

The modern Dutch character has been modelled by the commercial spirit and the influence of acquired wealth, acting upon original temperament. The sole passion of avarice has resisted the constitutional phlegm, and stimulated the nation to active exertions. Party, indeed, has at different periods roused the latent spirit of a free people; but little courage has been shown in confronting danger, and the final catastrophe of their independence was almost without a struggle. The want of other feelings to balance that of avarice has rendered the Dutch in their foreign settlements the most severe of masters; and their public government has been equally tyrannical towards the natives of subject countries, and mean and narrow in its plans of policy. At home, however, the domestic virtues

virtues prevail in a laudable degree. Cleanliness, order, decorum, and regularity, are conspicuous in their private abodes and in their public institutions; nor are they deficient in mutual kindness in the ordinary relations of life. Their habits of living are indeed somewhat gross, and their plainness borders on rusticity.

Political freedom in this, as in other countries, has favoured literature; and Holland was long not only the place preferred by learned foreigners for the composition and publication of their works, but produced in its bosom many men of profound erudition, and some of distinguished genius. Its own language, a corrupt dialect of the German, called Low-dutch, never spread beyond the narrow limits of the country, and has therefore been made the vehicle of few works of merit. The Latin tongue has been of very general use among their writers, and the benefits of classical education have been largely diffused by means of their academies and universities.

In the arts, the Dutch have displayed much ingenuity, with their characteristic qualities

qualities of patient labour and correct execution. Their school of painting is highly distinguished for the exact imitation of nature and exquisite delicacy of finishing. Grace and dignity are, however, qualities to which it has scarcely any pretension. They have attained great perfection in several of the mechanical arts, especially those connected with their local circumstances, such as ship-building, constructing canals and dykes, and the drainage of lands. There are also several processes in chemistry and petty manufactures which are only practised by themselves, and are carefully concealed from other nations.

The history of the Dutch commerce has formerly filled volumes. Though much declined, it is still considerable in time of peace, and some branches of it are likely to be durable. Their possession of the lower parts of the Rhine and Maes must always secure them a great inland traffic with Germany, facilitated by the very complete system of canal navigation which connects all their own towns. Their superior skill in the capture and curing of fish gives them a great
advantage

advantage with respect to that article in foreign markets. They still hold settlements in the East Indies, which afford them almost a monopoly of the rich spice-trade; and their colonies in South America are rendered very productive of the commodities of that part of the globe. Without ceasing to exist, they cannot cease to be a maritime people; and their habits of industry and frugality will always favour them in competitions with other nations.

Of the cities of the United Provinces, the principal is *Amsterdam*, a port at the extremity of the *Zuyder-Zee*. It had acquired some consequence as a mart for the fishery and northern trade at the commencement of the revolt from the Spanish dominion, at which period, the security of its situation, and the ravages of war in other parts, caused it to be the centre of the foreign commerce of these states, notwithstanding the obstacles of an incommodious harbour and a morassy soil. The progress of opulence filled it with sumptuous buildings, public and private, and raised it to the rank of one of the first-rate European capitals, its population having
amounted

amounted to upwards of 200,000. It possessed a leading influence in the affairs of the republic, its preponderance in the province of Holland being in nearly the same proportion as that of Holland in the States-general. The docks and naval arsenals of this city are upon a great scale, and the stadhous is the most magnificent building of the kind in Europe. Like other Dutch towns, it is pervaded with canals, which, from the stagnation of the water, are not a little offensive in the warm months. Amsterdam is not a desirable residence for persons unconnected with commerce, and must decline in wealth and population with the declension of trade.

Rotterdam, on the Maes, is a considerable commercial city, possessing a better harbour than Amsterdam. It has a great share of the trade with Germany, and is the chief Dutch port frequented by the English. *Leyden*, an inland city, distinguished for its neatness, is the seat of the principal university in the United Provinces. It has produced many eminent men, and has been particularly celebrated for the study of medicine and of
the

the oriental languages. *Haarlem* is remarkable for its cathedral and fine organ. It has an extensive trade in the fine linens called hollands, which are brought brown from Germany, and whitened at the bleacheries in its neighbourhood. The trade in flower-roots is also considerable here.

The *Hague*, though only an open town or village, has been rendered famous as the chief seat of the government, and the residence of the prince of Orange and the foreign ambassadors. It is extremely well built, and its environs are more agreeable than those of most of the Dutch towns. In the flourishing times of the republic it was the theatre of great negotiations, and was considered as a resort of some of the best company in Europe. All the abovementioned places are in the province of Holland.

Of the other towns, *Middleburg*, the capital of Zeeland, is one of the most considerable. *Flushing*, in the same province, at the mouth of the Scheld, is a much-frequented port. *Utrecht* is a handsome city, pleasantly situated, and the seat of an university of repute. There are many other towns of
the

the second or third order, distinguished for neatness, and rendered opulent by particular branches of commerce. Even many of the villages were superior to the towns of other countries. More wealth and population were crowded into the narrow compass of these uninviting provinces than existed in any equal portion of Europe—such were the effects of industry combined with freedom! Even lately their population was estimated at upwards of 2,700,000. But it seems impossible that in their present degraded and dependent state they should preserve themselves from a progressive decline, till they sink to the level of their natural consequence.

THE

CATHOLIC NETHERLANDS.

THE provinces constituting the Netherlands, or Low Countries, belonging to the crown of Spain, were seventeen in number at the time when the tyranny of Philip II. produced the revolt which finally terminated in the separation and independence of the Seven to the north of the Maes, as mentioned under the last head. The Ten to the south of that river, although the insurrection broke out among them, and was long maintained with great vigour, were in the end obliged to return to their former subjection, being disunited among themselves, and unable, without the interposition of any natural barrier, to resist the armies which successively invaded them. They afterwards became a part of the Austrian dominion, and were for a long period the great field of contention between that power, France, and Holland. No part of Europe has been the theatre of so many bloody battles and sieges, and the whole

whole art of war has been exhausted in its attack and defence. The efforts of France were, till lately, unable lastingly to do more than appropriate to itself a portion contiguous to its own frontiers. The rest remained in the possession of the house of Austria, with the exception of a narrow slip on the Dutch side, which was conceded to the United Provinces. The French revolution has at length effected what the power and policy of that monarchy so long in vain attempted, and the whole of this country is now rendered an integral part of France, being comprehended in its departments. Still, its former fame, and its difference of language, manners, and natural circumstances, seem to entitle it to a brief separate consideration.

These countries are situated between the latitudes 49. 30. and 51. 49. Their breadth is greatest on the southern side, contracting gradually towards the north. They are bounded to the north by Holland and Zeeland, to the east by Germany, to the south and south-west by France, and to the west by the German sea. The limits between the

neighbouring countries are almost entirely artificial; even the channel of the Maes on the northern side is not a precise boundary. The general face of the country is level: on the eastern border alone it is varied with any considerable inequalities, and even these scarcely deserve the name of hills. The soil in the northern part, and on the sea-coast, consists chiefly of sand; but in the main it may be characterized as a rich sandy loam, well adapted to the purposes of cultivation.

The principal river is the *Scheld*, in French *Escaut*, which, rising in the French border, takes a winding course northwards, and, after it has passed Antwerp, empties itself into an arm of the sea between Dutch Flanders and Zeeland. It receives most of the other streams of Flanders, Brabant, and Hainault, none of which are considerable. The *Maes* or *Meuse* has a longer course than the *Scheld*, but rather occasionally visits the eastern border of these provinces than appropriates itself to them. If, indeed, the bishopric of Liege be reckoned a part of the Low Countries, by which it is enclosed, the *Meuse* may rank as a river of this country.

The

The ancient forest of Ardennes, which formerly overspread great part of the Netherlands, has left considerable remains, especially in Hainault and Luxemburg. These provinces have many wild tracts and open heaths, which contrast with the general air of culture and fertility. It is on this side alone that any mineral treasures can be expected. Some lead and copper are found in Namur, and iron is generally diffused over the Ardennes. Traces of coal are met with in several of these districts, and it is dug in large quantity in the country of Liege, which also contains the famous mineral springs of Spa and Pymont.

The climate of the Catholic Netherlands much resembles that of the south of England, with which it is parallel; it, however, has a greater degree of summer heat and of winter cold. The vegetable products are those of the middle part of the temperate zone, rendered peculiarly abundant and excellent by the agricultural skill and industry which have long distinguished the inhabitants. In no part of Europe are the crops of clover, turnips, legumes, grain, and flax, managed

managed with neater husbandry, or more judiciously interchanged. Fruits of various kinds are brought to perfection. Hops are a common article of culture, and wine is made in the district of Luxemburg, though of indifferent quality. The domestic quadrupeds are of large breeds and well fed; and an air of plenty prevails over the country, in which England alone can perhaps rival it in this quarter of the globe.

Its great population, however, could only have been derived from the union of trade with agriculture; an advantage it long possessed beyond any of the other western countries of Europe. Its cities and towns were either the marts of foreign commerce, or the seat of domestic manufactures, and wealth and industry animated every part. The Flemings (by which name the inhabitants in general are distinguished) are of Belgic origin. Their character is intermediate between the Batavian and the French, although more allied to the former, as might be inferred from their language, which little differs from the Low Dutch. Possessing a better country than the Hollanders,

ers,

ers, and less connected with the sea, they turned their attention less to maritime adventure, and more to cultivation and manufactures. Those of wool and flax principally engaged their notice, as the materials were of their own growth. Sensible of the benefits of water-carriage, they took the advantage of a level country to connect all their chief towns by a system of inland navigation, not less complete than that of Holland. The vicissitudes of trade, and the many internal disturbances which these countries have undergone, have caused them to lose the greatest part of their commerce; but they still retain considerable relics of the population and opulence introduced by it. Of all their fabrics, those of which flax is the material have best withstood the changes of the times; and to this day the finest laces and most beautiful linens are the produce of the Low Countries.

The Flemings have had the honour of forming a school of painting which, next to those of Italy, has obtained the highest degree of reputation in Europe. With the

exact

exact imitation of nature, and delicate execution of the Dutch school, it has united a portion of the higher qualities of invention and grandeur. Their tapestries also have been in high esteem, and in various works of arts they have displayed considerable talents.

Although the Reformation had made a rapid progress in the country at the commencement of the revolt from Philip II., yet the event of the war left the ancient religion fully established; and the Flemings have ever since been accounted among the most bigoted of its votaries. In no country have the ecclesiastical foundations been more numerous and opulent; so that a large share of the land has been included within the domain of the church. The universities of these provinces have been chiefly devoted to the service of the catholic religion, and have therefore obtained little reputation for liberal learning. The influence of the priesthood has been steadily exerted in counteracting all schemes of toleration and reform: at the same time it has vigorously promoted a spirit
of

of resistance to those arbitrary projects of the Austrian sovereigns, which aimed at the abolition of the national rights and privileges. These were so considerable as to form a powerful barrier against absolute monarchy; and after several violent struggles under the late emperor Joseph II. the nation succeeded in establishing them in all their force. Now, however, they are all merged in a participation in the civil and ecclesiastical constitution of the great nation to which these provinces have been annexed by conquest.

Of the many once important cities in the Catholic Netherlands, it will suffice in their present state to notice a few among the principal. *Antwerp*, on the Scheld, during the flourishing age of Flemish commerce, was one of the greatest marts of foreign commerce in this part of the world. The evils it underwent during the war of revolt, and its final subjugation to the Spanish yoke, brought on a rapid declension, which was confirmed by the rise of Amsterdam, and the shutting of the Scheld by the Dutch. It has

has long presented only the vestiges of past grandeur, in stately buildings, public and private, almost unoccupied, and solitary grass-grown streets. In this state it was, however, visited as a seat of the arts, and particularly as the school of the great Rubens, whose finest paintings were preserved in the churches and cabinets of the place, with those of other Flemish masters. Of the best of these it has been stript by its French conquerors; but, in return, attempts have been made by the new government to restore its trade and navigation, with considerable success. It possesses some thriving manufactories of linen and cotton.

Ghent, the ancient capital of Flanders, is a city of great extent, but not of proportional population. It abounds in churches and religious houses, and has a share in the manufactures of the country. *Bruges*, once the greatest staple in Europe for the woollen manufacture, is sunk into insignificance. The great canal passing by this city from Ghent terminates at *Ostend*, the principal sea-port of these provinces. Its harbour is

7

artificial,

artificial, and vast exertions were made in the time of the emperor Joseph to improve it, and raise the place to consequence. Many English settled in it, and it began to wear a face of business; but the late changes have been unfavourable to its prosperity.

Brussels, the capital of Brabant, was the seat of government under the Austrian dominion, and by the splendour of its buildings and its ornamental decorations announced its rank as a metropolis. Though it has lost this advantage, it is still a populous and rich city, distinguished for ingenious arts and manufactures. *Liege* is a large city, noted for the multiplicity of its religious foundations, and its hardware manufactures. In the latter, *Luxemburg* also partakes. The principal university of the Catholic Netherlands is *Louvain*, long regarded as the bulwark of the orthodox faith in these parts. It possesses extensive privileges, which it defended with great spirit and pertinacity against the attempted reforms of Joseph.

It may be observed, that no part of Europe abounds with fortified places equally
with

with the Low Countries. The level of their situation, which deprived them of the natural advantages of defence, caused every resource of the engineer's art to be put in practice in order to give them artificial strength; and the introduction of a new system of fortification may be attributed to the necessity of placing a firm barrier on this ground between two great military powers.

THE BRITISH ISLES.

IN order to finish our survey of the northern part of the temperate zone in Europe, before we enter decisively upon the southern part, it will be necessary to quit the continent, and pass over to that group of islands on the west which to the ancients appeared as if cut off from the rest of the inhabited world, and forming, as it were, a world within itself. The improvements in navigation, it is true, have greatly reduced the idea of comparative remoteness in their situation; yet the narrow sea which separates them from the continent is still the instrumental cause of the most important circumstances in their civil and political state.

These islands, long partitioned into distinct and generally hostile governments, are now happily consolidated into one dominion, which, by its extent of territory and population, is able to maintain a rank among the most considerable of the European sovereignties. This natural rank has been raised
still

still higher by internal improvements and an unparalleled course of commercial prosperity; so that the British empire is at present one of the most conspicuous objects in the survey of nations, and exerts a powerful influence in the affairs of the world. Exclusively, therefore, of local partialities, it is entitled to an attentive consideration.

Of the British isles, two far surpass the rest in magnitude: these are Great Britain and Ireland, both of them larger than any other island of Europe, the bleak and steril Iceland excepted. Of the two, Great Britain possesses a superiority of extent, which marks it out as the seat of the united empire. By its position, likewise, it forms the barrier towards the continent, and seems to shelter and embrace the rest in its bosom. It therefore claims the first and principal notice.

GREAT

GREAT BRITAIN.

THIS island stretches in a direction from south to north, between the 50th and about the 58 $\frac{1}{4}$ th degree of N. latitude. Its breadth is greatest on the southern side, where it forms a base of about 340 miles. Thence it proceeds narrowing, but very irregularly, till it terminates in the north with a breadth of less than 70 miles. One of the places at which the opposite seas approach the nearest is somewhat beyond the middle of its length. At this part nature has made such an apparent division of the island into two portions, that for a long series of years it was the boundary of two distinct countries, *England* and *Scotland*: and notwithstanding their political union, a degree of separation between the two still subsists, marked by the natural difference of softer features and superior fertility in the southern portion, and by certain civil diversities of laws, religion, and dialect. We will, however, first consider the island as constituting a whole.

The

The face of the country in Great Britain presents all the variety that any extensive tract of land can afford; but the scale upon which nature has wrought is comparatively minute, and the features are all blended and softened by intermixture. This is especially true of the southern portion, of which the inequalities of surface rarely rise to the height of mountains, and the bare and rugged tracts are of little extent. No continued mountainous region is to be met with in this part, except the district in the middle of the western side called *Wales*, the slip of land running out to the south-western angle forming *Cornwall*, and a ridge proceeding from the centre of the island northwards, which has been termed the Apennines of England. Low ranges of chalk and limestone hills occur in various parts; and one in particular extends from Cambridgeshire through many counties westward, till it expires on the sea-coast in Dorsetshire.

The greatest extent of level ground is on the eastern side of England, accompanying the sea-coast for the space of several counties. Between Norfolk and Lincolnshire commences

mences a tract of fen or marsh, following the course of the sluggish rivers which find their discharge in that part, and formed by their frequent inundations. These districts would be uninhabitable, had not great industry been employed in cutting drains and raising embankments, by which means they have for the most part been converted into rich meadows and corn fields.

The northern portion of the island assumes a somewhat different character. Its level tracts are more bleak and naked, and its Highlands occupy a large space in the middle and north-western parts, frowning in all the gloom of sterility, and frequently rising into mountains of Alpine grandeur. Lakes and arms of the sea running far up into the country give to its landscapes the picturesque appendage of masses of water, which the most beautiful scenes of South Britain seldom afford.

The sea-coast of Great Britain has a number of indentations and inlets, many of which form harbours, or sheltered roads for the protection of shipping. The southern coast forms several semicircular sweeps or

bays in its western half, of which *Torbay* is a noted resort of ships of war in stress of weather. The Isle of Wight leaves a sheltered channel between it and the main, in which is the frequented road of *Spithead*, and protects those inlets which form the harbours of Southampton and Portsmouth. At the northern extremity of the straits of Dover, where the island makes the nearest approach to the continent, the anchoring ground called the *Downs* extends between the two Kentish Forelands, and is guarded towards the sea by a line of sandbanks. The shore in this part is faced with a perpendicular wall of chalk cliffs. The mouth of the Thames then forms a deep indentation, and the sea makes an encroachment on the land which is not recovered till the round coast of Norfolk gives the island its most eastern projection. Then succeed the shallow but wide inlet called the *Wash*, and the deep and capacious arm of the sea named the *Humber*. Thence the coast is little broken till the *Firth of Forth* affords a grand entrance to the internal parts of Scotland, which it cuts quite to the centre. Not far

to

to the north of it, the *Firth of Tay* gives another inlet. Beyond the most eastern point of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, the coast suddenly turns westward, giving space to the wide *Murray-Firth*, into which other firths and lochs have their discharge.

The short northern side of Scotland presents a torn and jagged coast ; and the whole of its western side is rendered extremely unequal by firths, bays, and sounds, forming promontories and peninsulas. Beyond the long narrow peninsula of Cantyre opens the wide *Firth of Clyde*, a noble entrance to the south-western part of Scotland, balancing the opposite firth of Forth. The separation of the coasts of Scotland and England on this side is effected by the *Solway-Firth*, a strongly marked boundary. To the south of it, the retiring coast of Lancashire, with the projecting coast of North Wales, forms a vast bay, into which the shallow Morecambe bay, and the estuaries of the Ribble, Mersey, and Dee, open. The semi-lunar *Bay of Cardigan* intrenches upon the western coast of Wales ; and the great inlet of the *Bristol channel* between South Wales

and the English western counties, communicating with the mouth of the Severn, deeply indents the broadest part of the island.

Great Britain is watered by numerous rivers, which serve the purposes both of fertility and of inland navigation. Of these the most celebrated is the *Thames*, which, rising in the confines of Gloucestershire with Wiltshire, holds an eastern direction, in a very winding channel, till it enters the German sea between Kent and Essex. Though not comparable in length of course to the great continental rivers, yet it merits the praises that have been bestowed upon it for its full, deep, and gentle stream, which renders it navigable for large ships to the metropolis, a distance of 50 miles from the sea, and for barges nearly to its head. The *Severn*, rising in Plinlimmon hill, not far from the sea, in Wales, makes almost a circular sweep through several of the midland counties of England, till it discharges itself into the Bristol channel between the counties of Gloucester and Monmouth. It is navigable to a considerable height, but is subject to great inequalities in quantity of water at different

ferent seasons. Its principal tributary, the *Wye*, rising in Wales, is celebrated for the picturesque beauties of its banks.

The *Trent* is the third river in England for length of course. It rises in the hills of Staffordshire, and after a circuitous track through the central part of England, reaches, in Lincolnshire, the arm of the sea named the Humber. It unites a great number of midland streams, and has an extensive navigation. The name of *Ouse* belongs to several rivers: the principal of them rises in Northamptonshire, and, flowing across several counties towards the east, enters, below Lynn, the estuary of the Wash between Norfolk and Lincolnshire. The level tracts through which it takes its course render its current remarkably slow. Another *Ouse*, uniting all the rivers of Yorkshire, and navigable to the capital of that county, is one of the contributors to the Humber. Of the other English rivers, those of most importance are the *Mersey*, which gives its port to Liverpool; the *Tees*, of Durham; and the *Tyne*, that passes Newcastle, and conveys

veys to the sea the coal with which that country abounds.

The rivers of Scotland have not space for any considerable length of course, and are too much broken by falls and rapids to be of much service for inland navigation. The principal are the *Forth*, *Clyde*, and *Tay*, which discharge themselves into the respective firths of those names; the *Tweed*, which for some space is the boundary between that country and England; and the *Spey*, a copious and impetuous stream of the Highlands. Many romantic scenes occur on the banks of these rivers.

In lakes, the northern part of the island greatly surpasses the southern. The Scotch term *loch* seems to be indiscriminately applied to proper lakes, and to salt-water inlets penetrating into the interior. *Loch-Lomond* is the principal of the genuine lakes. It begins in Dunbartonshire, and runs up to the foot of the Highlands. It is studded with islands, and its banks present much sublime scenery. *Loch-Ness*, the next in extent, stretches from the heart of the Highlands

lands to the vicinity of Inverness, where it has an outlet to the Murray firth. It forms one of a line of lakes which very nearly cut the island asunder in this part; and a canal now making will complete the division. *Loch-Tay*, winding among the Grampian hills in Perthshire, long but narrow, presents the appearance of a great river. Other considerable lakes, mostly of a similar form, are dispersed through the northern parts of Scotland.

The few lakes of England are chiefly in Cumberland and Westmoreland. Though small, their picturesque beauties have attracted numerous visitors since the taste for the charms of nature has been so prevalent. Wales contains some inconsiderable lakes in the bosom of its mountains. Some large ponds or meers occur in Cheshire and Shropshire, and among the fens of Lincolnshire and its vicinity.

The extent of Great Britain includes a space in latitude sufficient to produce considerable difference of climate. The whole of it, however, lies within the northern region of the temperate zone, and feels the influence

of such a position. It possesses the insular advantage of being less subject to extremes of temperature than the parallel latitudes on the continent; and while the harbours of the opposite coasts of Holland, Germany, and Scandinavia, are frequently 'frozen up in the winter, such a circumstance is never known to take place even in the northern parts of Britain or any of its adjacent islands. Frequent and unexpected changes in the weather, and a general tendency to humidity, are the characteristic faults of its climate. These qualities proceed from its vicinity to the Atlantic ocean, from which quarter the prevailing winds blow, bringing with them a quick succession of clouds. This circumstance renders the western side of the island much more subject to rain than the eastern, to which the clouds do not arrive till deprived of part of their contents. The latter, however, is more infested with fogs, and with cold easterly winds. The moisture of the atmosphere, however unpleasant, is the cause of that perpetual verdure which delights the eye in the British landscape, beyond that of almost any other country. It may be added, that

that the freedom from violent extremes conduces to the salubrity of the country, in which respect it is surpassed by few.

Of soil there is every kind of variety, as might be expected within such a compass. Stiff clay and loam predominate in several of the counties of England which are most noted for fertility. Sand prevails in some tracts, chalk and calcareous earth in others, and hungry gravel and black moor are not uncommon. On the whole, the proportion of land is very considerable which has been left almost in a state of nature from its unpromising qualities, and which an expensive culture alone can render productive. This proportion increases in the northern counties of England, and in Scotland, of which last country great tracts in the Highlands are doomed to perpetual sterility. On its eastern side, however, good soil prevails quite to the northern extremity.

The natural vegetable products of Great Britain may be considered as little more than grass and trees. It appears in very early times to have fed numerous flocks and herds, and to have been overspread with extensive
forests.

forests. Of the latter there are now small remains ; but the disposition of the soil and climate to favour the growth of wood appears in the luxuriant state of the trees in plantations and parks, and in the abundance of hedge-row timber, affording in many districts to the distant view the appearance of a continued forest. Cultivation has so far improved upon the bounty of nature, that no country within similar latitudes surpasses it in the production of all the articles essential to the support of man and beast. The different kinds of grain are raised in almost all parts of the island, although not with equal advantage. The inferior soil and climate of the north impair the quantity and quality ; and the humid western coast is less favourable to the maturity and collection of the harvests than the drier eastern. The extensive culture of that best substitute for corn, the potatoe, has in a good degree supplied the deficiency. The great spirit and intelligence with which agriculture is pursued, has introduced a variety of leguminous and other vegetables, which, by judicious interchanges of crops, have prevented the necessity

sity of leaving the land fallow, and greatly increased the quantity of food. Of more local articles of culture may be mentioned the flax and hemp of some parts; the hops of several of the southern and western counties; and the apples and pears of nearly the same districts, which are largely grown for making cyder and perry.

The defects of the climate, with the progress of luxury, have caused the art of horticulture to be carried to a high degree of perfection throughout this island. Besides the usual culinary vegetables, the finest fruits of the temperate zone are produced in abundance, though not without the assistance of walls and artificial heat. Exotics from all parts of the globe are found in the greenhouses and hot-houses of the curious and opulent; and the more hardy of foreign ornamental trees and shrubs are seen in profusion to decorate the pleasure-grounds and gardens even of persons in the middle ranks of society.

There is no point of rural economy in which the British nation more excels, than in the breeding of domestic animals, every species

species of which has been brought to a degree of excellence scarcely elsewhere to be met with. No country in Europe, perhaps in the world, is so celebrated for the speed of its horses, joined with size and strength, that fit them for every purpose. The breeds of this animal for the turf, the chase, and the draught, are singularly excellent; and the number kept for the demands of luxury, of commerce, and of agriculture, probably exceeds in proportion that in any neighbouring country. The horned cattle reared for the dairy and the shambles are extremely various in their kinds, and possess every different point of excellence. The breeds of sheep are still more various, in consequence of the very different purposes their wool is required to answer, joined to the demand for their flesh. The open and hilly tracts are peculiarly devoted to this animal, though the rearing of it also enters largely into the agricultural system of the enclosed and arable farms. No British wool entirely equals the Spanish in fineness, but every sort has its appropriate use in manufactures. The long soft kind used in the worsted fabrics is, perhaps,

perhaps, more than any other, peculiar to this island. Swine are part of the stock of every farmer, and their flesh forms an important article of food.

Of the deer kind, which formerly abounded in the woody and mountainous districts, scarcely any are left in a wild state in the southern portion of the island; but the red deer and roebuck still run in the forests of the Scotch Highlands. The fallow deer are confined to parks, of which a great number, belonging to the nobility and gentry, contribute to beautify the face of the country. The fondness for rural sports has caused particular attention to be paid to the different breeds of dogs for the use of the huntsman and fowler, and a surprising degree of perfection has been attained with respect to this object. No other wild quadrupeds offer themselves to the chase in this country than the fox and the hare.

The sea round the British coasts is frequented by a variety of fish, which yield an abundant supply of food to the inhabitants. Of these, some are migratory, and present themselves at certain seasons in vast shoals.

Such

Such are the pilchards, which visit the Cornish coasts in such numbers as to afford an important article for exportation: the mackarel, which make a progress through the British channel early in the spring, and come round to the eastern coast towards summer: and especially the herring, which peoples, at different times, the whole circumfluent sea, and particularly resorts to the firths and salt-water lochs of Scotland, some of which it almost choaks up with its countless myriads. Cod-fish are caught in great abundance off the Yorkshire coast, with whittings, haddocks, and a variety of flat-fish. Salmon frequent many of the rivers, especially those of Scotland.

The mineral treasures of Great Britain yield to those of few European countries. While the island was yet in a savage state, its south-western shores were frequented by the commercial and maritime nations of early times, for the excellent tin afforded by its mines. Although many of these in the course of ages have been worked out, the tin of Cornwall and Devonshire is still one of the most valuable of the native products of England.

land. The first of these counties is an almost entire bed of various minerals, among which are reckoned silver, copper, lead, calamine, manganese, with several kinds of earths and stones useful in the arts and manufactures. The mineral tract extends through the three south-western counties, and is thence continued across the Bristol channel into Wales, in many parts of which, mines of copper and lead are worked. The northern detached portion of this district, the isle of Anglesey, possesses the largest mass of copper ore yet discovered in Great Britain.

The metallic bed is next to be traced along the middle mountainous ridge of the island, commencing in Staffordshire and Derbyshire, and proceeding northwards into the southern part of Scotland. Lead and copper are chiefly found in this range, particularly the former metal, which abounds in Derbyshire, Durham, Northumberland, and the lead-hills of Lanerk. Iron ore is more extensively diffused than that of the other metals, and is dug in vast quantities in many parts of South and North Britain. That singular

gular and valuable substance, wad, or black lead, is found in its greatest purity and perfection in the mountains of Cumberland.

These gifts of nature are rendered more valuable by the abundance of another mineral product, which is one of the greatest benefits bestowed upon this island. This is fossil or pit-coal, the chief article of fuel since the increase of population and the decay of the ancient forests. In no country of the globe is it drawn from the earth in such quantities, or of such different qualities, suited to different purposes. It is limited to particular tracts, and in general is found to lie in a direction from the south-west to the north-east. The most southern pits are those in the Mendip-hills of Somersetshire. Thence the veins may be traced through many of the midland and northern counties to Northumberland. The neighbourhood of Newcastle in that county is one of the principal centres of coal, from which the immense consumption of the metropolis is mostly supplied. In Scotland the coal lies chiefly in the middle and eastern parts: the extensive northern tracts are unfortunately destitute

destitute of this advantage. They, however, afford abundance of peat or turf, which also constitutes the fuel of several of the hilly and moory tracts of England and Wales.

Stone of various kinds, for building and other purposes, is plentiful in many districts. The slate of Westmoreland is unrivalled for elegance of colour and fineness of texture. Scotland yields marbles of great beauty, and the marbles and spars of Derbyshire are celebrated in ornamental works. Pottery-clays and fullers'-earth are among the valuable earths. Of fossil salt there is an inexhaustible store in the rock-salt pits of Cheshire, and the brine springs of that county and Worcestershire.

Mineral waters occur in many parts. The warm springs of Bath and Buxton are of peculiar note: the waters of Tunbridge, Cheltenham, Harrowgate, and various others, are celebrated for different medicinal properties, according to their several impregnations.

The inhabitants of Great Britain are compounded of a variety of races, some remaining distinct, but the greater part indistinguishably blended. At the time of the Ro-

man invasion the natives were of Celtic blood. To these a foreign addition was doubtless made by the conquerors. The Saxon invaders poured in a great mass of German population, which took possession of the best parts of the island, and confined the remaining Celts to the mountains of Wales and the Scotch Highlands, where their posterity to this day retain their language and national characteristics. The Danes, in their frequent and destructive inroads, seized upon many districts on the sea-coast, especially on the eastern side of the island, and became permanent settlers. The Normans next gave a new set of great proprietors to the lands, and an infusion of their blood and language. Refugees from the continent, and an influx of natives of different countries, attracted by commerce and lucrative employments, have in later times been continually adding to the variety of sources. On the whole, however, the main stock may be regarded as similar to that of the Teutonic nations of Europe, a dialect of whose language is the base of the English and Scotch tongue, and whose bodily temperament

perament and mental constitution are most prevalent.

In common with all these nations, the people of Great Britain, generally considered, are brave, frank, undesigning, and somewhat gross. With less phlegm than some of their neighbours, they are, however, more solid than sprightly, and excel more in judgment than in imagination. Taciturn and bashful, they rather repel than invite to promiscuous society; and the habit of repressing external emotions perhaps really stifles their sensibility. Their passions are rather boisterous than strong, and mildness and good-nature often lurk under a stern and rough demeanour. No people are more placable in their anger: even the mobs, which delight in riotous mischief and abuse, are never bloody. A dislike of controul, and contempt of form and order, are prominent features in their disposition, probably fostered by the freedom of the constitution and equality of rights. The free scope given to all eccentricities has perhaps caused them to appear more frequent in the British character than they really are; for, upon the

N 2

whole,

whole, considerable uniformity of manners and way of life prevails in similar classes. The quiet domestic character is the most common in both sexes, and the substantial comforts of life are more relished than its splendours and gaieties.

The inhabitants of Wales and of the Scotch Highlands derive from their Celtic origin a considerable difference of national character. They have each preserved a separate language, both of them branches of the Celtic stem, but so dissimilar as to be mutually unintelligible. Greater vivacity and mutability of disposition, with warmer passions, discriminate the Welch. The Highlanders are inclined to gloom and melancholy, probably imbibed from the climate and face of nature around them. They are hardy, brave, and so extremely attached to their lords and chieftains, as to lose every sentiment of freedom in implicit obedience. Both people are deficient in the steady industry and active exertion which belong to the German character.

The government of this country, in its origin not different from that of other nations

tions of the German stock, has, by a number of successive improvements, been modelled into a constitution more favourable to civil and personal liberty than almost any upon record, which has excited the admiration of political speculatists, and has been the principal cause of its unexampled prosperity. Its essence consists in an union of the three great branches of government, the monarchic, aristocratic, and democratic, into one system, in which they mutually balance each other, and operate together as a harmonious whole. The entire executive power is lodged in the crown, which is hereditary and independent. The legislative authority consists in the parliament, composed of the king, an hereditary house of lords, and the representatives of the people elected into a house of commons. Each of these branches possesses a negative upon the proceedings of the other. In the house of commons all supplies of money for public purposes originate, which gives it a preponderance, balanced, however, by the influence of the crown, which has augmented in proportion to the number of posts of honour and profit that

that are exclusively within its disposal. Although many defects and abuses exist in the English constitution, which render it in reality very different from what it seems to be in theory ; yet its efficacy in securing the rights of individuals and the leading interests of the nation is confessedly great ; and the freedom with which all public measures are canvassed, both in and out of parliament, powerfully controuls any attempt to counteract the national will.

The laws are necessarily complicated and numerous ; yet the equality with which, in general, they bear upon all ranks, and the impartiality with which they are administered, are entitled to high commendation. In particular, criminal justice is rendered with a spirit of equity and humanity scarcely paralleled in any other country. The trial by jury, and the respectable rank and independent situation of the judges, are invaluable securities for the protection of innocence, and the just decision of causes.

The religion established in Great Britain is the protestant. Its form in England is episcopalian, with a hierarchy similar to
that

that of the catholic church, and a liturgic service. The national character and political circumstances have introduced a full toleration of separatists of every class; but a participation in the principal rite of the established church is made a necessary condition for the enjoyment of any place of trust or profit under the government. The ecclesiastical establishment of Scotland is upon the calvinistic or presbyterian model, of which, equality among the ministers is the basis. Its clergy are slenderly provided for, and its church presents none of those stations of dignity and opulence, which render the church of England an object worthy the attention of the best families in the kingdom.

The two universities of England, *Oxford* and *Cambridge*, have attained a high degree of celebrity in the learned world, and are conspicuous for the grandeur of their edifices, and the magnitude of their revenues. They consist of a number of separate colleges, connected by relation to a general academical body. They constitute a part of the ecclesiastical establishment, and are prin-

principally calculated for the theological profession, comprising, however, the general studies of a liberal education.

The four Scotch universities, *Edinburgh*, *Glasgow*, *Aberdeen*, and *St. Andrews*, are institutions of less splendour, but are highly respectable as seminaries of useful learning. That of *Edinburgh* is peculiarly eminent as a school for medicine.

With no greater natural aptitude for the pursuits of knowledge than their neighbours possess, the English, from the free scope permitted to discussion of all kinds, have distinguished themselves beyond almost all modern nations for their attainments in science and philosophy, and have held the torch of mental illumination to all Europe. This merit has not been contested even by those who have held in inferior estimation their taste and exertions in polite literature. A language little accommodated to the ears of the more refined people of Europe, and therefore little studied, long limited the English to the admiration of their own countrymen ; but the present opinion of impartial foreigners appears to justify the exalted
ideas

ideas they have entertained of their native productions in poetry and other departments of the belles lettres. English works are read, translated, and imitated throughout the lettered continent; and the language is now generally admitted among the most cultivated European dialects. The literature of Scotland has, during the last century, been identified with that of England, and has contributed more than its proportional share to the stock of classical performances.

In the fine arts, a want of inventive genius has been ascribed to the English by foreigners, who have accounted for it upon fanciful principles derived from climate and bodily temperament. A remoteness from good models, and want of due encouragement, have been the more probable causes of their past deficiency in this respect, which an alteration of circumstances may hereafter obviate. It is certain that, in every thing which relates to mechanical contrivance, and improvement in manufactures, no defect of invention can be justly attributed to this nation.

It is to her successful exertions in the lat-

ter points, and her spirit of maritime and commercial adventure, that Great Britain owes that height of power and opulence to which she has arrived, and which so much surpass her relative scale of territory and population. As an island, furnished with a great range of coast and numerous harbours, many of her inhabitants were early addicted to a sea-faring life. It was late, however, before her attention was much turned to manufactures, and only in consequence of the emigration of some industrious foreigners, driven from their homes by persecution. The original staple of the country was its wool, first exported raw, but after this period wrought into various articles of clothing, which became a very valuable branch of commerce. This is still an important manufacture, and is spread over a large tract of country. The finest broadcloths and kerseymeres are made in the counties of Wilts, Somerset, and Gloucester; and other goods of various kinds are manufactured in these and the adjoining districts from the wool which is their native product. Yorkshire, however, aided by its abundance of fuel and
the

the economy of its inhabitants, has of late years surpassed the western counties in the extent of its woollen manufactures, and nearly rivalled them in their goodness. The stuffs of Norwich, Suffolk, Essex, and Lancashire, the blanketing of Witney, the flannels of Wales, the worsted goods of Leicestershire and Nottinghamshire, and other local fabrics of the woollen kind, supply a large demand for home and foreign consumption.

Of much later origin, but now of superior commercial importance, is the cotton manufacture, extending through many of the northern counties of England into Scotland, and giving employment to vast numbers of people. Although the raw material is of foreign growth, yet a great part of the supply coming from British colonies, the demand adds a link to the chain of British commerce. The principal seat of this manufacture is Lancashire, and its centre is the town of *Manchester*, by its means now become the second for population in the kingdom. In Scotland, the city of *Glasgow* and its vicinity have chiefly profited by this manufacture. In variety, elegance, and cheapness
united,

united, no fabrics of the loom can vie with the cotton; and there are no articles in which the superiority of British workmanship is more confessed in all foreign markets. The many ingenious mechanical inventions for spinning and weaving, joined with the advantage of coal for working steam-engines, have overbalanced in favour of this country the lower price of labour on the continent.

The linen manufacture of Great Britain, chiefly carried on in the north of England and Scotland, is principally occupied in the supply of home consumption. The same may be said of the silk, which constitutes one of the manufactures of the metropolis. In conjunction, however, with other materials, it is used in various slight and showy fabrics which find a ready sale abroad.

The manufactures in which metals are employed are particularly flourishing in England, which yields both the metals themselves, and the fuel for working them. One of its most populous towns, *Birmingham*, is supported by a vast variety of useful and ornamental articles of hardware, in many of which a surprising degree of show is united
with

with such proportional cheapness, that they are unrivalled in foreign markets. *Sheffield*, another great town, is equally pre-eminent for its cutlery wares and plated goods. The metropolis is in possession of some of the ablest workmen in metals, and is particularly celebrated for its mathematical and astronomical instruments, which are confessedly superior to those of any other country. Many other towns participate in the different branches of metallic manufacture; and the iron founderies, at which the metal is smelted from the ore, and formed into articles of mass and bulk, are numerous, and upon a scale of great magnitude. In many districts iron and coal are found in conjunction; an advantage of which such use has been made, as to convert some of the dreariest and most steril spots into lively scenes of population.

Potteries, which are frequent throughout the island, have attained such elegance and perfection, particularly in the county of *Stafford*, as to afford a valuable article of exportation.

To the preceding sources of foreign commerce

merce are to be added those products which Great Britain derives from her colonies and possessions abroad, and which in part she re-exports to other countries. Of these a principal article is the sugar of the West India islands. The immense East India traffic likewise yields a great superabundance of goods, which the sales of the company distribute over the continent of Europe. The furs of Canada and Hudson's-bay, and the fish of Newfoundland, add to the list of exports. The navigation laws have secured the carriage of these articles, at least in time of peace, chiefly to the shipping of the country, which has therefore gone on increasing with the increase of trade and manufactures.

Thus Great Britain has become the greatest commercial nation that the world ever beheld, covering all the seas with her ships, and known and respected by the most distant nations. Her trading navy has been the support and nursery of a warlike navy, the most powerful, and the most formidable for courage and discipline, that the annals of mankind have recorded. She is at present

the undoubted *Queen of the Ocean*, an envied and hazardous station; which can be preserved only by the union of equity and moderation with vigorous exertion. It has been an advantage of the combination of manufactures with foreign commerce, that wealth has been generally diffused through the country, scarcely any part of it being out of the reach of profitable employment. The advanced demand for the necessaries of life has given additional encouragement to agriculture, and the value of land and its products has fully kept pace with the influx of opulence. Lands newly taken into culture, neat farms, elegant villas, thriving towns, and smiling villages, every where meet the traveller's eye. The mutual communication of the different parts is promoted by turnpike roads in every direction, and by inland navigation, which has been carried on during the last 40 or 50 years with most unexampled spirit. Canals now spread their arms over the surface of the island, connecting all the great towns and navigable rivers, and forming a system of water-communication more complete than exists in any other country

country in Europe, with the exception of the Netherlands. The mechanical skill and invention displayed in their construction would alone suffice to do honour to the national genius.

The metropolis of the British empire, *London*, is beyond question the most populous and opulent city in Europe, nor is it known to be surpassed in these respects by any in the world, if those of China and Japan be excepted. The advantage of being at the same time the civil and the commercial capital has given it this superiority. By means of its noble river, the Thames, it is rendered a port, accessible to the largest merchant ships, whilst its remoteness from the sea secures it from the sudden attacks of an enemy. If in point of architectural magnificence it cannot vie with some of the continental cities, yet in every thing which conduces to convenience and comfort it may challenge competition. Its inhabitants, besides the ordinary trades and occupations belonging to a great and luxurious metropolis, are employed in various branches of manufacture, and in the multiplied concerns

cerns of foreign and domestic commerce and shipping. The people of London, Westminster, the borough of Southwark, and some contiguous country parishes, were returned at the late enumeration at upwards of 864,000. To the distance of several miles round, villages closely succeed each other, filled with the elegant residences of the merchants and other opulent inhabitants of London; nor would any circumstance so much enhance a foreigner's idea of the capital, as the buildings which border every avenue to it, and the long lines of lamps illuminating the roads that converge from every quarter.

The second sea-port of the kingdom is *Liverpool*, a town risen to importance within a late period, and now ranking as the third in population. Its natural harbour, formed by the mouth of the river Mersey, is but indifferent; but its docks, occupying the heart of the town, are very secure and convenient receptacles for its numerous shipping. The Guinea, West India, American, and Irish trades are the principal branches of its commerce. *Bristol*, a city which

long ranked next to London, is still very considerable for population and opulence. Its harbour is the bed of the small river Avon, opening into the Bristol channel, inconvenient of access, and unworthy of the traffic of the place. Its dealings are principally with the West Indies, with Spain, Portugal, and Ireland. *Hull*, on the Humber, is a port of great commerce, principally to the Baltic. It possesses a large dock. *Newcastle*, besides the coal trade, carries on a considerable general traffic. The two southern ports of *Plymouth* and *Portsmouth*, are the principal stations of the royal navy, for the use of which they have docks and arsenals of great magnitude. They are large, fortified, and commercial towns. Many other sea-port towns would require mention in a more minute description. Notice would also be claimed for the many sea-bathing places, which modern custom has planted all round the coasts, and several of which are become extensive groups of showy and fashionable buildings, constituting a very striking and peculiar feature of the island.

The

The principal manufacturing towns in England have already been mentioned. *Leeds* might have been added, as the most populous and wealthy of the Yorkshire clothing towns. *Exeter* is a provincial capital, which is the medium of a considerable exportation of the western woollen goods, and importation of foreign articles, by its port of Topsham. In general, those towns which from ancient consequence were made episcopal sees, have sunk in the scale of comparative wealth and population. Many of them, however, are agreeable residences, and are rendered venerable by their cathedrals, the most stately relics of former art and grandeur. Two inland cities, *Bath* and *Oxford*, are worthy of being visited for their architectural character. *Bath*, the great resort of fashionable invalids and the votaries of pleasure, strikes the eye by its elegant piles of white stone building in the modern style, some of them richly ornamented. *Oxford*, by the intermixture of Gothic and Grecian edifices, for the most part well disposed for the view, and uniting the sensations of collegiate retirement with those of

grandeur and magnificence, never fails to make a strong impression on the traveller.

The capital of Scotland, *Edinburgh*, is rendered striking by a commanding and picturesque situation, and by the peculiarity of its building. The old town, upon the model of some on the continent, is remarkable for the loftiness of its houses, which are inhabited in different floors by distinct families. The new town is laid out with perfect regularity, and consists of streets of elegant modern houses built of hewn stone. In population *Edinburgh* ranks among the European capitals of the third order. For cultivated and literary society it is scarcely excelled by any. At a small distance, on the firth of *Forth*, is its sea-port, *Leith*, a place of considerable and increasing commerce.

Glasgow, in elegance of building, and the opulence proceeding from commerce and manufactures, has scarcely a superior among the secondary towns in the island. Its port on the *Clyde* has a great share in the *West-India* trade. *Aberdeen*, the principal sea-port of the north, is a well-built city, possessing various manufactures, and a numerous

rous population. *Dundee*, on the firth of Tay, has an excellent harbour, and a flourishing trade. It is the chief place of exportation for the linens of the country.

Scotland in general, and the north of England, are the parts of the island in which the principal improvements are at present carrying on; the metropolis excepted, which seems to have set no bounds to its extension, or to the plans of its increase in civil and commercial accommodation.

The population of England, including the army, navy, and seamen in the merchant service, was found at the late enumeration to exceed 9,300,000. That of Scotland (with its islands) is stated at above 1,600,000. Great Britain may therefore be reckoned to contain eleven millions of people, which is a smaller relative population than that of some European countries more favourably situated as to climate. The rapid increase which it has obtained during the last half-century seems, however, to be still progressive. It probably already surpasses the number that could be comfortably maintained from internal resources only; but the industry

try and ingenuity of the natives, employed in commerce and manufactures, is a fund which has no assignable limits.

The wide diffusion of luxury, and the excessive burdens of taxation have, however, advanced the necessaries and ordinary comforts of life to such an enormous price, that to support a decent station in society is become a very difficult task ; whence the acquisition of wealth has been rendered the general concern, to a degree that has injured a national character, in many points truly respectable. In political affairs it has greatly impaired the spirit of independence at home, and the principle of justice towards other countries. In private life it has caused money rather than glory to be looked to as the reward of eminence, and has introduced an estimate of the value of talents and attainments formed upon speculations of profit alone. Wealth, however, when acquired, is in general no where enjoyed more reasonably or imparted more liberally ; and there is a fund of generosity and humanity in the British character which powerfully counteracts the narrow unfeeling spirit of calculating avarice.

IRELAND.

THIS noble portion of the British empire is an island situated to the west of Great Britain, from which it is separated by a narrow sea. It lies chiefly between the 52d and 55th degrees of N. latitude, but extends somewhat beyond them at each extremity. Its greatest length taken obliquely from S. W. to N. E. is about 300 miles: its breadth across the middle exceeds 160 miles.

In climate Ireland differs from England only in being more directly exposed to the influence of the Atlantic ocean, and its prevailing winds. Hence it still more abounds in moisture, and its atmosphere is more enveloped in clouds and fogs; at the same time it is proportionally less subject to the severity of frost. From early times it acquired the title of *green Erin*, and could not fail to delight the eye of those who visited it from the black moors and hills of Scotland, or the parched coasts of the south of Europe.

The

The general face of the country is level, its hills or mountains being only in short detached ridges. Of these, some of the most conspicuous run from the south-western point of the island towards the south-eastern coast, appearing again, after an intermission, in the county of Wicklow, and detaching branches towards the central parts. The western coast of the county of Galway is likewise a mountainous region; and groups of hills may be traced at intervals round the northern coast.

One of the most striking features of this country is the quantity of bog by which its surface is deformed, and which probably has usurped the place of the forests that formerly overspread the island. The bogs are not confined to the level tracts, but frequently rise into hills. They are a great obstruction both to travelling and to agriculture, but they furnish an inexhaustible supply of fuel to the neighbouring poor. The reclaiming of these bogs offers an arduous task to the spirit of improvement, which in several places is successfully begun.

The sea-coast of Ireland is much more
entire

entire on the east and north sides than on the west and south, exhibiting in a striking manner the difference between a shore sheltered by a near opposite coast, and one beaten by the waves of a vast unbroken ocean. The western side, particularly, is cut into deep bays and inlets, forming capacious and excellent harbours. The northern extremity of the island is distinguished by a remarkable natural curiosity, called *the Giant's Causeway*, consisting of magnificent ranges of basaltic columns, which fill a considerable space on the shore, and run out into the sea.

The rivers of Ireland have in general but a short course. The most considerable is the *Shannon*, which rises from the lake of Allen, in the county of Leitrim, and after traversing two other large lakes, and watering a wide tract of country in its course from north to south, at length discharges itself by a broad estuary into the Atlantic ocean, between the counties of Limerick and Clare. The next in magnitude is the *Barrow*, which has its source in King's county, to the west of Dublin. It flows due south-wards

wards to its discharge into St. George's channel below Waterford. It is joined near its mouth by the *Suir*, from the county of Tipperary, which nearly equals it in length of course.

The Irish lakes are numerous, and many of them large. The most extensive are *Lough-Neagh*, in the north-eastern quarter, and *Lough-Earn* in the north-western. The lake of *Killarney*, so much celebrated for its romantic beauties, is near the south-western extremity of the island. In general, lakes are most frequent in the provinces of Ulster and Connaught.

The soil of Ireland, where not occupied by moors or morasses, is in general highly fertile, and productive of the sustenance for man and beast usually raised under similar latitudes. The wetness of the climate renders the growth of grain somewhat precarious; and it is fortunate that its place is so well supplied by the abundance of potatoes, which were first introduced hither from America, and became a common article of food when they were little known in any other European country. This root, and
oats,

oats, constitute the chief farinaceous food of the poor. To the breeding and feeding of cattle, the soil and climate are particularly favourable : hence the lower classes are usually well supplied with milk ; and butter, salted provisions, and live cattle are exported in large quantities, especially from the south of Ireland. Much wool is also produced from the numerous flocks of sheep kept in the hilly districts. Flax is a common crop in the soils suited to it. There is still room for great improvement in the agriculture of this country, which has lain under particular discouragements from various circumstances of internal regulation.

Ireland is not distinguished for mineral wealth. It boasts, indeed, of a gold mine in the county of Wicklow, which has occasionally yielded masses of the precious metal, some of considerable size, found in the bed of a brook flowing from a mountain ; but it is not likely that the quantity will ever repay the cost of a further research. Copper mines are worked in the same mountainous ridge, and have been opened in other parts. Iron is more generally diffused ; but the

the founderies for extracting the ore are not of any considerable magnitude. The scarcity of fuel must operate against any profitable concerns of this kind. Though beds of coal have been discovered in various parts of the island, they have not been followed to any extent, except at Kilkenny and near Newry: the capital, and most of the towns on the eastern side, are supplied with coals from England.

The inhabitants of Ireland derive their origin from different stocks. The great body of the nation is a Celtic tribe of very ancient establishment in this island, who speak a dialect of the Celtic tongue, called Erse or Gaelic. The settlement of the English by conquest in the reign of Henry II, to whom continual accessions were made in the subsequent reigns, gave a mixture of English blood, with the language and manners of that nation. The northern province of Ulster has received successive bodies of colonists from Scotland. From these circumstances political consequences arose which long ruled the fate of Ireland, and still exert an influence over it. The repugnance of the native
Irish,

Irish to the English yoke produced a long series of insurrections and rebellions, which naturally caused the bands of subjection to be drawn tighter. Confiscations and proscriptions multiplied, till at length almost all the original inhabitants were stript of their properties, and driven back to the savage state. Religious differences increased these disorders. The English reformation was rejected not only by the native Irish, but by the descendants of the early English settlers; and the establishment of a protestant church upon the model of that of England, instead of converting the mass of people from popery, only added to their grievances, and inflamed their disaffection. At present it is reckoned that at least two-thirds of the people are Roman catholics; and of the remaining third, about one-half are dissenters, chiefly of the presbyterian sect, introduced by the settlers from Scotland. It is obvious, that an ecclesiastical establishment, five-sixths of the expense of which is borne by those who do not share in its benefits, can never cease to be regarded as an oppressive burden by the nation at large.

The

The Irish national character, especially that of the original stock, is considerably different from that of Great Britain. Greater vivacity and quickness of parts, propensities more social, and stronger sensibilities of all kinds, accompanied with the usual attendants on such qualities, unsteadiness and want of self-government, sufficiently mark them as a distinct people. The state of perpetual hostility against government, and of internal dissension, in which they have long lived, has given a ferocity to the lower classes, and not to them alone, which too frequently breaks out in savage and bloody deeds; yet no people display more faithful and affectionate attachment to those who have conciliated their good-will. A precipitancy of manner, and a proneness to exaggeration, have introduced into the conversation-style of the Irish a kind of hurry and confusion, which has subjected them to the imputation of often falling into ludicrous contradictions: but, on the other hand, eloquence is natural to them; and they display more imagination than their eastern neighbours. Few nations have given more unde-

niable proofs of a genius adapted to scientific and literary pursuits; but it is to be lamented that the prevalence of dissipation has exerted so unfavourable an influence upon the general habits of life, that scarcely any European country is less distinguished by the productions of its press. In this point Ireland is a striking contrast to Scotland.

The state of subordination in which Ireland was held by the British government, and the restrictions upon her commerce, have been gradually relaxing during the present reign, till at length an *act of union* has admitted her to all the rights and privileges of the larger country. Her parliament has merged in a proportionate share of members in the British houses of lords and commons. A viceroy, or lord-lieutenant, still resides in Dublin to administer the executive government in that island, the detached situation and peculiar circumstances of which render such an appointment necessary. One of these circumstances is the disabilities under which a large majority of the inhabitants (the Roman catholics) lie with respect to offices of trust and profit,
and

and the right of sitting in parliament. It is to be presumed, from the liberality of the times, that such disqualifications will be removed as soon as prudence will permit.

The staple manufacture of Ireland is white linens. These are made in quantities sufficient for a large exportation, chiefly to England and America. Much of the flax employed in it is the produce of the country. The town of Belfast is the centre of the linen trade, which extends over great part of the province of Ulster. That part of Ireland is in consequence the best cultivated, and inhabited by the most opulent and orderly people. Woollen manufactures prevail in the south-east, at Wexford and its neighbourhood. Dublin possesses fabrics of silk and mixed stuffs. The cotton trade is beginning to make a progress in some parts. The dressing of leather is a considerable branch of business, and various other species of manufacture have been introduced to employ the rising industry of this country. It is still, however, in internal improvement of every kind much behind the sister-island.

The

The metropolis, *Dublin*, is the second city in the British dominions. It has a few magnificent public buildings, and many modern streets which may vie with those of London for elegance. The style of living is gay and luxurious; but grandeur here, and throughout the island, is too closely bordered on by meanness and beggary. The harbour of Dublin is incommodious, though great sums have been expended on its improvement. Its commerce is chiefly that occasioned by its own wants. The number of inhabitants is estimated at 150,000, many of whom are engaged in manufacture. Dublin possesses the only Irish university, formed upon the model of those in England, and like them an appendage of the ecclesiastical establishment. Its situation in a dissipated capital is unfavourable to morals and discipline; and it affords a very inadequate provision for public education in a populous country. The neighbourhood of Dublin has many pleasing and romantic situations, adorned with elegant villas. Its bay is greatly admired as a sea-view.

Cork, the second city for wealth and population, situated on the south-east side of the island, has one of the most capacious harbours in Europe. It is a place of great commerce, and is particularly the mart for the provision-trade; on which account it is visited by numbers of ships outward-bound to the West Indies and other parts. Beef, hides, tallow, and butter, are its principal articles of exportation. *Waterford*, a populous town at the mouth of the Suir, deals largely in the same commodities. *Limerick*, on the Shannon, is the third city in Ireland for population. Its trade is of the same kind with that of the two preceding. *Galway*, on a bay opening to the Atlantic, carries on an extensive trade with the West Indies. *Londonderry*, at the extremity of Lough-Foyle, on the northern coast, is celebrated in the military annals of the country, as the strong hold of the protestant interest in those parts. *Belfast*, chiefly inhabited by colonists from Scotland, flourishes by its linen and cotton manufactures, and has a close connexion with Glasgow. *Dundalk*, *Drogheda*, and *Wexford*, are port towns

towns of considerable trade. The inland towns of Ireland are of little consequence.

Nothing displays the inferiority of this country in respect to industry and police so much as the wretched condition of the rural poor, who live in miserable huts, half naked, and scarcely provided with common necessaries. Yet they generally marry and bring up large families, furnishing a copious supply of emigrants to England, or other countries where their services are in demand. The whole population of Ireland has been variously stated, at from three to four millions. A late estimate raises it much higher.

SMALLER BRITISH ISLES.

As appendages to the principal British isles, a great number of inferior islands are scattered over the surrounding seas. These, indeed, are not disposed in any regular proportion to the adjacent lands; for, while those attached by situation to England and Ireland are few and inconsiderable, Scotland can boast of a retinue which makes an important accession to her territory.

The ISLE OF WIGHT, situated near the middle of the southern side of England, is a part of the county of Hants, from which it is separated by a channel a few miles in breadth. It is about 21 miles by 13 in extent, beautifully varied in its surface with hill and dale, and fronted towards the sea on the southern side with white cliffs of picturesque grandeur. Its soil is fertile in grain, and the softness of its air and beauty of its prospects have rendered it a favourite residence of many persons of fortune. By its
position

position it affords an effectual shelter to the harbour of Portsmouth; and its road of Spithead opposite that port is a noted station of men of war for the protection of the channel. Among its products are pipe-clay used in the potteries, and fine white sand employed as a material of glass.

At some distance from the Land's-end, in Cornwall, lie the SCILLY ISLANDS, a numerous cluster of rocky islets, of which only a few are inhabited. The largest is called *St. Mary's*. Small cattle, sheep, and rabbits, are their principal wealth. Kelp, in considerable quantities, is burnt on their shores, and forms an article of export. The Scilly rocks have been fatal to many ships entering the channel from foreign voyages.

We must hence cross over to the coast of France to notice some islands which, as members of the former duchy of Normandy, passed with it under the British dominion, and have ever since been retained among the possessions of its crown. It is, however, only in a political view that they can be reckoned

reckoned British, being by situation and character properly French.

GUERNSEY, the largest of these, is about 36 miles in circuit. It is hilly, and bare of trees, but verdant, and pastures a number of horned cattle, of a small but esteemed breed. JERSEY, somewhat smaller, but more fertile, is the most agreeable and best peopled of the islands. It has several pleasant valleys abounding in apple-trees, which yield a large quantity of cyder. Jersey has two towns, and about 20,000 inhabitants. ALDERNEY is a small island; and SARK almost a mere rock; but both are peopled. These islands are all of difficult access, and easily defended. They carry on a large contraband trade between France and England during peace, and are a station for privateers in time of war. The inhabitants are of French origin, and speak that language; but follow the religion of the church of England. They are faithfully attached to the English government, to their connection with which they owe their chief consequence. They produce many skilful and adventurous mariners, very
useful

useful to the navy on account of their intimate acquaintance with the French coasts.

A few small islands occur in the Bristol channel and on the Welch coast, but which claim no particular notice. The ISLE OF ANGLESEY has already been mentioned as a Welch county. It is separated by so narrow a channel from the main land, that it can scarcely be regarded as detached from the rest of the principality.

The ISLE OF MAN lies in the Irish sea, at nearly an equal distance from the three kingdoms. It is about 30 miles in length, and 15 in its greatest breadth. Its coasts are rocky, and the centre of the island rises into a lofty mountain. The soil in general is poor, and the appearance of the country is bleak and naked. Black cattle and sheep are the chief rural riches. Its mountains contain lead, copper, iron, with marble and other stones. Its coasts are plentifully supplied with fish, which constitutes a great part of the food of the poorer inhabitants. The island is well peopled, and is the see of a bishop of the English church. It was
long

long in the possession of the Norwegians, and afterwards became a distinct sovereignty, vested in certain noble families. The great prevalence of smuggling caused it at length to be annexed by purchase to the British crown.

The isles of Scotland are situated to the north and west of that country. The Western Isles, called HEBRIDES, or, more properly, HEBUDES, form a barrier against the Atlantic ocean for almost the whole length of Scotland; and, by their great irregularity of outline and scattered position, give the appearance of the relics of land torn from the main mass by the invasion of a raging sea. These islands may be distributed into groups, of which the larger are the centres, and the smaller the outskirts.

Not far from the northern coast of Ireland the Scottish sea is broken into various channels, running between the isles of Arran, Bute, Ilay, Jura, and the intermediate peninsula of Cantyre.

ARRAN is an island of considerable size, moderately fertile, and well inhabited. It is

is mountainous, and rises to a high summit in its centre. It produces black cattle and barley in a sufficiency for exportation.

BUTE, a smaller island, is pleasant and well cultivated. It contains a town of moderate population, *Rothsay*, and an elegant seat of the nobleman who takes his title from the island. Both these lie in the firth of Clyde, and scarcely belong to the Hebrides, from which they are separated by Cantyre.

ILAY, the largest island of the first Hebridian group, contains lead-mines, and affords vestiges of other metals. Its chief produce is black cattle. JURA, a long and narrow island, almost contiguous to the former, is very rugged in its surface. It is distinguished by a line of regular conic hills, called the Paps, almost bare of vegetation. A remarkable whirlpool is situated at its northern extremity. The smaller but more fertile isles of ORANSA and COLONSA belong to this group.

The next group northwards has for its centre the large island of MULL, mountainous and steril. Of the small isles round it are LISMORE, fertile in grain; IONA, or

ICOLM-

ICOLM-KILL, famous for the ruins of religious edifices, which, in the early ages of Christianity, gave it a character of sanctity, and caused it to be chosen as the burial-place of several of the Scottish kings; and STAFFA, lately brought into notice as a mass of basaltic columns, remarkably regular, and disposed so as to produce striking effects.

Further to the north is the ISLE OF SKEY, the largest of the Hebrides, measuring about 45 miles by 22. It is of an irregular lacerated form, and rough and hilly in its surface. It breeds a number of small horses and black cattle, and maintains 15,000 inhabitants, dispersed in clusters of mean huts. Several small islands are grouped with it.

To the west of Skey a long line of islands extends in a direction from north to south, which may be considered as the great barrier to the north of Scotland against the waves of the Atlantic ocean. It is composed of the Long-island, or LEWIS, of which the southern extremity is named HARRIS; NORTH AND SOUTH UIST; BENBECULA, and BARRA. The united length of these exceeds a hundred miles. They are all rough, rude, and

bare tracts, poorly maintaining a scattered population. The town of *Stornaway*, in Lewis, possessed of an excellent harbour, exhibits, however, some appearance of cultivated life. Considerably to the west of them lies the rocky islet of *ST. KILDA*, a spot in the Atlantic ocean, the resort of sea-fowl, which afford the chief sustenance to a few simple inhabitants.

In all the Hebrides the language and manners of the Scotch Highlands prevail. The climate in general is dark and gloomy, with a sky involved in almost perpetual rain or mist, but subject to no extremity of frost. Of some islands the soil is tolerably fertile; but most of them are encumbered with rocks and mountains, and deformed with bogs and moors. The produce of grain is insufficient for the wants of the inhabitants, who are obliged to barter their principal wealth, black cattle, for barley or oatmeal to keep them from starving. Yet in years of tolerable plenty, they are so infatuated as to convert all the grain not wanted for immediate consumption into a baneful spirit called whisky, the darling cordial of all these regions.

gions. Many of the coasts abound in fish, but the means or skill are wanting to make due advantage of this treasure. In no part of the British dominions are the labouring class kept in more squalid poverty, or subject to more hardships; hence they are a melancholy and dispirited race, rendered indolent through despair of mending their condition, and superstitious from the surrounding gloom and solitude of nature. Great emigrations have taken place from these islands to America, and no settlers carry with them more confirmed habits of order and frugality.

Directly to the north of Scotland, beyond a strait called the Pentland firth, lie the ORKNEYS, a numerous group of islands, of which the principal is termed the *Mainland*, otherwise *Pomona*, a name conveying ideas very different from the real face of nature in this bleak and storm-beaten region. This, and the other inhabited islands, in number twenty-six, are able, however, to support a considerable population by their products of cattle, sheep, and grain, with sea-fowl and
fish.

fish. The soil in Mainland is generally good, though shallow; the face of the country, rugged and bare. The people are industrious and civilized, busied in the manufacture of linen-yarn, and coarse linens, and in the burning of kelp. Their number in all the islands is about 23,000. The Orkneys were long under the dominion of Norway, the language of which country was spoken in them; but it has given way to the English. *Kirkwall*, the principal town, has an ancient cathedral and bishop's palace.

Further north, with a considerable interval of sea, are situated the SHETLAND ISLES, a similar group. It has also its *Mainland*, surrounded with a number of islets, of which twenty-six are reckoned to be inhabited. The Mainland of Shetland is a large island, deeply intersected by the sea. It is a singularly rugged tract, bordered by craggy cliffs, impending at a vast height over the sea. These islands are wilder and more dreary than the Orkneys, in proportion to their more northern climate. They have some arable land

on the coasts, on which they grow a little grain and culinary vegetables. Their sheep are a very small breed, remarkable for the fineness of the wool upon part of their bodies. Their diminutive horses are imported into Great Britain as a curiosity. Fish and sea-fowl contribute to their sustenance; and the bird-catchers of Shetland display the boldness and skill for which the Norwegians are celebrated. The number of inhabitants exceeds 20,000. The principal town, *Larwick*, in Mainland, is situated upon the fine harbour of Brassa Sound, which is a noted resort of the herring-fishers, both Dutch and British, who here await the prodigious shoals of that fish which begin to make their appearance in the month of June. It is likewise a frequent place of call of the Greenland whale-ships, which often add to their crews from the hardy mariners of the island.

FRANCE.

FRANCE.

THIS country, which, from its natural advantages and the character of its inhabitants, has long held a place among the principal European powers, has from late events filled such a space in the history of the age, and has acquired such an accumulation of power and consequence, that the attention of all its neighbours is irresistibly attracted to it.

France, the ancient Gaul, is marked out as one of the separate countries of Europe by natural limits on three of its sides: these are, the channel between it and England on the north; the bay of Biscay (a portion of the Atlantic ocean) on the west; and the Pyrenean mountains and Mediterranean sea on the south. It remained to draw the connecting eastern line, and this it has cost deluges of blood to establish. Long fluctuating on the borders of Italy, Germany, and the Netherlands, the struggles of the Revolution have at length advanced it to the

the Alps, the Jura, the Rhine and the Maes*.

This extensive tract occupies the middle region of the temperate zone, chiefly between the 43d and 51st degrees of N. latitude, and its greatest breadth from east to west is not much inferior to its length. The face of country within such a compass cannot but be much diversified; but upon the whole it tends to a level. Elevations deserving the name of mountains occur only about the centre of France, in Auvergne, thence running in a long narrow ridge, chiefly bearing the name of the *Cevennes*, in a south-western direction, till they terminate in the *Pyrenees*: a branch proceeding from this ridge in a north-westerly line forms the lofty *Cantal* and *Mont d'Or*. On the eastern border, the low and rounded chain of the *Vosges* begins on

* Indeed, by the late annexation of Piedmont, the barrier of the Alps has been passed, and an inroad made upon the plains of Italy. While this article is writing, Genoa with its territory has also been annexed to France, so that it seems on this side to have no other limit than that of its ruler's cupidity and the acquiescence of its neighbours.

the frontiers of Champagne and Franche-comté, and, running southwards parallel to the course of the Rhine, terminates in the *Jura*. If Savoy be now regarded as indissolubly annexed to France, the loftiest chain of the Alps, containing *Mont Blanc*, *Mont Cenis*, and the neighbouring heights, are in her possession. Branches of the Alps also overspread the county of Provence. The Pyrenees give a mountainous character to all the French departments on their border. Bretagne or Britany is a hilly country with extensive heaths, much resembling Cornwall.

Of the absolutely level tracts, that of the French Netherlands has already been noticed. On the western side, extensive morasses occur in the Vendée and the adjacent districts. From the mouth of the Garonne to the Spanish border, the coast consists of a flat, sandy, and barren tract, called the *landes*. The other parts of France are in general agreeably varied with gentle risings and depressions.

Numerous rivers spread like veins through the whole country, diffusing beauty and fertility as they pass. Of these, the greatest number take their rise in the middle ridge

above described, and discharge their contents into the bay of Biscay. The principal of them is the *Loire*, a noble stream, which, from its source in Languedoc, holds a northern course as far as Orleans, where it turns due west, and, passing Tours, enters the sea below Nantes. It receives most of the rivers from the central parts of France, some of which are considerable. Its course is estimated at 430 miles, and it is navigable to the distance of 80 or 90 miles from its source. The tract of country watered by the Loire and its tributaries is accounted the finest in France.

Further to the south, the united *Dordogne* and *Garonne* enter the sea by a broad estuary below Bourdeaux. The first of these rises in the mountains of Auvergne; the second, in the Pyrenees; and they carry off the waters of all the intermediate space.

The principal river emptying itself into the British channel, is the *Seine*, which, rising in Burgundy, takes its way through beautiful and romantic valleys to Paris. Thence, in a very winding course, augmented by the *Marne* and several other rivers from the

north-east, it flows on to Rouen, below which it reaches the sea at Havre de Grace.

The *Meuse* has already been mentioned as a river of the Netherlands: its source is in Lorrain. The *Moselle*, which rises in the hills of Alsace, and joins the Rhine at Coblentz, is now become through all its course a French river.

The great stream of the south of France is the *Rhone*. Its source in Switzerland was pointed out under that article. After issuing from the lake of Geneva, it takes a western course till it arrives at Lyons, where it is joined by the *Saone*, an equal ally rather than a tributary. This river forces the Rhone into its own direction, which it thenceforth holds with little deviation, till it enters the Mediterranean by several mouths. The Rhone receives all the streams from the mid and south-eastern part of France. One of the principal of these is the *Durance*, which, from its head in the Alps, flowing across Provence, makes its junction near Avignon.

France is blessed with a climate more favourable, perhaps, on the whole, to the sustenance and pleasure of human life than any

other in Europe. The extent of latitude which it occupies produces considerable variation of temperature; but the greater part of it lies within the middle portion of the temperate zone. The districts adjacent to the British channel, in coolness and moisture resemble the opposite counties of England. This region is not genial to the vine, but is highly favourable both to arable and pasturage. Normandy is scarcely distinguishable in appearance and products from the best counties of England; and its apple-orchards, like those of Devonshire, afford the common beverage of the inhabitants. The middle zone of France from side to side enjoys a climate equally adapted to the culture of the vine and other fine fruits, and to the growth of grain. The high country of Auvergne, however, makes a considerable deduction from the fertility and agreeableness of this region, being a bleak and sterile tract. Nor are the districts of Champagne and Burgundy among the more desirable countries, though so much celebrated for their vineyards. The wines of France have less body than those of the more southern countries, but
are

are light and delicate, abounding in volatile particles. . . Those of the districts above mentioned are most valued by the natives, while the rougher clarets of Gascony chiefly supply the foreign demand, and are used in the distillation of brandy. The principal evil attending the middle of France is the violent hail storms, which often lay waste the hopes of the year.

The southern portion of France displays the power of increased solar influence, in its products of the olive and maize added to that of the vine, and also in the darkened hue of its inhabitants, and in the absence of verdure from the landscape during the summer and autumnal months. To the fine fruits of this latitude is added the orange, but only at the extreme southern point. The Flora of this region is augmented by many natives of southern Europe; and the common aromatics acquire a high flavour, and afford an object of culture on account of the essences and distilled liquors prepared from them. The plague of insects accompanies these tokens of a warmer sun; and storms rage with peculiar violence in its mountainous tracts.

tracts. The soil of many districts is far from rich, and agriculture flourishes much less than in the northern departments.

Extensive forests are still seen in various parts of France. Wood being almost the sole fuel as yet in use, large tracts are necessarily devoted to the raising of a regular supply; and the pleasures of the chase, with the advantages derived from plenty of game, were objects of importance to the feudal lords, who were the principal landholders before the revolution. The forests and mountains give shelter to several wild animals; and no severe winter passes without considerable mischief from troops of wolves descending from the Alps, Pyrenees, and Cevennes.

It is a fault in the agricultural system of France, that domestic animals are reared in a very inadequate proportion to the growth of grain; a circumstance which has been owing to the poverty of the cultivators of the soil. To the same cause, and the little disposition of the higher orders to a rural life and its occupations, may probably be ascribed the fact that there is no one breed of any domestic animal of distinguished excellence in
the

the country. The horned cattle of some parts, however, are good, and the markets of Paris are well supplied with beef. In Provence and Languedoc are large flocks of sheep, which, like those of Spain, are migratory, and change their pastures according to the season; but they are not famous for fineness of wool.

France, within its ancient limits, abounds less with mineral riches than many other European countries; it is, however, not destitute of the most useful of these products. Britany affords considerable quantities of lead, which metal is also met with in the Vosges mountains, and in the maritime Alps. The district of Vosges, chiefly comprehending the ancient Alsace, is one of the most metallic in the French dominions, and yields silver, copper, lead, iron, quicksilver, cobalt, and manganese. The former German part of this mountainous chain is particularly rich in metals. Iron is diffused over many of the hilly districts, especially in the northern departments. Coal exists in many parts of France; and the signal advantages derived from this substance in Great Britain have caused

caused an active search to be made for it in this country. A large number of coal mines are said to be now in working; yet it may be doubted whether the quality is so good, or the operations for raising it conducted in so spirited and intelligent a manner, as in England. A prejudice prevails against its use as domestic fuel; whence it seems hitherto to have been chiefly employed in the hardware manufactures. Jet, a kindred production of nature, has been dug in large quantities in Languedoc. Freestone for building is very common. Paris, in particular, has inexhaustible quarries of it, of excellent quality; and its neighbourhood abounds with gypsum, thence usually called plaster of Paris. A variety of beautiful marbles occur in the Pyrenees; and precious stones of various kinds are found in different parts.

Mineral waters, both warm and cold, are not rare in the mountainous districts. The hot-baths of Barege, at the foot of the Pyrenees, are particularly celebrated.

A country upon the whole so well adapted for the residence of man, has from early times possessed a large population, and been
inured

inured to all the forms and institutions of civil life. The French people are chiefly a compound of Celtic and Gothic stock; but the long continuance of the Roman dominion in Gaul must have given a strong Italian infusion, since it was able to introduce a language with a Latin basis. But, whatever were the diversities of origin, the natives of France have amalgamated into a mass possessing a national character as distinct and clearly marked as that of any numerous community in the civilized parts of the globe. The essence of this character is an exuberance of animal spirits, producing excess of mobility, and a perpetual restless activity. They are quick, ingenious, inventive, fertile in expedients, buoyant against difficulty or adversity; but mutable, trifling, confident, vain, credulous, and incapable of moderation. With much that renders them amiable in society, as readiness to oblige, delicate attentions, kind sympathy, and lively sensibility, they are often of insecure commerce from laxity of principle, unmeaning professions, jealous irritability, and a strong propensity to intrigue. Their feelings

feelings of every kind verge to excess; and there is nothing, either good or bad, of which they are not capable, under the influence of their impetuous ardour. No cabinet has excited so much disturbance among the neighbouring states, from ambition and the spirit of intermeddling, as that of France; and we have seen that no change of political system at home has made an alteration in their foreign policy. The French, beyond all people, are the creatures of society; by it their manners and sentiments are fashioned, and in it are centred their chief pleasures and gratifications. They would excel all nations in the art of conversation, were not the desire of shining too universal. The love of glory operates upon them with extraordinary force, and stimulates them to great exertions; but it is often attended with empty ostentation and gasconade.

Although a passion for novelty is apt to lead them into a multiplicity and rapid change of pursuits, yet they are capable of long and steady application when deeply interested in an object; and in every department of science and art they have attained a high degree of

of perfection. Even the mathematical sciences have been cultivated by them with a success not inferior to that of any other nation. Their writers have rendered their language familiar to the lovers of literature throughout Europe; and in the value of their productions they have no equals among the moderns, with the sole exception of the English. Their taste in letters is, upon the whole, purer than in the fine arts, in which they are generally marked by superabundance of ornament and an affected manner. In some of the inferior arts, indeed, they are unrivalled; they supply dancers and cooks to all Europe, and are the supreme arbiters of fashion in dress.

The French, naturally inquisitive and prone to discussion, had proceeded far in emancipating their minds from the shackles of an arbitrary system of government and religion, before any correspondent change had taken place in their public institutions: at the same time, refined luxury and general dissipation had relaxed the bands of morality, and accumulated abuse and disorder in every department. Financial difficulties brought

brought on a necessity for reform; and when the idea of change was once admitted, it was not in the national character to proceed in it with caution and moderation. Violent struggles between old and new principles terminated in a revolution, in which monarchy, established religion, and every institution sanctioned by age and veneration, went to wreck. The events of this dreadful period displayed prodigious energy in the nation, but accompanied with a ferocity and disregard of justice and humanity which involved the cause of reform and its supporters in indelible disgrace. A host of foreign foes united to suppress the dangerous flame, or to make advantage of the confusion; but the vigour of the new republic not only resisted all assaults, but carried its conquering arms into the surrounding countries, and finally extended the limits of France further than her most ambitious monarchs had ever attempted. This success, however, was produced by exertions of authority which subverted every thing free or republican in the constitution, and prepared the way for a military despotism. The most successful of

the generals, a man of a daring genius and capacious views, seized the reins; and first under the title of chief consul, exercised, without controul, the authority of the nominal republic. Europe has since witnessed the astonishing spectacle of the same man, an obscure Corsican by birth, causing himself to be declared emperor, with hereditary succession in his own family, crowned by the pope, recognized by all orders of the state, and thus founding a new dynasty, while the relics of the Bourbons are wandering from country to country as exiles. The Roman catholic religion has been re-established (with a full toleration, however, to the two principal protestant sects); a kind of new nobility has been instituted; arbitrary government, and all the pageantry of a court, have been restored; and it seems at present to be an allowed political maxim, that the French are incapable of the blessings of a free constitution.

The number of people now united under the dominion of France probably exceeds thirty millions; a population under one head which no power in Europe nearly equals,

Russia

Russia excepted. The military force is fully adequate to this number; the public revenues must be very considerable; and if the natural advantages of the country be considered, in connection with the spirit of the nation, France must undoubtedly be regarded as the head of the continental powers, and a just object of terror to those which are within the reach of her arms. Her influence extends beyond her actual dominion; and Spain, Italy, Switzerland, and Holland, move in subservience to her designs. The naval supremacy of Great Britain is the only check to her sway over all the southern part of Europe.

France has at different periods made a figure as a commercial and maritime power; but wars with England, and the military disposition of the people, have repeatedly brought her trade and navy to a very low condition. Her principal branch of colonial commerce has been that of the West Indies, where she possessed the most valuable part of the great and rich island of St. Domingo, with some other islands, and a settlement on the South-American continent. St. Domingo is at present in the hands of the revolted negroes,

groes, who, taking advantage of the war with England, rose in arms, and expelled or exterminated their masters. What will be the state of the other colonies can only be known at a peace. In the East Indies she holds the isles of France and Bourbon, but has lost her settlements on the coast of Coromandel.

The French empire possesses great advantages for manufactures; materials, population, industry, skill, and ready communication with the neighbouring countries; and a pacific system of policy directed to that object would certainly be attended with great accessions of wealth and internal improvement. There is scarcely a branch of manufacture which has not been pursued in some parts of the country, and many of them have at different periods been in a flourishing state. At present, French goods are not frequently seen in foreign markets. The wines and brandies of Bourdeaux, the silks of Lyons, the lace and linens of Flanders, the woollens of Normandy and Picardy, the plate-glass, porcelain, and other articles of elegant luxury of the metropolis and its vicinity,

nity, are best known in commerce. The internal communication is aided by the navigable rivers, and by several canals, of which that of Languedoc, connecting the bay of Biscay with the Mediterranean, was one of the wonders of the age of Lewis XIV.

Paris, the capital of this extensive empire, ranks next to London among the European cities in point of population, but falls considerably short of it, the last enumeration giving somewhat fewer than 548,000 inhabitants. As the seat of refined luxury, cultivated society, elegant amusements, and splendour combined with taste, it claims the first place. By the pillage of conquest it has become the receptacle of the noblest productions of art in all ages and countries, which are liberally offered to the public view in its unrivalled gallery of the Louvre. It abounds in grand public institutions and in sumptuous edifices; but in convenience, cleanliness, and the diffusion of opulence and comfort, it cannot vie with the rival metropolis. It is merely the political head of the empire, and possesses no commerce
but

but what depends upon the demands of a great city, the resort of the rich and curious from all quarters.

Lyons, accounted the second city in France, owed its great wealth, splendour, and population, to its rich manufactures of gold and silver stuffs and silk. It suffered greatly in the revolution, and is said still to remain much below its former prosperity; yet it now reckons above 100,000 inhabitants. *Marseilles* and *Bourdeaux* each equal *Lyons* in population. The former is the chief Mediterranean port, and the centre of the Levant trade, which has always been a principal branch of French commerce; the latter has a great share in the West India trade, and is the chief place of exportation for wine. Both these are towns of great architectural magnificence. *Rouen*, the capital of Normandy, maintains a great population by its various manufactures. *Abbeville*, in Picardy, is the centre of the woollen manufacture. *Nantes* is the principal commercial port in Britany; but *Brest*, in the same province, is of greater consequence, on account of its vast naval arsenals, and its fine and impregnable harbour,

bour, the usual station of the French channel fleet. *Toulon*, on the opposite side of France, bears the same relation to the naval force in the Mediterranean. *Lille*, the capital of French Flanders, and *Valenciennes*, in the same province, are noted for their fortifications; and the latter for its fine laces and cambrics.

Many other towns and cities in France are of ancient fame for their universities, provincial judicatories, or other circumstances; but the changes of the time have reduced most of these to a state of decline. In general, the expectations of augmented prosperity seem to be placed chiefly upon the newly-acquired dominions in the Netherlands, Germany, and Italy, which, indeed, exhibit a much more flourishing appearance than France itself. But the revolutionary period can scarcely be considered as yet terminated; and years of peace and settled government must elapse before this empire can display what in future it is destined to become.

SPAIN.

S P A I N.

THE great peninsula which distinguishes the south-western part of Europe is strongly marked by nature for one of its distinct portions, being surrounded by the Atlantic ocean and Mediterranean sea on all sides, except where the lofty chain of the Pyrenees, running from sea to sea, separates it from France.

It does not appear, however, that at any period the whole of this region was possessed by a single nation. The Romans and Carthaginians in their various expeditions either conquered or made alliance with many of its petty states; and in after times it was divided between several christian and mahometan princes. When the whole of present Spain was united into one monarchy under Ferdinand and Isabella, and their successors, a considerable portion of the western side of the peninsula existed as a separate kingdom, by the name of Portugal. This portion was annexed to Spain by conquest during sixty

years of the 16th and 17th centuries, but was afterwards recovered by the natives, and has ever since formed a distinct sovereignty. This separation is the more extraordinary, as the boundary between the two countries is almost entirely artificial, and Portugal bears a small proportion to Spain in extent and population. Its existence attests the weakness and impolicy of the latter government.

Spain extends from the 36th to beyond the 43d degree of N. latitude. Its extent from east to west on the northern side, where it quite crosses the peninsula, is somewhat greater; but this is abridged on proceeding southward, both by the narrowing of the whole peninsula, and by the subtraction of that slip of land which constitutes Portugal.

The country wears a very different aspect in different parts, but upon the whole may be regarded as mountainous. Long chains of hills run quite across the peninsula, in a direction, for the most part, from north-east to south-west. The Pyrenees, after completing at the bay of Biscay the barrier between France and Spain, send off a branch, which runs parallel to the sea-coast, and at

no great distance from it, along the whole northern side, giving a mountainous character to those provinces of Spain. From about the middle of this chain a branch runs inward first in a south-eastern direction, and then, turning to the south-west, takes an irregular waving course quite across Spain and Portugal, till it terminates in the promontory called the Rock of Lisbon. At successive distances to the south of this, may be traced three other nearly parallel chains, which cross all the central and southern provinces of Spain, the last of them terminating in the rock of Gibraltar. There are besides some scattered ridges on the eastern side of Spain, and one remarkable solitary mountain near Barcelona, called Montserrat or the Sawed-mountain, from its jagged pyramidal summits.

In all countries, the origin and course of the rivers are determined by the position of the mountains; and this fact is peculiarly conspicuous in those of Spain. They have their source in general far up in the country, near the head of those long mountainous chains, and are interposed between them, following
their

their line of direction, from east to west. Of these, the most northerly is the *Douro*, which, rising in the hills of Old Castille, receives a number of streams from that province, and those of Burgos and Leon; and, entering Portugal a little beyond Zamora, makes its exit in the Atlantic ocean at Oporto.

Next occurs the *Tajo* or *Tagus*, the source of which is in the Toledan chain, near the borders of Arragon. It crosses New Castille and Estremadura, and discharges itself into the Atlantic by a noble estuary below Lisbon. The course of this fine river is computed at 450 miles, which is equalled by no other in the peninsula.

The principal head of the *Guadiana* is said to be in the wild mountains of La Mancha, called Sierra Morena; but it draws several tributary waters from the Toledan chain. From Estremadura it enters Portugal, where turning directly south, it forms the limit between Algarve and Andalusia, and joins the Atlantic near Tavora. In some parts of its course it sinks into the calcareous soil, and, after a subterraneous passage of
some

some length, again issues to day. The *Guadalquivir* rises in the mountains of La Mancha, and, after watering the whole extent of the rich province of Andalusia, passes Seville and falls into the bay of Cadiz.

The eastern side of Spain is fertilized by many streams, but of little length of course. The principal is the *Ebro*, the ancient Iberus, which derives its springs from the mountains of Asturia and Biscay, and, crossing the province of Arragon, mixes with the Mediterranean below Tortosa.

The interior of Spain is for the most part an elevated country, with a light soil, of little fertility except in the immediate tract of the rivers. The long ranges of its hills consist either of arid wastes of sand, of sandstone and ferruginous rubble, of dry calcareous downs, or of moist, rough, granitic ridges, covered with a scanty vegetable mould. Gypsum is as frequent as chalk is in England, and on lixiviation produces sea-salt with a large admixture of nitre. Many natural forests of considerable extent are met with; but they have neither the majestic loftiness, nor the depth of shade, of those in the
more

more northern climates. The trees are of thin foliage and of mean growth; but many of them are of the mast-bearing kind, and the sweet acorns and chesnuts of the woods afford the unbought food of the primitive ages to the rustic inhabitants.

The latitude of Spain places it among the hottest climates of the temperate zone; for the whole peninsula is to the south of every part of France; yet since heat is determined as much by elevation of surface, as by distance from the pole, it is not to be wondered at that the central and hilly parts are subject to a considerable degree of winter-cold. Even the most southern range of mountains has obtained the name of Sierra Nevada, or the Snowy Ridge. The sea-coast is likewise refreshed by breezes which temper the burning rays of the sun as far as they reach. The heat, however, is extreme during the summer months in the valleys and low grounds, and its effects are apparent from the earliness of the seasons, and the variety and richness of the vegetable products. The natural Flora of this peninsula is extremely copious, as it comprises both the plants of northern

northern Europe, and of its own proper latitudes. The cultivated products are proportionally various, extending from the common species of grain and legumes, to maize, olives, vines, figs, oranges and lemons, and the sugar-cane. Scarcely any part of Europe can vie with the vales on the eastern coast for inexhaustible fertility, and perpetual succession of crops; and notwithstanding the large tracts of parched and barren ground, the country would be capable of amply feeding its inhabitants, were the skill and industry of the cultivators proportional to the bounty of nature.

Of domestic animals, the Spanish horse has obtained great reputation for spirit, elegance of form, and graceful movements. The asses are of remarkable size and relative beauty; and the mules are superior to those of other countries, and in consequence, of more general use. The Spanish sheep are confessedly the first in Europe for fineness of fleece, and are equally valued for the delicacy of their flesh. The management of the flocks is a national concern, regulated by a fixed code of laws. They travel in

vast

vast numbers from province to province, pasturing as they go in extensive sheep-walks left vacant for the purpose. Their owners are the king and some of the first of the nobility. Although their wool is a valuable object of commerce, yet it is supposed that the interests of agriculture are too much sacrificed to the breeding of sheep, which is rather favoured by prejudice and national indolence than justified by an intelligent policy.

Spain was anciently considered as surpassing most European countries in its mineral riches. The auriferous sands of the Tagus were of great fame, and the silver-mines, first opened by the great Carthaginian general, Hannibal, were singularly productive. The trans-atlantic wealth of which Spain became possessed seems to have checked the mining adventures at home; yet almost all the metals are still extracted in some parts of the country. In the Sierra Morena silver-mines are worked. At Almaden, in La Mancha, are valuable mines of quicksilver, the produce of which is chiefly sent to South America, as a medium for extracting the

precious metals of that country from their ores. Copper-ore is dug on the frontier of Portugal; tin occurs in Gallicia; lead in various districts; and iron abundantly, and of the finest quality: the steel of Biscay is famous throughout Europe. Antimony, cobalt, calamine, various marbles, jet, amber, rock-salt, and other rare products, are enumerated among the minerals of this country.

The human race in Spain is derived from various origins, Celtic, Gothic, Roman, African, &c. and is more mingled than in most European countries. Hence the national character appears in very different colours in its different provinces. Those on the northern side, which are hilly and of a moderate temperature, are inhabited by an industrious race, martial, enterprising, and jealous of their rights and privileges. The central and southern districts feel the influence of a hot climate, and probably of a different origin, and are distinguished by stately gravity and pride in the superior and middle ranks, and by remarkable indolence in all. The Spanish gravity, however, does not partake of phlegm or insensibility: on the contrary,
the

the Spaniards have warm passions and a lofty sense of personal dignity; and though content to be poor rather than engage in active exertions, they spurn at contumely. In general, they are sober, faithful, and honest, superstitious and prejudiced in a high degree, revengeful and severe, but principled and well-intentioned.

The Roman catholic religion appears in Spain with the excess of bigotry and intolerance; and the rigours of its inquisition have excited a horror throughout Europe, which seems at length to have shamed it into greater lenity. In no country is the triumph of the priesthood more complete; and devotion and laziness have united in peopling innumerable monasteries and nunneries. Many of the bishoprics and other ecclesiastical preferments are extremely rich, and a great share of the wealth of the country is lavished in the decorations of churches, or spent in the maintenance of the clergy.

The government, which once possessed a great share of freedom, was rendered arbitrary by the power of Charles V. and the tyranny of his son Philip II, and every ves-

tige of liberty has been obliterated. In no country have foreigners exercised more controul, and in none have abuses been permitted to prevail to a greater degree. To the jealous and arbitrary spirit of the government, and the imbecility of a worn-out race of monarchs, rather than to the temper of the nation, is to be attributed that degradation into which Spain has fallen within the two last centuries, and which has sunk her below almost every other European country in point of information, improvement, arts, and arms. While science and literature have been making continual progress through the greater part of Europe, Spain has rather gone backward than advanced; and scarcely a single work of merit enough to attract foreign notice has issued from her press. Yet that this is not owing to national defect of genius, many former productions sufficiently prove. The Spanish language is well calculated for literary purposes, being singularly energetic and sonorous. It is one of the dialects formed upon a Latin basis, but has a considerable admixture of Moorish
or

or Arabic words. In the province of **Biscay** one of the Celtic tongues is the common speech.

The decline of this country was accelerated by two very different events. The first was the expulsion of the Moors, who were possessed of a great part of the south of Spain, which they rendered flourishing by their industry and arts. Vanquished by the arms of Ferdinand and Isabella, they were obliged to quit the kingdom; and although this measure put an end to a long series of civil wars, yet it abandoned to desolation large tracts of land which had been rendered fertile and populous in their hands. The other event was the discovery of America by Columbus, under the auspices of the same monarchs, who acquired by it a greater accession of wealth and territory than any crown had before obtained. But the sudden tide of riches that poured in from this new world, and the unlimited spirit of foreign adventure that it excited, relaxed all the nerves of domestic industry, and finally reduced Spain to be little more than the
channel

channel through which the precious metals were distributed to the manufacturing and commercial states around her.

Many attempts, however, have been made to revive Spanish industry, and enable the mother-country at least to supply the wants of its colonies. Various manufactures have been introduced, some of which are flourishing. Those of silk, cotton, wool, and hardware are considerable in the northern provinces. Many other branches have been undertaken as royal concerns; but these have been almost universally mismanaged, and have had the effect of monopolies in discouraging competition. The exports of Spain in native products are chiefly wine, of which a variety of kinds are made, oil, fruit, raw silk, wool, dressed leather, and the alkaline salt called barilla. Corn is almost every year an object of importation.

In population Spain is much below the proportion of its extent and means: the number of people is stated at about eleven millions. Its revenues are large, yet the crown is poor; and plans for the public advantage

vantage usually fail for want of due supplies. The army is neither numerous nor formidable. The navy is more respectable; but its sailors are not distinguished either for courage or discipline.

Madrid, the capital, is unfavourably situated in the midst of a naked and sterile country, on the banks of a rivulet which the summer heats dry up. It possesses some fine buildings, public and private, but is a very expensive and undesirable residence. Its institutions for art and science are of little repute; and it has no commerce, except that which is created by the presence of a court, and the conflux of the nobility.

Many of the inland cities, which were once the capitals of separate kingdoms, and are still the chief towns of provinces, exhibit tokens of former grandeur, but have much declined in wealth and population. *Granada*, one of the principal of these, is famous for its fine remains of Moorish architecture. The sea-ports alone wear the appearance of prosperity. *Seville*, reckoned the first city in Spain, was the centre of the
American

American commerce, till it was removed to the more maritime situation of Cadiz. It is, however, a splendid and populous place, thriving by its manufactures of silk and stuff. *Cadiz*, built on an island in a bay to the south of the estuary of the Guadalquiver, is the first commercial port, and the deposit of the wealth of the American mines. It also possesses arsenals and docks for the royal navy. *Malaga* is distinguished for the wines and fruit which are the produce of its neighbourhood, and are exported from its harbour.

Barcelona, the capital of Catalonia, enjoys the credit and advantage of more industry than any other Spanish town, connected with a spirit of freedom and independence for which it has always been noted. Its manufactures of silk, cotton, wool, and hardware are carried on with vigour, and employ a numerous population, and its port is the resort of trading vessels from most commercial states. *Corunna*, in Gallicia, has the advantage of a fine harbour, but the surrounding country affords few objects of traffic. Near it is the naval station of *Ferrol*. *Bil-*
VOL. I. s *boa*,

boa, enlivened by the active and enterprising disposition of the Biscayners, is a flourishing seat of commerce.

The strongest fortress in Spain, perhaps in the world, Gibraltar, seated on a rock at the narrow entrance of the Mediterranean, has long been in the possession of England, and has defied the most vigorous attempts of Spain, assisted by France, to restore it to its natural master. The humiliation to Spain from this circumstance is perhaps greater than the advantage to England.

Spain is possessed of three islands in the Mediterranean, *Majorca* or *Mallorca*, *Minorca*, and *Ivica* or *Eviza*, anciently known by the name of the Balearic isles, and celebrated for their slingers. In products they resemble the adjacent continent: their fruits and honey are particularly esteemed.

The vast colonial possessions of Spain, in the value of which she surpasses every other country, will be treated of under the quarters of the world to which they geographically belong.

PORTUGAL.

PORTUGAL.

THIS country, which nearly corresponds with the ancient Lusitania, occupies the western side of the Spanish peninsula, with the exception of the Spanish province of Galicia, which bounds it to the north. It is of an oblong form, extending 360 miles from north to south, with a breadth of about 120. The rivers Minho, Douro, and Guadiana give it a natural boundary only for a short space; the general limit between it and Spain is entirely artificial.

Thus blended by nature with the last-mentioned country, its external appearance cannot be expected to be very different. One of the principal mountainous ridges of Spain has already been traced across the middle of Portugal. The north-eastern corner has a cluster of mountains of its own; and the little province of Algarve in the south is separated from Alenteio by a short ridge. In general, the country is much diversified in its surface, and affords many romantic and

picturesque situations. The tracks of the great Spanish rivers which cross it have been noticed. To the *Tagus* it may lay a plausible claim, as possessing so much of the latter part of its course, and crowning its bank with its capital. The breadth of Portugal does not admit of any considerable native river: the only one deserving mention is the *Mondego*, which, passing the city of Coimbra, enters the sea between the Douro and the Tagus.

The soil of Portugal is for the most part light and shallow; it is, however, highly favourable to the vine and other fruit-trees; and, when sufficiently watered, is capable of producing abundantly every thing for the sustenance of man. The climate ranks with the most delicious and salubrious of those in the southern temperate latitudes, the heats being moderated by refreshing breezes and showers from the Atlantic. Invalids from the northern countries pass the winter and spring at Lisbon with more advantage than in most of their usual resorts. From regions buried in frost and snow, a short voyage conveys them to bright skies and balmy air,
perfumed

perfumed by the orange and myrtle, and a face of nature decorated with the charms of the vernal season.

The native vegetables of this country are in general those of Spain. Of the trees, none is so frequent as the cork-tree, which forms woods of considerable extent. Wild heaths occupy large tracts in the interior parts, overrun with a variety of shrubby plants, especially the Gum Cistus, which, when in flower, whitens the landscape for miles around.

Of mineral productions, Portugal is said to possess as great a variety as Spain, and the Lusitanian mines were anciently of great fame; but want of industry, scarcity of fuel, and still more the possession of colonial treasures, have caused them to be almost entirely neglected.

The inhabitants of Portugal sensibly exhibit the effects of a warm climate in their dark hue, and in those points of national character which are usually found to accompany the solar influence. These are, warm passions, a strong propensity to revenge, superstition, indolence, joined with abstemiousness, and

and the habit of submitting contentedly to a very scanty share of the comforts and conveniences of life. There was a period, however, when this small kingdom was the seat of more enterprise than existed in any other portion of Europe. In the earlier part of the 15th century, when the warlike spirit of Portugal was in full exercise from the frequent necessity of defending its independence, some successful expeditions into Africa gave an impulse to maritime adventure, which, favoured by a series of enlightened sovereigns, produced the grand discovery of the passage to India round the cape of Good Hope, and laid open the rich countries of that part of the globe to the arms and commerce of the Portuguese. For a long time, nothing seemed capable of resisting their efforts; and by a course of the most splendid actions they rendered their name dreaded throughout the east, and spread their settlements over all its coasts. At the same time they partook of the spoils of the new world by the discovery of Brazil, which they subdued and colonized. At length, success produced its usual effect in rendering them

tyrannical

tyrannical and effeminate; and the steadier energy of the new Dutch republic stripped them of the greater part of their acquisitions. An arbitrary government and superstitious religion contributed to debase the national character, and Portugal gradually sunk to that place in the scale of nations which alone her extent and population entitle her to preserve. Always in danger of being swallowed up by the nation of which nature seems to have designed her an integral part, she has hitherto been rescued only by the power and influence of her great commercial ally, England; and her precarious independence hangs upon the fate of the moment.

The government of Portugal is an absolute monarchy. Its religion is the Roman-catholic, to the minute observances of which the people are strongly addicted, with the usual effect of disregard of the moral duties. The rigour of the inquisition has almost totally extinguished sound learning and useful science, and no-where is education more neglected. The Portuguese language is one of the dialects from the Latin stem, and differs from the Spanish in about the same degree

as

as the Low Dutch from the German. Very few literary productions in it have obtained currency out of the country; and at present the greatest supineness seems to prevail with respect to every branch of mental cultivation.

The population of Portugal is differently stated at from 1,800,000 to upwards of two millions and a half. Its revenue would be considerable, were not its resources, like those of Spain, chiefly expended in purchasing the products of foreign industry. The principal commodity of its own growth for exportation is wine, of which Great Britain takes the greater part. Its wine is for the most part of a strong body, and little prized for delicacy of flavour. Oil, fruit, cork, and a few other native articles, are also among its exports. Its rich colony of Brazil supplies it with the precious metals, sugar, tobacco, and other products of the tropics, both for home consumption, and for foreign trade. Its remaining settlements in the east, and on the coast of Africa, provide other materials of commerce; and the flag of Portugal is still not infrequent in the eastern

eastern and western seas. The Portuguese navy, however, is now of little account; and its army is inconsiderable, and composed of the worst troops in Europe.

Lisbon, the capital, is nobly situated near the mouth of the Tagus, which affords it a safe and capacious harbour; whence it is rendered the commercial as well as the civil head of the kingdom. It has many fine edifices, and has been much improved in its plan and style of building since the dreadful earthquake of 1755, which laid the greatest part of it in ruins. Its population is computed at about 200,000. Its environs are singularly picturesque, and present some truly grand scenery.

Oporto is well known in commerce as the place whence the greatest part of the wine of Portugal (thence called Port) is shipped. Many British mercantile houses are established in it. *Coimbra*, the ancient seat of an university, is the only other city which deserves mention.

ITALY.

ITALY.

OF all the countries of Europe, Italy has the greatest share of fame accumulated upon it. Anciently the seat of one of the mightiest empires in the world, in later times that of an ecclesiastical dominion scarcely less extensive, filled with the relics of former grandeur and the master-pieces of modern art, abounding in natural beauties, and ennobled by the pens of poets and historians, it has interested curiosity of every kind, and been trod with equal rapture by the scholar, the artist, and the lover of nature.

Italy is an extensive peninsula, stretching in a direction from north-west to south-east, surrounded by the Mediterranean and Adriatic seas on all parts except the north, where a barrier of the loftiest mountains in Europe, the Alps, separates it by an indistinct boundary from France, Switzerland, and Germany. Although French conquest has in one part leaped this barrier, and endeavoured to confound a portion of the Italian territory

ITALY

with

with the natural dominion of France, yet the geographical designation of these districts must remain unchanged. Italy extends from the 38th to near the 47th degree of N. latitude; but on account of the obliquity of its position its length is considerably greater than this range of latitude would imply. Its northern extremity forms a kind of broad round head, which soon contracts to proportionally narrow dimensions, and the whole inferior portion somewhat resembles the human leg, ending in a toe at the southern point.

The surface of the land in Italy is very much diversified, and there are few parts in which hill or mountain does not enter into an extended prospect. The region of the Alps stretching from sea to sea fills with mountainous scenery a long sweep of country in the north, forming the grand outwork to the rich plain of Lombardy. From that part of the Alps which comes down to the gulf of Genoa, a chain of hills commences, which, under the name of the *Apennines*, accompanies the whole length of Italy at nearly an equal distance from both seas, till
it

it terminates abruptly in the very toe. Before it reaches its southern extremity, it sends off a branch to the east which extends into the projecting point of land called the heel or spur of Italy. The famous volcanic mountain *Vesuvius*, impending over the gulf of Naples, is detached from the Apennine chain.

As on the Helvetian side of the Alps, so on the Italian, the waters collected in the lofty region of snow and tempest form several fine lakes in the rocky bosoms between the hills. The *Lago Maggiore*, called also the *Lake of Locarno*, receives the waters of several others, among which is the *Lake of Lugano*: in this are the Borromean isles, decorated with palaces and gardens, and resembling the enchanted scenes of romance. The lakes of *Como*, of *Iseo*, and of *Garda* follow in order on proceeding eastwards, all of which extend in length from north to south, with a narrow proportional breadth. The Apennines also enclose several lakes, but of inferior magnitude.

The rivers of the north of Italy all rise in some part of the encircling chain, and coalesce

alesce as they advance. The greater number of them are tributaries to the *Po* (the ancient *Padus* and *Eridanus*), a river celebrated in history and fable, and the most considerable in Italy for length of course and quantity of water. Rising in the confines of Italy and France, it descends from the centre of the western Alps, and is augmented by numerous Alpine torrents before it washes the walls of Turin. As it flows onward, it receives perpetual accessions, among which the most important are the *Tanaro*, from the south, the *Doria*, *Tesino*, *Adda*, and *Oglio* from the north, which latter bring to the *Po* the tribute of all the above-mentioned sub-alpine lakes: at length, through the flat country of the Ferrarese, intersected by numberless communicating channels, it discharges itself by several mouths into the upper end of the Adriatic sea. Not far to the north of its termination, the *Adige* makes a separate entrance into the same sea, after a considerable length of course from the Tyrolese Alps, through the Venetian states, by the city of Verona.

The central and southern part of Italy
does

does not afford room for large rivers, since, from their origin in the Apennine chain, they cannot have far to flow into the sea on either side. The *Arno*, which, passing the delicious vale of its name, washes Florence, and enters the gulf of Genoa below Pisa, has acquired a celebrity, which is much surpassed by that of the *Tiber*, a name inseparable from that of the illustrious metropolis which crowns its banks. This river, rising in the Apennine on the eastern side of Italy, passes Perugia, and winding its way amidst the mountains, augmented by many torrents, reaches Rome, not far below which it pours its waters into the Mediterranean. Many rivulets (for they deserve no higher title) in the remaining part of Italy have acquired celebrity from the events associated with their names, but are insignificant objects in the topography of the country.

The climate of Italy must necessarily be various in such an extent of latitude and diversity of situation. The eternal snows of the highest Alps indicate the severity of cold which reigns there, and which cannot but influence the subjacent regions. Accord-
ingly,

ingly, the rigours of winter are occasionally felt through all the northern broad part of Italy, termed Lombardy. The Apennine chain, though much lower, is subject to a considerable degree of cold; and Soracte clad in snow is still no unusual spectacle to the Romans. It is in the southern part of Italy alone, at the mild Parthenope or soft Tarentum, that the luxury of a warm winter can be fully enjoyed. The influence of a southern sun, however, generally characterizes the climate; and in sheltered situations extreme heat prevails during the summer and autumnal months. A peculiar degree of brightness and clearness has been attributed to the Italian atmosphere; but probably only in comparison with that of the more northern countries, whence the principal visitors of Italy and admirers of the works of its painters have arrived.

With grim delight the brood of winter view
A brighter day, and heavens of azure hue.

GRAY.

It is difficult otherwise to conceive how a peninsula drawn out between two seas, and divided by a mountainous ridge, should be distinguished

distinguished for brilliant and unclouded skies ; and in fact, its low and marshy situations are annually infested with noxious vapours, which imply a great degree of moisture and impurity in the atmosphere.

All the productions of the southern part of the temperate zone are yielded in high perfection by the different soils and latitudes of Italy. The well-watered plains of Lombardy rival in fertility the happiest regions of the globe, and have at all times supported a numerous population. Besides the usual objects of culture, they are celebrated for their rich pastures, feeding numerous herds of cattle, from the milk of which is made the noted Parmesan and Lodesan cheese. Great skill is shown in the embankments of those parts, by means of which inundations are prevented, and occasional supplies of water are admitted to the lands in the dry season. Italy in general produces all vegetable articles for human use, from the common grains, to maize and rice ; from the vine, the olive, the orange, and the mulberry (for silk), to the cotton-shrub and sugar-cane.

Of domestic animals, the buffalo, originally imported from Africa, is reared in Italy

almost solely of the European countries. Some of the breeds of horned cattle are very fine, and the sheep of the southern parts retain their ancient fame for fineness of wool. The Neapolitan horses are in esteem, particularly for state carriages and for mounting cavalry.

The mineral treasures of this country exist chiefly in the declivities of the Alps, where they are so various and abundant, that Piedmont is affirmed to be scarcely inferior to Upper Hungary in opulence of this kind. Gold is not unfrequently found in the beds of its torrents; and most of the metals and semi-metals occur in this and other parts of the sub-alpine region. It does not appear, however, that the Italian mines are wrought to the same extent with those of other mineral countries. The Tuscan Apennines contain many valuable ores; and the marbles of Florence, Sienna, and several other parts, are distinguished for their beauty and curious variegations. Alum and sulphur are abundant in some districts; and thermal and other medicinal waters occur in different places.

No country in Europe has undergone more changes and revolutions with respect to its inhabitants than Italy. From remote antiquity it was possessed by a number of independent communities, several of them colonies from the neighbouring countries, which, after long struggles, were finally united under the dominion of that wonderful state, the Roman republic. When this overgrown power fell in pieces, Italy was shared by different masters, and Rome itself was changed from the head of a temporal to that of a spiritual empire. The German representatives of the Roman emperors exercised a precarious authority in Italy, which at length ended in the possession, by the house of Austria, of some states in the northern part; while the rest of the country became divided into some independent principalities and republics, the kingdoms of Sardinia and Naples, and the temporal dominion of the pope. Amidst such a variety of contending powers and involved interests, all the refinements of policy were called into action; and Italy by degrees sunk its martial character in the effeminacy of long civilization,

tion, joined with the subtlety and artifice of perpetual jealousy and apprehension. Plans of petty aggrandisement and wary defence occupied the chief attention of its governments; but they were frequently defeated by the rough violence of more potent and enterprising neighbours.

The acuteness of the Italian character was displayed in the very complex and artful construction of its republican constitutions, especially those of Venice, Genoa, and Florence. These states acquired extraordinary opulence by commerce and manufactures; and, notwithstanding many internal commotions, rose to power and renown. Even in those centuries which formed what are called the dark ages, Italy was filled with flourishing towns, and exhibited all the forms of cultivated society.

The Italian genius has also highly distinguished itself in literature and the arts. The classical productions of ancient Rome stand next in estimation to those of Greece, if they do not in some branches excel them; but the Roman artists seem never to have approached the Grecian. When the human

mind broke from its long lethargy, after the destruction of the Roman empire, Italy took the lead of the countries of modern Europe in civilization and its attendant ornaments. She first formed out of the wrecks of the Latin tongue a regular and elegant vernacular language, which continues to this day the most beautiful and melodious of the dialects derived from the same source. Works were at an early period composed in it which made the commencement of a modern series of classics, and are still the glory of their age and boast of their nation. In science, philosophy, and erudition, the Italians rose to eminence while the rest of Europe remained immersed in ignorance and barbarism. In the fine arts of painting, sculpture, and architecture, they established new schools, which vied with the noblest of antiquity, and filled their country with masterpieces, which the artists of other nations are still content to admire and imitate. In the higher walks of painting, particularly, no modern productions are admitted to a competition with those which Italy exhibited more than two centuries ago. The Italian

music is absolutely a new creation, and has carried the harmony of sounds far beyond the limits of ancient skill and science. Every delicate ear in Europe may be said to be tuned by it; and the eminence of modern German composers is only that of successful scholars.

But Italy has had her day. With the declension of her political consequence and independence her arts have declined, and she is now rather the repository than the workshop of great performances. Her literature, however, is still respectable; and science, when encouraged, or rather when suffered, finds able and zealous votaries. She is still acute and inventive, elegant and facile.

Of the political pre-eminence of Italy, the establishment of the Roman catholic religion, and the supremacy of the bishop of Rome, its head, may be reckoned the most signal proof. To those who are inclined to speculate on the influence of opinion, and the resources of a crafty policy, when contending with power, no history can be more instructive than that of papal Rome. In its series of elected sovereigns have been many
individuals

individuals of exalted capacity and invincible spirit, who so well employed the engines of superstition and credulity, as to become the disposers of crowns and the arbiters of nations. This political authority, however, has long sunk under the progress of light and knowledge, and the popes have found sufficient difficulty in preserving their ecclesiastical supremacy. It is still recognised by all the nations professing the catholic religion, and throws a splendour round that former seat of empire, which is still by so numerous a body regarded as the metropolis of the christian world.

In religion the Italians are rather superstitious than bigoted; attached to rites and ceremonies, fond of processions and all the pageantry of devotion, but in general free from the gloomy austerity and fiery zeal which characterize the popery of Spain. Their manners are those of a degenerate and humiliated people; pliant, complimentary, artificial, wary and distrustful, little bound by moral principle, and capable of the blackest crimes, yet amiable and gentle in the common intercourse of society. The influence

ence of climate is discernible in the different shades of character of the several people of Italy. Those of the north, especially among the mountains, resemble the Swiss and Germans in frankness, industry, and a kind of phlegmatic sedateness. Those of Naples are marked with the indolence, the ungoverned passions, and overcharged action, of people living under a burning sun. The central parts of Italy exhibit a medium between the two. The martial spirit of the old Romans, and of the petty states who so long resisted their arms, would in vain be sought for among any of the nations of modern Italy, unless, perhaps, the Savoyards and Piedmontese; but if it has ceased to breed good soldiers, its generals have acquired great reputation to the present day, and few countries have produced more consummate masters in the art of war.

From the present unsettled and revolutionary state of Italy, a slight survey of its principal cities and districts, and rather with a view to their past than their actual condition, is all that can be attempted. It may be premised, that this is one of the countries

tries of Europe which is supposed most to have declined from its ancient population. Its present number of people, including those in its annexed islands, is estimated at thirteen millions.

SAVOY, as already mentioned, has been made a French department. It is a country of lofty mountains and narrow valleys, some of them exquisitely romantic and beautiful, inhabited by a poor, but simple and honest, people, who speak a corrupt dialect of the Italian, and exercise their industry in agriculture and some petty manufactures.

PIEDMONT, now also annexed to France, was the principal possession of the king of Sardinia. It is a diversified country, but upon the whole fertile and rich in products. Its chief town, *Turin*, is a capital of moderate size, but of great beauty and regularity. This province grows and manufactures a large quantity of silk.

The former duchy of MILAN is now, with several contiguous districts, formed into
a state ;

a state; first called the Cisalpine republic, but lately erected into a kingdom, of which the new emperor of France has assumed the sovereignty, with the title of king of Italy, made hereditary in his house. This kingdom contains some of the finest and richest territory of the ancient Lombardy, and abounds in the necessaries and luxuries of life. The description of a late traveller will give a vivid idea of the culture and appearance of this beautiful tract. "The level country round Milan consists alternately of meadows and corn-fields; the former yield four or five crops, and are partly indebted for their fecundity to the facility of irrigation; the latter, besides a crop of corn, produce another of maize, between which, rows of vines interweave their luxuriant branches almost without cultivation." The capital, *Milan*, a place of great renown, was long the seat of the German emperors in Italy, and afterwards of the Austrian governors. It is very extensive, with many remains of magnificence; but is not proportionally populous. The silk manufacture is its principal employment. The university of *Pavia* has obtained

tained great reputation from the eminence of its professors, especially in the branches of natural history.

The territories of the republic of VENICE, which formerly comprised all the eastern part of Lombardy, are now shared between the Italian kingdom and the emperor of Austria; the latter of whom possesses the larger portion, together with the once-famed capital. *Venice*, built on some low islets at the upper extremity of the Adriatic, is the most remarkable city in Europe for situation and structure. It appears to float upon the bosom of the waters, from which it rises majestic with its domes and palaces, intersected with numerous canals, which form its streets. Queen of the Adriatic, and long the first maritime power in that part of the world, it accumulated immense wealth, secured by an inaccessible situation, and by a constitution fenced with all the barriers that could be devised by a vigilant and jealous aristocracy. Venice became the abode of arts, luxury, and freedom of life and manners, and retained a high degree of internal prosperity,

prosperity, even after the principal sources of its commerce were diverted, and its political importance was much diminished. From its territorial possessions it drew large funds for the splendour of the state and the maintenance of the nobility. In real strength, however, it became in process of time an empty name, and finally yielded without resistance to the first appearance of a French invasion. Having thus lost its independence and imagined security, it has few natural advantages to prevent the rapid decline with which it is henceforth threatened. It may retain its manufacture of glass and some other articles, and carry on a commerce with the borders of the Adriatic; but it can never more possess maritime importance.

Padua, the principal city of the former Venetian terra-firma, has an university, long regarded as the most learned and enlightened in Europe, and particularly celebrated as a school of anatomy. Its reputation will scarcely be supported under the Austrian dominion.

GENOA. The great rival of Venice in commerce and naval power was *Genoa*, a city on a gulf of the Mediterranean, and the
lord

lord over a territory consisting of a slip of land between the mountains and the sea. It was a republic, originally more democratical than that of Venice ; and, by the industry of its manufacturers and the enterprising spirit of its mariners, rose to great opulence, and obtained many foreign possessions, principally on the coasts of the Hellespont and the Black sea. It had long conflicts with Venice, by which it was so much exhausted that it was obliged alternately to submit to the authority of France and of the Empire. It, however, possessed a nominal independence till the period of the French revolution, during which, after a long siege, it became a conquest of France. Genoa was afterwards placed at the head of a new dependent republic, named the *Ligurian*, and comprehending, with the former territory of Genoa, other contiguous districts : this, however, has lately been consolidated with France, as an integral part of that empire. The city itself is one of the most splendid in Italy ; and its marble palaces, viewed from the sea, present an architectural spectacle scarcely to be equalled. Its manufactures of silk and velvet are still considerable.

LUCCA,

LUCCA, a small republican state to the north of Genoa, deserves honourable notice for the high cultivation of its territory, the uncommon industry of its inhabitants, and their ardent attachment to liberty. It has a great commerce in oil and silk. To what portion of Italy in the new division it is to be annexed, does not yet seem determined; but it certainly will not be left to present an image of freedom and independence amidst subjugated states.

TUSCANY, the ancient Etruria, has from remote times stood distinguished among the countries of Italy for arts and civilization. It was lately a grand duchy, under a prince of the Austrian family; but is now, with some accessions, converted into a kingdom. The district of Tuscany is accounted one of the most fertile and agreeable in Italy. Its oil and wine are in particular estimation. The dialect spoken in it is the standard of purity, insomuch that classical Italian is often termed the Tuscan language. *Florence*, its capital, was a turbulent republic at the time it flourished most in manufactures

factures and the arts. In the latter, and in literature, its citizens long took the lead of all Italy; and Florence, for the beauty of its architecture, and its productions of genius in every department, as well as for its government, was regarded as a second Athens. In late times it has been rather the possessor than the creator of fine performances; but it has not ceased to be one of the most interesting objects of curiosity to the visitors of Italy. One of the principal Italian sea-ports, *Livorno*, vulgarly called *Leghorn*, is situated on the coast of this country: it is much frequented by the English and other foreign nations. Its consequence rose upon the ruins of that of *Pisa*, once an independent republic and a considerable maritime power, and in later times a celebrated university.

PAPAL TERRITORIES. The central part of Italy, from sea to sea, is occupied by the temporal domain of the Pope; and although its territory has been curtailed by the annexation of the districts of Ferrara and Bologna to the Cisalpine republic or kingdom, yet it
is

is still a state of no inconsiderable extent and population. But the nature of the government, which is that of an absolute elective sovereign, generally aged, and occupied in enriching his own family during a short reign, is adverse to its prosperity. A large portion of the western side of the country is taken up by the Pomptine marshes, which, from the times of ancient Rome to the late popedom, have cost immense toil and expense in attempts to bring them to a state of cultivation, and remedy their insalubrity.

Rome, the capital of this country, and the seat of the papal see, has for two thousand years been one of the most famous cities in the world. Its rise, progress, and decline, and every circumstance of its topography and civil history, have employed the pens of numberless writers; and at this day it is a distinct profession to point out to strangers all its relics of ancient grandeur, and its treasures of modern art. In population and wealth it can now rank only among second-rate capitals; nor does it possess any sources of prosperity, except those arising from the now much diminished resort of

devotees, and persons who have affairs to transact with the papal court, and the conflux of artists and curious travellers. Though robbed of many of its portable treasures by the rapacity of French invaders, it still offers to the admirers of art and the votaries of learning objects which will not suffer it to be passed by in neglect. Its associations with so many great characters and remarkable events must ever prove deeply impressive on the sensible mind. "It was (says Gibbon) as I sat musing amidst the ruins of the capitol, while the bare-footed friars were singing vespers in the temple of Jupiter, that the idea of writing the decline and fall of this city first started into my mind." What, indeed, could be a more speaking lesson of change than such a contrast? *Civita-vecchia* upon the Mediterranean, and *Ancona* upon the Adriatic, are the sea-ports of this state. It is needless to add, that the territorial dominion of the pope subsists only by the sufferance of its neighbours.

KINGDOM OF NAPLES. All the southern part of Italy constitutes, in conjunction with
the

the island of Sicily, the kingdom of Naples. This rich portion was anciently the seat of many flourishing towns and colonies, several of them of Grecian origin, whence it had the name of Great Greece. After numerous revolutions, it was united into a kingdom, which has become hereditary in the Spanish line. It ranks among the secondary powers of Europe by its population, which is estimated at six millions; but can scarcely maintain that place under the weakness and misgovernment of its present sovereigns, and the degraded character of the people. The government is entirely despotic; and no catholic country is more overrun with ecclesiastics, or more sunk in ignorance and abject superstition. The capital, *Naples*, is a very fine city, placed upon one of the most beautiful bays in the world, and enjoying a luxurious climate. In population it ranks the fourth among the European capitals, the number of its inhabitants being estimated at 380,000. Of these, however, a large proportion are destitute of all regular employment or means of livelihood, and hence are ready for any mischief; nor are assassina-

tions and other disorders more frequent in any large city. Naples has obtained less distinction in the arts and sciences than most of the Italian capitals; and it is frequented by strangers chiefly for the mildness of its winters, the beauties of its situation, and the luxuries it affords to those who are able to purchase them. The neighbourhood of Vesuvius sometimes excites alarm, but rather affords it a magnificent spectacle than exposes it to real danger. That volcano, however, has produced terrific effects at different periods, and has overwhelmed whole towns within the reach of its eruptions. The buried cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii, in its neighbourhood, are the most interesting objects in Europe to the students of antiquity.

The other Neapolitan cities are of little note. The principal commodities exported from the kingdom are oil, silk, and wool: the latter, the growth of Puglia, is of a very fine quality. It also produces wine, fruits, rice, flax, and manna. It has silk and woollen manufactures.

THE ITALIAN ISLANDS.

SICILY. Separated from the toe or southern point of Italy by a narrow strait, lies the island of Sicily, the largest (Sardinia, perhaps, excepted), and certainly the most considerable for wealth and population, of the Mediterranean isles. It extends westerly from the Italian coast, being in shape nearly an isosceles triangle, of which the base or shorter side runs from north to south, whilst the two other sides meet in the western point. This form was well known to the ancients, who gave it the correspondent name of Trinacria or Triquetra. It lies between the latitudes 36. 45 and 38. 20, and has a length of about 170 miles, with an average breadth of 70. Its surface is diversified with mountains, which run in such directions as to have given rise to a topographical division of the island into three main valleys. Its grand feature is the famous volcanic mountain, *Etna* or *Mongibello*, situated near the middle of the eastern coast. From a base

comprising a cluster of smaller mountains above a hundred miles in circuit, it rises majestic to the height of 11,000 feet above the sea. All the upper part is a region of perpetual snow and ice: a girdle of thick forests surrounds its middle; while the lower slope consists of cultivated fields and vineyards, enriched by the saline and carbonic qualities of the soil. The eruptions break out some way below the summit, and have formed a crater, with a circumference varying from three to six miles, whence have flowed rivers of liquid fire, reaching to the distance of thirty miles. From the earliest records Etna has been a burning mountain, and its principal eruptions have been marked in history at different periods, down to the present age. They have often been extremely destructive to the towns and villages on its sides, which nevertheless continue to find inhabitants, attracted by the fertility of the soil. Earthquakes, doubtless caused by the same intestine commotions that produce the eruptions, have frequently agitated the surrounding country; in one of these the fine city of Catania was entirely destroyed.

Sicily is watered by numerous rivulets, too short and broken in their course to serve the purposes of navigation, but copiously irrigating the land. Its sea-coasts are indented with many bays and inlets forming harbours, and rocky promontories jutting out into the sea, especially at the three angles of the island.

The soft climate of Sicily rendered it in early times a favourite scene of rural life, and the Grecian pastoral muse sung some of her sweetest strains in this island. The flowers of Enna and the honey of Hybla are of proverbial celebrity. Its fertility in grain caused it to be fabulously represented as the cradle of the agricultural art. This fertility covered it with an immense population, and rendered it the seat of rich and potent states. Its republics of Syracuse and Agrigentum were distinguished for commerce, wealth, and the fine arts, and the whole island was overspread with sumptuous edifices, and all the concomitants of refined luxury. It was long the field of contest between Rome and Carthage; and after it was finally reduced under the dominion of the former power, it
continued

continued to be one of its most valued possessions. In later times it has undergone numerous changes, sometimes constituting a single and independent state, but oftener an appendage to some other. Now, annexed to the kingdom of Naples, and governed as a dependency of that crown, it has suffered under all the weakness of its principal, with the additional evils and oppressions of a subordinate territory. Its population has declined; its agriculture languishes; and although its rich products shew that its ancient fertility is unimpaired, yet it is become of small comparative account in the commercial world. The principal articles of export from Sicily are corn, wine (some of which is in high esteem), fruits, sulphur, amber, coral, barilla, soap, and skins. The sugar-cane is said to be indigenous here, but its culture seems at present to be neglected.

Palermo, the capital of the island, is a regularly planned and well-built city, the residence of many nobility, and containing a population of 130,000 inhabitants. *Messina*, opposite the nearest Italian coast, has a fine port, and carried on a considerable trade

trade at the time of its late desolation by a tremendous earthquake. Its trade has since revived, but its finest buildings still lie in ruins.

The LIPARI ISLES, a group at a small distance from the northern coast of Sicily, display many vestiges of the past effects of subterranean fires, and contain an existing volcano, that of *Stromboli*. The notice they anciently attracted is indicated by the fable that the God Vulcan had his work-shop and furnaces under them. The blasts issuing from their rocky caverns probably suggested the idea of their being the residence of Eolus, the God of Winds, whence they obtained the name of the Eolian isles. Those of them that are cultivated are remarkable for their fine fruits, especially the grape, which yields a rich and precious wine. They are annexed to the government of Sicily. Several other small islands are scattered in the Sicilian sea, and recognise the same sovereignty.

MALTA. Between Sicily and the coast
of

of Tunis in Africa, about 80 miles from the former, and 200 from the latter, lies the celebrated island of *Malta*, with its dependency, *Gozo*. These are little more than bare rocks, the former about 60 miles in circumference, the latter less than half that size; but the scanty soil, assiduously watered, is, by the powerful influence of the sun, rendered fertile in the vegetable products proper to the climate; in particular, it yields some of the finest oranges in the world.

The fame of Malta dates from the 16th century, in which, on the capture of Rhodes by the Turks, it was presented to the military-monastic order of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, since known by the title of knights of Malta. These were a band of adventurers of various nations, of noble birth, devoted to the defence of the christian religion against the mahometans, and on that account presented with estates or commanderies in most of the catholic countries. Having made the isle of Malta their chief residence, they fortified it in such a manner as to resist all the attempts of the Ottoman power

power to reduce it ; and from its port armed vessels were continually issuing, which were the terror of the Barbary corsairs, and retaliated upon the mussulmans all the evils which they inflicted upon the christians. They rendered the capital, *La Valetta*, a beautiful and splendid city, and filled the island with a numerous population, supported by the expenditure and charities of the knights. The Grand Master ranked with sovereign princes, and maintained a regal state. The spirit and utility of the order had been long declining, although the fortifications of the island were preserved in all their strength, when, during the French revolutionary war, it was yielded up to the new republic without a contest. It was afterwards blockaded and at length surrendered to the English, in whose possession it now is. Its future fate no one can predict ; but the natural and artificial strength of the island, and the excellence of its harbour, must render it a post of great importance, into whatever hands it may fall. The common natives of Malta are in manners and appearance

appearance rather Moorish than European, and their language is a corrupt Arabic.

SARDINIA. If a line be drawn from Genoa directly south to the African coast, it will pass through the two considerable islands Sardinia and Corsica. The most southern and largest of these, *Sardinia*, is situated between the latitudes 38. 40. and 40. 50. Its length is about 140 miles, its breadth about 70 miles; its figure an irregular parallelogram. It rises into hills towards the centre, whence rivulets spring, which water the lower lands and render them very fertile. In the time of the Romans, Sardinia shared with Sicily the honour of being the granary of Rome. It was always, however, reckoned an unhealthy country, and hence was scantily peopled. Its fertility still continues; and besides grain, of which, in good years, it exports a large quantity of an excellent quality, it produces wine, oil and fruits, and feeds numerous herds and flocks. Its woods and uncultivated tracts abound in game. The circumfluent sea af-

6 fords

fords abundant fisheries, especially of the tunny, and the small fish called, from the island, sardines; and much coral is dragged up from its rocky shores. The mountains contain a variety of metals and minerals. Sardinia, in short, possesses within itself every thing to constitute a flourishing and wealthy country; but although it is the largest possession of the king of Sardinia, who takes his title from it, yet it has been governed by the court of Turin as a subordinate member of that kingdom, and abandoned to neglect and abuse. The country people are a rude and ignorant race, in dress and manners resembling savages, who go perpetually armed even when cultivating the ground, and are ready to seize every occasion to rob and murder. The chief town, *Cagliari*, is a well-built and moderately populous city, possessing a good harbour. Its inhabitants are remarkably addicted to show and ceremony, and exhibit the greatest possible contrast to the wild natives of the interior, with whom they have scarcely any communication.

CORSICA,

CORSICA, the antient *Cyrnus*, lies directly north of Sardinia, from which it is separated only by a narrow strait. In its extreme length and breadth it is little inferior to Sardinia; but drawing to a point at the northern and southern extremities, its surface is much less than that of the former island. The face of the country is hilly and woody, its soil for the most part stony and sterile, and its air insalubrious. Its products are similar to those of Sardinia; and what it wants in fertility is in some measure compensated by the superior industry of the inhabitants. These are a rough half-savage race, turbulent and revengeful, but deserving of praise for the spirit with which they have frequently contended for their liberty and independence. They are daring and martial, and, when formed by education, often display capacity and elevation of mind. Corsica was subjected by the Genoese; but the struggles of the natives for liberty were so fierce, that the republic in its declining state could not preserve its dominion, and made over its assumed right to the French. It cost that nation much blood and treasure

to maintain a precarious authority over the island, till at length, during the revolution, it was annexed to France on equal terms, as one of its departments. It has since had the singular honour of seeing one of its natives seated on the newly-erected throne of that vast dominion, and placing a Corsican dynasty among the sovereign houses of Europe. The capital, *Bastia*, is a place of strength with a good harbour, and there are several very strong fortresses in the island.

Of the smaller islands connected with Italy, none deserves notice so much as that of *ELBA*, lying off the coast of Tuscany. It is small and rocky; but is very remarkable for its mineral productions, particularly its curious and beautiful ores of iron. The metal extracted from them is accounted equal in goodness to the best of Sweden. The magnet is found there in great perfection; and also asbestos and amianthus: it is said likewise to possess ores of copper, lead, and tin. Its vineyards afford excellent wine.

TURKEY

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

THE countries we have hitherto surveyed, however different from each other in certain respects, are all in some measure fraternized by the profession of the christian religion, and by a community of arts and studies, tending to a resemblance in manners and way of life. That portion of Europe which remains to be considered is possessed by a nation differing from the preceding in almost every circumstance that characterizes civilised man, and strongly marking their intrusion upon this quarter of the globe from that adjoining quarter whence they derive their origin.

Turkey in Europe is an extensive country, occupying the south-eastern part of the European continent. Its general boundaries are the territories of Russia and Austria to the north, the Adriatic and Mediterranean to the west, the latter sea to the south, and the Archipelago, the sea of Marmora and the Black-sea to the east. It lies between
the

the latitudes 36. 40. and 48. 20. ; it is only, however, by its north-eastern province of Moldavia that it extends beyond the 46th degree. For a few degrees south of that point it holds its full breadth, which afterwards suddenly contracts ; and its southern part consists of a narrow projection, terminating in the peninsula of the Morea. For the most part, Turkey lies within the same parallels as Italy and Spain.

The northern frontiers of this country, along the tract of the great rivers Save, Danube, Pruth, and Dniester, chiefly consist of extensive plains ; although two mountainous ridges detached from the Carpathian chain form part of the boundary between Moldavia, Walachia, and the Austrian dominions. To the south of the Danube almost the whole of Turkey in Europe may be reckoned a mountainous country, being either crossed by long ridges in various directions, or thickly sprinkled with scattered hills, which leave little space for level ground between them. The ridges begin on the eastern side in Bulgaria, where the lofty range of mountains celebrated by the ancients

cients under the name of Hæmus, and now called *Balken*, forms the northern barrier of the ancient Thrace. To the south of this is Rhodope, making part of a chain, which may be traced quite across the broadest part of Turkey from south-east to north-west, till it joins in Croatia the Carniolan and Styrian mountains. Portions of this extensive chain are distinguished by the modern names of *Glinbotin*, *Argentaro*, and *Despoto-Dag*. Through that part of Rumelia which constituted the ancient Macedonia and Pæonia, ridges run chiefly from north to south: here were the famous classical names of Pindus, Olympus, Ossa, and Pelion. The insulated summit of mount Athos marks a promontory in the Archipelago. Below, the famous straits of Thermopylæ are formed by high hills pressing upon the sea-shore. Numberless summits in ancient Greece, north and south of the Peloponnesian isthmus, regions

Where not a mountain rears its head unsung,
recall, to those who can identify them amid
modern barbarism, the scenes of great events
or of splendid fictions.

Of

Of the rivers of Turkey, the greatest beyond comparison is the *Danube*, which, after dividing for some space the province of Servia from the Austrian Bannat, enters Walachia, and flows in a noble stream continually augmented by tributes on each bank, for the space of 400 miles, till it discharges its waters by several mouths into the Black-sea. The *Sereth* and the *Pruth* from Moldavia are the principal rivers it receives in its Turkish course.

No considerable stream enters the Black-sea to the south of the Danube. The ancient Hebrus, now *Maritz*, issuing from the chain of the Hæmus, runs southerly to join the Archipelago not far from the straits of the Dardanelles. Into the same sea, in the gulf of Salonica, flows the *Vardari*, anciently *Axius*, which rises from the ridge of *Argentaro*. On the other side of the same chain two considerable streams run northwards; the *Morava* into the Danube, and the *Drin* into the Save. The rivers of Greece, celebrated as they are in the works of poets and historians, are of little consequence

quence in the natural geography of the country.

The climate of Turkey is such as might be expected from its southern latitude, combined with the elevation of its mountainous surface; subject in many parts to considerable winter-cold, but, upon the whole, soft and warm, pure and salubrious. No region is more favourable to human life, or (if we may judge from former examples) more happily tempered to the perfection of the mental and bodily constitution of man. Its natural and cultivated products are those of the southern part of the temperate zone. Of the farinaceous grains, its different soils yield in abundance the wheat and barley of the northern, and the maize and rice of the southern countries. Vines, olives, fruits, and all garden vegetables are excellent in their kinds; and though the soil is frequently light and scanty, there is no want of fertility, where industry does its part. Among domestic animals, the Turkish horses support the reputation of those of Greece and Thrace in ancient times. The sheep of
Walachia

Walachia are remarkable for their spiral horns. The extensive plains on the Danube and other rivers rear numbers of fine cattle.

The quantity of the precious metals anciently extracted from the mines of Macedonia, Thrace, and Attica, is represented as rivalling that of the most celebrated mineral tracts; but this source of opulence seems lost to the present possessors, probably more through the deficiency of skill and industry than exhaustion of the riches of nature.

No part of the globe affords so melancholy a comparison between its ancient and modern state as that which constitutes the Turkish dominion, especially the European portion of it. The fame of ancient Greece is the most splendid chapter in history; and its proficiency in every pursuit that dignifies the human faculties has excited the wonder and admiration of every succeeding age and country capable of estimating it. Greece yielded to the Roman arms, but still retained a strong tincture of its genius and mental cultivation; and the establishment of an eastern Roman empire at Constantinople shed a lustre on its declining days. At

length, barbarians from different quarters broke in, and wrested province after province from their degenerate masters. The country about the Danube, which, under the names of Dacia, Pannonia, and Mæsia, had acquired population and wealth as Roman provinces, was laid waste and reduced to barbarism; and in fine, the Turks, a fierce uncivilised tribe from the eastern side of the Caspian sea, after many conquests in Asia, and their conversion to the mahometan religion, turned their arms against the European part of the oriental empire, and overwhelmed Greece and all its glories. By the reduction of the capital in 1453, the crescent was planted on the towers of Constantinople, and christianity saw its most inveterate foe strongly seated on the same continent. Successive wars have made inroads upon the northern part of the Turkish dominion; but, excepting the slip of land on the western coast named Dalmatia, possessed by the Austrian emperor, it has continued to hold all the country to the south of the Save and of the Danube after its junction with that river, together with the trans-danubian provinces.

vinces of Moldavia, Walachia, and Bessarabia. Under the names of Rumelia and Albania are comprehended the ancient potent kingdom of Macedon, with all the famous Greek states north of the Corinthian isthmus; while the Peloponnesian peninsula, of which every petty district was once a celebrated state, is sunk in the modern Morea.

The population of these countries is derived from many different races. The northern provinces have a large infusion of Sarmatian or Slavonian blood, together with the original Scythian or Thracian stock: among these, considerable remains of the Roman settlers of Dacia are discoverable in Walachia by their language and manners. The descendants of the Greeks are the chief inhabitants of the southern parts, where they preserve a dialect of their ancient noble language, not more corrupted than the Latin is in the Italian. They also retain the levity and sprightliness of their ancestors, but debased by the servility and dissimulation which have been produced by their abject and oppressed condition. The Turks them-

selves, the lords of the rest, are a mixed race, whose Tartarian origin has been gradually diluted by intermarriages with the fine women of Georgia and Circassia, and the multitude of female captives and slaves of the surrounding countries who have fallen into their hands. They are now, for the most part, a handsome and stately race of men, grave, sedate, and solemn, rendered haughty by ignorance, and indolent by want of employment. Their language is a harsh mixture of different Asiatic dialects, and may be reckoned barbarous in comparison with the Persian and Arabic.

The prevalent religion of Turkey is the mahometan, of the particular character of which it will be more proper to treat under the head of the country whence it sprung. Originally propagated by the sword, and inspiring the fiercest fanaticism, it still regards every other faith with contempt or abhorrence, and demands the most implicit belief in its followers. Hence it is utterly adverse to learning and philosophy, and devotes to ignorance and bigotry every nation professing it. Less intolerant, however, than
the

the Roman catholic religion, it permits persons of different faith to live unmolested under its dominion, and exercise their worship, but as tributaries, and in a degraded and despised condition. The Koran is not only the religious but the civil code of the mahometans ; a circumstance which for ever precludes their improvement in the science of legislation. It, however, proves a salutary restraint upon the despotism of the sovereign, who cannot violate the laws without incurring the guilt of impiety ; and it has not unfrequently been seen, that the mufti, or head of the law, has had influence enough to procure the deposition of a tyrannical prince.

The emperor of Turkey, styled the Sultan, or Grand Seignor, is always one of the Ottoman or Othman family, but not in any determinate hereditary order. He is despotic master of the lives and fortunes of his subjects, except so far as limited by the laws of the Koran. Educated in the recesses of the seraglio, and early habituated to gross sensuality, it is very rarely that the Ottoman emperors display vigour or talents for government.

vernment. The despotic system extends to every branch of subaltern authority; and the people in the provinces are crushed by the oppression of inferior tyrants, from whom there is no appeal except to those who have sold them their appointments, and participate in their unjust gains. The want of security damps every exertion of genius or industry. Content to exist, no one thinks of improvement of any kind. Public and private establishments decay, and have no successors; and ruin and desolation mark the spirit of the Turkish government.

The pleasures of the Turks are almost all of the indolent and sedentary kind. Void of science, art, or liberal curiosity, they pass their time in trifling amusements or sensual indulgences, shut up with their women, of whom their religion allows them a plurality, or smoking and drinking coffee and sherbet in groups beneath the shade. Sobriety with respect to liquor is secured by the religious prohibition of wine, but the stupefying exhilaration of opium in some measure supplies its place. They are naturally brave, and, when duly stimulated, are capable of desperate

rate efforts of valour; but their impatience of discipline, and rejection of European tactics and military science, have rendered them in modern times constantly inferior in the course of a war to their christian antagonists. The political situation of the Turkish empire cannot, however, be fully considered till the Asiatic part of it has come under review.

It is supposed that at least half of the inhabitants of Turkey in Europe are christians. These are chiefly of the Greek church, which is the sect most prevalent throughout the east. They have their patriarch, and all the other dignities appertaining to an episcopal hierarchy; but these posts are set to sale by the Turkish ministry, and nothing can be more contemptuous than the treatment their occupiers experience. The Greek church vies with, or even surpasses, the Roman in superstition and ceremonial observances, but falls far short of it in learning and decorum. Like every oppressed and degraded party in a state, the Greeks are disaffected to the government under which they live, and are always ready, with a little encouragement, to break out in revolt.

The

The commerce of Turkey in Europe is much less considerable than it might be rendered by a more enterprising and industrious people. Of manufactures, those of carpets and dressed leather are almost alone objects of exportation. The native products of raw silk, cotton, currants, figs, dying drugs, and a few others, are exported by the strangers who frequent their harbours; the Turks themselves having in general an aversion to the sea.

The metropolis of this empire, *Constantinople*, anciently *Byzantium*, ranks the third of the European capitals in point of population, but surpasses them all in the beauty and advantages of its situation. Placed at the point where the Bosphorus, a narrow outlet from the Black-sea, issues in the Propontis, or sea of Marmora, it leans with the broadest of its three sides on the shore of the latter sea, whilst an arm running up from the Bosphorus affords it a deep, secure, and capacious harbour on another side: the third joins to the extremity of the European continent. As another narrow channel, the Hellespont, leads from
the

the sea of Marmora to the Mediterranean, the city enjoys an equal communication with it and the Black-sea, and holds the keys of entrance on each hand. Thus it has every commercial advantage of a sea-port, united with security from foreign attack, and from the rage of the destructive element; for the sea of Marmora, fed at each end by a river-like channel, resembles an inland lake, and serves as a great fishing-pool to the metropolis and other towns on its banks. Nothing can exceed the beauty of the winding shores of the Bosphorus, decorated with woods and gardens to the water's edge, and studded with villages and houses of pleasure. Constantinople presents from the water a singularly noble prospect, as it shows its different eminences crowned with domes and towers rising out of a sea of building. Its grandeur, however, is chiefly external; for, within, it is laid out in narrow crooked streets fronted with mean and gloomy houses, all the elegance of which is concealed in enclosed courts. It possesses some remains of the splendour of its better days, as well as some stately edifices of modern construction; but
upon

upon the whole it can bear no comparison with the cities of christian Europe. It is blest with a pure air and abundance of the necessaries of life ; but is subject to the frequent devastations of fire and pestilence, both proceeding from the negligence of the police. Its population, including the suburbs, is estimated at 400,000. It has little commerce except that produced by the supply of its own wants.

The next Turkish city in Europe with respect to size and consequence is *Adrianople*, situated inland to the north-west of the metropolis. It commands a fertile district, and carries on a considerable traffic. Its mosks scarcely yield in magnificence to those of Constantinople. *Saloniki*, the ancient Thessalonica, built on a gulf of the Archipelago, is the principal mart for foreign commerce. There are other populous towns in different parts of European Turkey, but none that claim particular notice. The once flourishing cities of ancient Greece lie in ruin and oblivion. The name of Athens is preserved in the modern *Atini*, but no stranger could recognise in it the seat of former renown.

ISLANDS

ISLANDS
OF
TURKEY IN EUROPE.

ON surveying the sea shores of Turkey in Europe, and those of the opposite Lesser Asia, they appear broken into a great number of points and promontories, some of them nearly insulated, seeming to exhibit the action of a raging sea upon the land, or the reflux of a body of water which had covered all but the most elevated spots. These ideas are enforced by the numerous islands which surround these shores, and sprinkle the surface of that sea, called the Archipelago, formerly the Ægean, which flows between Europe and Asia. Some of these islands are almost contiguous to the neighbouring continent; the rest form so many stepping-stones, as it were, from coast to coast, rising with rocky heads from the waves, like the summits of submarine mountains. Of these islands, a few which are reckoned to belong to Europe will be here noticed.

On

On the west, off the Dalmatian coast, lies a group of long parallel islands, with narrow channels between them, apparently the wrecks of the adjacent continent. They are the resort of fishers and sea-faring men; and, with the rest of the Venetian dominions to which they appertained, have fallen into the possession of Austria.

Southwards, on the same side, are situated at different distances the isles of *Corfu*, *Cephalonia*, *Ithaca*, *Zante*, and a few others, which also formed part of the Venetian dominion, but in the revolutionary changes have been formed into the Republic of the Seven Islands, under the protection of Russia. Some of these are fertile in the products of their climate, and carry on a considerable commerce. *Zante* is particularly noted for its trade in the small dried grapes which we call currants.

To the south of the Morea, fronting the entrance of the Archipelago, is placed the fine island of *Candia*, so renowned in antiquity under the name of Crete, and said to contain a hundred cities. Its snowy ridge of mount *Ida*, accompanying the greatest

part of its length, was the fabled residence of Jupiter, probably a deified king of the country. Candia extends about 180 miles from east to west, by a breadth of 40. It abounds in cattle and all the necessaries of life, and produces a rich and balmy wine. This island was conquered from the Venetians by the Turks, after a long siege terminating in 1670, and remains under the dominion of the latter power.

Northwards many scattered isles, formerly the *Cyclades*, spot the surface of the Archipelago. Though small, many of these were anciently of great fame. Here is *DELOS*, still exhibiting the ruins of the temples and religious edifices which rendered it so sacred in the eyes of heathen Greece: *NAXOS*, the largest of the *Cyclades*, peculiarly consecrated to Bacchus on account of its excellent wines: *PAROS*, still distinguished for its quarries of white marble: and *ANTIPAROS*, remarkable for its stalactitical grotto or cavern. Along the eastern shore of Greece extends the island *NEGROPONT*, anciently *Eubœa*, once connected with the continent, from which it is separated only by a very narrow channel.

channel. It is 100 miles in length by a breadth of 20, and has always been famed for its fertility.

These islands in general are inhabited by Greeks, who follow their own customs, and have the free exercise of their religion. A few Turks reside among them to decide their differences and collect the tribute. Piratical vessels frequently lurk among the rocky bays and unfrequented shores, and by their depredations render insecure, abodes which would otherwise be delightful.

ASIA.

THE second of the quarters of the globe in extent, but the first in wealth and population, is ASIA, supposed to have been the primitive seat of the human race, and the centre of the earliest civilization. It forms one continent with Europe, from which it is separated to the west by the boundary of European Russia, already described, and by the Black sea, the sea of Marmora with its straits, the Archipelago and Mediterranean: the isthmus of Suez and the Red sea are its limits on the side of Africa. To the south it has the Indian ocean, interspersed with large and numerous islands, which are reckoned to belong to it. Its eastern side is washed by the vast Pacific ocean, which flows between it and America, and which at length is contracted to a narrow strait, leading to the Arctic or Frozen ocean, by which Asia is bounded on the north. The furthest southern point of the Asiatic continent reaches to within a degree of the Equator

tor, whilst its northern shore lies within the arctic circle; thus it spreads through the torrid, the temperate, and the frigid zones. It is, however, within the limits of the torrid and the southern part of the temperate zones that all the rich and well-inhabited parts of Asia are situated; for the middle belt of this continent, which runs parallel to the most desirable countries of Europe, is in great part an immense desert; and all that lies to the north of it is a region of intense winter-cold.

Asia, therefore, has always been considered as a soft and luxurious climate, impressing its character on the nations inhabiting it; and although, from the exuberance of its population, it has at different periods poured forth armed deluges which have struck terror into the adjacent countries of Europe, and made temporary conquests, yet the genius of the latter has finally triumphed. War has rarely been waged between Europeans and Asiatics without displaying a manifest superiority of valour and energy in the former; and Asia, by the Greeks and Romans, and by the modern nations of Europe,

has been regarded rather as a tempting field for pillage, than as the theatre of stubborn and equal contest. Its arts and sciences have borne the same stamp of inferiority; and for a long course of centuries the human mind seems to have made no advance in any of the extensive territories in this quarter of the globe. It is still, however, a very interesting country, filled with the relics of former grandeur and the works of existing magnificence, swarming with people, and presenting infinite matter of curious inquiry in its various races of men, its soil and climate, and its products in all the kingdoms of nature.

We shall begin our survey with a part which forms a political continuation of the preceding article.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

ALTHOUGH the seat of the Ottoman government is in Europe, yet the largest and most valuable possessions of the empire are situated in the opposite continent. These territories consist of the peninsula of Lesser Asia, of the ancient Syria and Mesopotamia, of Armenia, Imeritia, and Mingrelia; countries once the seats of many rich and potent states, famous through long periods of history. Its boundaries are, to the north, the sea of Marmora with its channels, and the Black sea, with the Kuban river and the Caucasian chain of mountains separating it from the Russian territory; to the east, Georgia and Persia; to the south, Arabia; to the west, the Mediterranean sea. Its form is very irregular, its great middle bulk curving round to a sort of neck as it follows the shore of the Black sea northwards, and being extended into two limbs or legs southwards. Its northern and southern extremities respectively reach nearly the 45th and 30th

8 degrees

degrees of N. latitude: from east to west it extends about 1000 miles.

The climate of the greater part of this country has always been accounted one of the most delicious in the globe: even the inhabitants of Greece and Italy looked upon Lesser Asia and Syria as regions in which the human body became enervated through excess of pleasurable sensations; and the music, the poetry, the oratory, and arts of Asia were supposed to have acquired a dangerous taint of effeminacy, from the softness of the atmosphere. This character, however, is chiefly applicable to its sea-coast and inland plains and valleys; for the general face of the country is remarkably roughened by mountains, which are frequently of such a height as to produce rigorous cold. These mountains, however, temper the heat of the southern latitudes, and offer an agreeable choice of climate according to the local elevation.

To pursue minutely the several ridges which overspread Asiatic Turkey would only confuse the reader: it will suffice to mark some of the most noted in history and geography,

geography. The famous *mount Taurus* of antiquity is recognised in a long chain stretching in a sinuous course from the shores of the Archipelago to the banks of the Euphrates, a length of about 600 miles. From this a branch extends north-easterly through Armenia, which seems to unite with the Caucasian chain. The latter, the *Caucasus* of ancient fable and history, only skirts the northern border of the Turkish dominions, and then passes through Georgia to the shore of the Caspian sea. Many shorter ridges run from the shores of the Black sea and the Archipelago towards the inland country. Of these, near the straits that separate Asia from Europe, are the *Asiatic Olympus*, whose summits, clad in perpetual snow, are visible from Constantinople, and the *Ida*, deriving fame from its connexion with the scenery of ancient Troy. Several ridges may be traced branching from Taurus southwards to the Mediterranean. One of these, running parallel to the Syrian coast, and not far distant from it, forms *Libanus* or *Lebanon*, and shoots its spurs into Palestine.

Many

Many rivers wind between these mountainous ranges; but those of Lesser Asia are not remarkable for length of course. The largest is the *Kizil Irmak*, the Halys of antiquity, which, rising in Taurus, near the town of Erekli, flows northwards across the greatest part of the peninsula, and enters the Black sea to the west of the gulf of Sansoun. The *Sacaria*, anciently Sagaris, springing from a lake near the centre of Lesser Asia, joins the Black sea at no great distance from the Bosphorus. On the western side, the *Sarabat*, renowned under the name of Hermus for its golden sands, flows into the Archipelago to the north of Smyrna. To the south of it, the proverbially winding Meander, now *Minder*, holds a parallel course through spacious plains to the sea opposite the isle of Samos.

All these streams are much inferior to the *Euphrates*, one of the most celebrated of Asiatic rivers. Its source is in the mountains of Armenia, near Erzerum, whence it first flows south-westerly, as if intending to join the Mediterranean; but being interrupted in its course by a range of mountains,

tains, it turns first to the south, and then to the south-east, till it finds an exit in the Persian gulf soon after receiving the Tigris. Its entire course is estimated at about 1400 miles. The *Tigris*, its rival or ally, rises in the same tract of country with the Euphrates, but more to the east. It holds a direct south-eastern course by Mosul and Bagdad, where it very nearly approaches the Euphrates, and forms its junction with that river about 60 miles above Bassora. Both these fine rivers are navigable far up the country. They form such distinguished features of the tract through which they pass, that the intervening district acquired the name of Mesopotamia—between the rivers.

There are many lakes in Asiatic Turkey, both fresh and saline. The largest is that of *Van* in Kurdistan; but the most noted is the *Dead sea*, at the southern extremity of Syria, in the ancient Palestine.

Countries situated in the warmer part of the temperate zone, and possessing every variety of soil and situation, cannot fail of being furnished abundantly with the natural and cultivated products of the vegetable kingdom.

kingdom. The mountains of Asiatic Turkey, when not elevated into the region of perpetual cold, are clad with thick woods of timber-trees, from the pine to the oak and beech. The shores of the Black sea have been long noted for their gloomy forests; and the "dark Iberian dells" under Caucasus present an awful magnificence of shade. The cedars of Lebanon, so renowned in the oldest history of mankind, have still a few descendants. The banks of the Euphrates are overhung with the weeping willow, on the boughs of which tree, probably, the disconsolate daughters of Israel in their captivity once hung their silent harps. The umbrageous oriental plane derives its origin from these regions, which are also decorated with the lilac and other flowering shrubs. A particular species of oak with prickly cups affords the Aleppo galls, so much used in dying. Lesser Asia was the parent country of several of the most esteemed fruits which were brought into Europe by the Roman conquerors. The tracts bordering upon Arabia produce the date-palm, and are the most northerly latitude in which it ripens its fruit.

fruit. The vine, the olive, and the fig arrive at great perfection in almost every province. The farinaceous grains and legumes yield abundantly in their proper soils, wherever nature is tolerably seconded by the industry of the husbandman.

Of domestic quadrupeds, those principally employed for carriage are the ass, the mule, and the camel. The finest horses are of Arabian blood, and are reserved for persons of rank. The plains of Mesopotamia were of old renowned for the flocks and herds to which they gave pasture; and to this day there are several wandering tribes, as the Turcomans and Kurds, who lead a pastoral life on the spacious plains of the districts which they occupy. The sheep of Lesser Asia are in more estimation than the horned cattle. Syria possesses some of the broad-tailed kind, in which the tail is chiefly a lump of fat. The same country has a breed of goats distinguished by their long pendulous ears. The district of Angora, in the centre of Lesser Asia, is remarkable for a beautiful race of goats, of a milk-white colour, with fine hair all over the body disposed

posed in long spiral ringlets : this is the material of which the finest camlets are made. There appears to be a singular property in the soil or air of this district, since the hair of its sheep, cats, and rabbits is uncommonly long and fine.

Of wild quadrupeds, the ibex haunts the summits of Caucasus and of other high mountains. The common antelope or gazel runs in herds in the deserts of the south, and the wild-boar and various kinds of deer inhabit the forests. The lion, now no longer met with in Europe, is first seen in Asia on the banks of the Euphrates, and seldom comes further westward. The hyena is frequent towards the south, and troops of jackals haunt the neighbourhood of towns, which they disturb by their nightly howlings.

There is little doubt that many of the mountainous tracts of Turkey are metalliferous ; and it is known that Lydia was anciently famed for its gold mines. At present, such is the inertness of the Turkish government, that scarcely any mines are heard of in these countries, except some of copper near Tokat. Hot mineral springs occur

occur in various parts: the most noted of these supply some fine baths at Prusa, beneath mount Olympus.

It was in the eleventh century that the Turks, descending from their original settlements about the Caspian sea, made themselves masters of Georgia and Armenia, and soon after of the whole of Lesser Asia. Syria, Diarbekir or Mesopotamia, and some provinces on the Persian border, were annexed by conquest in the 16th century, since which period little change has taken place in this part of the Turkish dominions.

The people are of various origin, and differ in language, religion, and manners. The Turks, as the rulers, possess the principal power and property, and are the chief inhabitants of cities: their language and religion are the predominant ones: their manners are marked with the same gravity, haughtiness, and indolence, that distinguish their brethren in Europe. Of the christians, the majority are of the Greek church, and use the modern Greek language. The Armenians have a language of their own, and constitute a peculiar sect of christians, characterized

racterized by rigorous fasts and abundance of ritual observances. They are much addicted to commerce, which they pursue through almost all the countries of the east, every where forming a distinct people, and strictly adhering to their manners and religion. They are frugal, polite, and wary, and understand all the mysteries of traffic.

The Syrian christians are chiefly Maronites, a sect which acknowledges the superiority of the see of Rome, but has some peculiarities of worship. The Druses, a people in the mountains of Syria, who live nearly independent, with the profession of mahometism, are said to be very lax in religious faith altogether. Among these southern tribes, the Syriac, Arabic, Persian, and other dialects are in use. The wandering tribes of Turcomans seem to be what the Turks were in their original state. The Kurds are a peculiar tribe, who live in tents, and roam with their flocks and herds from Mesopotamia to the sources of the Euphrates.

Although many ancient seats of population and splendour in this part of Asia are now heaps of ruins or obscure villages, yet some
flourishing

flourishing cities still display the natural opulence and advantages of the country. In general, they are superior to the towns of European Turkey in commerce and civilization. The first place among these is due to *Aleppo* or *Haleb*, the capital of Syria. It is well built, in the Asiatic style, and with its mosks and other public edifices makes a very striking appearance. Its population is reckoned at 250,000. It possesses thriving manufactures of silk and cotton; and by means of the caravans from Bagdad and Bassora is rendered a mart for the commodities of Persia and India. Several of the trading countries of Europe have factories in it.

Damascus, likewise in Syria, further to the south, is estimated to contain 180,000 people. Its former celebrity for works in steel, particularly sword-blades, is lost; but it flourishes by its manufactures of mixed silk and cotton, called damasks, and of excellent soap, and other articles: it is also frequented by the caravans from Bagdad. *Smyrna*, a populous city and sea-port on the Archipelago, is the centre of the European Levant trade, and the residence of the principal

principal factors of the mercantile states of Europe. It exports a great quantity of the products of Lesser Asia, consisting of cotton, silk, oil, leather, dying drugs, and manufactured goods. Through the utter defect of police, supported by superstitious notions of fatalism, Smyrna is subject to frequent and destructive visitations of the plague, which is the constant attendant on commerce and free communication in the Turkish dominions. Almost a worse evil is the frequency of revolt among the bashaws or military commanders in the parts of this despotic empire which are remote from the seat of government, and which introduce a temporary anarchy, exposing foreign merchants, especially christians, to pillage and massacre.

The most important mart in the interior country is *Konieh*, the ancient Iconium. It is well built, and provided with numerous and commodious khans for the convenience of merchants, by many of whom, of various countries and religions, it is frequented. *Konieh* is the principal seat of that extraordinary order of enthusiasts, the dervises or mahometan

metan monks called Mewlewahs, whose devotion chiefly consists in a kind of whirling dance, continued till they fall down exhausted.

Prusa, the ancient Bursa, is one of the most agreeable and well-built cities of Lesser Asia, and was formerly a favourite residence of the sultans: it is romantically situated at the foot of mount Olympus. *Angora*, already mentioned for its breed of goats, is rendered populous by its manufacture of stuffs. Tokat, in a rugged rocky situation, flourishes by its silk and leather manufactures, and its trade in copper utensils, made of the metal extracted from the mines in the neighbouring mountains. Some of the ports on the Black sea possess a share of commerce, but of no great extent: the total want of science in navigation among the Turkish mariners subjects them to perpetual losses and delays; and the Russian ports on the opposite side will certainly command the chief traffic on this sea. *Trebisond*, one of these ports, is of great fame in the history of the middle ages. At the opposite extremity of Asiatic Turkey, *Basra* or *Bassora*
is

is rendered opulent and populous by the trade on the Persian gulf, which conveys to it the commodities of India and Persia. It, however, belongs rather to an independent Arabian prince than to the Porte, which receives from it only a dubious homage.

Bagdad, once so celebrated as the splendid seat of the Saracen caliphs, is now reduced to a town of 20,000 inhabitants. Near it are the obscure relics of a much greater city, the ancient Babylon. *Jerusalem*, the famed capital of the Jewish nation, and so long the object of contention between the christian and mahometan powers, is now a mean town in a steril district, subsisting only by that veneration in which it is held by Jews, Christians, and Mussulmans, and which still procures it the visits of many pious pilgrims.

Travellers of a different class from those last mentioned have visited all the parts of this country to which a safe access is permitted, in search of those remains of classical antiquity with which they abound. At every memorable spot occur the vestiges of famous cities, now barely to be traced by

the ruins of their demolished walls, and the broken columns of their temples, buried in the rank herbage, and the haunt of snakes and jackals. Not only the slow corrosion of time, and the violence of fanatic barbarians, have operated in this destruction, but the frequent earthquakes to which Lesser Asia is liable have powerfully aided in the work of demolition. No ground has been trod with more enthusiastic reverence than the site of ancient *Troy*, at the north-west point of the peninsula, opposite the isle of Tenedos; and much ingenious labour has been spent in tracing the Simois and Scamander, and other objects immortalized in the *Iliad*. Here, however, little remains to aid association but the ground itself: in several other spots relics of human art still survive in a state to attract admiration, and afford ideas of grandeur scarcely elsewhere to be paralleled. The most striking assemblage of ruins probably in the world is presented by the ancient *Palmyra*, or *Tadmor*, singularly placed in a sandy desert on the borders of Arabia, far to the south-east of Aleppo. These are described as suddenly
bursting

bursting upon the traveller's eye as he comes round an eminence in the wilderness, and disclosing long rows of columns decorated with the richest architectural ornaments, gigantic portals, and roofless temples, stretching almost beyond the reach of sight. *Balbec*, the ancient *Heliopolis*, on the coast of Syria, is famed for a single magnificent ruin, that of the temple of the Sun, equally conspicuous for the vastness of its dimensions, and the noble style of its architecture. If ever this country shall come into the possession of liberal and enlightened masters, it is not to be doubted that very interesting discoveries will be made of its hidden treasures both of art and of nature.

ISLANDS
OF
TURKEY IN ASIA.

To this division of the Turkish dominions belong several fine islands. Of those in the Archipelago the most northerly and largest is MYTILENE, the ancient LESBOS, once famed for beauty, poetry, music, and all that could minister to refined voluptuousness. It is mountainous, and intersected with bays and arms of the sea, which present many fine situations, decorated with plantations of olives and vines, and naturally clothed with myrtle and odoriferous shrubs. The climate is delicious, and the products exquisite in their kinds. Its natural hot baths are celebrated.

Scio, the ancient CHIOS, succeeds. It is also a mountainous but beautiful isle, well cultivated by its Greek inhabitants, who enjoy more freedom here than elsewhere. Its wines retain their former reputation; and its groves of lemon and orange trees and other

fine

fine fruits equally gratify the different senses. Scio is famous for its product of mastich, a fragrant resin collected from a shrub of the genus pistachia, and chiefly reserved for the use of the Grand Seignor's haram, as a masticatory. The Chio turpentine, produced by a tree of the same genus, is also much valued. The women are beauties of the Grecian mould of feature, but disfigured by a preposterous mode of dress.

SAMOS and Cos are valuable isles of ancient fame: but they yield to RHODES, once so eminent for maritime power as to be acknowledged mistress of the Ægean sea, and even in modern times distinguished as the warlike seat of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem before their removal to Malta. It was taken by the Turks in 1523, and their jealousy will not permit a christian to reside in the capital. The soil is sandy, but fertile in wheat.

Near that extremity of the Mediterranean which washes the Syrian coast, lies the island of CYPRUS, much superior in extent to any of those above enumerated, having a length of 160 miles with a breadth of 70 miles

miles in its widest part. The soft climate and fruitful soil of this island caused it to be anciently accounted the peculiar residence of Venus, and its manners corresponded with this appropriation. It flourished at different periods in population and opulence; and after the ruin of the Roman and Byzantine empires, it became a separate kingdom in the house of Lusignan. The heiress of that family resigned it to the Venetian republic, of which it was an important and much valued possession. The Turks made themselves masters of Cyprus in 1570, since which time it has fallen into the decline that characterizes every thing under the sway of those masters. Its commodities are, a peculiarly rich wine, silk, cotton, fruits, timber, and turpentine. It has also many mineral treasures, though now neglected. Cyprus labours under a deficiency of running water during the summer heats; and its stagnant pools infect the atmosphere so as to render the low grounds very unhealthy: but this evil has doubtless been aggravated by its depopulation, the number of inhabitants having dwindled to 50,000.

We may now take a view of the Turkish
empire

empire in the whole ; for although the Ottoman Porte has claims of superiority over Egypt and the Barbary states, and receives occasional tribute from them, they can with no propriety be reckoned as part of its dominions.

The sum of population in European Turkey is estimated at eight millions ; that of Asiatic Turkey at ten millions. These eighteen millions of subjects would compose a very powerful state, did they not consist of a discordant assemblage of various people and religions, held together only by the iron rod of despotism, which loses its power in proportion to the distance from the centre of its action. In many districts a few Turks live as tyrants amidst a host of reluctant slaves, who would certainly join any invader likely to free them from the yoke. On this account it is found necessary to delegate almost unlimited power to the distant governors, who, if they lose their interest at court, are in perpetual danger of their heads, and frequently hold by force the office which they dare not resign. It is very seldom that some of the provinces are not in a state of open revolt.

Further,

Further, the system of government is so adverse to the prosperity and welfare of the governed, and is administered with so much ignorance and incapacity, that, whilst other nations are improving, Turkey is in a constant progress of deterioration. Its armies, formerly dreaded at least for their numbers, can now scarcely stand in competition with those of some of the neighbouring powers even in that point, while they are inferior in every other. Its navy has been proved unequal to that of Russia singly. Its revenues, though considerable, are not adequate to any great exertions. This empire, in fine, exhibits every symptom of decline in the scale of modern political consequence; and its dismemberment is an event which want of agreement among the powers who would be the sharers can alone defer to a distant period.

ASIATIC RUSSIA.

HAVING closed our survey of one empire which extends from Europe to Asia, we shall not delay to complete the account of another, which agrees with it in this circumstance, and is its neighbour in both quarters of the world. We shall hereby be carried back somewhat abruptly to the regions of frost; but no geographical arrangement can give entirely regular and easy transitions.

The Russian empire, which we have seen occupying so large a portion of the European continent, extends much more widely in the Asiatic; for the whole northern part of Asia from east to west, and from the Arctic ocean to the borders of Tartary, is included under this designation. Of this vast tract, the northern, eastern and western boundaries are distinctly marked, being those of Asia itself: the southern line, as passing along the verge of wild and uninhabited deserts, must be accounted in great part indeterminate and ideal. It may, however, be reckoned

koned to pass from the west along the river Kuban and the chain of Caucasus to the northern part of the Caspian sea; thence to ascend through the steppe of Issim to the river Ob, proceeding on its bank to the point whence it issues from the Altaian mountains; then, following that chain to the head of the Onon in Daouria, and along the course of the Argoun to the Yablonoi mountains, a branch of which it follows to its termination in a promontory on the coast north of the river Amur. The extent of Asiatic Russia upon a rough estimate, is 5300 English miles from east to west, by a breadth of nearly 2000.

The face of the country, for the most part, like that of European Russia, tends to a level. The borders of the northern ocean consist mostly of marshy plains, buried in almost perpetual snow. The land rises in the interior, and acquires considerable elevation towards the Tartarian border, where it forms several wide sandy deserts called steppes. Mountainous ridges, however, are to be traced in various parts of the country, especially on its circumference.

The

The *Uralian* mountains, which have been mentioned as forming part of the boundary between Europe and Asia, finally enter the latter quarter, and send off branches westerly uniting with the chain of Caucasus, and easterly meeting the *Altaian* chain. The latter is a most extensive mountainous ridge, which, running along the southern limit of this empire, passes, under the name of the *Sayansk* mountains, to the south of lake Baikal; whence, bending northerly under the denominations of the *Gablonoi*, *Daourian*, and *Stanovoi* mountains, it fringes as it were, the whole eastern sea-coast of Asia, till it terminates at the north-eastern extremity of the continent. From different parts of this great chain lower hilly ridges run northwards, some of them reaching to the Arctic ocean. Near its termination at the head of the sea of Ochotsk, it sends a branch southwards, which divides the whole length of the peninsula of Kamtschatka. This branch abounds in volcanoes beyond almost any other known ridge of mountains.

Some of the largest rivers of the globe cross this vast continent in their way to the

Arctic ocean. The chief of these is the *Ob* or *Oby*, which taking its rise in the foot of the Altaian mountains, and, joined by the *Tom* and other streams, flows to Samarov, where it receives the addition of a larger river than itself, the *Irtish*. This last, springing in the country of the Eluth Tartars, crosses the lake Saisan, and after issuing from it penetrates the Altaian chain, and passes the towns of Omsk and Tara to Tobolsk; there, augmented by the *Tobol*, it seeks the Ob at Samarov, and loses its name. The united river now flows due north, till, beyond the 66th degree of latitude, it disembogues into a wide and deep estuary named the Sea of Oby, which communicates with the Arctic ocean. The course of the Ob, including its estuary, is computed at 1900 miles.

The next of these great rivers is the *Yenisei*, which is reckoned to take its rise in some mountains to the south of lake Baikal. It does not, however, acquire its name till after the junction of several streams, when it takes a direct northern course. About the 58th degree of latitude it is joined by the *Tungusha*, a great river flowing out of the
Baikal,

Baikal, and first called *Angara*. Another *Tungusha* (unless the names are confounded) falls in at lat. 66, and the united stream then proceeds to the ocean at an estuary not far eastward of that of the Oby.

Several other considerable streams enter the Arctic ocean to the west of the *Lena*, which is the third of the mighty rivers that traverse the whole breadth of Asiatic Russia. This rises on the western side of the Baikal, and flows in a north-easterly direction, joined by some large streams from the Yablonoï mountains, till it reaches Yakutsk: it then turns almost due north, having a broad channel full of islands, and enters the ocean by several mouths. Further to the east are the *Indigirka*, *Covima*, and *Anadir*, which water extensive tracts, but in regions of desolation, where man has scarcely planted his foot.

Of the southern rivers, one of the principal is the *Yaik*, now called *Ural*, which, rising in the Uralian mountains, passes Orenburg, and afterwards takes a direct southerly course to the Caspian sea. The *Volga*, which discharges itself into the same sea, is Asiatic in the latter part of its course. The *Selinga*,

Selinga, a large river from Tartary, enters the Russian territory to the south of the Baikal, into which lake it empties itself opposite to the exit of the Angara: it is therefore by some geographers accounted the parent of that river and of the Yenisei. Further to the east, the *Onon* and the *Argoun* join to form the great river *Amur*, which has its course through the territory of the Chinese empire.

The lakes of Asiatic Russia are not numerous. By much the most extensive is the Baikal, which is considered by the people on its shores as meriting the title of a sea. It is situated far to the east, between the 51st and 55th degrees of latitude, and extends 350 miles in length, by a breadth not exceeding 35. Its waters are fresh, and commonly frozen in winter. Its sudden storms render it formidable to mariners, who regard it with a kind of reverential awe. Several islands diversify its surface. The principal feeder of this lake is the river *Selinga*, and its outlet is the Angara. A lake of considerable dimensions lies between the Ob and the Irtish, divided by an island

island into two portions bearing the names of *Tchany* and *Soumi*. Several salt-lakes occur to the west of the Volga, and in the desert tracts about the Yaik.

All the parts of Asiatic Russia of which the soil and climate admit of the growth of trees abound in extensive forests. These, on the borders of the Caspian sea and on the Turkish and Persian frontiers, consist of natives of the warm or temperate latitudes, and are accompanied by the wild fruits and elegant flowering shrubs that belong to the same climates. As soon, however, as the country begins to slope to the north, constituting the vast region known by the general name of Siberia, it feels the influence of that cold which prevails over this tract to a degree beyond that of the parallel latitudes in any other part of the globe, and its vegetable products display the alteration. The oak, the beech, the hazle, and other natives of the European temperate climes disappear; and the forests are composed of birch, alder, Tartarian maple, black and white poplar, and especially of numerous species of the pine tribe. These border the banks of
the

the great rivers, and by inundations are frequently swept into the Arctic ocean, where they become the source of that abundance of drift wood which is met with on the naked shores of Spitzbergen and other arctic lands, to the great comfort of the temporary resident. Nor is the surface of the earth destitute of numerous species of smaller plants, which, preserved beneath the snow during the winter, decorate the short summer with a variety of floral beauty. Many of these, transported into our gardens, form some of their fairest ornaments. The whole vegetable creation, however, gradually dwindles and disappears on proceeding towards the Frozen sea, the shores of which are naked marshy flats, scarcely keeping life in a very few species of stunted unsightly plants.

The Siberian wilds and forests are inhabited by a great variety of animals, which constitute a considerable share of their value to the few human possessors. The rein-deer wanders over the whole northern waste, from west to east, and is generally domesticated for the purposes of draught and the use of
its

its milk and flesh. A kind of wild sheep called the argali is an object of the chase in some districts. Large stags occur in the tracts about lake Baikal, mingled with the musk and others of the antelope tribe, and the wild boar. The mountains of Caucasus afford the urus or bison, and the ibex. Wild horses and asses roam in herds over the steppes adjacent to Tartary. The bear, the wolf, and foxes of various kinds are common in Siberia. The latter animal furnishes some of the most valued furs; but the bulk of this costly article of luxury is procured from animals of the weasel tribe. Of these, the sable is the principal object of the hunters, who pay the tribute to the crown in its skins. Sables are met with from the Uralian chain through all the wooded part of Siberia, becoming more plentiful on proceeding eastward (probably from the diminishing population), and more valuable on proceeding northward: this, however, is only to the limit of the forests, which are their proper residence. The beaver is found on the banks of the Yenesei: hares, squirrels, and a variety

riety of the murine tribe are common in all parts.

Nature has also bountifully supplied these regions with the finny race. The rivers afford not only the usual constant inhabitants of their waters, but are visited by prodigious annual migrations of the larger fishes from the neighbouring seas. From the Caspian, shoals of the sturgeon genus run up the Volga and Yaik, affording a rich harvest to the fishers, who find a profitable article of exportation in their salted roe, or caviar, the favourite delicacy of the northern countries. The great Siberian rivers are in like manner visited by fishes of this kind, and also by numerous species of the salmon genus, affording an excellent and plentiful food. The different kinds show a preference of some rivers above others. The Ob, which undergoes a kind of putrid fermentation soon after its first freezing, is for a period deserted by its fish, which rush into the mouths of the purer communicating rivers, presenting a ready capture at those places to the fishermen. The lake Baikal contains a variety of fish,

fish, of which one species is peculiar to itself: this is a kind of soft lump, consisting almost entirely of oil, never taken alive, but thrown on shore in great numbers after storms. No part of the empire more abounds in fish than the remote peninsula of Kamtschatka, the rivers of which swarm with the salmon tribe.

The principal wealth of Russia in mineral products is derived from her Asiatic territories. The Uralian mountains and their vicinity are the centre of the mining country. Gold, copper, and iron are the metals chiefly extracted there; and the founderies for the two latter are very numerous. The Siberian iron is a great object of commerce, and some of it vies in goodness with the Swedish. Gold is likewise found, along with silver, in the districts of Kolyvan and Nertshinsk, and copper and lead are met with in the Altaian chain. Rock-salt, alum, nitre, sulphur, vitriol, and natron are produced abundantly; but coal has yet been scarcely discovered in these parts. Siberia affords also a great variety of gems and beautiful stones, which, however, are little known, except in the

cabinets of mineralogists. There appears still to be much room for investigation into its subterraneous treasures.

Many distinct races of men are scattered over this wide space, differing from each other in appearance, manners, religion, and language. To the south, Tartarian tribes prevail, many of whom are mahometans, while some of the more eastern follow the faith of the Delai Lama, or a kindred system termed Shamanism. The Tartars are in general the most civilized and industrious of the natives. Towards the north dwell the Samoieds, Ostiaks, Koriaks, and other similar tribes, who are sunk in gross superstition and idolatry, and are filthy and squalid in their habits of life. Some of these live chiefly on fish and seals; others are supported by their rein-deer and the product of the chase; some are fixed, others wandering; but all are averse to the exertions of steady industry. They are in general of small stature, and hard-featured; but there is a tribe at the north-eastern corner of the continent, called the Tschutki, distinguished by superiority of size and better features, and greater skill

in the arts of life. The peninsula of Kamtschatka is inhabited by another race, but not less filthy and brutalized than the Samoieds. The character of these northern tribes in general is harmless and phlegmatic; yet the Tschutki and Koriaks appear to live in perpetual hostility.

The Mongul Tartars at an early period had established a principality in the heart of Western Siberia, the existence of which country was scarcely known to the Russians; when, in the 16th century, one Yermak, a Cossac chief, expelled by the Russian arms from his settlement in the south, undertook an expedition against the khan of Siberia, and dethroned him. He was afterwards obliged to call in the aid of the Russians, who had before subdued the Tartar kingdoms of Cazan and Astrachan. Making their own advantage of this introduction into Siberia, they by degrees extended their dominion over the whole country as far as the river Amur. Kamtschatka was lastly discovered and conquered, not without repeated insurrections on the part of the natives, which were attended with much bloodshed. The
sovereignty

sovereignty of Russia appears now to be recognized by all the tribes of northern Asia, although the remoteness and little value of several of the districts have caused the imperial court to acquiesce in a loose form of allegiance, consisting chiefly in the payment of tributary furs. The Tschutki lately refused even this acknowledgment; but are said to have since renewed it.

The Russian and Chinese empires seem to have been surprised to find themselves neighbours in their respective Tartarian limits, and arms were called in to decide the claim of each to some part of the immense deserts possessed by both. As the Chinese capital lay much nearer to the frontier than the Russian, the latter power could not avail itself of its military superiority, and in the treaty which terminated the difference, the advantage remained to China. The subjects of the two empires carry on a mutual traffic at two border settlements; and some of the rich commodities of Peking, exchanged for Siberian furs, find their way to Petersburg by an inland navigation and carriage of several thousand miles.

Asiatic Russia, as already observed, constitutes a small part of the power and population of that empire. Its people, reckoned only at three millions and a half, are many of them savage, and unfit either for arts or arms. The Arctic sea is so encumbered with perpetual ice, that it is entirely unfit for the purposes of navigation; and the Caspian gives access only to the disordered and generally hostile kingdom of Persia. From all the other parts of Asia it is nearly cut off by the impassable deserts of Tartary. Siberia is chiefly valuable to Russia for its mines and furs. It also serves as a place of banishment for state delinquents, who are thus removed from the theatre of political intrigue, while they may nourish the hope of return on a change of administration. Prisoners of war have also been sent thither, and have much contributed to civilize and improve the country.

Agriculture has made little progress in these parts, though, were they sufficiently peopled, the soil and climate in many districts would afford adequate encouragement

to the labours of husbandry. About Astrachan the vine is cultivated with success, but chiefly for the sake of the fruit in its natural state, which is sent at a vast expense to supply the luxury of Moscow and Petersburg. Excellent melons are grown about the Volga and Yaik, and the finest rhubarb is found native in the plains about the latter river, and in other parts. In southern Siberia the usual farinaceous grains prosper, and flax and hemp grow luxuriantly. Daouria and the province of Nerzhinsk possess a soil adapted to any kind of culture. Cattle are numerous near Tobolsk, where there is no deficiency of hay for winter fodder. The chief obstacles to agriculture in these countries are the excessive severity of the winter frosts, and the long droughts frequent in summer.

Of the towns, the richest and most populous is *Astrachan*, situated not far from the discharge of the Volga into the Caspian sea. This position gives it many advantages for commercial communication, and it carries on a great traffic, especially in the several products of the fisheries on the Volga. Its
leather

leather manufactories and salt-works are considerable. Its population, which consists of a singular assemblage of different nations, is stated at 70,000. *Orenburg*, on the Yaik or Ural, flourishes by means of the trade which it maintains with the tribes to the east of the Caspian.

The capital of Siberia Proper is *Tobolsh*, situated at the conflux of the Tobol and Irtysh. It is the seat of the civil and ecclesiastical government, and has several public edifices, which give it an air of grandeur. Though its climate is very severe, it enjoys an abundance of the necessaries of life; and it is not without civilized society, for some of the best of which it is often indebted to exiles. *Catherineburg* and *Kolyvan* are towns of some importance, on account of the mines in their vicinity. *Tomsh*, on the Oby, is moderately populous; but is surpassed by *Irkutsh*, near the lake Baikal, which is the mart for the trade between Russia and China, and the seat of the supreme government over Eastern Siberia. *Yakutsh*, on the Lena, is the most northern
of

of the Siberian towns. At this place, mercury set in the open air on a winter's night has frozen solid. *Ochotsh* is the port whence the communication with Kamtschatka is carried on.

To Asiatic Russia belong a number of islands, partly extending between Kamtschatka and the promontory of Alashka on the American coast, and partly between the southern point of that peninsula and the Japanese isles. These are inhabited by people resembling either the Kamtschadales or the natives of the neighbouring American continent. They have been visited by the Russians for the fish and furs with which they abound, especially for the valuable fur of the sea-otter, a commodity of great price in the markets of China. The Russians have abused the right of the strongest over the poor natives, so that they have been much diminished under their oppressions, and their cupidity has exhausted the furs in some of the islands. The chief employment of the inhabitants is the capture of fish and seals, from which they derive their sustenance.

Some

Some islands at the mouth of the Covi-
vima carry on a trade in what are called
mammoth's tusks, but which are probably
those of the morse or narwhal, with which
three or four vessels are annually laden.

INDEPEN-

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

THE name of Tartary, or, more correctly, Tatory, has been generally applied to that vast tract of country which constitutes the middle belt or zone of Asia from west to east, and which is inhabited by a great number of nations and tribes, some of kindred, others of totally different origin. The greatest part of these are now in a state of loose subjection to the Russian and Chinese empires, principally to the latter. Some, however, remain independent; and these, occupying a large continuous region on the western side of Tartary, may be geographically considered as one people.

The country thus specified is bounded on the north by Asiatic Russia, which in this part stretches into deserts, affording no precise boundary line; on the west by the Persian and Hindoo provinces, separated by deserts and rivers, and by the mountains of Gaur; and on the east by the mountains of Belur, and the lakes and deserts which lie
between

between it and the country of the Eluth Kalmucs. It lies chiefly between the latitudes 35 and 50, and occupies a breadth of about 870 miles.

The principal divisions of this extensive tract are, first, in the north, the steppes or plains roamed over by three hordes of *Kirguses*, which, with the country of the *Karachalpacs* and other Tartarian tribes, compose what has been called Western Turkistan, the original residence of the Turkish nation: to the west, *Kharism*, an ancient kingdom lying between the Caspian sea and the river Jihoon, and mostly at present naked and desolate: to the south of the mountains Argun and the river Sirr or Sihon, the country of *Great Bucharía*, divided into several districts or provinces, as Sogd (the ancient Sogdiana), Fergana, Balk, Kilan, &c. forming almost all the fertile and desirable portion of Independent Tartary.

This country in general enjoys a fine climate, although the northern part of it, from its proximity to the Siberian deserts, cannot fail of experiencing severe cold in the winter. The heat which would naturally attend the
latitudes

latitudes in the southern parts, is tempered by the vicinity of high mountains, which retain the snow to a late period of the year.

The face of the country presents great varieties, extending in some parts into wide plains, in others diversified with hill and dale. The soil is usually rich and productive in the tracts of the rivers, but inclined to sterility in the sandy plains and mountains. The general prospect is too naked to please an eye accustomed to rural beauty.

The geography of this country is too little explored to lay down with accuracy the ranges of mountains which traverse it in different directions. It appears, however, that on the east of Great Bucharia there is a great snowy ridge running north and south, either single, under the name of *Belur Tag*, or double, under that of *Mus Tag*, composing the ancient Imaus. This ridge unites on the south with the *Hindoo Koh* and the *Gaur* mountains, which running east and west, divide Bucharia from Hindostan and Persia. Another ridge, named *Ah Tau*, is detached more northerly in the same direction, and passes to the north of Samarcand.

The

The snowy ridge at length terminates in the *Argjun* mountains, which run westerly, and are succeeded by the ridge of *Kara Tau*, proceeding as far as the sea of Aral. In the country of the Kirguses a ridge occurs named *Kisil Tag*, which seems to be a branch sent off in a south-western direction from the great Altaian chain. Other branches from the Uralian chain overspread the north-western part of the same country.

The greatest river of Independent Tartary is the *Jihoon*, called also *Amu*, the ancient Oxus. Its principal head is in the Belur mountains; but in its progress it receives numerous streams from the Hindoo Koh and Gaur on the south, and the Ak Tau on the north. At length, after being joined by the river of Balk, it takes a north-western direction, which it holds to its termination in the southern side of the sea of Aral. During part of its course it forms the boundary between Bucharìa and Korazan. Its whole course is computed at 900 miles.

The *Sirr* or *Sihoon*, anciently Iaxartes, taking its rise in the northern part of the Belur chain, is joined by several streams
from

from the Argun mountains and the Ak Tau, after which it flows north-westerly through the country of Shash, and finally makes its way through unknown deserts to the eastern side of the sea of Aral. A large river named *Sarasu* from the northern deserts either joins this, or runs separately to the same sea. There are other considerable rivers in the wide country of the Kirguses, but their course through obscure and barbarous regions has been traced with no accuracy.

One of the great features of this country is the salt-lake, or *sea of Aral*, or of *Eagles*. This expanse of water is about 200 miles from north to south, and 70 miles from east to west. It lies parallel to, and about 100 miles eastward from, the Caspian sea, with which it is supposed formerly to have communicated. Its situation amidst sandy deserts has caused it to be little explored. The name implies its being frequented by the large birds of prey which make their abode in mountainous wilds, undisturbed by human resort. Several salt-lakes occur in the adjacent solitudes. On the eastern side
of

of Turkestan, between it and the Kalmuc country, is a large lake called the *Palkati Nor*, which ranks next to those of Aral and Baikal among the Asiatic lakes. Other lakes exist in the intervening district, but they are not deserving of particular notice.

These regions, so different in their soil and climate, of course differ greatly in their productions. The Kirguses and other Tartarian tribes have probably, like the rest of the Tartar nation, been led to their pastoral wandering life by the fitness of their country for rearing the domestic animals, rather than for the culture of vegetables. They abound in horses, camels, beeves and sheep, which find plentiful sustenance in the long grass which clothes the plains after the rainy seasons, and the verdant meadows which border the rivers. The steppes offer numerous wild animals to the chase, such as antelopes, deer, hares, foxes, wolves, &c. The products of Great Bucharía are those of similar latitudes in the cultivated countries of the east, and grain of different kinds is raised with success. The alpine parts afford some of the animals of Tibet, as the musk,

the Tibet ox, and wild sheep. Gold, silver, quicksilver, copper, and other metals are found in the mountains, with lapis lazuli, and a particular gem called the balay, or pale-rose ruby.

Of the inhabitants of these countries, the Kirguses, divided into the Great, Middle, and Lesser Horde, are a people of undoubted Tartarian origin, distinguished by the features and manners of that race. They dwell in tents of felt, which they carry with them in their migrations from the banks of the Sirr to the steppe of Issim. Their flocks and herds are numerous, and some individuals among them possess a great share of pastoral wealth. They feed chiefly upon the flesh of their sheep, and their favourite drink is koumis, or fermented mare's milk. Each horde is ruled by a khan or prince of its own. They are not accounted valiant, yet they make occasional predatory incursions into the neighbouring countries for the sake of procuring slaves, the mutual fraternity which they profess among each other not permitting them to employ their countrymen in servile offices. Their religion is mahometism,

metism, but of a lax kind, and intermixed with idolatrous superstitions. With the Russians they carry on a traffic by way of exchange, in which their sheep and cattle, skins and camels' hair, are bartered for clothes and furniture. With Bucharìa they make a similar exchange for weapons and armour. They have no towns of their own, but frequent the towns of Siberia and those upon the Sirr for the purposes of traffic.

The country of Kharism, or Karasm, extending from the Caspian sea to the river Jihoon, was once the head of a considerable kingdom, comprising Khorasan and part of Great Bucharìa. It is now chiefly in a desert state, but possesses some walled towns, of which the principal are *Khieva* and *Urjentz*. The former is now the capital, and the cultivated district lies chiefly around it. Its commercial products are raw silk, cotton, and lamb's furs. The government of Kharism is absolute, under an independent khan: the religion is mahometan. The country on the eastern shore of the Caspian is very little known.

Great

Great Bucharia, the remaining, and beyond comparison the most interesting part of Independent Tartary, was anciently a portion of the Persian monarchy, and was peopled from the same Scythian stock. It was known to the Greeks and Romans by the names of Bactriana and Sogdiana, and was for some time the seat of a Grecian kingdom. It was a part of the Kharismian empire when conquered by Zingis in the 13th century. Timur made it his principal residence and seat of royalty. A descendant of his was expelled in 1494 by the Uzbek Tartars, who established a powerful monarchy in Bucharia. This came in time to be divided into several sovereignties under their respective khans, in which state it continues at the present day. The population consists of the Uzbeks and the proper Bucharians. The first live after the Tartar manner, dwelling in tents in the summer, and in towns and villages in the winter. The latter inhabit towns and cultivate the land. The religion of both is the mahometan, of the Sunni or orthodox sect, and the government is despotic.

Of

Of the provinces of Bucharia, that of Sogd is the most fertile, and its valley is described as a kind of paradise, rich in the finest fruits and the products of agriculture. Its capital is the famous city of *Samarcand*, which seems to have been in its greatest lustre when Timur held his court in it. This city was distinguished throughout the east as a seat of learning, and possessed the most famous of the mahometan universities. An appropriate manufacture for which it was remarkable was that of silk-paper. Its present condition is little known, but it has apparently much declined from its pristine splendour. *Bokhara*, situated in the same vale with Samarcand, is still a large and populous city, with a considerable trade. It manufactures soap and calico, and deals in cotton, rice, and cattle.

Balk is the principal city of the country south of the Jihoon, and is said to be large, populous, and well built. It manufactures silk from the produce of the vicinity, and is the chief seat of the commerce between Hindostan and Bucharia. *Badashan* is a small well-built town near the Belur mountains,

tains, the inhabitants of which are enriched by the mineral product of that region. There are other towns in the province of Bucharia, but little known. It is to be lamented that this fine country is so little in the track of intelligent travellers; for Europeans seem to be less acquainted with it than they were some centuries ago. The Bucharians, however, carry on a considerable trade, and caravans pass regularly between their country and Persia, Hindostan, China, and even Russia.

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.

