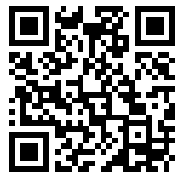

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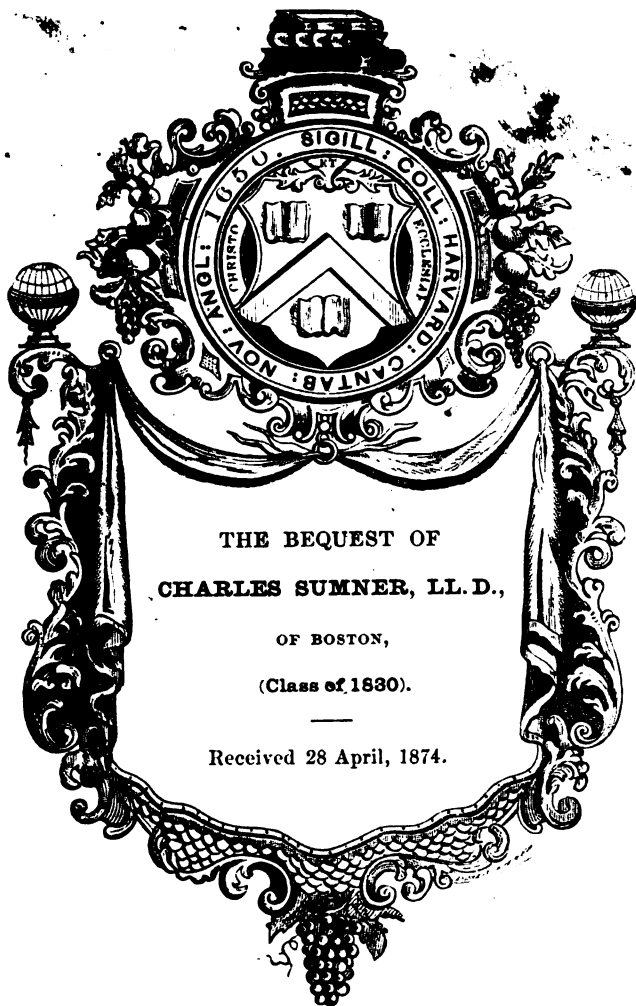
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UNIVERSAL HISTORY

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AN HISTORICAL VIEW OF THE WORLD,

FROM THE EARLIEST RECORDS TO THE YEAR 1808.

WITH A PARTICULAR REFERENCE

TO THE

STATE OF SOCIETY, LITERATURE, RELIGION, AND FORM OF
GOVERNMENT,

IN THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

BY DAVID RAMSAY, M. D.

TO WHICH IS ANNEXED,

A SUPPLEMENT,

CONTAINING

A BRIEF VIEW OF HISTORY,

FROM THE YEAR 1808 TO THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO.

“Life is so short, and time so valuable, that it were happy for us if all
“great works were reduced to their quintessence.” *Sir William Jones.*

“Primaque ab origine mundi

“Ad mea perpetuum deducite tempora carmen.”

Ovid.

IN ^{nine} ~~ten~~ VOLUMES.

VOL. VIII.

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BE IT REMEMBERED, that, on the twenty-fifth day of October, Anno Domini one thousand eight hundred and nineteen, and in the forty-fourth year of the Independence of the United States of America, Eleanor H. L. Ramsay, Martha H. L. Ramsay, Catharine H. L. Ramsay, Sabina E. Ramsay, David Ramsay, James Ramsay, Nathaniel Ramsay, and William Ramsay, deposited in this office the title of a Book, the right whereof they claim as proprietors, in the words following, to wit:

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“ ‘ Life is so short, and time so valuable, that it were happy for us if all great works were reduced to their quintessence.’ *Sir William Jones.*

“ ‘ Primaque ab origine mundi

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JAMES JERVEY, *District Clerk,*
South Carolina District.

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RAMSAY'S
UNIVERSAL HISTORY.

BATAVIA,

Formerly the Republic of the Seven United Provinces.

TOPOGRAPHICAL HISTORY.

THIS country extends from the north of Groningen, to the borders of the department of Belgium, formerly the Austrian Netherlands, on the south about 150 miles ; and from the German Ocean on the west, to the confines of Westphalia on the east, about 100 British miles.

The face of this country presents scarcely any features of variety, except such as are formed by the hand of art, and the efforts of industry ; such as the groves, gardens, and verdant meadows which relieve the eye in wandering over a vast and uniform plain. The whole country is for the most part one continued marsh. The province of Overijssel presents scarcely any thing else, than extensive swamps and heaths. Friesland and Groningen, part of the ancient Frisia, present, toward the south and south east, extensive heaths, and nearer the sea, a continued morass. The whole province of Holland is a uniform marsh ; the coasts are every where nearly on a level with the sea ; and strong dykes or mounds prevent the waters from overflowing the land.

The principal rivers are the Rhine, and the Meuse, which completely traverse the country. The canals in Batavia form a complete system of inland communication, and are almost as

common as high roads in other parts of Europe ; and serve for the same purposes. Running in every direction, they connect all the cities and towns from which the trechtuits set out, as regularly as stage coaches in other countries. Most of these are extremely convenient, and completely fitted up for the accommodation of passengers. The general mode of travelling is by this kind of conveyance.

The lands of this country, being mostly alluvial, contain neither metals nor minerals. There are no mines of coal, and even quarries of stone are a rarity. But the inhabitants dig great quantities of plat from their morasses, in which trees are often found buried at a considerable depth, a circumstance, not uncommon in the marshy grounds of other countries. In digging a well at Amsterdam, sea sand was found at the depth of 100 feet, a proof that, at some remote period, nature has in this country undergone revolutions.

The soil is more uniform than in almost any other country, except those of the same marshy nature, and alluvial origin. Here are neither mountainous rocky, nor limestone districts. Even the few hills, which rise in the eastern parts, are only elevated tracts of sand ; the rest is all a damp morass.

Humidity and cold are the distinguishing characteristics of this country. The air is foggy and unwholesome, except when it is purified by the frost, which in winter blocks up the harbors and canals. The moisture of the atmosphere causes metals to rust, and various other substances to mould, more than in any other country of Europe ; but the remarkable cleanliness of the Dutch, in their houses, obviates its effects ; and strangers admire that brightness, which perpetual rubbing and scouring give to their furniture and utensils. Here are no towering mountains nor rushing cataracts ; no winding vales nor purling streams ; no variegated champaign nor romantic views ; the face of the country every where presents a uniform scene.

Neither the soil, nor the climate, are favourable to vegetation, being too cold and moist for the culture of grain and fruits. Most of the lands are therefore left under pasturage, except those that are set apart for the cultivation of madder

and tobacco, which, in some of the provinces, is pursued with great assiduity. The pastures of Holland and Friesland supply great quantities of excellent butter, which constitutes a staple article of commerce. The cows are kept with great care. Even in summer they are often seen in the meadows covered with cloths, to guard them against the effects of cold and humidity. The Dutch are curious in their horticulture, and raise a number of exotic plants; but the botany of their own country affords little variety.

This flat and uniform marsh presents no curious or uncommon appearances of nature, nor interesting remains of antiquity; but the different museums, particularly that of the university of Leyden, contain good collections of natural and artificial rarities; and the whole country, intersected with innumerable canals, and guarded by stupendous dykes against the assaults of the Ocean, may be considered as a curiosity.

Amsterdam, the capital of the Seven United Provinces, or the present Batavian kingdom, has, during the space of 200 years, been famous for its extensive commerce. About the middle of the seventeenth century it was the chief mercantile city in Europe. In 1203, there was, on the place where it now stands, only a small castle, named Amstel, from the river on which it was situated. Gilbert, lord of the place, first brought a few cottagers to build a hamlet near the castle, where they carried on a small trade with their neighbours, by means of their fisheries. In 1482, it was first surrounded with walls, and in process of time it became a place of considerable trade. The decline of Bruges was favorable to its commerce, although Antwerp derived the greatest advantage from that circumstance. But the decay of the latter city gave rise to that great commercial importance, which, in latter times, has rendered Amsterdam so famous. About A. D. 1609, its trade was so extensive, and its wealth so great, that for the general security of the citizens, in keeping their cash, as well as to obviate the inconvenience of making all their payments in money, the famous bank was established, which has been found a great national advantage. In 1648 the foundation of the famous Stadthouse was laid on more than 13,000 huge piles of tim-

ber, driven by the force of engines into the ground. This superb edifice, with the exchange, and the post house, may be reckoned among the principal ornaments of the city. In the space of seventy-nine years, from 1571, to 1650, the size of Amsterdam was trebled. It received its last enlargement in 1656; and a few years afterwards it was considered as the greatest commercial city in the world. Since the latter part of the seventeenth century, the trade of Amsterdam has been somewhat on the decline. In the year 1734, the arrivals of shipping, in that port, amounted to not less than 1721; but in the year 1740, no more than 1645 vessels were found to have arrived. From different statements it appears, that Amsterdam has been, in general, on the decline, during the greatest part of the last century. Since the late conquest of Holland by the French, that decline has been visible and rapid. At present the number of its inhabitants is computed at 212,000.

Amsterdam is a stupendous monument of human industry, which has caused a vast and magnificent city to rise out of miry swamps, and created an emporium of commerce in a situation destitute of almost every natural advantage. Even its harbor is incommodious and of difficult access, the water being so shallow, that large vessels cannot come up without unloading. Under all these disadvantages, the persevering diligence of the inhabitants, with the judicious conduct of the government in granting a universal toleration to persons of all religions, have raised Amsterdam to a pitch of grandeur that has long astonished the world. The ground, on which it stands, being entirely a morass, rendered it necessary to build the whole city upon piles of wood, consisting of the trunks of huge trees forced down perpendicularly in the boggy soil. The city is well built, the houses have a general air of cleanliness, and in some of the streets display a uniform grandeur. But the canals emit a feculent smell, which assails the nose of a stranger, and never leaves him, till his olfactory nerves have acquired their seasoning.

Amsterdam is distinguished as the theatre of plodding industry. It is a hive filled with industrious bees, in which a drone can scarcely be found. By persevering diligence, a

spot, where nothing could be produced, has been converted into an immense store-house of all the various productions of the earth ; and a situation, fit only for frogs, has become the splendid abode of opulence. This general spirit of industry does not wholly exclude amusement. The theatres are elegant and well attended.

One of the distinguishing, and most pleasing features of the Batavian capital is, that spirit of religious peace which has ever accompanied its universal toleration. There are more than twenty churches, where the Roman Catholic worship is publicly performed. One of these is a beautiful edifice, and superbly decorated. There are also numbers of churches, and chapels, for almost all the various denominations of Christians, and several synagogues for the Jews. All this diversity of opinion, founded on the basis of universal liberty of conscience, has scarcely ever disturbed the public tranquillity.

Rotterdam, as a commercial city, ranks next to Amsterdam in trade and opulence, though not in extent, and population. It is situated on the Maes ; and its harbor is one of the best in the Netherlands. A number of fine canals extend along the streets, by means of which vessels may unload at the very doors of the ware-houses. The buildings are in general elegant, although there are some houses yet to be seen in the old Spanish style. The bank, and the town house, are magnificent structures. The learned Erasmus was a native of Rotterdam, and the inhabitants still venerate his memory. In the year 1739, 500 ships entered inwards at this port. Its trade, as well as that of the other Batavian cities, has of late considerably declined. The population of Rotterdam is now computed at about 48,000.

Middleburg may be considered as the third commercial town of the Batavian territory. A canal, navigable by the largest vessels, gives it a communication with the sea. The town is well built, and exhibits the aspect of opulence. Middleburg was first walled in A. D. 1121, being, before that time, an inconsiderable village. In 1247, it was improved and fortified by William Earl of Holland, Zealand, &c. since which

time it has gradually risen to a considerable degree of opulence, and to a population of about 30,000 inhabitants.

The inland towns are numerous for a country of so narrow extent. Of these Leyden is the chief, being next to Amsterdam, in respect of its population, which is computed at about 50,000. It is situated in a country full of gardens and meadows, near the ancient bed of the Rhine, which seems here to lose itself in numberless canals. The city is about a league and a half in circuit, and comprises a great number of islands formed by the various canals, and connected by bridges. It is one of the finest towns in Holland. Its chief manufactures are those of cloths and stuff, and its fair is much frequented. The university, although of modern date, being founded by William Prince of Orange, soon after the memorable siege of the town, A. D. 1574, has been famed for the study of medicine, and rendered illustrious by the talents of some of its pupils, particularly the celebrated Herman Boerhaave. This university has of late been on the decline.

Leyden has some claims to antiquity, being the Lugdunum Batavorum of the Romans ; but it is principally celebrated for the events of its modern history. The siege, which it sustained in 1574, against the Spaniards, exhibited one of the most signal examples of heroic patriotism to be found in the annals of war. The citizens were reduced by famine to the horrible necessity of feeding on the dead carcasses of one another ; and when the Spanish general, who knew their distress, summoned them to surrender, the answer, returned by unanimous consent of the soldiers and the inhabitants, was, " that they would eat the flesh of their left arms, and with the right defend themselves and their city." They had already opened their sluices, and deluged the surrounding country, in order to drive the Spaniards from their works, who obstinately continued the siege, and attempted to drain off the inundation. But a violent south-west wind driving the waters furiously against the works of the besiegers, obliged them to retire ; while Brissot, admiral of Zealand, with a fleet of well armed flat bottomed boats, sailed over the deluged country to the relief of the place, and the Spanish general Valdes, found him-

self constrained to raise the siege, after having lost the flower of his army. During the whole time of this terrible blockade, the inhabitants carried on a correspondence with the other cities by the means of carrier pigeons. Several of these pigeons being embalmed are, or, at least lately were, preserved in the town house in memory of their services. Leyden was the birth place of the celebrated painter Rembrandt.

Next to Leyden, in magnitude, is Haarlem, seated on the meer or lake of the same name, a dreary body of water about fourteen miles in length, and as many in breadth. Here are some manufactures of silk and velvet; and those of thread, lace, and crape are very considerable. But Haarlem is particularly remarkable for the attachment of its citizens to the cultivation and improvement of flowers. Such is the enthusiasm of those amateurs, that a single tulip root is sold for fifty guineas. The linen bleacheries are also an object of curiosity. The superior whiteness of their linens, lace, &c. is attributed to the slimy waters of the meer. The fairest lily in their gardens does not equal the whiteness of their linen. The three rarities of Haarlem are the beauty of its flowers, the whiteness of its linen, and the stupendous sounds of the great organ. This city also claims the invention of the art of printing, by Lawrence Coster, one of its citizens. His statue is placed in the botanic garden.

Utrecht, the capital of the province of that name, enjoys the most salubrious air, and is the most agreeable residence in these parts. The environs are pleasant, consisting of gardens, walks and groves. This city is one of the handsomest, and the most elegant in the whole country. The high steeple of the cathedral commands an extensive prospect over the circumjacent country, comprising, as some say, upwards of fifty walled towns, besides numerous villages. The population of Utrecht is computed at above 20,000. Its university has given to the world some of its most worthy characters. Here Grævius taught politics and history upwards of forty years; and, in conjunction with Gronovius, Professor of Belles Lettres and Geography, composed that valuable work "The treasures of Ancient Rome" in thirteen folio volumes.

The Hague is supposed to contain 36,000 inhabitants, and a greater number of magnificent houses than are met with in the same space, in any other city of northern Europe. The palace, which was formerly the residence of the Stadtholder, contained the chambers appropriated to the different departments of government, and the room where the states-general usually assembled. It is situated at the distance of two miles from the sea, to which, a paved walk, bordered with two rows of lofty trees on each side, leads from the town. On the north side, is a beautiful grove of stately oaks, elms and beech, about a mile and a half in length, and half a mile in breadth, intersected with pleasant walks. In regard to elegance and fashion, the Hague is the London and Paris of Holland; and its pleasant situation and tranquil grandeur, render it in many respects an agreeable residence.

The little village of Broek, in North Holland, for beauty and singularity, has not perhaps a parallel in any quarter of the Globe. There is only one street, through which carriages are allowed to pass, and this is but thinly inhabited: the state of cleanliness in which the others are kept, is beyond all description. The pavement is a sort of mosaic of stones and bricks of various colors. In the front of the houses, a range of terraces and small gardens extend from one end of the street to the other, separated by fences of different kinds, but of the most finished neatness and elegance. Behind the houses, are gardens of larger dimensions, arranged in the same order, and ornamented in all the modes that fancy can devise. The beauty of the houses, corresponds with that of the gardens; and their interior decorations, with their exterior elegance. The roofs are covered with shining tiles, which, in the sunshine, glitter like spar; and every part of the outside and inside of every house is painted with the most costly colors, which, by being often retouched, are kept so vivid, as always to seem newly finished. It is a singular circumstance in their houses, that the principal door, which is placed in the centre of the front, is never opened, but on the nuptials or the funeral of one of the family. The whole village is every where intersected and watered by numberless rivulets, winding by the

sides of the houses, and surrounded by spacious meadows and pastures. The inhabitants of Broek are extremely rich, being almost all of them persons, who have retired from business, or who are connected with some of the mercantile houses of Amsterdam. The ladies scarcely ever stir abroad. The manners of the people, and the fantastic beauty of the place, taken altogether, form a singular object of curiosity.

Saardam is almost entirely built of wood, and the houses are painted on the outside with the greatest care, and with the most fanciful variety of colors and figures. Before and behind the houses are gardens, laid out with the nicest exactness. Saardam is famous for its paper manufactures, and its saw mills, the latter of which, it is said, amount to about 250 ; and still more for its dock-yards, where the Czar Peter the Great handled the axe, and learned the elements of ship building.

GENERAL HISTORY.

For the most early information, relative to this country, we are indebted to the Romans. The origin of its first population is unknown ; but when the Romans conquered the country, it was possessed by the Batair, a German or Gothic tribe, celebrated by Tacitus. The Frisians, in the seventh century, extended their dominion over the whole country as far as the Scheld ; but were subdued by the Franks, under Charles Martel. After the conquest of Batavia and Frisia by the Franks, these countries were, during some time, divided into a number of petty seigneuries. Under Charles the Simple, when the benefices were rendered hereditary, these vassals, like those of France, possessing a nominal allegiance, became in reality independent. The principal of these were the earls of Holland, and the bishops of Utrecht, who were often engaged in sanguinary contests with each other, as well as with the earls of Flanders and the dukes of Brabant.

The history of those obscure times, and the wars which were carried on among these petty sovereigns, are uninteresting to a modern reader. But certain revolutions of nature, proceeding from the peculiar situation of these countries, merit

some degree of attention. Various and astonishing changes have at different periods, sometimes suddenly, and sometimes gradually, taken place in the local circumstances of the Batavian territory. The great rivers Rhine and Maes, have entirely altered their course. The estuaries of the Maes and the Scheld, were formed by inroads from the ocean. The latter, in particular, was formerly a delta, intersected with the various branches of the river, but is now converted into large creeks. The vast lake or estuary of the Maes, to the south-east of Dort, is said to have been formed so late as the year 1421, when "the famous city of Dort was, by an inundation of the sea with the rivers Waal and Meuse, formed into a sort of island, which inundation overspread like a sea all the present gulph, which till then was firm land joined to the province of Brabant; by which accident, seventy-two good villages were swallowed up and 100,000 persons were drowned.* But the most remarkable, as well as the most important change that has taken place in the geography of these countries, is the formation of the Zuyder Zee, between the provinces of East and West Friesland, to which the city of Amsterdam owes its extensive commerce. The historians of the Netherlands seem all to agree, that the Gulph, called the Zuyder Zee, was formerly for the most part dry land, and well replenished with towns and villages. Both the æra and the causes of this geographical revolution, however, are subjects of uncertain conjecture. From all the evidences of history and tradition it appears, that East and West Friesland were one continued tract, and that the Zuyder Zee was formed by an irruption of waters, either from the Rhine or the Ocean. The ancient geography of the Batavian and Frisian territories is very imperfectly known; but it is extremely probable that, before the completion of those prodigious dykes or mounds, which now afford security against the irruption of the sea and the great rivers, this country has frequently undergone considerable changes, from the ravages of that tremendous element, by which it is constantly threatened.

* Guiccard's Hist. Netherlands, p. 271.

The independence of the Netherlands fixes the æra from which the political and commercial importance of Holland dates its commencement.* The revolution gave her a place in the scale of nations ; and from that memorable epoch her rapid progress to opulence and power as well as her recent downfall are interesting subjects of attention. So early as the year 1579, the dissensions, which prevailed among the revolted Netherlanders, induced William Prince of Orange to project a closer union between the provinces of Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Groningen, Overysse and Guelderland. The deputies accordingly met at Utrecht, and signed that famous federation, in appearance so slender, but in reality so solid, of seven provinces independent in civil affairs, and particular interests, but closely connected in political union, and in the support of the common cause. The Prince of Orange, the celebrated projector of this union, and founder of the Dutch republic, was in 1584, assassinated at Delft by Battazar Gerard, a desperate enthusiast, impelled by a mistaken zeal for religion, and still more by the reward offered in the king of Spain's proclamation.

The death of the Prince of Orange, one of the most eminent patriots, and most profound politicians that ever existed, threw the States into the utmost consternation. But after the first moments of dismay, it produced effects very different from those which the court of Spain had expected. Rage, took place of despair, and the people unanimously resolved to revenge his death by prosecuting the war with unremitting vigor. His son, Maurice, was only eighteen years old ; but such marks of political and military genius distinguished his character, as induced the provinces of Holland and Zealand to confer on him the office of Stadtholder, and captain general of their forces by sea and land. It was not possible that the States should, without foreign aid, resist so powerful an enemy as they had to encounter. In this extremity they tendered the sovereignty of their country to Henry III. king of France ;

* When the name Holland is used, without any express limitation, it is to be understood in the common acceptation of the term, denoting the whole Batavian federacy.

but the distracted state of his affairs prevented him from accepting so advantageous an offer. The States now turned their eyes towards England, and prevailed on Queen Elizabeth to espouse their quarrels. The Earl of Leicester was sent to their assistance with a body of 5,000 foot and 1,000 horse. The States received him with extraordinary honors—conferred on him the office of governor and captain-general—appointed him a guard—and vested him with powers almost dictatorial. But he soon discovered his inability to act against the Duke of Parma, and abused his authority by an administration equally weak and oppressive. He became, at last, so obnoxious to the States, that Elizabeth found it requisite to command him to resign his government, and return to England. Prince Maurice was elected governor; and Lord Willoughby was, by the queen, appointed commander of the English auxiliaries. So long as the confederates had to cope with the Duke of Parma, it was enough to stand on the defensive; but after the death of that great general they began to make a rapid progress. Prince Maurice surprised Breda, and, by the assistance of the English, he also took Gertrudenburg and Groningen, each of which places made an obstinate defence. Various other successes were obtained by the confederates.

In the midst of hostilities, the new republic became powerful—its people grew rich; and its commerce began to extend itself to every quarter of the globe. Philip II. now began to despair of reducing the revolted provinces, and being desirous of an accommodation, but unwilling to make, in his own name, the concessions necessary to induce them to return to obedience, he transferred to his daughter, Isabella, contracted to the Archduke Albert of Austria, the sovereignty of the Netherlands, with a provision, that in case the Infanta should leave no issue, they should revert to the crown of Spain.

Such was the state of affairs at the death of Philip II. The marriage was not yet celebrated; but the contract was punctually executed. Albert and Isabella, immediately informed the States of the transaction, invited them to return to the obedience of their natural princes, and promised to govern them with lenity and affection. The provinces, however, were de-

terminated to complete the work in which they had hitherto so successfully proceeded: the clause, which stipulated their reversion to Spain in default of issue, was sufficient to induce them to reject all terms of submission. Both sides, therefore, prepared to prosecute the war with increased vigor. The States carried on their levies with diligence, and took into their pay several bodies of Germans and Swiss, besides 2,000 French veterans. In 1600 a general engagement took place at Nieuport near Ostend, in which, after a terrible conflict, the army of the States was victorious. The advantages which might have been derived from this victory were not improved. This inactivity of the confederates, afforded to the Archduke an opportunity of recruiting his army, and forming the siege of Ostend. This siege, one of the most famous of modern history, lasted upwards of three years, under three successive generals, the Archduke Albert, the Count de Rivas, and the Marquis of Spinola. All the resources of tactics were employed: new works were daily erected; and innumerable assaults were made without effect. Both the besiegers, and the besieged, received constant supplies, the former by land, and the latter by sea. Spinola pushed the siege with extraordinary vigor and consummate military skill. Ostend was reduced to a heap of ruins, and the garrison, at last, surrendered on honorable terms, when the besiegers were making preparations for the grand assault.

The Marquis de Spinola acquired great reputation from this memorable siege, which cost the king of Spain, and the Archduke, the lives of 80,000 brave soldiers, and put them in possession of a ruined town. But its obstinate defence contributed in no small degree to the establishment of the Dutch republic. The principal force of the Spaniards being employed against that place, the Archduke was, during the space of three campaigns, prevented from entering the United Provinces, while Prince Maurice made himself master of Rimbach, Slugs and Grave, acquisitions, which, more than balanced the loss of Ostend. This interval of tranquillity, which the absence of the Spanish armies afforded, had been extremely favourable to the Dutch manufactures and trade.

The East India Company, which has been the glory and boast of the republic, was established; and commerce, both foreign and domestic, flourished. But the death of Queen Elizabeth, and the different system of politics adopted by James I. her successor, deprived the States of the alliance of England.

Philip III., being now sensible that the Archduchess would have no issue, and that the Netherlands must consequently revert to Spain, resolved to make the most vigorous efforts for the reduction of the revolted provinces. Numerous levies were made for that purpose, and Spinola was appointed generalissimo of the Spanish and Italian forces. The States, on the other hand, repaired their fortifications; reinforced their garrisons; augmented their army; and made every preparation for a vigorous resistance. Notwithstanding their efforts, Spinola, in two campaigns, made a considerable progress. But although he had reduced several places of importance, he made no impression on the body of the republic. The expenses of the army were greater than the Spanish treasury was able to support, and his troops mutinied for want of pay. All these circumstances convinced him of the impracticability of conquering the federated provinces.

Abroad, the Dutch made a greater figure than at home. Their fleets rode triumphant on the Ocean, and every where captured the Spanish trading vessels. They were now become the carriers of all Europe, and Amsterdam was already an emporium of trade, and a store-house of merchandize. An eminent political writer of that time, in pointing out the various causes of the mercantile prosperity of the Dutch, adverts to the construction and management of their vessels, "which" says he, "being capable of containing a great quantity of merchandize, although navigated with fewer hands than those of the English, could carry goods at a much cheaper rate." He also notices their immense magazines of all sorts of foreign commodities, from which, in times of scarcity, they could supply other countries, even those, from which the commodities were bought. "Amsterdam" says he "is never without 70,000 quarters of corn, although none of it be of the growth of the country; and a dearth of only one year in England, France,

Spain, Portugal, &c. enriches Holland for seven years after. He then proceeds to a statement of the herring fishery, which, he says, produced to Holland an annual profit of 1,759,000*l.* sterling, and employed 50,000 fishermen, besides the immense number of ships and sailors, and the various trades connected with that concern; adding, that the Dutch had as much shipping as all Europe besides, and that they then built every year near 1000 vessels, although "all their native commodities did not require 100 to carry them all away at once." So striking a picture, drawn by so able a hand, merits a place in commercial history.*

The war had now continued about thirty-seven years; but never had so long a succession of campaigns been distinguished by so few general engagements. An inactive scene of long encampments and obstinate sieges were the characteristics of this war; which, without risking the fate of the republic on the uncertain event of a battle, exhausted the treasury of Spain, and caused her armies to moulder away in unwholesome situations. The increasing strength of the federated states during this long continuance of hostilities, extinguished the hopes which their enemies had formed of reducing them to subjection. After the failure of the most skilful generals with the best veteran armies in Europe, any further expectations of success would have been folly and presumption. Both the Archduke and the court of Madrid were at last convinced of the necessity of an accommodation. A suspension of arms was therefore agreed on; and a truce of twelve years was concluded A. D. 1609. This treaty was extremely advantageous to the Dutch; it secured to them all their acquisitions as well as freedom of trade with Spain and the Walloon provinces.

During this interval of profound tranquillity, the Dutch extended their commerce and increased their wealth in a manner that astonished all Europe. In the year 1618, the city of Batavia was founded; and the plan of an empire laid in the

* Observations concerning the trade of England with the Dutch, and other foreign nations laid before James I. by Sir Walter Raleigh apud And, Hist. Com. vol. 2. p. 216. &c.

East, superior in wealth and grandeur to the United Provinces, and infinitely surpassing them in extent.* In this or the following year they had also obtained possession of the principal posts, and engrossed all the trade of the great Island of Borneo.

But, while the Dutch were extending their commerce and their conquests abroad, discord raged at home. All the countries of Christendom have in their turn exhibited instances of Catholic or Protestant bigotry. In the midst of political tranquillity, the United Provinces became a prey to religious dissensions. Gomar and Armenius, two professors of Leyden, disagreed on certain abstruse points of theology, and their different opinions divided the republic. Gomar maintained the doctrine of Calvin relative to grace and predestination; Armenius mixed them with softening qualifications. The former was followed by the great body of the people; the latter was supported by Grotius, Vossius, and most of the learned. Both parties supposed themselves initiated in the counsels of the Most High, and acquainted with the laws by which his providence governs the moral world; and both had an equal right to the peaceable enjoyment of their own opinions; but their religious tenets were made the basis of political factions. Prince Maurice headed the Gomarists, and was suspected of an intention of making use of his popularity among them, to enable him to usurp the sovereignty of the republic. The Armenian cause was espoused by the grand pensionary Barneveld, a man of eminent abilities and incorruptible integrity. But Maurice and the Gomarists at last prevailed. A synod was convened at Dort, the doctrine of Armenius was condemned; its preachers were banished; and Barneveld, who had during the space of forty years directed the counsels of the republic with singular prudence and success, was condemned to death for the crime of "vexing the church of God;" a name which the Gomarists appropriated exclusively to their own sect. At the age of seventy this venerable patriot suffered on the scaffold in conformity

* And. Hist. Com. Vol. 2. p. 275.

to that extraordinary sentence. Such were the effects of intolerance among a people, who, under every disadvantage, had maintained a war of thirty-seven years for the preservation of their religious as well as civil liberties; and who now established a Protestant inquisition, after having, so successfully, resisted a popish one. It is no more than justice to observe, that this is the only scene of religious persecution ever displayed in the Dutch republic.

The truce with Spain being about to expire, the prospect of a renewal of hostilities composed their domestic animosities. On its expiration both sides seemed eager to commence hostilities. The Duc d' Olivarez, minister of Philip IV. among his bold plans for restoring the greatness of the Spanish monarchy, had resolved on renewing the attempt to subjugate the United Provinces; and the Dutch had already cast their eyes on Brazil, which, together with Portugal, was at that time under the dominion of Spain. They commenced their transatlantic hostilities by an attack on this colony. The city of St. Salvador was captured A. D. 1624. Six years afterwards the whole province of Fernambuco was reduced; and before the year 1636, the Dutch West India Company had obtained possession of almost the whole sea coast of Brazil. In Europe, the arms of the republic were likewise crowned with success. Spinola had again been appointed commander in chief of the Spanish forces, and was again opposed by Prince Maurice, who obliged him to raise the siege of Bergen-op-zoom, after having lost 100,000 of his best troops in that enterprize. But four years after that event, the States experienced a reverse of fortune in the loss of Breda, one of the strongest towns in the Netherlands; which was reduced by Spinola. This campaign was conducted on the same plan as the former, by tedious encampments and difficult sieges; and seldom displayed any important contests in the field. In this manner it was protracted for the space of twenty-six years from A. D. 1621, to 1647; when the United Provinces, growing jealous of the power of France, concluded a peace with Spain. In this treaty the latter acknowledged the independent sovereignty of the republic, which she had

long disputed at a vast expense of blood and treasure. The year following restored tranquillity to Europe by the peace of Westphalia.

During this war, as well as the former, the Dutch republic had extended its commerce and conquests in both the extremities of the globe. Besides the already mentioned seizure of Brazil, in America, its acquisitions, in Asia, were of equal importance and more permanent. Its East India Company had obtained possession of Malacca, and engrossed the trade of Japan. About the year 1650, the commerce of the United Provinces had attained to its meridian. The mercantile greatness of the United Provinces arose from a concurrence of physical and moral causes. Their natural defects of climate and situation were very great. A numerous population, limited to a very contracted territory, producing but few of the necessaries, and still fewer of the conveniences of life, soon discovered the necessity of repairing for supplies, to the ports of more fertile and extensive countries. The scarcity of land, as well as its unproductiveness, induced them to turn their attention to the sea, and to increase their fisheries. These gradually introduced a foreign trade, and trained the people to sea faring habits. Superior skill in the art of navigation necessarily followed; which encouraged them to cultivate it as a distinct profession, and induced them to undertake the carriage of merchandize between different nations. These habits and pursuits rendering them a nation of fishermen, merchants and sailors, enabled them to overcome the disadvantages of their local situation in a country of narrow extent and little fertility; exposed to the encroachments of the ocean, and in a climate unfavourable to vegetation.

The political circumstances of the Dutch, were at the commencement of their republic as perplexing, as the physical state of their country was unpropitious. The most powerful monarchy of Europe employed the finest armies in the world, and all the wealth of Mexico, and Peru, to crush their rising greatness. But these difficulties only stimulated their ardor in every pursuit, and drew forth new efforts from those laborious and frugal habits to which the physical disadvantages of their situa-

tion had first given rise. Their government seeing trade essential to the prosperity of the republic, and even necessary to its existence, considered it as the grand object of attention; and acquired a clearer perception of the commercial interests of the nation, than any other states at that period had attained. From these circumstances arose the cautious conduct of the Hollanders in turning to their own commercial advantage, those almost continual wars which interrupted the trade of other nations. Whenever they engaged in warfare, it was to maintain their independence, or to promote their commercial interests; the extension of their European territory narrow as it was, never entered into the plan of their politics. Their conquests were all subservient to commerce, and made in distant quarters of the globe. The same physical disadvantages, and the same attention to their mercantile interests induced them to adopt that liberal and enlightened system of civil and religious toleration, which, at different times, brought such an accession of capital, as well as of industry, into the United Provinces. No branch of European industry is known, which the spirit of persecution has not driven into Holland, or which liberty has not attracted thither, in times, when that country was regarded as a sure asylum against tyranny and oppression. Thus, the bigotry of ecclesiastics and the folly of statesmen in other countries, contributed to the wealth and aggrandizement of the Dutch republic. Few of these extraordinary effects could have been produced, had not the United States acquired an independent existence, as a distinct political community. So long as they remained an appendage to a foreign crown, they could have had little other stimulus, than that which arose from the physical circumstances of their situation, which indeed constituted the basis of all that followed; the general revolt of the Netherlands, which terminated in the independence of the Seven Provinces, was the great moral cause of their subsequent greatness.

The middle of the seventeenth century closes the most interesting and extraordinary part of the Batavian history. The republic had obtained a conspicuous rank in the scale of nations, and its commerce had reached its zenith. The subsequent

transactions of the republic are such as are found in all political annals, and exhibit scarcely any thing remarkably striking, except the gradual decline of a trade, once superior to that of all other nations. In the wars which the Dutch carried on against England in the time of the Commonwealth, and in the reign of Charles II. they disputed with the English the dominion of the seas; their naval power was formidable, and the abilities of their admirals Van Tromp, De Ruyter, and others have rendered their names immortal. The year 1654, was extremely unfortunate for their West India Company by the loss of Brazil, from which they were expelled by the Portuguese. The Company had expended, near 16,000,000*l.* sterling in effecting the conquest of that colony, with the Isle of St. Thomas and Angola, in Africa, which latter they also lost, as well as Brazil, after having exhausted the greater part of their capital by those enormous disbursements. The East India Company, however, was every where successful; and before the end of the year 1663, had conquered almost all the settlements of the Portuguese in India, and the Oriental islands. The year 1672, was a distressing crisis to the Hollanders when, being attacked by the united forces of Charles II. and Louis XIV. they asserted their dominion on the sea in that memorable naval engagement between De Ruyter and the Duke of York; in which the Dutch admiral Van Ghent, with the French admiral De la Roliniere, were slain, and the English admiral the Earl of Sandwich was blown up with his ship. On this occasion the navy of the republic shewed itself a match for the combined fleets of France and England. But on land their inferiority to France, alone, was fatally conspicuous. Louis XIV. invaded the United Provinces, took one place after another; and advanced as far as Utrecht. His troops made excursions, even within a few miles of Amsterdam. In this extremity the Hollanders had recourse to their last expedient, that of cutting their dykes and deluging the country. The innumerable villas near Amsterdam, with the neighboring cities Leyden, Delft, &c. as well as the surrounding villages were submerged in the water; while the view of their lands covered by the sea, and their cattle drowning in the fields,

gave little concern to a people resolved to die in defence of their liberties. "Amsterdam," says Voltaire, "appeared like a vast fortress in the midst of the sea, surrounded with armed vessels which had now a depth of water sufficient to admit of their being stationed round the city, where fresh water was sold at six stivers per pint." In this desperate emergency the richest families, and those desirous of liberty, prepared to embark for Batavia. The vessels, capable of performing this voyage being numbered, were found sufficient to convey 50,000 families to that distant settlement. But they were fortunate enough not to be reduced to this desperate expedient; the emperor Leopold, the elector of Brandenburg and the Spaniards, all flew to their assistance. The French monarch, unable to make any farther progress in a country overflowed by the sea, had no other alternative than to retire; and the republic, by the assistance of its allies, soon recovered all that it had lost. Holland, while buried under water, was still formidable on the ocean; and, under the conduct of her gallant admiral De Ruyter, bade defiance to the united naval force of England and France. Subsequent to this epoch, the transactions of the Dutch exhibit nothing particularly striking. The war, in which they were involved, in consequence of the part which they took in support of the United States of America, was extremely disastrous to the republic. All their West India settlements were seized by the English; their vessels were captured, and their commerce ruined. These misfortunes aggravated the animosities subsisting between the patriots and the Orange party, two factions, which had existed in the republic ever since its establishment; and of which sometimes one, sometimes the other, had preponderated. The patriots blamed the Stadtholder for the losses which the nation had sustained. The Orange party accused their antagonists of having involved the States in a dangerous war, for which they were totally unprepared.

During these altercations the Emperor Joseph II. peremptorily insisted on the opening of the Scheldt, and a war between Austria and the republic seemed inevitable; but the affair ended in an accommodation. In the mean while the

various charges and vindications of the Stadtholderians and the patriots continued, till the two parties came to an open rupture. Hostilities commenced, and the United Provinces were threatened with all the calamities of a civil war. These turbulent commotions subsided on the approach of the king of Prussia, who undertook the support of the Stadtholder, and marching an army into the territory of the States, took possession of Rotterdam and other places almost without resistance. These decisive measures produced a formal reconciliation between the parties, and the Stadtholdership, as well as the hereditary government of each province, was, by the courts of London and Berlin, guaranteed to the august house of Orange. This government, apparently resting on so solid a basis, was, shortly after, overturned by the revolutionary volcano which burst out at Paris, and from that tremendous centre communicated shocks more or less violent to all parts of Europe.

We have already seen the astonishing height to which commerce had risen about the middle of the seventeenth century, and the splendor in which it for some time after continued. The two small provinces of Holland and Zealand, producing scarcely a single commodity for exportation, had more shipping than all the rest of Europe together. A modern writer says, "It is probable that the Dutch have frequently been creditors at one time to the amount of 3,000,000*l.* sterling to their own government, and to foreign states;" an immense sum of surplus capital to have been accumulated by a nation possessed of no greater territory than the state of North Carolina, and without any good harbors or any natural produce fit for exportation.* The same author, in another place, observes, that the United Provinces displayed "an accumulation of more inhabitants in the same space than is known in any other part of Europe; of more industry in the same bulk of population than was ever found in any other country; and of far more wealth in the hands of the nation than was ever possessed elsewhere by the same number of men."

* Brougham's Colon. Policy, Vol. 1. p. 300.

Ever since the middle of the seventeenth century the Batavian commerce has gradually declined. This decline may easily be traced to its true cause, when it is considered that they have no staple commodity ; no produce for exportation, and were only carriers between different nations for a stipulated freightage ; or traders purchasing the commodities of one country, and selling in another without any merchandise of their own. Their commercial advantages consisted in a large capital, and in mercantile industry and skill, which other nations might also acquire. These accidental advantages always lay open to competitors, and the Dutch could not fail to be deprived of them, whenever other nations should begin to export, in their own vessels, their own commodities. The decline of the trade of Holland was only a necessary consequence of the commercial improvements of other nations, and particularly of England and France, as its extraordinary rise had been chiefly owing to their neglect in that particular. The famous English navigation act was one of the first fatal blows to the Dutch commerce. Till that time they had been almost the sole carriers of merchandise, between different countries of Europe. All the trade between England and Holland, and a great part of the English trade with other countries, was carried on in Dutch vessels, a practice to which this act put a period. The value of the goods exported from France, in Dutch bottoms, in the year 1658, was estimated at 43,000,000 livres, of all which they were deprived by the tonnage duty imposed by Louis XIV. in imitation of the English navigation act.* Other European nations have, at different times, adopted measures similar to those of France and England, and with the same views. All these arrangements, however, tended only to accelerate effects which would in process of time have been produced by the general progress of commercial improvement.

Although the decline of Dutch commerce was the natural consequence of the improvement of that of other nations, the fall of the Dutch republic is scarcely less extraordinary than

* Brough. Col. Policy. Vol. 1. p. 310.

its rise. On contemplating the noble and successful efforts made by the Hollanders against the formidable power of Spain, during so great a length of time, and with such uncommon resolution; and their vigorous resistance against the victorious arms of France, on the invasion of their territory by Louis XIV. in contrast with the events of the present age, the moral observer is struck with astonishment. In comparing the sieges of Haerlem, Leyden, &c. with the pusillanimous surrender of Rotterdam and Amsterdam to the French revolutionists, we can hardly believe the Batavians of the ages alluded to, and those of the present day, to be the same people, and breathing the same air. But armies, and navies, and magazines of warlike stores, are of little avail if the minds of men are conquered, corrupted or degenerated. In all political calculations we should form just conceptions of the state of the public mind.

The Dutch made early, and for half a century, successful attempts to colonise that part of this western continent which forms the United States. New York, the first city of free America, was Dutch, long before it was English. With the exception of Virginia, no province or state in the Union is as old as the Dutch settlements in and near New York. The expulsion of the Dutch from that city was only ten years later than the English navigation act levelled originally against them. Both were probably the result of the same policy, to aggrandize England and depress her rivals. While Charles the second was consolidating his American colonies, he, by ejecting intruders, was an instrument in the hands of Providence in laying a foundation for a compact, free, American empire.

MISCELLANEOUS HISTORY.

Calvinism is the established religion of the Batavian kingdom. The ecclesiastics are divided into four ranks, professors in the universities, preachers, elders and deacons; and the ecclesiastical government is administered by consistories, classes and synods. The provincial synods are annually con-

vened ; the national synod is summoned only on important occasions. The last was that of Dort A. D. 1618. The number of classes is fifty-seven, and 1590 is that of the preachers. Except in the affair of Arminius, unbounded toleration has ever prevailed, and been one of the most distinguishing characteristics of the Batavian church. The Catholics are supposed to have 350 churches, and about 400 priests ; the other principal denominations are the Lutherans, the Anabaptists and the Arminians or Remonstrants. There are some Quakers, and the Jews are exceedingly numerous. This universal toleration, and the religious concord as well as political tranquillity with which it has been accompanied, strikingly shew the absurdity of persecution, and how much blood might have been spared, if all nations had acted on the same principles.

The United Provinces composed seven distinct republics closely connected in a political confederacy. Each province had its own states, consisting of nobles and burgesses. These provincial states sent their deputies to the states general ; in which each republic had only one voice. The power of peace and war ; of appointing ambassadors ; concluding treaties, &c. resided with the states general. The stadtholdership was, originally, a sort of dictatorial office instituted in a critical emergency of the republic, and at last rendered hereditary in the family of Orange. At present Holland is governed as a part of France.

Each province had a separate court, in which justice was administered independently of the other states. The local customs and statutes of each province and city, the ordinances of the states general, and the Roman code, were the basis of their jurisprudence. The Stadtholder had the power of pardoning offences with the consent of the president, and superior court of each province. Since the late political revolutions it is uncertain what alterations may have taken place in the judicial system.

According to the last lists of the army, it amounted to about 36,000. At present it may be considered as incorporated with that of France. Their navy which history exhibits as once so powerful has of late almost disappeared.

The revenue of the United States was about 3,500,000*l.* sterling. Two millions eight hundred thousand were annually received as interest of loans to foreign powers. The national debt was about 130,000,000*l.*

After what has been said respecting the commerce of Holland, little more need to be added. Perhaps that, carried on by the East India Company, although exceedingly diminished, is yet one of its most considerable branches. During the war of 1756, between England and France, and in the first years of the American war, while the States preserved neutrality, Holland was the grand focus of commerce between Great Britain and the continent. The advantage derived by the Dutch at such times from their situation, and the contests of their neighbors, seems to have been one of the last and principal props of their declining trade. At present, the only branch that is not interrupted by the ravages of maritime war, is that carried on with Belgium and Germany by the Scheldt, the Meuse, and the Rhine, as well as by their numerous canals. This commerce is at all times considerable.

The Batavian manufactures are, chiefly, those of linen, pottery and painted tiles, leather, sugar, wax, snuff, starch and paper, with some of woolen, cotton and silk. The linens of Haarlem and Leyden have already been noticed, as well as the paper manufactories of Saardem. Delft is principally remarkable for its potteries. The manufactories of Holland were established and supported chiefly, by the French and Flemings, whom religious persecution had expelled from their country. These contributed in no small degree to render the decline of commerce less rapid. It has generally been the good fortune of the Dutch to profit by the follies of their neighbors.

By the most recent statements the population of Holland is 980,000, and that of all the Seven Provinces 2,738,000, which gives 275 for each square mile, reckoning 10,000 for the whole extent of territory.

The political importance of Batavia, which as well as its commercial fame, was once considerable, has of late greatly declined.

The Dutch language is a dialect of the German, harsh, and disagreeable in its pronunciation, inelegant, but sufficiently energetic.

Their literature is respectable; Erasmus was the glory of Holland, Grotius, who was a native of Delft, may be placed in the first rank of literary honor. Boerhaave has already been mentioned. To these a number of illustrious names may be added. Hoogeven of Leyden, who died in 1794, had the reputation of being the first Greek scholar in Europe. The learning of Holland has laboured under great disadvantages. Most of the Dutch literati have used the Latin or French languages, and it is not until lately that works of science and genius have been exhibited in their own. The French is, what the Greek and Latin were formerly, the universal language of civilized countries, and a marked object of education; a circumstance which has greatly contributed to the extensive celebrity of the French writers. The Dutch language, on the contrary, has never been fashionable. The little spot of swampy ground which they inhabit, was, until towards the end of the sixteenth century, almost unknown to the rest of Europe. From their noble struggle against the efforts of Spain, they acquired some martial celebrity; but afterwards their fame was chiefly commercial; and neither the country, the people, nor their language, attracted the attention of the literary world. Batavian genius has, therefore, been buried like ore in the mine; and Batavian literature, confined to the narrow limits of its language, has been little noticed by foreigners. In proportion to its contracted territory and small population, and that so much occupied with mercantile pursuits, the display of knowledge, and the number of the learned in Holland have not been inconsiderable.

The universities are five, Utrecht, Leyden, Groningen, Franeker, and Harderwyck with two inferior colleges at Amsterdam, and Deventer, and an academy of sciences at Haarlem. The Latin schools of Rotterdam, Breda, &c. are of considerable celebrity, but no efficient measures are taken for the general diffusion of useful knowledge among all classes of the people.

The complexion of both sexes is almost invariably fair, unless when altered by a sea faring life. That of the female sex, especially in North Holland, is extremely fine; but a disagreeable effect is produced by the immoveable fixture of the red which instead of being diffused in a gentle blush, forms, as it were, one strong circle in each cheek, never yielding to any passions or feelings; and the white being equally inflexible, this invariability of coloring gives to the countenance an unmeaning cast, resembling painted wax work. This singular clearness of complexion is owing to the cold and foggy moisture of the air. In Amsterdam, where more than in any other part of the country the atmosphere is a foul aggregate of unwholesome vapors, there is less appearance of health and vigor, than in other parts of the United Provinces. The Dutch dress is but little subject to variation. The polite and the fashionable, in large cities, generally conform to the French modes, but often retain peculiarities. They are extremely fond of salted and highly seasoned victuals, and much addicted to spirituous liquors. The theatres, tea-gardens, and coffee-houses, may be ranked among their usual amusements; and in winter skating is a favorite diversion among all ranks from the senator to the peasant and the milk maid. The opulent merchants also take great delight in their villas thickly planted among their numerous canals; and in large and extensive collections of paintings and prints.

The Dutch have been described as dead to every feeling, except that of avarice; and perhaps their steady industry has given them this appearance in the eyes of idle and dissipated foreigners. Their exterior reservedness, destitute of those attractive graces so common among the people of some other countries, is considered by inaccurate estimators, as arising from churlishness of disposition, and want of benevolence. But amidst this apparent defect of politeness a foreigner will experience as much real kindness in Holland, as in any country. The Dutch have nothing to bestow on idleness; but industry is encouraged, and real want amply relieved. Steady perseverance has ever been their distinguishing characteristic; but late events shew, that the age of Batavian heroism is passed.

EUROPEAN RUSSIA

Extends from about 14° to 66° east longitude, and from about 44° north latitude to the shores of the Frozen Ocean. Its greatest length being about 1,600, and its greatest breadth above 1,000 miles. About 1,200,000 square miles may be taken as a rough estimate of its *æra*. The whole Russian empire comprehends the largest space of territory that has ever been united under one political system. Our observations shall here be confined to European Russia.

The face of the country is much less varied than might be expected. Its principal feature consists in vast plains. There are some elevated level tracts of a great extent which modern geographers designate by the name of steppes. One of these extends near 400 miles.

The mountains constitute no striking feature in the geography of Russia, but its rivers are numerous. The chief of these is the majestic Volga, which forms, through a considerable part of its course, the boundary between Europe and Asia. This largest of the European rivers derives its sources from the lakes of Valday, between Petersburg and Moscow, and discharges itself by several mouths into the Caspian sea.

The Nieper, or ancient Borysthenes, rises about 150 miles south of the source of the Volga, and after a course of about 1000 miles, discharges itself by a wide estuary into the Euxine. This river watered the country to which Ovid was banished, and is celebrated in his mournful elegies.

Peter the Great projected several grand schemes for inland navigation. The sudden and dangerous storms, to which the lake of Ladoga is so liable, induced him to cut a canal along its margin extending about sixty seven miles from the river Volkov to the Neva. A canal also leads from Moscow to the Don, opening a communication with the Euxine. Peter formed the grand design of establishing an intercourse between Petersburg and Persia by the lake of Novogorod, the Mesta, the Volga, &c. but the project failed. The celebrated canal of Visknei Voloshok was nearly brought to perfec-

tion by Peter, and it was only needful to join the Twestza with the Shekna, to complete the communication between Petersburg and Astrachan.

The navigation requires for its performance a fortnight, three weeks or a month, according to the season of the year, and near 4000 vessels are supposed annually to pass this way.* With the single exception of the communication between Canton and Peking, this, through the interior of Russia, is the most extensive inland navigation in the world.

Russia contains several lakes, some of which are of considerable extent. Among these must be reckoned the lake of Ladoga, being 150 miles long, and about seventy broad. This is one of the largest in Europe. The fishery of this lake seems to be of little importance; but its northern shores furnish a beautiful kind of marble, greatly esteemed at Petersburg.

There is a great number of morasses, some of which are very extensive. According to Pallas, the northern coast presents an immense swamp of several hundred versts in width, wholly overgrown with moss; destitute of wood; and almost perpetually frozen; being thawed in summer to only a very small depth.†

The English obtained under Iwan Basilowitz the privilege of working the iron mines, upon the condition of instructing the Russians in metallurgy. Mines have long been wrought about sixty miles from Moscow. Peter the Great instituted a college of mines in 1719, and may be regarded as the father of the Russian mineralogy. In 1739, gold mines were discovered and opened, but they yielded no clear profit.

The soil of Russia is various; the northern parts, in general, present a dreary picture of sterility; the middle provinces have a much better soil; and the southern parts display the greatest fertility. Between the Don and the Volga the soil, consisting of a black mould strongly impregnated with saltpetre, is extremely fertile, producing the most luxuriant vegetation.

* Philips's Hist. Inland Nav. p. 19. † Profess. Pallas's Travels, vol. 3.

European Russia presents all the varieties of climate that can be found between Lapland and Italy. The climate of Petersburg, as well as its situation, is unpleasant. Winter, even here, maintains the chief sway, and the Neva is frozen from October or November, till March or April. The cold is very severe in winter, and in summer the heat is excessive. Violent storms are frequent; seldom fewer than twelve, but sometimes more than sixty happen in the space of a year. When these come from the south west, they cause great inundations by the overflowing of the Neva. At Moscow, the summer heats of June and July are oppressive, and the nights are chilly. The winter, which sets in about the middle of November, and lasts till the end of March, is severe, and accompanied with copious falls of snow; but the atmosphere is dry, pure and elastic; and the air extremely salubrious. In the southern parts, the summer heats continue much longer, but the winters though short, are somewhat severe. In almost every part of Russia the climate is dry and healthful. But, throughout the whole empire, the summer and winter verge towards the extremes of heat and cold. From some degrees to the south of Moscow, all northern Russia has only two seasons; the transitions from winter to summer, and again from summer to winter being so sudden, that spring and autumn are unknown.*

In European Russia, stretching through all the climates, from the shores of the Arctic Ocean, to the genial latitude of the southern departments of France, and the northern parts of Italy, there is a great variety in the soil and its productions. Corn and pasturage are the general features of Russian farming; and of the former, all kinds are produced. Taurida produces some maize, and the olive prospers in the southern mountains along the shores of the Euxine. Barley is a general produce. Hemp and flax constitute an important object of Russian agriculture. Tobacco has lately been cultivated, but potatoes are unaccountably neglected. In the middle and southern parts are large orch-

* Tooke's Hist. Russia, vol. 2, p. 419.

ards. Apples and pears are found as far north as 49°.—Cherries and plumbs extend as far as 55°. The Kirifskoi apple, which is of an agreeable flavor, and will keep a long time, often grows to the weight of three pounds. Great quantities of fruit are still imported. Russia is capable of producing an immense quantity of all things necessary to man, sufficient indeed for three times the number of its present inhabitants. Want of population, and the existence of vassalage, are the bane of Russian prosperity.

The sheep, in the northern parts, are of a middle size, many of them rather small with coarse wool. Those of the south are much superior, and their wool much finer. It is said that many of the common Tartars of that province keep 1000 sheep; while the opulent proprietors have very numerous flocks. Throughout the whole empire, a great deal of excellent pasture is found, and cattle in general are in tolerable plenty. Goats and swine every where abound. Of wild animals, the wolf, the lynx, and the elk, are found in the northern parts; and among those, of a more peculiar kind, may be reckoned the sea bear of Nova Zembla.

The greatest natural curiosities of Russia are those which indicate the severity of its climate. Such was that singular production of nature and art combined, the palace of ice, built by the empress Anne, on the banks of the Neva in 1740; which, when illuminated, had a surprising effect. The mountains, which float in the Frozen Ocean, may be ranked among the most wonderful works of nature. Some of them are many miles in length and breadth, and of an astonishing height; being formed by the aggregation of vast fields of ice forcing themselves one under another, and thus raising the immense mass higher out of the water, where it receives an additional increase from the successive falls of snow. Some of these floating mountains are 400 or 500 yards in height presenting a thousand fantastic shapes, and reflecting a thousand colors from the rays of the sun or the aurora borealis.

Among the natural curiosities of Russia may also be numbered the mineralization of roots of trees, and other vegetables on the mountains which abound in iron mines.

Moscow, the ancient metropolis of the empire, is situated on two rivers, the Yousa, and the Moskva. Over these rivers are twenty-three bridges; which keep up the communication between the different parts of the town. Here stands the ancient palace of the czars, the birth place, and long the residence of the immortal Peter. It also contains two large monasteries, and thirty-two churches, all of which have a number of steeples near them with gilt or silvered cupolas, and crosses. Among these the belfry, called Ivan Veliki, is the most conspicuous. In this Belfry lies the largest bell in the world, which was cast by order of the empress Anne, and weighs 12,000 poods. Its fall was occasioned by a fire which happened in the year 1737, and it has not since been hung.

In Moscow is also the bird fair in which are sold singing birds, and all sorts of domestic animals. This trade is more considerable than a stranger would conceive. Nightingales, quails, doves, and dogs are frequently sold at incredible prices. The lowest price of a canary bird is five roubles, nearly 1*l.* sterling; but when they are well taught, they are frequently sold as high as from 9*l.* to 18*l.* sterling.

The climate of Moscow, in 55° 12' north latitude, is extremely salubrious. The situation is elevated, and the soil dry. The atmosphere is generally clear and bright, the weather regular and wholesome, and in winter remarkably settled. The streets of Moscow are broad, the squares spacious, and in many parts are extensive gardens; so that it bears a strong resemblance to the oriental cities. The houses mostly consist of only one story, and not being contiguous, but separated by interstices, the air, and the sun diffuse their benign influence with nearly as little impediment as in the open country; and noxious vapours cannot stagnate. This renders the country extremely healthful; and Mr. Tooke remarks the strong and nervous structure of its native inhabitants.

The whole circuit of the imperial city of Moscow is about twenty six miles; its population cannot easily be ascertained as it varies exceedingly at different seasons of the year. "In winter" says Mr. Tooke "when the numerous nobility, with their hosts of retainers, flock to the metropolis, the number of

the inhabitants amounts to upwards of 300,000; whereas in summer, when they are allured back to the country, it does not exceed 200,000." In Moscow, as in many other great capitals, winter is the season of animation. Trade and amusements assume new activity, and the streets are crowded with carriages. In this capital of the Russian empire society indeed has an animated appearance. The theatre is one of the largest in Europe, containing four stories of boxes and two spacious galleries.

Petersburg ranks in extent and population next to Moscow. The place where it stands was at the commencement of the 18th century a dreary extent of barren morass, under a rigid climate, uninviting to luxury, and unlikely to become the residence of one of the most splendid courts of Europe. But Peter the Great, having conquered the province from the Swedes, and being desirous of opening a communication by the Baltic with the rest of Europe, in order to render Russia a commercial and maritime power, resolved to build here a city that might serve as an emporium of trade. To facilitate the progress of this great work, and to add to the importance of his new city, he there fixed his abode; and Petersburg shared, alternately with Moscow, the honors and advantages of the imperial residence. His successors have assiduously followed up his plans, and Petersburg now displays a magnificence worthy of the capital of a great empire.

The year 1703, constitutes the æra of the foundation of Petersburg. The part that was first built was an island between the two principal branches of the Neva. This Peter determined to render, as much as possible, like Amsterdam by intersecting it with twelve canals, two of which were to be navigable for ships of burden. He also obliged his nobility to build houses on the sides of these canals, and to let them to merchants for their accommodation. The work was carried forward with such vigour, that the emperor saw, in his own lifetime, 109 houses of stone, and 354 of timber, erected on this island. Since Catherine II. assumed the reins of government, the completion of Petersburg has been pursued with unremitting ardor, and imperial munificence, displayed for that

purpose, has been seconded by that of noble and opulent individuals. Its trade has also constantly increased. About A. D. 1736, the annual arrival of shipping amounted to scarcely 100. In 1746, they were above double that number. Ten years afterwards they had increased to 300, and in the next ten years to 400; about the year 1776, above 700; and at present considerably above 860 vessels, annually, enter the port. The value of the commodities imported is estimated at more than 12,000,000 of roubles, but that of the produce exported amounts to a much greater sum.*

When a stranger enters Petersburg his eyes are struck with a scene of novel magnificence. The vast spaces of its streets and areas, give it a superiority over every European capital. In every ancient city the disparity of the buildings, and the incongruity of its different parts, point out the gradual progress of its prosperity and taste. In Petersburg all is modern; the whole is the result of one grand design. The traveller's attention is first attracted by the prodigious length and breadth of the streets, and the magnitude and magnificence of the houses. They mostly consist of four stories; the roof has a very gentle slope, and is composed of sheets of cast iron or copper, painted red or green. The immense number of chariots, drawn by four horses; the coachmen with their venerable beards; and the servants in large laced cocked hats, and gorgeous liveries, with military boots; heighten the general effect, and altogether compose a scene of singular magnificence.

The celebrated colossal statue of Peter the Great, raised by the munificence of Catherine II. and the genius of Stephen Falconet, to the memory of the founder of the Russian greatness, exceeds every thing of the kind, which even Roman magnificence could display. The granite rock which serves as a pedestal, after having the superfluous parts broken off by explosion, was 38 feet in length, 21 in breadth, and the same in height; and its weight by calculation 3,200,000 pounds. This ponderous stone was found in a marshy forest about nine miles from Petersburg, and was conveyed to the place of its desti-

* Tooke's Hist. Russia, vol. 1, p. 456.

nation, partly by land, and partly by water, over hills and bogs ; and upon the river Neva, by windlasses and nautical machines, constructed under the inspection of that able engineer, Count Carhuri, who has given an account of this stupendous performance in a folio volume published in 1777. The stone is in many parts extremely beautiful, and takes a high polish. The colossal figure in bronze, of the monarch, is eleven feet high ; the dress is in the old Russian style, with half boots, whiskers, and cropped hair ; the head is encircled with a crown of laurel, and the right arm extended. The whole attitude is noble and full of expression. The horse, which is seventeen feet high, is executed in high perfection ; animated with great fire and exertion ; galloping up the rock, and treading with his hind leg on a serpent ; the whole being emblematical of the difficulties which Peter had to encounter in civilizing his empire. To this monument of Catharine's magnificence, and of Falconet's art, the world does not afford any parallel.

The winter palace, finished in 1762, is a prodigious structure in the form of a long quadrangle. It stands on the right bank of the Neva. Each of its fronts towards the river and towards the town, are 450 feet in length, the other two sides 350 feet, and the height 70 feet.

The marble palace has been noted by every traveller, and by every one who has undertaken to write a description of Petersburg. This structure, unrivalled in its kind, is a unique in magnificence. Its form is an oblong quadrangle of a vast extent, with two wings, and it rises in three lofty stories. The window frames are of gilt brass, and the panes of looking glass. The interior sets all description at defiance. All that a poetical imagination has feigned in the Tales of the Genii, seems here to be realized. The Tauridian Palace ; the superb residence of Prince Potemkin ; the bank ; and various other public and private edifices, might be mentioned ; but a description would require volumes, and a bare enumeration would be tedious. All these prodigious piles of stone, these temples, palaces, streets, and canals, the work of one century, proclaim the omnipotence of human abilities. Petersburg, indeed, is a colossal monument of human energy unparalleled

in the history of the world. It is about twenty miles in compass ; but many parts are not yet built on ; although from the rapidity with which the houses increase, the whole plan promises a speedy completion, as well in extent as in elegance. The population of Petersburg was by the census of 1784, found to amount to 192,000, of which number 27,890 were foreigners.

Various and laudable institutions, established by the different sovereigns of Russia for the public benefit, particularly the hospitals for suffering humanity, and the schools for the diffusion of knowledge ; the academy of arts and sciences, the gymnàsium, the military and marine schools, the foundling hospitals, and a variety of others, merit a particular description. It must here suffice to say, that the greatest number of these beneficial institutions owe their origin or their improvement to Catharine II. whose name will be immortal in history, and memorable in the minds of philanthropists and philosophers. The number of scholars, constantly educated at the expence of government, in the different academies and schools of Petersburg, were 6,800 of both sexes ; and the costs of their education amounted to 754,335 roubles per annum.

The environs of Petersburg, like the city itself, owe every thing to art and nothing to nature. The circumjacent country is an unpicturesque level, entirely forest and morass, except where human industry has converted it into beautiful scenes, being extremely different from the charming situation of Moscow, where nature seconds, and even precedes the efforts of art, in forming the most delightful landscapes. In the vicinity of Petersburg every object displays a triumph over natural obstacles, at an astonishing expence of human labor. Of this, the high roads leading from the capital to the imperial country—palaces, especially that of Peterhoff, are striking examples.

The police of Petersburg is exact and well regulated ; and in few great cities do the inhabitants enjoy so perfect a state of security. Robberies and murders seldom occur ; but almost every kind of tricking and sharpening is common. Society is here, on the whole, animated and gay. Luxury abounds

among the great, but the public amusements of the higher classes are less numerous than the opulence of the inhabitants, and their propensity to pleasure, might lead one to suppose. Genteel company in Petersburg contracts itself, chiefly within family circles, to which, without letters of recommendation, strangers find it difficult to gain access. But with letters of recommendation, or in the way of transacting important business, they experience an unbounded hospitality in the opulent houses of Petersburg.

In most of the minor cities and towns, the houses are generally of wood, and the rest of the buildings proportionably mean. In regard to magnificence and luxury, elegance and taste, Petersburg and Moscow, may be considered as the whole empire.

The modern Russians are an assemblage of various tribes, anciently inhabiting the vast extent of their empire. The Slavi, however, are universally allowed to have been the founders of the Russian empire; but their origin sinks into the same obscurity as that of the Nomadic hordes, who previously roamed about in those extensive regions.

In the fifth century, a horde of Slavi or Slavonians, from the shores of the Danube, came and settled on the shores of the Dnieper, the Volkoff, and the Neva. Thus arose two Slavonian states, one in the region watered by the Dnieper, and another in the northern part of Russia. Of the former, during some centuries, Kioff was the capital, as Novogorod was of the latter; but, of their circumstances and transactions, history is for a long time totally silent. This Slavonian state seems to have long been a republic; but about the 9th century a revolution happened, which converted it into a principality. The bordering nations frequently made incursions on their territories, and the Novogorodians, although powerful, were not at all times able to repel their aggressions. On one of these occasions they called to their assistance the Varagians, or pirates of the Baltic. These allies having assisted the Novogorodians in repulsing the enemy, instead of returning home with their stipulated reward, began to make dispositions for remaining in the country. This produced a war, in which

Novogorod was unsuccessful, and in the year 864, was obliged to receive Rurick, the chief of these adventurers, for its sovereign.

Rurick thus became the founder of an empire which continued some centuries in a flourishing, and even an increasing state. After this period, the people began to be known by the denomination of Russians ; a name, which these Varagians had probably borne before they came hither over the Baltic, and now communicated to the whole empire.

For several centuries the history of Russia displays only a chaos of intestine confusion. The empire was now split into a number of principalities. These repeated partitions weakened the empire, and converted it into a theatre of perpetual contention. A circumstantial detail of the unceasing hostilities which the Russian princes carried on against one another, their expulsions, reinstatements, conspiracies, and assassinations ; and the specification of the thousands who fell in those continual wars, would only weary, without instructing the mind. It may, therefore, suffice to say, that the most horrible scenes of civil contention recorded in the history of any other country ; all the political calamities that the imagination can conceive, existed in Russia, as dreadful realities.

During those ceaseless revolutions, resulting from such a disorderly state of things, the grand principality of Kioff particularly suffered, and rapidly fell into a state of decline ; while the princes of Vladimir grew so powerful, as to assume the paramount authority and title. Novogorod also flourished in power amidst these commotions. That city, formerly a Slavonian republic, had always shewn a strong attachment to liberty. Rurick and the succeeding princes had always endeavoured to keep the republican spirit within bounds ; but while the power of the sovereigns of Kioff was declining, the love of independence resuscitated afresh among the Novogorodians. They barely acknowledged a nominal obedience to their princes, whom they imprisoned, deposed, expelled and changed at pleasure. Within the space of 100 years, Novogorod had no fewer than thirty-four different princes. One of

these they accused of keeping a large pack of hounds, with a great number of hawks and falcons ; and of appropriating to himself the rivers in which they used to fish. They presented to him a remonstrance which concluded with these words, " We can no longer endure thy tyranny ; get away from us in God's name, we will presently find us another prince." The prince immediately sent deputies to the citizens, and promised to submit to their pleasure ; but they would not take his word, and threatened to expel him by force if he did not voluntarily resign : Another of the princes they imprisoned, because, as they said, he only pursued his pleasures of hawking and hunting, and gave himself no concern about the government, and the administration of justice. These facts are sufficient to shew, that the Novogorodian princes possessed very little power ; and that the state was in reality a republic, rather than a principality. Not only their particular princes, but also the grand princes, were obliged to content themselves with a nominal sovereignty over that haughty city, which, besides being the emporium of the Russian commerce, and the staple town of the Hanseatic merchants, was able, not only to raise a formidable army within its own territories, but also sufficiently opulent to procure, and to pay numerous bodies of auxiliaries. Thus, in the midst of general confusion, the proud city of Novogorod, supported by commerce, and flowing in wealth, displayed all the haughtiness which prosperity so often inspires.

The Russian empire, split into numerous divisions, had been lacerated by intestine wars, during the space of two centuries, when a still more dreadful calamity was about to complete the long catalogue of its misfortunes. The Mongols, a nation of the same pedigree as the Huns, inhabiting an extensive region of Asia, in the vicinity of China, had, about the year 1224, emigrated from their native seats, under the conduct of the famous Zinghis or Genghis Khan, the most successful conqueror of his time. This barbarian chief subdued the various Tartar hordes which inhabited the extensive countries, lying between Mongolia and the Caspian sea ; and overran Bucharja, Persia, and the greatest part of China. His nume-

rous armies, consisting not only of Mongols, but also of the agglomerated swarms of the Tartar nations whom he had subdued, acting on the principle of insatiable rapacity and unrelenting cruelty, spread terror and dismay on all sides, and marked their footsteps with barbarities and devastation. His son, advancing along the shores of the Caspian sea, gradually approached towards Europe, subdued the Circassians and Polovitzes, and proceeded as far as the Dnieper. The Russian princes might plainly foresee that they would be the next objects of attack; and, when it was somewhat too late, resolved to support the Polovitzes in the defence of their country, which lay as a rampart between Russia, and the invading Tartars. A bloody engagement took place near the river Kalka, in which the combined forces of the Russians and the Polovitzes, were totally defeated by the invaders, with a terrible slaughter. The Tartars, however, for some reasons not specified in history, instead of pursuing their conquests, left the Russians thirteen years without further molestation. They had therefore sufficient time for constructing fortifications, and concerting plans of defence against any new attack. But the Russian princes, instead of employing this favourable interval in forming a confederacy to prevent their future incursions, recommenced those domestic quarrels, which had so greatly enfeebled the state. These incessant wars, continually depopulating the country, and diminishing the number of fighting men, invited the attacks of the Tartars, and smoothed their way to the conquest of the empire.

Baaty, grandson or nephew of Zinghis Khan, was the first of the Tartar princes who penetrated into the interior of Russia. He had first attacked and subdued the Bulgarians, who had in vain implored the assistance of the Russian princes. He then advanced into Russia, where Riazan was the first principality that felt the desolating fury of the Tartars. These people, indeed, were terrible enemies; wherever they came the whole country was laid waste; the towns and villages plundered and burnt; all the men able to bear arms were put to the sword, and the women and children carried into captivity. Submission met with no greater lenity, than resistance; their

mode of making war, being on the sole principle of universal destruction. The fall of Riazan was immediately followed by that of Perciaslavi, Susdal, Rostock, and several other places. The Tartars now entered the grand principality of Vladimir, which they desolated with fire and sword. The capital was taken and burnt, and the grand princess, and her children, with other ladies of distinction, having taken refuge in a church, perished in the flames which consumed the building. The massacre of the inhabitants was general and indiscriminate. No age, sex or rank was spared. The grand prince, who by an unaccountable negligence had delayed to take the necessary measures for resistance, was employed at a distance in collecting an army, when he heard of the horrible fate of his capital and family. Impelled by despair, he engaged the Tartars with a small number of chosen warriors; but his courage was exerted too late, and he fell bravely fighting at the head of his troops. The Tartars pushed forward to within sixty miles of Novogorod, when, for reasons totally unknown, they suddenly turned about, and retreated; and thus, that rich and commercial city escaped the scourge of Tartar devastation.

About two years after this terrible incursion, the Tartars again returned; and southern and western Russia became the ensanguined theatre of horrors, similar to those which the eastern parts had so lately experienced. In many districts of the country, the inhabitants, abandoning the towns, villages, and even the fortified places, fled before this desolating enemy. Kioff was taken, after a desperate resistance; and the bloody scenes of Vladimir were renewed in that city. Baaty, the Tartar chief, then turned his arms against Poland; and having overrun that country forced his way into Silesia, and returned through Moravia and Hungary. After this expedition, the Tartars discontinued their incursions, and contented themselves with imposing on the Russian princes considerable tributes. These princes were also obliged to appear in the main camp of the Tartars to receive their investiture from the khan, and do homage to him as their paramount lord. This camp was known by the name of the Golden Horde, having received that appellation from the magnificent tent of the

khan. Russia, thus reduced to the most degrading state of humiliation, was obliged to acknowledge the Tartarian sovereignty, and to acquiesce in whatever tribute it should please the khan, their paramount lord, to impose on her princes. At first, a contribution was furnished by each prince, who levied it on his subjects; but, afterwards, the khans required a tribute in proportion to the population of each principality; and appointed Tartar collectors, who imposed on every Russian, without distinction, a tax according to the standard of his circumstances. Only the clergy and all persons engaged in the functions of religion were exempted. The singular reverence in which the sacerdotal order was held among the Pagan Tartars, appears to have caused them to respect it, even among enemies and Christians.

The exhausted and enfeebled state of the Russian empire, resulting from the incursions and ravages of the Tartars, naturally excited the neighbouring nations to take advantage of its distress. Among others, the Danes, the Swedes, and the Livonian knights, had their eye upon Novogorod, and made preparations for its reduction. But Alexander their prince, son of the grand prince Yaroslaf, to whom his father at his departure for Vladimir had resigned the government of the Novogorodian state, gained a complete victory over the Danes on the banks of the Neva. This procured him the surname of Newski, so famous in the religion and history of Russia. In 1252, Alexander ascended the throne as grand prince; and soon afterwards undertook another expedition against the Swedes, which proving successful, he ravaged the countries captured from the enemy, conformably to the practice of that barbarous age; and returned with a multitude of prisoners, and great quantities of spoil.

Novogorod had happily escaped the ravages of the Tartars; but, in common with the rest of the empire, was subject to tribute. This ignominious circumstance was singularly galling to its high spirited citizens, who peremptorily refused to pay the taxes to the Tartarian collectors. The general displeasure of the Russians began soon after to manifest itself in acts of violence, and in several of the cities the Tartar collectors were

massacred. The khan, on receiving intelligence of these proceedings, was extremely exasperated, and commanded not only the grand prince, but all the other Russian princes to appear at the camp, each at the head of his troops. His design being evidently to deprive Russia of her armed defenders, in order to reduce her to a still more rigorous subjection ; Alexander, desirous of averting the disasters which threatened his country, conceived the adventurous resolution of repairing alone to the horde, in order to make use of his influence with the Tartar chief, to appease his wrath by a prudent submission. He remained a whole year at the horde, before he could succeed in diverting the khan from his purpose ; but having, at last, accomplished the difficult task, he procured his dismissal, and died suddenly on his return home, A. D. 1262, under circumstances which excited a suspicion that poison had been administered to him previous to his departure from the camp. Thus died the celebrated Alexander Newski, a consummate politician, and an intrepid warrior. He was certainly a hero, and is regarded by the Russian church as a saint. His name is held in so great veneration throughout the whole empire, that Peter the Great in order to give his new city of Petersburg greater importance in the eyes of a people, remarkably fond of saints and miracles, built a monastery to the honor of St. Alexander Newski ; and caused the relics of the grand prince to be brought, attended by several hundreds of priests, with numberless ceremonies from Vladimir to Petersburg. The emperor, with the whole court, went to meet the procession, and saw the coffin deposited in the monastery. This consecrated edifice has received various embellishments from the succeeding sovereigns of Russia : Elizabeth, in particular, caused a shrine of beaten silver to be made for the saint. Peter I. likewise instituted an order of knighthood in honor of St. Alexander Newski, which is worn even by kings.

From this short digression, (commemorative of a personage whose name stands so high in the political, religious, and military history of Russia) we return to take a rapid glance at the state of things in that empire, after his death. Nothing but a chaos of calamities and crimes presents itself to our view. The

princes of Russia, even in a state of degrading subjection, could not desist from those mutual animosities and jealousies which had first reduced them to that condition. Their whole system of policy was to gain by presents and bribes the favor of the Tartar khans, and of the great men of the horde.

The multiplied divisions of this empire, and the contentions of its princes, which rendered them unable to resist the Tartars, had caused its downfall. Similar circumstances taking place among its enemies, contributed to its restoration. The Tartars, separating into several hordes, and becoming the prey of intestine commotions, held with a feeble hand the sovereignty over Russia; whose princes acknowledged only a loose kind of obedience; sometimes to one khan, and sometimes to another, according to temporary circumstances. Sometimes, even the contending Tartar chiefs solicited the protection of the Russian princes. Thus, the Russian power gradually rose, while that of the Tartars declined. The tributes were now less punctually paid; and, although the Tartars sometimes made inroads to enforce their payment or procure an indemnification, they were no longer the same formidable enemy as before, and the Russians frequently defeated their predatory bands.

The khan of the Donskoi Tartars resolving, at last to maintain by arms his sovereignty over Russia; the grand prince, Dmitri, prevailed on the rest of the princes to form a confederacy in defence of their country. Having collected an army of 200,000 men, he marched from Moscow, and advancing to the Don, gained, though not without great loss, a complete victory over the khan, whose army was greatly superior in numbers. This battle of the Don taught the Russians that the Tartars were not invincible, and that nothing but union was wanting to shake off the yoke with which they had so long been oppressed. This, however, was not effected at once. The Tartars made several incursions, in one of which they took and destroyed Moscow; and the grand prince was obliged to submit to pay tribute, and to obtain his confirmation from the khan. Russia, about this time, was threatened with a new, and perhaps still heavier bondage from the appearance of Tamer-

lane, who, having conquered Persia and the Tartars of the Don, and the Volga, about the year 1396, penetrated as far as Moscow ; but, fortunately for Russia, India had superior charms in the eyes of this conqueror ; a circumstance which saved her empire from further ravages, and perhaps from total subjugation.

The reign of Ivan Vassillievitch I. who ascended the throne of the grand principality of Moscow in 1460, at the age of twenty three, gave an entirely new aspect to Russia. Ambitious and enterprising in himself, and instigated by his consort, a Grecian princess, he formed the great plan of shaking off the ignominious yoke of the Tartars, and of consolidating the empire by completely establishing the authority and domination of the grand prince. In three campaigns, he reduced the Tartars of Kazan, and obliged their khan to acknowledge himself a vassal of Russia. Ivan, by degrees, united under his dominion the collective strength of the whole Russian empire.

He was succeeded by his son, Vassilly ; who was succeeded in 1553, by his son, Ivan Vassillievitch II. an infant, whose cruelties in his riper years acquired him the surname of Terrible. The reins of government, during his minority, were held by his mother, who addicted herself to pleasurable pursuits ; and, on her death, the chiefs of the nobility assumed the sovereign power. Numerous parties arose ; and the empire, which had been so lately consolidated, was near being again broken into fragments, and falling into its former anarchy. The Tartars took and burned Moscow. But Ivan, having attained his seventeenth year, took upon himself the government, and immediately adopted the most vigorous measures. His two grand political objects were to suppress all the factions, and to incapacitate the Tartars from again infesting the empire. He successfully accomplished both. The city of Zazan was taken ; the khan was compelled to be baptized ; the Mahomedan mosques were converted into Christian churches, and the Zazan Tartarian empire was annexed to Russia. This conquest was followed by that of the Tartar kingdom of Astrachan ; and in Ivan's successful reign, a new world, an empire

of an immense extent, expanded itself to the possession of the Russian czars, in the discovery and conquest of Siberia. On this subject more will be said in its proper place. Confining our views at present to Europe, we observe, that Ivan not only extended the limits of his empire by arms and by accident, but also resolved to reform and civilize his people, and to render them more polished, skilful, and industrious. He began his reforms by enacting a code of laws; but he soon perceived that the temper of his subjects was not to be altered by legislative systems, but by harsh treatment and painful corrections. Even the great men, for the most part, passed their lives in a state of mental inactivity, and in a total ignorance of whatever can improve and elevate the human intellect. The czar was resolved to force upon them those benefits, which they were unwilling to receive. The restless city of Novogorod felt the most horrible effects of his severity. The archbishop, being suspected of having in concert with a great number of the citizens, framed a plot for delivering up the town to the king of Poland; the czar immediately marched to Novogorod, and there held a bloody tribunal. No fewer than 25,000 persons, implicated in the conspiracy, were condemned and executed with the most shocking circumstances of cruelty.* Ivan was not only cruel in his politics, but his temper was naturally irascible. One of the violent ebullitions of his anger eventually proved a source of misfortunes to his family and empire. On some sudden provocation, of which history does not mention the cause, he killed his eldest son with a stroke on the head. Ivan soon foresaw the disastrous consequences of this rash act, for although he had two other sons, the eldest of them was infirm both in body and mind, and the younger was in his infancy. He, therefore, reproached himself all his subsequent life with this calamitous event, which produced a series of convulsions in the empire, that terminated in the accession of a new family to the Russian throne.

Ivan Vassillievitch died A. D. 1584, in the thirty ninth year of his reign. Knowing the incapacity of his eldest son, Feodor,

* Tooke's Hist. Russia, vol. 1, p. 297.

he instituted a regency ; and appointed persons to superintend the education of his younger son, Demitri. The court soon began to split into factions, and the imbecility of Feodor gave rise to a repetition of the same evils as his father's minority had before occasioned. In this state of affairs, Boris Gudennoff, whose sister was married to Feodor, found means to murder the young Demitri. The death of Feodor happening soon after, Boris was raised to the Russian throne, and crowned at Moscow, A. D. 1598. Thus ended the sovereign race of Rurick, the founder of the Russian monarchy, whose descendants had ever since 864, possessed its throne.

Though Boris attained the sovereignty by unjustifiable means, his subsequent conduct shewed him worthy of the empire. In every respect he was provident for the prosperity and welfare of the people. The extension of commerce, the improvement of manufactures, the introduction of learning, science and arts, were the grand objects of his attention. He imitated Ivan Vassillievitch in his encouragement of foreigners : and in the time of a grievous famine, which raged three years in Russia, from 1601 to 1604, he shewed himself the true father of his people, by opening his abundant coffers, and distributing vast sums among the distressed inhabitants of Moscow. He also compelled the nobility and clergy to open their plentiful granaries, and to sell him their corn at half its value, which he then distributed gratis to the poor. His great abilities, and the benefits which he conferred on the empire, render it a subject of regret that he had not a just title to the sovereignty. Notwithstanding his benevolence to the people, he has been taxed with cruelty. Many of the great men, who had been his equals, were hostile to his measures, and could not brook his superiority. Thus was generated a factious spirit among the nobility, which he endeavored to repress by imprisonments, exiles and bloody executions.

All the precautions, however, that Boris could take for maintaining his power proved ineffectual ; and his throne was overturned by an attack which no human sagacity could have foreseen or prevented. A young monk, who had been repeatedly informed in his convent that his person bore a striking

resemblance to that of the prince Dmitri, who had been murdered by Boris, conceived the adventurous project of mounting the throne of the czars by means of this circumstance. He assumed the name and person of Dmitri; affirmed that he had been saved from assassination in a wonderful manner; and framed a complete narrative of his singular escape and subsequent adventures. Retiring into Poland, he opened the drama by communicating it to some of the nobles as a secret, that he was Dmitri, the son of Ivan Vassillievitch, and consequently legal heir to the throne of Russia. To the graces of a fine person, he added the charms of an irresistible eloquence, which gained him a number of friends, and admirers. Among these, was the vaivode of Sandomir, who promised him his daughter Mariana in marriage. Even the king of Poland himself, espoused his cause, and gave him every encouragement to proceed. Dmitri, to ensure the support of the Poles, learned their language; shewed a great attachment to their religion; and obtained the patronage of the pope by promising to unite the Russian with the Roman church. The Cossacks of the Don, disgusted with Boris, declared, without hesitation, for the pretender; and the wonderful news, that Prince Dmitri was yet alive, soon spread throughout Russia. Boris, resolving to put a stop to this enterprise at its commencement, prohibited all intercourse with Poland, and sent out assassins in quest of the pretended Dmitri. The patriarch, at the same time, excommunicated all who should give credit to his pretensions. The young prince's mother, who was confined in a monastery, was obliged to publish a declaration that her son, Dmitri, died of a fever. The pretended Dmitri, on the other hand, caused a declaration to be dispersed in Russia, in which he affirmed, that he was the real Dmitri, son of Ivan, and consequently claimed the throne as his indefeasible right. The courtiers, who were envious on account of the elevation of Boris, were delighted to see this attack on his power; while those, who knew that Boris had caused Dmitri to be murdered, regarded this event as a judgment from heaven. But a great part of the nation believed this to be the true prince, and since he had been preserved by miracle, considered it as a duty to

concur with the hand of Providence in placing him on the throne.

While the public mind was thus agitated, the pretended Dmitri appearing on the frontiers with an army of Poles and Cossacks, defeated the forces of the czar, which were greatly superior in number. The impostor possessed uncommon intrepidity, and displayed a great appearance of piety. Previous to an engagement, he used to pray aloud with great pathos and eloquence, recommending to heaven his righteous cause. This victory over the superior army of the czar, augmented the number of those who believed that he was favored by providence. At this time a natural event also happened, which proved extremely prejudicial to the interests of Boris. Strong corruscations of the aurora borealis waving in the air, and a comet also appearing in the heavens, the Russians, extremely superstitious, and totally ignorant of natural causes, regarded those phenomena as manifest demonstrations of the divine wrath menacing their country; the awful effects of which could be averted only by supporting the cause of Dmitri, whom Providence had so miraculously preserved and brought to light. The defection now became general; and Boris, concluding it impossible to make an effectual resistance, terminated his life by poison. The impostor, shortly after, made a magnificent entry into Moscow, attended by a great number of his Polish troops.

Dmitri, having now succeeded in his grand project of placing himself on the throne of Russia, appears to have been so much elated with his singular good fortune as to flatter himself, that he should have no further difficulties to encounter. But his imprudence furnished his enemies with the means of accomplishing his overthrow. His predilection for the Poles; his connivance at the excesses of which they were guilty; his partiality for the Catholic religion; his indifference towards the Greek church, and his want of reverence for the clergy; his marriage with a Polish lady; his inclination for the manners and customs of Poland, and his inordinate voluptuousness, gave an extreme disgust to the Russians. The tide of popular favor was now turned against him, and his enemies

artfully excited doubts of his legitimacy. He had indeed sent for the mother of the murdered Dmitri from the convent in which she was confined—went to meet her with a splendid retinue—and behaved to her in every respect as a son. She also, without hesitation, acknowledged him as such, and acted perfectly well the part of a mother. It did not, however, require any great degree of penetration, to perceive that her acknowledgment was no proof of his legitimacy. She had no alternative between the part that she acted, and immediate death. Setting even that danger aside, as she could not recall to life her murdered child, it must have given her pleasure to see the downfall of his murderer. The liberty and splendour of a court, with the respect paid to her as mother of the reigning czar, could not fail of being preferable to the gloom of a convent. It is therefore no wonder that her testimony was readily obtained, and yet not generally credited. His predilection for foreign manners was represented as a proof, that he could not be sprung from the blood of the Russian czars. The most ridiculous stories were invented to exasperate the nation against him; and, among others, a report was industriously spread, that he intended, by means of his Polish troops, to massacre the inhabitants of Moscow. The hatred of the people was now wrought up to fury. Schulskoy, a nobleman of Moscow, taking advantage of the general ferment, put himself at the head of the enraged populace. The clergy also encouraged the revolt, vehemently declaiming against the czar, as a heretic. Schulskoy immediately led a numerous multitude to storm the palace. A dreadful slaughter of the Poles ensued, not only at the palace, but in all parts of Moscow; and such as escaped with their lives were made prisoners. Dmitri escaped out of the tumult, but was killed in his flight.

From this epoch Russia may date the commencement of one of the most calamitous periods of her existence. This was of shorter duration, but not less disastrous than that of her subjection to the Tartars. During several years the most flagrant enormities proceeded in full career. Schulskoy having, with the cross in one hand, and a sword in the other, made his way to the palace, was hailed by the clergy and popu-

lace, as the defender of the faith, and protector of the throne, against a heretic and impostor. This throne, however, was the object at which he aimed, and which, by his dextrous management, he found means to ascend. But the numerous competitors for the crown, discontented at his elevation, immediately caused a report to be spread that Dmitri, who was supposed to have been slain in the late insurrection, was still alive. They also asserted that, in spite of all that had been alledged, he was the true Dmitri. The czaritza was now examined, and confessed that the late czar was not her son Dmitri; but that she had been obliged to acknowledge him for such, as the only means of saving her life. Indeed she was still in the same predicament when she made this confession, and therefore its validity was equally exceptionable. The Poles, however, enraged at the fate of their countrymen at Moscow, produced a new pretender, who is said to have been a school-master in Poland; and they asserted that he was the true Dmitri. Mariana, consort of the late czar, impelled by her desire of avenging the death of her husband, and by an ambitious hope of remounting the throne, embraced this second Dmitri as her spouse, who had happily escaped during the insurrection at Moscow. This new impostor, as well as the former, soon gained a multitude of adherents, but was killed in an engagement with the Tartars. Fresh impostors, however, continually appeared, and there seemed to be no end of their succession. The czar, Schulskoy, soon discovered all the difficulties of his situation, and found the throne, from which he had hurled his predecessor, to be a seat of uneasiness. After being for a long time harrassed by incessant and increasing troubles, he was at length obliged to resign the crown, and adopt the cowl. He was afterwards delivered up to the Poles, and died in a dungeon.

These intestine commotions laid Russia open to the intrigues and attacks of foreigners. In 1609, the king of Poland marched an army into the country, and was joined by the Polish troops who had followed the two Dmitris. The Russians, harrassed with unceasing commotions, were at length brought by force and intrigue to submit to the ascendancy of

the Poles ; and came to the resolution of placing Vladislaf, son of the king of Poland, on the throne of the czars. Accordingly, in the year 1610, they did homage to him at Moscow, by proxy, in his absence, and surrendered the city to the Polish troops. But his conformity to the Greek religion, being made one of the conditions of his elevation, gave rise to some difficulties in the conclusion of the treaty. As it was the ultimate view of the Polish monarch to unite Russia and Poland under one sceptre, he delayed, from time to time, to send the prince to Moscow. In the mean while the Polish troops who were in Russia, especially those stationed in the capital, were guilty of the most flagrant enormities. The inhabitants, at last, took arms against those licentious oppressors, and open hostilities commenced. The Poles set fire to the cities ; massacred about 100,000 of the inhabitants ; and having made a general pillage, retreated into the citadel with a vast quantity of treasure. Russia again experienced all the horrors of intestine war. After a tedious and bloody contest the Poles were driven out of Moscow, and obliged to evacuate the whole empire.

During the long series of convulsions, which, since the death of the impostor Dmitri, had agitated Russia, the Swedes had conquered the provinces adjoining to their territories, and captured Novogorod. The inhabitants of that city had sent a deputation to Sweden, requesting to have one of the sons of Charles IX. for their sovereign ; but Charles dying before any thing was concluded, Gustavus Adolphus, his successor, thought it preferable to unite Russia to Sweden. But the Swedes in Novogorod, by their misconduct, soon incurred the aversion of the Russians, as the Poles had done in Moscow. In this distracted state of the empire, it is no wonder that it was the general wish to have a sovereign, by whom tranquillity might be restored. The choice unanimously fell on Mikhaila Feodorovitch, a youth of sixteen, a native Russian of the family of Romanof, whose father, the Metropolitan of Rostock, was held in general estimation. In this election the clergy were particularly active, being desirous that a Russian, educated in the Greek communion, should be raised to the throne,

as the only effectual means of preventing the introduction of Protestant or Catholic heresy into the church of Russia, by a Swedish or Polish prince.

The election of Mikhaila, which took place A. D. 1613, frustrated the expectations which the kings of Poland and Sweden had formed, in respect to the Russian throne; but it was no easy task to expel those formidable enemies who held several parts of the empire, that were contiguous to their own territories. The empire was too much exhausted to contend, at once, with two such powerful enemies as the Swedes and the Poles. A treaty of peace was therefore concluded with Sweden, and a truce was also effected with Poland; for fourteen years and a half Russia purchased both peace and truce, by sacrifices; but in the present circumstances of the empire, these, however humiliating, were necessary.

During this interval of tranquillity, the czar endeavored to form connections with the other European states, to most of which he sent ambassadors. Russia, which had till then been regarded as an Asiatic, rather than a European power, now became daily more known to the rest of Europe. Mikhaila had, during his reign, sufficient employment to remove the internal disorders of the empire; to restore vigour to the government—efficiency to the laws—and activity to commerce. These objects he pursued with great assiduity and vigour, although he proceeded with great prudence and moderation. It was reserved to his son Alexis, who succeeded him in 1645, to give greater stability and consequence to the empire.

The minority of Alexis, who ascended the throne at fifteen years of age, was productive of various disorders, through the ambition, injustice, and oppression of Morosof, to whom Mikhaila had committed the education of the czar; and who had gained an entire ascendancy over the mind of his pupil. Disturbances arose at Moscow, Novgorod, and other places, but were not followed by any serious consequences.

The internal troubles of the empire were no sooner composed, than a war broke out with Poland, and soon after also with Sweden. At the conclusion of peace with the former power, Russia regained possession of Smolensk, Severin,

Tchernigof and Kioff, the primitive seat of the czars. The king of Poland also renounced the supremacy over the Cossacks. But the war with Sweden terminated less favourably. After horrible scenes of pillage and massacre, after the sacrifice of thousands of human beings, a peace was concluded on the condition, that things should remain on the former footing.

The throne of Alexis was now endangered by a revolt of his new subjects, the Cossacks. The Russian commander, in that district, had caused one of their officers to be hanged. The nation considered this a grievous infringement of their liberties, and Radain a brother of the deceased, found no difficulty in exciting a general insurrection. This rebellion was not confined to the Cossacks. As the system of warfare adopted by this rebel was general devastation and plunder; multitudes of vagabonds, from different provinces, crowded to his standard, and he saw himself at the head of 200,000 men. But his troops being totally undisciplined, and ignorant of war, were not formidable to a regular military force. Their chief, himself, was so weak as to suffer himself to be persuaded by an idle report, that the czar had pardoned him, and desired to see him at Moscow. Flattered by this delusive idea, he set out with his brother for that capital. At a small distance from the city, he met a gallows in a cart, the dreadful harbinger of his fate. His execution had the desired effect on his followers, who immediately began to disperse. Astrachan, their principal retreat, was assaulted and taken by the czar's troops; and 12,000 of those ruffians were gibbeted on the high roads leading to that city. Thus ended a revolt, which, under a skilful leader, might have been productive of dangerous consequences.

Russia, formerly weakened by divisions, which had reduced her to a state of insignificance in the political scale, being now united, began to appear formidable; and her acquisition of the sovereignty over the Cossacks excited the jealousy of the Ottoman Porte. The Turkish emperor, however, thought it adviseable, first to make an attack on Poland, already weakened by the war with Alexis, and afterwards to humble Russia. The Turks, therefore, in 1671, invaded the Polish do-

minions, and Alexis having concluded with Poland a treaty of alliance against this dangerous neighbour, took an active part in the war. He also sent ambassadors to several Christian princes, whom he exhorted to form a coalition against the implacable enemy of their faith; but their mutual jealousies, animosities, and perpetual quarrels, prevented them from listening to the proposal. The idea of a general combination of Christendom against the Ottoman empire, how brilliant soever in theory, could never be brought into operation, under the system of their practical politics. For some years, successively, the Turks were victorious, till a stop was put to their conquests by that celebrated general John Sobieski, who, by his victories over the enemies of his country, obtained the crown of Poland. Alexis did not live to see the termination of this war; he died in 1676, in the thirty-seventh year of his reign, which was in general prosperous, and ultimately beneficial to his country.

This monarch not only aggrandized, but also improved his empire. These were the two grand objects of his attention and pursuits. The mildness of his government, and his liberal encouragement of merit, allured into his dominions a great number of Italians, Germans, Dutch, and other foreigners.* He had already formed several of the designs which his son, Peter the Great, afterwards carried into execution; particularly that of making his subjects acquainted with naval architecture and maritime commerce.

Alexis having been twice married, left by his first marriage, two sons, Feodor and Ivan, and six daughters, of whom one was the famous Sophia: Peter and Natalia were the offspring of the second. The practice of the czars, contrary to that of the other sovereigns of Europe, had long been to choose their consorts among their own subjects. By this custom the influence of foreigners on the national interest, was in some measure prevented; and what seems to have been, before the time of Peter the Great, a considerable object of Russian po-

* About 3,000 Scotchmen went into Russia during his reign. Tooke's *Hist. Russia*, vol. 2, p. 29.

litics, the empire had as little connection as possible with other countries. But this selection of the czaritza from the daughters of the natives, by giving that undue influence to particular families, often excited the spirit of faction; and if a czar married twice, it was a fertile source of disasters to the empire. Several families became related to the sovereign; one endeavoring to circumvent the other; and the new relatives using every means for subverting the power of the former alliance. This was the case with Alexis. By his first consort, the family of Miloslafskoi acquired great influence, which declined on his second marriage with a Nariskin. The czaritza naturally favored her own relations, and the family of the Nariskius, gained the ascendancy. Feodor and Ivan, children of the former marriage, were only of a feeble constitution of body, and gave no great indications of intellectual abilities; in the latter respect, indeed, the opinion in regard to Feodor proved to be ill founded; but Ivan, in addition to his corporeal infirmities, laboured under great imbecility of mind. In this case, it was natural, that the Nariskins should think of raising the younger son Peter, to the throne. By the accession of Feodor, in consequence of the czar's nomination, this project failed; but the young czar's infirm state of health, encouraged a hope of its future success. Notwithstanding the weakness of his corporeal frame, Feodor, during his short reign of six years, displayed great talents for government, and a sincere wish for the good of his people. The war with the Turks, in which Alexis had left him engaged, was terminated without any disadvantage to Russia, and her sovereignty over the Cossacks was acknowledged by the Porte. In the internal affairs of the empire, Feodor's administration shone with still greater lustre, and was attended with greater advantages to the empire. He rectified many abuses, and made a variety of good regulations. "He lived the joy and delight of his people, and died amidst their sighs and their tears." Nothing but the succession of Peter the Great, could have compensated the loss, which the empire sustained by his death.

Knowing that Ivan's abilities were not adequate to the task

of governing an empire, Feodor had nominated Peter, then only ten years old, for his successor. Peter, even at that early period of life, displayed extraordinary abilities, and Ivan, acknowledging his own incapacity, was willing to relinquish the throne, but to this, Sophia his sister would not consent. Under the pretext of an affection for Ivan, her real aim was to ascend the throne, and her views were favored by the minister Galitzin, a man of great talents and sagacity. Sophia was a princess of exquisite beauty, and the most splendid accomplishments, in the full bloom of youth, of boundless ambition, and of the most daring courage. The exclusion of Ivan, although with his own consent, afforded her a favourable opportunity of forming a powerful party, as the patroness of the claims of her elder brother. In order to promote her designs, her first step was to procure by money and promises, the concurrence of the Strelitzes, a body of soldiers, which, consisting of upwards of 14,000 men, was able to give a powerful support to any party. This military corps, first instituted by Ivan Vassillievitch II. was at Moscow, what the pretorian guards once were at Rome, and what the janissaries now are at Constantinople. These strelitzes being dexterously gained, after having committed, during three days all manners of excesses, and sacrificed to their fury, several of the chief officers of state, who were enemies to Sophia, forced their way to the palace, demanded the heads of the Nariskins, and, by acclamations declared Prince Ivan to be czar. He, however, desired that Peter should be colleague with him in the government, his request was granted, but Sophia was also declared co-sovereign, with the czars, a regulation, which, in consequence of Peter's youth, and Ivan's imbecility, threw the power of government, wholly into her hands. In the year 1687, Sophia added her name to that of the czars and caused her image to be stamped on the coin.

A dangerous insurrection of the Strelitzes, who had so greatly contributed to the elevation of Sophia, now threatened her downfall. Prince Kovanskoi, their commander, having become her adversary, had so much influence over his licentious band, as to arm the whole body of the Strelitzes against the

government. Sophia, the two czars, and the whole court were reduced to the necessity of retiring precipitately from Moscow, and of taking sanctuary in the strong monastery of the Holy Trinity. Here they collected a great body of troops, many of whom were foreigners, and were prepared for a vigorous defence, before the Strelitzes advanced. The result of this affair was, that the Strelitzes being defeated, and disarmed, Kovanskoi, their commander, was beheaded, and the whole corps was decimated for execution. The majority of them were then draughted into other regiments on the frontiers. After this commotion, tranquillity was for a time restored; but a war with the Turks, unsuccessfully conducted by Galitzin, raised a general complaint, against both him and Sophia. Peter, in the mean while, had, under the color of an amusement, attached to his interests a number of zealous adherents. He had formed a regiment, consisting, for the most part, of youths of his own age. They were called the czar's playmates, and many of them were sons of the principal nobility. In this company the czar served first, as a drummer, and was successively promoted through the several ranks. The probability that Peter might one day be sole sovereign of Russia, constantly brought to this small military society, an accession of young men, who became zealously attached to his person. Sophia and her party, at first, paid little attention to this affair, which was only considered as a frivolous amusement. But Peter having now attained his seventeenth year, began all at once to display such a spirit of enterprise, with such energy and perseverance in whatever he undertook, as excited the admiration and hopes of his friends, and greatly alarmed his enemies.

In 1689, Peter and Sophia, came to an open rupture, which could not fail to end in the downfall of one or the other. Peter, with his court and his friends, attended by most of the foreigners among the troops, repaired to the fortified monastery of the Holy Trinity. Sophia, on the other hand, threw herself again into the arms of the Strelitzes, who had been re-established, and whose leader engaged to remove Peter out of the way; but the project miscarried. A great num-

ber of defenders now resorted to Peter, the public voice of the nation being in his favour; and he was placed on the throne without a partner; for although Ivan lived about seven years longer, he was a mere nonentity. Sophia was confined to a monastery; Galitzin, was exiled to Siberia; the commander of the Strelitzes was beheaded; and the rest of the conspirators were punished.

From this period must be dated the commencement of Peter's active reign. Being now sole sovereign, he gave the most unequivocal proofs of his penetration and enterprising genius. He resolved to form a large standing army, and appointed the famous Le Fort, a Genevan, and Gordon, a Scotchman, to raise regiments after the European model. In these, a multitude of foreigners enlisted. In Gordon's, were a great number of Scotchmen, and the greater part of Le Fort's regiments, of 20,000 men, consisted of foreigners, many of them French.

This active and enterprising monarch having also conceived the design of creating a marine, as well as a military force, took a journey to Archangel, in order to inspect the ships in the harbor. During his stay there, he caused a large vessel to be built, and attentively observed the work in every stage of its progress. He employed himself also in making models of ships, put his hand occasionally to labor, and learned the business of a steersman. The extension of the commerce of his empire, and the establishment of a marine, were his two great plans; but the want of ports was, in the present state of the empire, an insurmountable obstacle to their execution. Archangel, the only port of the empire, was in too rigorous a climate, and too far distant from all trading countries, ever to become an emporium of commerce, or a station for fleets. Russia, then shut up in the northeastern interior of Europe, was almost entirely excluded from all maritime intercourse with the rest of the world. The czar, therefore, formed the design of procuring ports on the Euxine and the Baltic, and both these aims were at last accomplished.

Peter resolved to make himself master of Asoph, at the mouth of the Don, as the possession of this place would

open to Russia, a communication with the Euxine. In this war, the czar gave an excellent lesson to his nobility, in declining the chief command of the army, and serving as a simple volunteer. His design in this, was to show that military talents are not innate, but must be acquired. The first campaign was not attended with any considerable success. But the next year, Peter was more successful. He had constructed a fleet of small vessels, which co-operating with the army, enabled him to terminate the campaign by the capture of Asoph. To bestow, a public and honourable reward on his soldiers, as well as to inspire his subjects with a martial spirit, he appointed for his army a triumphal entry into Moscow, in imitation of the triumph of the ancient Romans. His next step was to construct a fleet in the Euxine. As the construction of this fleet could only be effected by foreign workmen, he sent out several young Russians to Venice, Leghorn, and Holland to learn the arts of ship-building; and others to Germany, to study the science of war, in all its different branches.

The czar, while putting his subjects in the way of acquiring knowledge, could not be satisfied to remain in ignorance himself, and therefore resolved on a tour into foreign countries to view their different advantages, and to take the most effectual measures for introducing their arts, sciences, and learning into his empire. Peter now set out on his journey, exhibiting the uncommon phenomenon of a great monarch descending from his throne, and leaving for a time his dominions, to travel in foreign countries to acquire knowledge, and propagate it among his subjects.

He visited Holland, England, Paris, Dresden, and Vienna, where he diligently observed and examined every thing that was curious and interesting; every operation of genius, and every production of art, from which he might gain instruction, or his people derive improvement. The dockyards and shipping particularly attracted his attention, and the world has often heard of his working with the carpenter's axe at Deptford and Saardam. On his return homewards, he had an interview with Augustus, king of Poland, in which they projected a war

against Sweden. This war which soon after broke out, gave to the Russian empire a different form and a more intimate connection with the rest of Europe. At the commencement of hostilities, Charles XII. entered Poland and was constantly victorious. Peter, having concluded an armistice for thirty years with the Turks, began to take an active part in the war; and in 1700, penetrating into Ingria, laid siege to Narva. The Russian army according to some accounts amounted to 80,000 men; but the disciplined troops did not amount to more than about 12,000; and great dissensions subsisted among the commanders, whom Peter's presence could alone keep under any kind of restraint. But on his departure, for the purpose of raising new levies, all union among them was dissolved, and on the 30th of November 1700, the Swedish monarch with only 8,000 men, mostly cavalry, attacked and defeated the Russian army, so vastly superior to his own.

The czar, not dispirited by the late defeat, immediately set about repairing his loss by recruiting his armies and procuring artillery. He caused the superfluous bells of the churches and monasteries to be melted, and cast into cannon; a method which the French have lately adopted, but which the Russians considered as a sacrilegious profanation. Peter easily refuted this notion. As the Russians believed that the Swedes dealt in witch-craft, and gained battles by magic, he declared that this holy metal was the only kind that could be of service against those magicians. To recruit his army, he proclaimed freedom to all vassals who should enlist.

By these means he soon procured a numerous army and a formidable artillery. Charles, in the meanwhile, advancing through Courland and Lithuania, into Poland, dethroned King Augustus; and caused Stanislaus to be placed on the throne. But while he was occupied in this expedition, Peter was continually improving his troops in military discipline. Many engagements took place on the frontiers, in which the Swedes were generally victorious; but the Russians gained experience in the art of war; and, by repeated defeats, at last learned to conquer. Charles, not considering, that instead of an undisciplined multitude, they were now becoming veteran soldiers,

erroneously supposed, that they would be every where as easily beaten as at Narva ; and Peter deriving the most important advantages from the contempt in which he was held by his enemy, at length made himself master of most of the provinces bordering on the Gulph of Finland, and gained possession of the mouth of the Neva. On this occasion, another triumphal entry into Moscow, rewarded the bravery of his troops. Charles, in the mean time, was preparing to enter Russia, and to march directly to the capital. But instead of advancing from Lithuania by the way of Smolensk, he was induced by Mazeppa, Hetman of the Cossacks, to take the circuitous route of the Ukraine ; Mazeppa had promised to join him with the whole collective force of his nation, which would have been a formidable accession of strength to the Swedes. The scheme was totally frustrated ; the Cossacks remaining firm in their allegiance to Russia, rejected the proposal of their prince. Charles also experienced another misfortune, not less distressing. General Lewenhaupt's division, consisting of about 15,000 men, having under convoy a great quantity of ammunition and provisions for the grand army, was totally defeated by the Russians. In this engagement, the Swedes lost about 9,000 men, and all the stores fell into the hands of the enemy. The situation of Charles became now exceedingly critical ; his army rapidly wasted away through the rigor of the season, and the scarcity of provisions. As soon, however, as the inclemency of the weather had subsided, he opened the campaign with the siege of Pultowa, where the Russians had vast magazines. Peter, who having now acquired experience in the science of war, commanded in person, acted in every respect the part of a consummate general, and displayed great prudence as well as intrepidity. He had diligently watched the motions of the enemy ; put the frontiers of his empire, and the road to Moscow in a good state of defence ; and arriving at Pultowa, obtained over Charles one of the most complete victories recorded in military history. In this battle, fought the 8th of July, 1709, the whole Swedish army were killed, or made prisoners, except a very small number that escaped with the king into Turkey. It was one of the most decisive that

72 Europe had witnessed, during some centuries. On its issue depended the fate of Peter, Charles, and Augustus, and the future greatness of Russia. Another triumph, in the highest style of magnificence, honored the ~~stage~~ ^{triumph} of the victors into Moscow; and on no former occasion had Russia so great cause to rejoice.* Peter's new acquisitions on the Baltic were now secured; and although the building of Petersburg had commenced in 1703, it was only at the battle of Pultowa, that the foundation was completely laid. This victory also replaced Augustus on the throne of Poland, and expelled Stanislaus from that elevated station.

But the fortune of war is precarious, and success is often followed by misfortune. The king of Sweden, now a fugitive in Turkey, succeeded in forming a party in the Divan; and the Porte, still discontented at the surrender of Asoph, after some hesitation, resolved on a rupture with the czar. Hostilities accordingly commenced; but in advancing against the Turks, Peter fell into the same errors that had caused the disaster of Charles at Pultowa. Despising the Turks, as Charles had despised the Russians, and allured by the promises of Cantemir, hospodar of Moldavia, as he had been by those of Mazeppa, Peter marched too far into the enemies country. Here he soon experienced the want of provisions, and on the banks of the Pruth, saw himself completely surrounded by the Turkish and Tartar army of 200,000 men. The Russians amounting to little more than 20,000, thus closely besieged, without a possibility of obtaining supplies, had only three objects of choice, either to surrender, or perish with hunger, or else to cut their passage through an army, so vastly superior in strength. Peter, in a state of desperation, sat in his tent, resolving in his mind the disastrous consequences of his situation, and representing to himself all his labors destroyed, and his hopes defeated. At this dangerous crisis Catherine his consort, who was with him in the camp, suggested the propriety of opening a negotiation with considerable presents in order to procure a favorable reception. This

* Votaire, Russia, ch. 19.

expedient succeeded so well, that the czar obtained a peace, in which the conditions were, that he should surrender Asoph, demolish his newly erected fort of Tagaurok, and evacuate Poland. Charles, who arrived in the Turkish camp soon after the treaty was signed, stormed and raved like a madman, but all his endeavors could not excite new rupture.* By an article in this treaty, Peter engaged to grant Charles a safe passage home to his dominions. The war with Sweden still continued. In it the Russians were almost invariably successful, and in 1721, a peace was concluded, which confirmed to Peter all his conquests on the eastern shores of the Baltic, and the Gulf of Finland. On this occasion great rejoicings were made throughout Russia; and Peter received from the Senate, the title of emperor, and autocrat of all the Russias, and the still more glorious appellation of father of his country. Four years previous to this peace, the unfortunate Alexis, only son of the czar, had been condemned to death for a conspiracy against his father, of which, however, no clear proofs ever appeared to the world.

The great progress which Peter made in the civilization of his empire, has immortalized his name to posterity. His various plans of reform, have often been the subject of detailed accounts. In this summary view it suffices to observe, that in the introduction of arts, sciences, and learning; the advancement of navigation and commerce; the improvement of the army, and the whole organization of the empire, he did all that in the existing circumstances could possibly be performed. The complete civilization of a vast empire, is too complicated a work to be effected in one reign or by one man. He succeeded, however, in eradicating a variety of illiberal prejudices, particularly the aversion of the Russians to the persons, the manners, and religion of foreigners. The universal toleration which he established, has produced in Russia a liberality of sentiment, not to be met with in several highly polished countries. Objections have been made against his choice of Petersburg for the imperial residence, but these

* Voltaire, Hist. Charles XII. liv. 5.

were refuted by a view of its advantages. From its vigorous climate, its sterile environs, and the frequent inundations caused by the swelling of the Neva, it is certainly a less agreeable residence than Moscow. But Peter's great design of civilizing his empire and extending its commerce, could be carried into effect only by a closer connection with Europe, which was by this circumstance effected.

Peter, with all his laudable qualities, was not without great defects. He sometimes drank to excess, and was at all times prone to violent paroxysms of anger. His government was extremely despotic, and his disposition was cruel and unfeeling. But his genius was vast, and his views were extensive. The distinguishing features of his character were the dauntless intrepidity and persevering energy with which he prosecuted all his designs, in spite of every obstacle that opposed their execution. To Peter the Great, Russia is indebted for the rank that she holds, in the political, moral, and intellectual scale.

In casting a glance on the progress of society in Russia, during the long period which had elapsed before the reign of Peter the Great, the events of her history plainly indicated the causes of her barbarism. The division of the empire into numerous principalities produced the same disorders, to which the feudal system gave rise in the middle ages, in most parts of Europe. While the other European nations were gradually emerging from the depths of Gothic ignorance, Russia was bending under the yoke of the unenlightened Tartars. It is no wonder, that such a state of depression, with all its concomitant disorders, should extinguish the mental energy of the people. Even after the revival of letters, when the full blaze of knowledge began to burst upon the nations of western Europe, this empire was rent with intestine commotions as dreadful as any on historical record, and its people could have little inclination or leisure for the peaceful pursuits of literature. The manners and customs of the ancient Slavonians with the exception of a few local variations, bore a near resemblance to those of the ancient Germans, so well described by Cæsar and Tacitus. The history, indeed, of one barbarous nation would

with a few slight variations, serve for a history of all others in a similar state. The light introduced among the Russians by the establishment of Christianity, was only a feeble gleam, and the Tartar invasion contributed to obscure its faint lustre. The two Ivans made noble efforts towards the introduction of civilization, and the arts; but the subsequent troubles, occasioned by the Dmitris, nearly annihilated the effects of their exertions. Mikhaila Romanzof, and his son Alexis, father of Peter the Great, made very considerable efforts for the civilization of their subjects; but to Peter himself, it was reserved, to lay a broad and solid basis for a vast superstructure of future improvement. It must, however, be observed, that a commercial spirit has been natural to the Russians, amidst all the political vicissitudes of their empire. The Russians carried on a considerable trade with the Greek empire; and the vicinity of Constantinople gave them an advantage in acquiring the knowledge of arts and sciences, which, had not its influence been counteracted, might in these respects have given them the lead among the nations of Europe. But at the time of the subversion of that empire, such was the barbarism of Russia, not yet emancipated from the Tartar yoke, that, notwithstanding the similarity of religion, few of the learned Greeks, who contributed so greatly to the revival of letters in the west, took refuge in that country. Most of them preferred Italy as an asylum. After the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, the Russians remained, almost entirely unconnected with any civilized people; a circumstance which attached them still more to their ancient customs and prejudices, and rendered them averse to every kind of innovation. The history of this empire, in fine, displays a succession of events, which leaves us no room to wonder, that at the accession of Peter the Great, the Russians were several centuries behind the other Europeans in civilization.

Peter the Great dying in 1725, was succeeded by Catherine his second spouse, the first female, who, since Olga, in the tenth century, had sat on the throne of Russia. A woman of obscure descent, taken captive in war, and, by singular vicissitudes, raised to the exalted station of an unlimited sove-

reign, is one of those phænomena in history, which shew the absolute control of Providence, over the destiny of nations and individuals. Various and contradictory accounts have been given of her origin. The most authentic is, that she was born in Livonia of poor parents, whom she lost when very young; and was brought up in a family, where she served as housemaid and nurse to the children, and as it is said, married a Swedish soldier. The most current particulars of her history are, that after the capture of Marienburg she fell into the hands of the Russians, and became the property of General Scheremetof; that Prince Menzikof, having had a sight of her, appropriated the fair prize to himself, and was in his turn obliged to resign her to Peter. She was then baptized into the Russo-Greek church, and made it so much her business to study the character of the czar, that she became entirely the mistress of his affections. In 1721, he caused her coronation to be celebrated with the most pompous solemnity; and placed with his own hands, the crown upon her head. As Peter died without a will, Catharine was, by the dextrous management of Prince Menzikof, raised to the throne of the czars, and reigned sole empress, and autocratrix of all the Russias. During her reign, which was short, as she died in 1727, the empire enjoyed the blessings of peace. Catharine, although she could neither write nor read, possessed a good natural understanding, sound judgment, and great prudence, as well as an amiable, and merciful disposition; and her numerous good qualities, completely compensated the obscurity of her origin.

Peter II., son of the unfortunate Czarowitz Alexis, was by Catherine's will declared her successor. The daughter of Menzikof was betrothed to the young monarch, and that favorite of fortune, who, from crying pyes about the streets of Moscow, had been advanced to the second station of the empire now enjoyed the prospect of seeing his greatness established beyond the control of events.* But all his flattering

* If Menzikof was not a pye boy, as historians generally assert, it is certain that he was at first one of the lowest menial servants about the czarian court. Tooke's Hist. Russia, vol. 2, p. 187.

hopes were frustrated in a moment. The family of Dolgoruky supplanting him in the favour of his sovereign. Catharine Dolgoruky was raised to the honor of consort to the czar. Prince Menzikof with all his family, not excepting his daughter, who had imagined herself ready to ascend the czarian throne, was banished to Siberia; and his vast estates were all confiscated. Thus was all his grandeur at once annihilated, and his treasures returned to the imperial coffers, whence they had originally flowed. He died in 1729.

Peter II. was beloved by the nation, and discovered a capacity far above the ordinary level. Under his short reign of little more than two years, Russia was happy and prosperous. No war wasted her men, or her money. But amidst the enjoyment of public tranquility, abroad and at home, the empire saw its fairest expectations defeated, by being deprived of this promising prince, who died of the small pox, at Moscow, in the month of January, 1730, universally regretted by the nation.

After much cabal and intrigue, Anne duchess of Courland, daughter of czar Ivan, was elected empress; but under such restrictions, that the sovereign of Russia was reduced to a simple executor of the resolves of the high council, and the empire was converted into an oligarchy. This oligarchical constitution being highly displeasing to those great families who had no relation to the council, Anne soon received a petition from several hundreds of the nobles requesting her to take upon herself the government, on the same terms as the former sovereigns of Russia. Anne gladly acquiesced with this petition, which so exactly coincided with her own wish to free herself from the control of the council. She read the capitulation in presence of the nobles, making a pause at the end of each article, and asking if such were the wish of the nation. Being answered in the negative by all, who were not members of the council, she tore in pieces the obnoxious instrument in presence of the whole assembly. Thus the Empress Anne rendered her throne as despotic as that of any of her predecessors.

One of the principal events of her reign was the war, which she undertook, in conjunction with Austria, against the Turks,

with a view to the recovery of Asoph. But although the Russian arms were every where victorious, the Austrians performed little, and were at length obliged to conclude a separate peace. The war, between the Porte and Russia, terminated with the demolition of Asoph; and Anne could not obtain the privilege of keeping a fleet in the Euxine. The reign of Anne, however, upon the whole, was prosperous, and under her, the Russian empire increased in strength, and extended its commerce. She carried into execution several of the plans formed by Peter the Great; and, particularly, that of making discoveries in the eastern Archipelago, adjacent to the coast of Kamtschatka. But her subjects would have been much happier, and her memory more honored, had she not reposed too much confidence in her favorite John Ernest Biron, who exercised so horrible a tyranny, that 20,000 persons are said to have been exiled to Siberia, during her reign. This remarkable personage was the son of a gamekeeper in Courland, and having studied at Konigsberg, returned to Mittau, and was presented to the Dutchess Anne, who made him her secretary, and shortly after her chamberlain. After her accession to the throne of Russia, he still continued to be the all powerful minion. The duke of Courland dying in 1737 without a male heir, Biron took his measures so well, as to induce the nobility to elect him to that dignity. Notwithstanding his election to the duchy of Courland, he constantly resided at Petersburg, where he displayed a haughtiness and despotism, that would appear incredible, were it not so notorious.

The Empress Anne had in her testament declared Ivan, the son of her neice the Duchess of Mechlenburg, to be her successor. The young prince being only two years old, Biron was appointed administrator of the empire, during his minority. This arrangement was highly disagreeable, not only to the young emperor's parents, but also to the Russian nobility. A party was therefore formed, in order to overthrow his power, which he had so grossly abused, during the preceding reign. In the night of the 19th November, the re-

gent Biron, with his consort, his family and his firmest partizans, were suddenly arrested. He was afterwards condemned to exile in Siberia, whither he had before sent such a number of victims to his tyranny.

Under the administration of the Princess Anne of Mechlenburg, and Duke Ellrick of Brunswick, her consort, Count Munich was all powerful. But in 1742, a revolution took place, which subverted the system of the court, and the order of succession to the Russian throne. A party was formed in favor of the princess Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, and Catherine I. his consort, which suddenly raised her to the sovereignty. The young emperor, and his parents, together with Osterman, and Munich, the two chief promoters of Ivan's succession, were all carried off in one night, without noise, and without opposition. Osterman and Munich were exiled to Siberia. The duke and duchess of Mechlenburg, with their son, the infant emperor, were confined in the citadel of Riga. In 1743, they were removed to Dunamond, and from this fortress to Kelonogory, an island at the mouth of the Dwina, fifty miles from Archangel, where the Duchess Anne died in child bed, a prey to grief and melancholy. The duke survived till 1775, when he also terminated, in prison, his calamitous career.

The infant emperor, the innocent and unconscious victim of court politics, was taken from his parents, and shut up in a monastery at Oranienburg; where he was kept in such a state of seclusion, as left his mind totally unemployed. A monk of the convent, having formed the project of carrying off this unfortunate prince, the attempt proved fatal to himself, and added new horrors to the doleful situation of Ivan. Being taken at Smolensk, the unfortunate prince dearly expiated an offence, in which he had been entirely passive. A dungeon in the castle of Schlüsselburg, was assigned for his dreary abode; where, being almost literally buried alive, he seldom knew whether it was day or night, and was wholly secluded from conversation with mankind; all discourse with him being forbidden to the officers and soldiers, on guard at the fortress. In this state of total inaction, with no other light than that of

a gloomy lamp, and seldom allowed to breath the free air in the inclosed court of his prison, his mind gradually lost all its active powers ; and the Empress Catharine, who paid him a visit, with the benevolent intention of alleviating his condition, found him in a state of deplorable idiocy, incapable of any other enjoyments, than those of mere animal appetite. The empress, however, gave orders for supplying him with all the comforts and conveniencies of which his condition was susceptible. Shortly after, however, the unhappy prince was, in conformity to the orders given to his keepers how to act in such an extremity, assassinated in a tumult, excited by a rash attempt to carry him off, and thus terminated a life, which had been a continued scene of calamity for about the space of twenty three years, without any mixture of satisfaction, or comfort. Happy would it have been for this unfortunate prince, had he never been called to a throne.*

Notwithstanding the severity of the empress Elizabeth against the deposed monarch, she exercised her lenity, in recalling many thousands, whom the former regency had sent to pine out their days in the dreary regions of Siberia. She brought to a successful termination the war with Sweden ; which had been undertaken by the late regency. She took part against Prussia in the famous seven years war ; when in conjunction with Austria, she reduced Frederick the Great to the last degree of distress. Many bloody battles were fought, and fertile countries desolated ; but wars, which operate no important change in the condition of nations, ought to occupy only a small space in history. It will be more consistent with our plan to cast a glance at Elizabeth's internal government, and at the progress of the Russian empire, under her administration. She herself, indeed, interfered but little with the affairs of government. Her regulations were planned, and her decrees mostly dictated, by her ministers. Her character was mild, and tinctured with a kind of delicate sensibility. It is said that she used to shed tears, when she received intel-

* For a detailed account of the misfortunes, and death of this prince, see Tooke's *Hist. Russia*, Coxe's *Travels in Russia*, &c.

ligence of the victories gained by her generals, at the expence of so much human blood. From the same kind of weak sensibility, she adopted the culpable measure of entirely abolishing capital punishments; and, immediately on her accession to the throne, she made a vow never to affix her signature to any sentence of death. This resolution, to which she inviolably adhered, was greatly to the detriment of the empire, as the number of malefactors daily increased. At the best this was only a semblance of lenity, for the tearing out of the tongue by the roots, the tearing away of the nostrils with red hot pincers, the dislocation of the arms, with imprisonment or slavery, added to those shocking mutilations, were punishments worse than death, without being equally effectual to the prevention of crimes.

During the reign of Elizabeth, Russia continued to make a progressive improvement in manufactures and commerce, in arts and literature. She augmented the sum appropriated by Peter the Great to the academy of sciences, and, in 1758, she instituted that of painting and sculpture, at Petersburg. She was a great admirer and patroness of architecture, and adorned her residence with many elegant structures. The drama was not less indebted to her munificent patronage, and she first laid the foundation of a Russian theatre in Petersburg, where none but French and Italian pieces had hitherto been performed. The greatest blemish of Elizabeth's reign was the institution of a political inquisition, under the name of a secret state chancery. This court being empowered to examine all such charges as related to the expression of any kind of disapprobation of the measures of government, opened a wide field of exertion to spies and informers, and might be considered as one of the most formidable engines of despotism.

Elizabeth died the 25th of December, 1761, and Peter III., her declared successor, peaceable ascended the throne. This prince was grandson of Peter the Great.

Peter no sooner ascended the Russian throne, than a peace was concluded between the courts of Petersburg and Berlin, by which all the Russian conquests, in Prussia, were restored, and an alliance between Peter and Frederick immediately took

*her**1761*

place. These changes, particularly the restitutions that had been made, were far from conciliating the affections of the Russians to their new sovereign: the abolition of the secret state chancery, and the recall of those victims who had been exiled to Siberia under the former administrations, were measures better calculated to procure him some degree of popularity.

Peter enacted several new laws, and established a number of salutary regulations; but, being a German, he could not conceal his predilection for his countrymen, and his contempt of the Russians. He had conformed to the Greek church; but openly shewed his attachment to Protestantism; and as he expressed a desire of making some alterations in the Russian worship, it is no wonder, that he converted the sacred order, into a formidable host of enemies. His introduction of the Prussian exercise and uniform, gave great offence to the military. The disagreement in sentiment, character, and manners, between him and his consort, also contributed in no small degree to his ruin. This disunion, from whatever cause it originated, had at last proceeded, almost, to an open rupture, and Peter ceased to show any indulgence to his spouse, or to treat her with common decorum. He even talked openly of repudiating her, and disinheriting her son. His enemies represented all this to the empress, and doubtless with the most odious coloring, in order to prepare her mind for those vigorous measures, which she afterwards adopted.

The emperor being now surrounded with enemies, and almost without a friend, was dethroned without opposition. A conspiracy was formed for that purpose by the two brothers Counts Orloff, Count Razumofskoy, Count Panin, and the Princess Dashkof, and it afterwards was supposed that the empress was privy to the design. Peter was repeatedly warned of his danger, by the Prussian and English ambassadors, as well as by letters from Frederick the Great; but, by an unaccountable negligence, he slighted every caution, and seemed perfectly confident that no danger existed.

On the 9th of July, 1762, the conspirators confidently and successfully carried their design into execution. Peter was at

his favorite seat, the country palace of *Orienbaum*; and his consort was at *Peterhoff*. From this place *Catharine*, attended by *Count Gregory Orloff*, commander of the *Ismailofski* guards, repaired early in the morning to *Petersburg*. Not only this regiment, but the other troops also, acknowledged her as empress; and this acknowledgment of the soldiery, was immediately followed by that of the greater part of the nobility of *Petersburg*, and of the public in general. At 10 o'clock in the forenoon, *Catharine* took the oath of accession, binding herself to defend the liberties and religion of the empire. The nobility, the soldiery, and the people, then did homage, and swore fealty to *Catharine*, as empress and autocratix of all the *Russias*; and *Te Deum* was sung, by the archbishop of *Novogorod*, to give a greater appearance of sanctity to the transaction. In one morning, in the space of a few hours, this important revolution was effected.

Peter soon received, at *Orienbaum*, intelligence of what was passing in the capital, but he still remained incredulous; and, instead of thanking the faithful officer who first brought the important information, put him under arrest. But he soon received a dreadful confirmation of its truth. He then dispatched messengers to bring him an accurate account of all that happened; but none of them returned. The unfortunate emperor, at last, began to open his eyes to his situation. His *Holstein* troops were zealously attached to his person, and offered to support him to the last man; and he had with him *Marshal Munich*, from whom much might have been expected. But the irresolution of *Peter* prevented any thing from being done. Having rejected the proposal of his faithful Germans, an escape to *Sweden* or *Prussia* was suggested, and might have been easily effected; but *Peter*, irresolute and wavering, amidst a multiplicity of plans and projects, determined on nothing.—*Catharine*, in the mean while, with her partizans and guards, was marching against him, in order to put a finishing hand to the revolution. *Peter* then, instead of thinking either of resistance or escape, adopted the measure which, to a dethroned sovereign, is of all others the most dangerous. He began a negotiation, with a formal offer of abdicating the throne. But

the conductors of the revolution, not considering his abdication as affording them sufficient security against the uncertainty of events, required him to come immediately to Petersburg.— With this fatal requisition, the unfortunate monarch complied; and met the fate which he might have expected. He could not obtain an audience of his wife, whom he never saw more; and was immediately seized by Count Panin, as a prisoner. A paper was delivered him, containing the orders of the empress; and Peter subscribed the act of renunciation. He was then conducted to Ropscha; and, about eight days after, his death was announced. In order to stifle the various conjectures and reports to which his sudden decease, in such circumstances, would naturally give rise, a manifesto was published, stating the cause of his death to have been an hemorrhoidal cholera, to which he had sometimes been subject. Peter III. was endowed with great activity and ardor of mind; he was not deficient in genius, though his consort far excelled him in intellectual powers. But his whole conduct shews that he wanted prudence. He was too much of the foreigner, and too little of the Russian, to conciliate the affections of his subjects.

Catharine, as well as Peter, was a German, and had received a German education; but, by her condescending behaviour, she gained the hearts of the Russians as easily, as Peter, by his negligence and contemptuous indifference, had lost them. No sovereign of Russia, since Peter the Great, was so attentive to the improvement of the empire, and so successful in carrying on that great design—but while she labored to reform, she never affected to despise, the national prejudices; and thus many innovations became easy to her, which her consort had found impracticable.

The foreign politics of Catharine related chiefly to Poland and Turkey; and the chief political and military events of her reign, originated in her transactions with those countries. The throne of Poland being vacant, and the flames of civil war raging in the country, Catharine sent thither a body of troops; and, by her influence, Count Stanislaus Poniatowski was elected king, Poland thus became dependent on Russia.

The umbrage which the residence of the Russian armies in Poland gave to the Catholic party, exacerbated the rage of civil war, and produced confederacies and commotions that deluged the country with blood. The confederates at length invoked the protection of the Turks; and the conduct of the empress, in regard to Poland, gave so much offence to the Ottoman Porte, that the grand Seignior declared war against Russia. In 1769, hostilities commenced between the two empires. The khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of his people, supported by 10,000 Spahis, penetrated into the Russian territories; where he burned many towns, and carried about 4,000 families into captivity. This disaster, however, was soon after revenged by the Russian army under Prince Galitzin. This commander forced the Turkish intrenchment, near Choczim; and shortly after defeated them again in that neighbourhood, after an obstinate engagement. The Russians then invested Choczim, but were obliged at last to retreat; after the siege of that place, and the battles fought in its vicinity, had cost them upwards of 20,000 men. On the 9th of September, Prince Galitzin gained, near the banks of the Neister, a complete victory, in which the Turks had about 7,000 men killed, besides wounded and prisoners, and great numbers that were drowned in their retreat. This victory was followed by a second, on the banks of the same river, after a desperate engagement, in which the slaughter of the Turks was almost incredible. Not only the field of battle, but also the river, was for several miles covered with dead bodies. The Turks were exasperated at the ill conduct of their commander, the Vizier Moldwani Ali Pacha, a man of courage, but deficient in prudence, and unskillful in war. A fatal spirit of licentiousness and insubordination now broke out in their armies. They had, within little more than a fortnight, lost almost 30,000 of their best troops, and nearly 50,000 more deserted. About this time, Prince Galitzin resigned the command of the army to General Count Romanzof, and returned to Petersburg crowned with laurels. Romanzof carried on the war with success equal to that of his predecessor; and on the 18th of July, and the 2d of August, 1770, gained two important

victories. In the latter, the Turks are said to have left above 9000 killed, on the field of battle. Some thousands of carriages loaded with provisions, a vast quantity of ammunition, and 143 pieces of brass cannon, fell into the hands of the Russians.

Europe has seldom seen a war carried on with greater vigor and success, than this of Russia, against the Ottoman Empire. A considerable fleet sailed from Cronstadt, by the straits of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean; and proceeding to the coasts of Greece, and into the Archipelago, harrassed the Turks on every side. The Greeks, every where joined the Russians. But an army of 30,000 men, chiefly Albanians and Epirotes, commanded by the Pacha of Bosnia, entering the Morea, recovered the northern part of the Peninsula; and all the Greeks that were found in arms, or absent from villages, were instantly put to the sword. The Russians were now obliged to fly for safety to their ships. Their fleet, which had been separated, was now collected, and reinforced by a small squadron under Elphinstone, an English commander. The Turkish fleet now appeared, consisting of sixteen ships of the line, of from sixty to ninety guns, besides a number of xebecs and gallies. An obstinate engagement took place in the channel, which separates the island of Scio, from Asia Minor.—Spiritof, a Russian admiral, engaging the capitan pacha, in the Sultana of ninety guns, the two ships ran so close, that they fastened themselves together with grappling irons. In this situation the Russians, throwing their hand grenades from the tops, set the Sultana on fire; and, as the two ships could not be disentangled, both were immediately in flames. Thus dreadfully circumstanced, without a possibility of receiving any succour, their fate was inevitable. The commanders, and most of the principal officers on both sides, were saved; but the crews, for the most part, perished with the ships, which blew up together, with a tremendous explosion. The engagement continued, without any material advantage on either side, until night, when the Turkish ships cut their cables, and ran into the bay of Tschesme, on the coast of Asia Minor. Here they were immediately blockaded by the Russians; and

in the night, Lieutenant Dugdale, an Englishman in the Russian service, with great difficulty and danger, ran some fire-ships into the harbour. In this hazardous attempt, Dugdale so effectually succeeded, that in five hours the whole Turkish fleet, except one ship of the line, and a few gallies, which were towed off by the Russians, was totally destroyed. The Russians then entering the bay, commenced a heavy cannonade and bombardment against the town and the castle, which were both totally destroyed, by the blowing up of a powder magazine. At nine o'clock in the morning, scarcely a vestige remained of the fleet, the castle, or the town; the whole was buried in one tremendous scene of destruction.

After this decisive action the war was carried on, with almost uninterrupted success, on the side of the Russians. The Turks were reduced to the greatest extremity, when an unexpected event contributed to prevent the downfall of their tottering empire. A Cossack appeared in Kazan, assuming the name and character of the late emperor, Peter the Third; and pretending to have escaped from assassination by an extraordinary dispensation of Divine Providence, declared, that the report of his death was only a fiction, invented by the court, and gave special reasons for his long concealment. This imposter, whose name was Pugatscheff, is said to have borne a striking resemblance to the late emperor, a circumstance which had undoubtedly prompted him to engage in this romantic and desperate enterprize. His courage and address procured him a great number of followers, and having by the seizure of different fortresses and magazines, provided himself with arms, ammunition, and artillery, he stood several engagements against large bodies of the empress's troops, commanded by able generals. This rebel was for some time so successful, and became, at last, so formidable, that he, at one time, marched directly for Moscow, which was then ripe for insurrection. These circumstances turned the attention of Russia, towards a pacification with the Porte. In July, 1774, a treaty was concluded, by which the Russians obtained the free navigation of the Euxine, and an unlimited trade with all the ports of the Ottoman empire. The termination

of the Turkish war, left Catharine at liberty to direct all her efforts against the impostor, who was threatening to hurl her from the throne of the czars. After the conclusion of the peace with Turkey, his career was soon terminated. Being defeated, and taken prisoner, he was brought in a cage to Moscow, and executed on the 21st of January, 1775.

In 1779, a new war broke out between Russia and Turkey. The independence of the Crimea affording to the Russians an opening into the Turkish dominions, was a source of perpetual discord. Disputes constantly arising, and Russia continually extending her pretensions; both sides began in 1783, to prepare for war. But, in the midst of their hostile preparations, a treaty was concluded the following year, in which, the full sovereignty of the Crimea, with the isle of Taman, and part of Cuban was ceded to Russia.

The journey of the empress to Cherson in 1787, displayed to the eyes of the world an extraordinary spectacle; and gave a great but groundless alarm to the principal powers of Europe. The splendour of the czarina's progress, surpassed all that the most luxuriant imagination is able to conceive. She was escorted by an army, and preceded by pioneers, who levelled the roads, which were illuminated for the space of five hundred leagues. At the end of each days journey, she found a temporary palace erected for her reception, and furnished with all the accommodations and luxuries, that Petersburg, or Moscow could afford. A new creation every where rose up before her; and the fictions of oriental romance seemed to be realized. Curiosity attracted numerous crowds of spectators and gave the countries through which she passed the appearance of a dense population. Balls, and illuminations, in the different towns exhibited marks of happiness and joy; and her progress was a continued scene of pleasures and festivity. In the train of her followers were the English, French, and Austrian ambassadors. At Kioff, the splendour of her court was heightened by the concourse of foreigners, who arrived there from all parts of Europe to witness her magnificence, and to adorn her triumph. From that place, she descended the Borysthenes, with a fleet, as superb as that, in

which Cleopatra paraded down the Cydnus. On her way she was met by the king of Poland, who had caused the right bank of the river to be illuminated; and afterwards, by the emperor Joseph, who arriving some days before at Cherson, proceeded up the river to honour her approach. This journey of the Czarina, and her interview with the emperor, gave considerable alarm not only to the Ottoman Porte, but also to England, Prussia, France, and Spain. The Turks, instigated by the suggestions of Prussia, resolved to put Oczakow in a state of defence, and to assemble an army of 150,000 men on the banks of the Danube. So great were the apprehensions of the Divan, that every preparation was made as for an unavoidable rupture. The dread of an expected war proved the cause of a real one.

Whatever was the truth of those intricate affairs, it is well known, that the return of the empress from Cherson, was immediately followed by a declaration of war, on the part of the Ottoman Porte. The emperor Joseph declared himself for Russia, and hostilities immediately commenced. The combined Austrian and Russian forces, under the Prince of Saxe Cobourg, laid siege to Choczim, which surrendered, after a long and obstinate resistance. But the principal operations of the Russians were directed against Ockzakow, which, after a protracted siege, and desperate defence, was taken by assault on the 17th, of December, 1788. During the progress of these hostilities with the Turks, Catharine found herself suddenly involved in an unexpected war with Sweden. Gustavus III. thinking this a favourable opportunity of checking the exorbitant power of Russia, and lessening her influence over his kingdom, marched into Finland, and commenced hostilities. But the principal action of this war was the naval engagement off Hoogland, in the gulph of Finland, in which the victory was claimed by both sides. The forces were nearly equal. The engagement was, during five hours, obstinate and bloody. Both the Russians and Swedes displayed considerable skill, and consummate bravery. After some other actions of no great importance, and attended with various success, a pacifi-

cation took place on the 14th of August, between these two powers.

The peace with Sweden, again left Russia at liberty to carry on with vigour the war against the Porte, and her operations were thenceforth an almost uninterrupted series of successes. Before the close of the year 1790, Catharine had the satisfaction to see her conquests extended beyond the Danube, while Constantinople trembled at the advance of the enemy. The capture of Ismail, by storm, was the last important event of this war, and will for ever tarnish its annals. After eight successive assaults, in which the Russians were repulsed with great slaughter, it was carried at the ninth, on the 22d of December, 1790. The siege and assault were computed to have cost the assailants, not less than 10,000 men. Marshal Souvarof, who commanded at this siege, led on his troops, in person, to the last attack, and, climbing up the wall, planted the Russian standard on the rampart, displaying a dauntless courage, that would have gained him immortal renown, had not his subsequent cruelty consigned his name to the abhorrence of civilized men. The garrison, whose bravery a generous enemy would have treated with respect, was put to the sword by the merciless troops of the savage conqueror; and an indiscriminate massacre of the inhabitants added to the horrors of the scene. No age, sex, or condition was spared, and Souvarof's soldiers, behaving like a horde of cannibals, tarnished for ever the glory of their victories.

The uninterrupted successes of Russia, and the extension of her conquests which now began to threaten the total subversion of the Ottoman empire, roused at last the attention of Europe. England and Prussia began to arm, in order to prevent a revolution, of which it was difficult to calculate the consequences. Spain and Denmark also interfered, although in a less decided manner. At last, however, a peace was concluded, and the empress obtained all her demands. Oczakow, and all the country, between the Bog and the Niester, were ceded to Russia; and the latter river was made the boundary, between the Russian and Ottoman empires.

Catharine II. during the long period of her reign, had never,

for a moment, withdrawn her attention from Poland. Her first interference in the affairs of that kingdom, and the elevation of Poniatowski to its throne, have already been mentioned. This gave great offence to all parties. The whole nation was divided into hostile confederacies ; and this unfortunate country became the ensanguined theatre of civil, religious, and foreign war. The particulars of these, and of the final partition of Poland, between Russia, Austria, and Prussia, are elsewhere related.

The subjugation of Poland was the last important effect of the foreign politics of Catharine II. The French revolution appeared to excite her attention, as well as that of the other European powers ; and she was considered as a member of the grand coalition. But she never appeared willing to take any active part in the war, against France. She amused the world with manifestoes ; but beheld, without regret, the greatest powers of Europe exhausting their strength, and their treasure, while, perfectly secure from their interference, she was making substantial acquisitions in Poland. This empress also annexed to Russia the fertile and populous country of Courland. Incessantly anxious to extend her dominions, she turned her arms against Persia, under the pretext of supporting Ali Khan, one of the descendants of the Sophis. While Catharine was thus forming plans of aggrandisement, and making preparations for carrying them into execution, the hand of death arrested her progress. She expired of an apoplexy on the 9th of November, 1796, in the sixty eighth year of her age, and the thirty fifth of her reign, which was one of the most distinguished in modern history.

The name of Catharine II. will always stand conspicuous in the chronicles of Europe. The pages of history will be filled with the transactions of her court, and the operations of her armies ; but to the eye of the philosophical observer, her conquests will appear less resplendent, than her peaceful labors, for the improvement of her people. Peter the Great, had laid the foundation of Russian improvement, and grandeur. Successive monarchs had employed themselves in raising the superstructure ; but Catharine II. contributed more

towards the accomplishment of his designs, than all her predecessors, since his time. Amidst the intrigues, and the splendor of her court, the solitudes of war, and the acclamations of conquest, she did not overlook the more placid occupations of peace. She was the munificent patroness of literature, and the arts; and, from the commencement, to the termination of her reign, she laboured with as much assiduity and success, to extend the commerce of her empire, as to increase its power and political consequence. As a legislator, when the circumstances of her country are considered, she stands almost unrivalled. The new code of laws framed under her inspection, and in a great measure by her instructions, displays a just judgment and an enlightened understanding, and will greatly contribute to mitigate the rigor of despotism.* Her abolition of the torture does honor to her feelings, and confers a blessing on humanity. The many and important regulations which she effected in the interior police, and the various reforms which she introduced into the courts of justice, shewed her not less attentive to the happiness than to the greatness of her empire. Whoever views the academies for the promotion of arts, sciences, and letters, and the hospitals for the comfort of suffering humanity, which owe to her their origin, or their enlargement, will not refuse her the just tribute of applause. Guided by her steady and fostering hand, the mass of useful knowledge was not confined to Petersburg, but distributed in thousands of channels, into every part of the country: 3,200 of the pupils educated at the expense of government, in the public academies, and schools of Petersburg, being the children of the common people, instructed in the Normal schools, founded by the immortal Catharine. In the vast and beneficent plan formed for the regeneration of her empire, she applied a maternal and appropriate care to the great business of general education. The popular schools were not confined to the place of her resi-

* The manuscript copy, written mostly in French, with her own hand, is kept in the library of the academy of sciences, at Petersburg. Storch's *Picture of Petersburg*, p. 316.

dence, but were established in all the provinces of the empire.

In reflecting on the expensive wars in which Catharine was engaged, the magnificent edifices, she erected; the extraordinary splendour of her court; the munificence with which she rewarded her generals; and the multiplicity of her institutions; the political calculator is naturally induced to enquire, how she became possessed of the means of accomplishing projects so vast, and so various. But the low price of provisions and labor at Petersburg and Moscow, renders great undertakings practicable at an expense, far below any computations which an inhabitant of the United States can accustom himself to make. This circumstance, with the unlimited power of a Russian sovereign, give possibility to the boldest, and most extraordinary projects.

The means, by which she ascended the throne, and her extinction of Polish independence, reflect little honor on her memory. Her private life is a subject, which it is not our province to scrutinize; but it has been treated by a great number of writers. She is here viewed only as a sovereign and a legislator. In both these characters she will ever stand in the first rank of honourable distinction.

Catharine II. was succeeded by her son Paul I, whose measures, in several respects, were in opposition to those of his imperial parent, and predecessor. In his youth, Paul had given indubitable marks of genius, and of an elegant turn of mind. His enemies allow, that although the hastiness of his temper, sometimes, carried him to extremes, he was not destitute of virtues; and even those who had experienced the effects of his severity admit, that he possessed genuine goodness of heart. He distinguished his reign by several acts of generosity, which future ages will bear in honourable remembrance. He gave liberty to the celebrated Kosciusko, generalissimo of the Polish patriots, with permission, either to reside in his dominions, or to retire to America. He restored to their estates a considerable number of Polish emigrants, and fugitives, and behaved with an honorable liberality to the deposed king Stanislaus. The death of this emperor hap-

pened A. D. 1801, in the fifth of his reign. He was succeeded by his son, Alexander, who is universally represented as a prince of the most amiable disposition, of the most pleasing accomplishments, and as a pattern of almost every virtue. Thus although the flower planted by Catharine soon withered, it was only to shoot forth a stem of greater brilliancy.

The reign of the emperor Alexander, has already been sufficiently eventful to afford copious materials for military history. But the record of them would now be premature.

The national religion of Russia, is that of the Greek church; of which, since the fall of Constantinople, under the Mahomedan power, this empire may be considered as the focus.

The hierarchy of the Greek is nearly the same as that of the Roman church—and the patriarchs of Moscow had, at one period, assumed an authority almost equal to that of the Pope; but Peter the Great abolished their exorbitant powers. The clergy enjoy considerable privileges, particularly an exemption from taxes. Their number, secular and regular, has been estimated at about 67,000. In Russia, the most liberal and enlightened toleration prevails, and no one is, on account of his religion, excluded from any office or dignity.

The government of Russia appears to have been, in all ages, despotic. We do not find that any legislative authority, distinct from that of the sovereign, ever existed. No vestige appears in Russian history, of any legitimate national council, parliament, or state of the empire. In this point may be seen a striking mark of distinction between the Slavonian Russians, and the ancient Gothic nations, that overturned the Roman empire. The whole extent of European and Asiatic Russia, is divided into forty vice royalties, or governments; the entire frame of which, in this vast empire, may be considered as military.

The Goths, from the earliest periods of which we have any accounts, transacted all public affairs in their national assemblies.* The Slavonians on the contrary, except those of Novogorod, seem to have been entirely dependent on the will of

* Tacitus de mor. Germ. cap. 18.

their chiefs. The Gothic tribes, immediately after their settlement in the Roman provinces, began sedulously to collect and promulgate their peculiar codes of laws. But no regular Slavonic code appears, till the sixteenth century. The history of Russia presents scattered edicts of particular czars ; but the first regular Russian code, compiled from ancient statutes, appears about A. D. 1542.

The legislative code of Catharine II. is a lasting monument of her talents for government ; and of her attention to the happiness of her people. It must here be observed, as a natural consequence of the radical difference between the Gothic and Slavonic systems, that the Goths enacted their laws in their national councils ; while, among the Slavonians, except those of Novogorod, all legislation emanated from the will of the sovereign. This is the case, at this day, in Russia. The senate is only a supreme court of judicature.

The military strength of Russia, is a subject that merits peculiar attention ; as, on its direction, the destinies of Europe and Asia in a great measure depend. From late accounts it appears, that the whole number of troops upon the lists amounts to about 600,000—and the whole disposable force of Russia may be estimated at 350,000 men. The soldiers are implicitly obedient to their commanders, and capable of supporting incredible hardships. But the Russians are more distinguished by their valor in open combat, than by their dexterity in the grand manœuvres of war. Their armies, however, have performed great achievements.*

The navy of Russia, is an object of much less importance than her armies. It consists of several detached fleets, in the seas, on which the empire touches, at its different extremities. The principal fleet is that of the Baltic, consisting of about thirty-six ships of the line. From the narrow extent of its sea-coasts, the small number of its ports, and the little incli-

* The pay of a Russian soldier does not amount to more than six or seven roubles per annum—not sixpence per week ; and his allowance of flour or grists. Out of this, besides all other provisions, he must buy many articles of clothing, and pay for every button, &c. that he happens to lose from his uniform.—*Tooke's View Rus. Emp.* vol. 2, p. 252.

nation which the Russians seem to have for a sea-faring life, there is scarcely any prospect of this empire ever attaining to a high rank among maritime powers.

The revenues of the Russian empire are extremely disproportionate to its extent, amounting only to about 9,750,000*l.* sterling. The national debt does not exceed 1,320,000*l.* sterling. Estimates of national revenue and expenditure, must not be calculated by the positive sums received or paid, but by their effective value in different countries; consequently the price of the necessaries of life, and the customary wages of labor, must be taken into the account. If the state of these things in Russia be considered, a striking difference will be found between the public expenditure of this empire, and that of other European countries. On this basis of calculation it is evident, that the revenues of Russia, though not amounting to a great nominal sum, far exceed those of most other states in Europe.

The commerce of Russia is important and ancient. The genius of the Russians, even in their first stages of civilization, was commercial. Of this, their trade with the Byzantine empire, and the connection of the Hanse Towns with Novogorod, during the barbarism of the middle ages, afford irrefragable proofs. The name of Kataigorod, or Chinese city, given to one of the quarters of Moscow, and probably coeval with that capital, shews that a trade had been carried on over land to China, at an early period. But the Russian commerce was never so various, so extensive, and so important, as it has become since the accession of Catharine II. who made its prosperity one of the grand objects of her attention. The wide extent of the empire, now enables it to carry on a very remote trade. The Caspian sea facilitates its intercourse with Persia, and China; while the Euxine, and the Baltic, afford an opening to its commerce with all Europe, and indeed with all parts of the globe. Before Peter the Great became master of the banks of the Neva, and founded the city of Petersburg, Archangel was the only port that could carry on a traffic with Europe. Since that æra, it has become of much less importance, but still has some trade. The imports of Petersburg, in 1797,

were computed at about 4,000,000*l.* sterling. In general, the exports of Russia by the Baltic, exceed the imports by one third ; but a great part of this trade is carried on in foreign bottoms.

The commerce of the Euxine, or Black Sea, once enriched Taurida and the adjacent provinces. The commerce of the Caspian, is also of an ancient date ; and, in the fourteenth century, was carried on to advantage, by the Venetians and Genoese—but especially by the latter. Astrachan was then, as it is now, the principal mart of the Caspian trade. From that port, the Indian, Persian, and Arabian commodities were carried up the Volga, then overland to the Don, and afterwards down that river to Asoph. The northern parts of Europe were furnished with the same Asiatic commodities, carried from Astrachan up the Volga, and then overland, through the interior of Russia. The devastation produced by Timur, or Tamerlane, towards the close of the fourteenth century, caused the transfer of this trade from Astrachan, to Aleppo and Smyrna. These ports retained the Arabian trade, for which they are more conveniently situated ; but a great part of that of Persia, returned to its former channel.* The trade of the Caspian is now estimated at 200,000*l.* sterling per annum. In the traffic with China, the exports and imports are nearly on a par, each country transmitting to the other, to the value of about 2,000,000 of roubles. In this branch of her commerce, Russia exchanges her Siberian furs for teas, silks, and nankeens.†

The interior commerce of Russia has, from early times, been very considerable. An important traffic is now also carried on, not only between the southern and northern provinces, but also with the neighboring countries. The circulating cash of Russia, was estimated by Mr. Tooke at 26,000,000*l.* sterling.—He asserts, that the quantity is constantly increasing—and 34,000,000*l.* sterling, is perhaps the lowest estimate of the pre-

* Tooke's *View Russ. Emp.* vol. 3, p. 442.

† *Ibid.*, vol. 3, p. 460. For a curious and detailed account of the Russian trade with China, vide *China*, vol. 1, p. 181.

sent circulating specie of this empire. The same author supposes a currency of about 20,000,000*l.* sterling in paper money.*

Russia possesses a variety of manufactures. Those of oil and soap at Petersburg, are very considerable, and contribute in no small degree to its exports. There are also, in various parts, manufactures of paper, and also of tobacco; the latter of which, the southern provinces produce in abundance. Iron founderies every where abound. There is a very large factory of cannon at Petersburg, under the direction of the artillery corps. At Tula there is a vast manufactory of fire and side arms, in which, so early as the reign of Peter the Great, 20,000 musquets, and 10,000 pair of pistols, were annually fabricated. In 1782, new works were erected by Catharine II. at an expence of 77,600*l.* sterling. This imperial manufactory now delivers, every year, arms for 15,000 men, and employs upwards of 4000 artizans. Linen is manufactured in abundance. Leather has long been a staple commodity. Russia produces vast quantities of beeswax, which, however, is exported unbleached. There are also several manufactories of porcelain, and of different kinds of earthenware. Those of isinglass and caviar, the first, a preparation of the sound, or air bladder of the sturgeon—and the other of salted roes of large fish, that flourish on the banks of the Volga. Several of the Russian manufactures are conducted with considerable spirit. The manufacturing system, however, is of much less advantage to a state like Russia, where the number of hands is inadequate to the demands of agriculture, than to England, France, and other countries, which are crowded with a numerous population. But her manufactures attract into the country great numbers of foreigners, who here find employment, and by whom the natives are gradually instructed. This circumstance greatly contributes to the civilization of the empire, and creates a constant addition to the number of its inhabitants: and whenever the period shall arrive, in which the population of this immense empire shall, by its numbers and industry, be adequate to the culture of the vast extent of its

* Tooke's View Russ. Emp. vol. 3, p. 476.

surface, Russia will derive incalculable benefits from the progress which she is now making in her manufacturing system.

Of the population of Russia we have had only vague estimates, until Mr. Tooke elucidated the subject, on the most rational grounds of calculation. According to his account the inhabitants of this country amounted in 1799, to 36,000,000 of which number he assigns only 3,500,000 to the Asiatic part. Of this prodigious mass of population, Russia has acquired nearly 7,000,000, during the reign of Catharine II. by her conquests from Turkey, and the dismemberment of Poland. The different partitions of the latter country brought an accession of above 6,500,000 new subjects to her empire.

With so vast a population, so formidable a military force, so ample a revenue, and such immense resources of every kind, it is no wonder that her influence should be predominant in Europe and Asia. She alone, among the continental powers; has nothing to fear from the exorbitant aggrandizement of France.

The numerous population of Russia, diffused over so vast an extent of country, and comprehending a number of barbarous tribes, is a less effective support of military enterprise than a concentrated mass of people, crowded within a narrower territory; forming its levies with greater rapidity; and directing, more expeditiously, its force towards any requisite point. Such are the comparative circumstances of Russia and France. The European part of the empire, indeed, contains the principal mass of Russian population, which is supposed to be not less than 32,500,000. Russia has much more to gain in the east than in the west of Europe; and the Ottoman Porte has every thing to apprehend from her continually increasing power. The Christians of Greece, Asia Minor, and Syria, are secretly attached to Russia, and certain combinations of political circumstances may produce, in that quarter, great and sudden revolutions. If we extend our views into futurity, and imagine a period when Russia shall attain to that complete population which she is endeavoring, by a multiplicity of means, to acquire, and to which, according to the most authentic documents, and the evidence of visible circumstances,

she is continually approximating, in an ascending ratio, this immense empire presents a distant and dazzling prospect which opens a wide field, both for political and moral speculation. Such a period, whenever it shall arrive, whether we suppose the continued union, or the division of the empire, cannot but be productive of extraordinary revolutions, both in Europe and Asia. Russia, in a united state, with a compact population, must sway the destinies of these two quarters of the globe.

The copiousness and energy of the Russian language are acknowledged by competent judges. It has been much cultivated of late ; a variety of grammars, and dictionaries, have been compiled ; numerous translations are continually appearing ; and the Russian academy is indefatigable, in reducing it to a standard of purity. The pronunciation of it however is extremely difficult to foreigners.

The literature of Russia is yet in its infancy. The inhabitants of those countries, which had once been under the dominion of the Romans, had imbibed the learning and arts of that people ; and, amidst the darkness of the Gothic ages, some remnants were preserved among the monastic orders. But Russia was destitute of this advantage. At the time of Vladimir's conversion, the empire had not emerged from barbarism. Literature, as in other countries, immediately succeeded the introduction of Christianity ; but its transient light was soon extinguished amidst the scenes of internal division, and of Tartarian oppression, which afterwards followed. The modern literature of Russia must be considered as the work of the last century ; and especially of the reign of the last empress. Like other nations, indeed, Russia has long had her fabricators of legends, her compilers of martyrologies, and a few writers of annals. But Russian literature was a barren subject till the auspicious reign of Catharine, who, by her example and patronage, greatly encouraged its cultivation. Even during that period, most of the principal writers, as Pallas, and Muller, were foreigners, and used the German language, so that the sphere of Russian literature is yet very contracted, although all possible means have lately been employed to pro-

mote its extension. Russian authors have appeared, whose works have acquired a deserved celebrity, and exhibit sufficient proofs of the national genius. Illustrious names might be added in various departments of literary composition, which, like every thing in Russia, is in a state of progressive advancement. Periodical publications, however, have hitherto met with little success.

The polite arts, as well as science and letters, are yet in their infant state. Most of the eminent artists are foreigners, but Russia can boast of a few native names. The various institutions for the advancement of arts, sciences, and literature, both in the residence of the court, and in the ancient capital, have already been mentioned in general terms ; but, for a more distinct view of this subject, the reader must be referred to Coxe's Travels, and Mr. Tooke's descriptions of Petersburg and Moscow. The general sketch, here presented, is perhaps sufficient to shew that no nation, of the ancient world, has surpassed Russia in the greatness of its recent efforts for improvement, and none, in the modern, has equalled it, except the United States of America.

Besides the numerous institutions for the education of the higher ranks, the normal schools exhibit a proof that few governments ever paid greater attention to popular instruction, and that no monarch ever expended more money for the diffusion of knowledge among all classes of people than Catharine II. The liberal scale on which private tuition is carried on, shews that the subjects as well as the sovereign are convinced of the vast importance of intellectual culture. "In Moscow as well as throughout all Russia" says Mr. Tooke "education is treated with all the importance that it deserves. Persons of opulence and distinction are not sparing of expence, in order to give their children a good education, not only paying the domestic tutor a salary of 1,000 rubles and upwards, but, likewise, having the best masters for music, dancing, drawing, &c." This writer, however, considers the fashionable plan of domestic education as very defective, being confined, almost solely, to the knowledge of languages, and to exterior accomplishments.

Russia exhibits every condition of society, and every shade of the human character, from the extreme of barbarism to the highest degree of polished life, from the almost savage state of the Laplanders, the Samoedes, and the Normadic tribes, to the civilization of Petersburg and Moscow. The chief national distinctions in the European part, to which the present sketch is restricted, are the Laplanders, and the Fins, in the north, the Cossacks, with the Tartars of Taurida, and the adjacent parts, in the south, and the great Slavonic mass in the middle. These tribes are distinguished by physical as well as moral peculiarities. The Laplanders are a diminutive race generally from four to five feet high, strongly built, active and healthful, with flat faces, a thin beard, and a sallow complexion; their persons are far removed from the standard of beauty, and their mode of living from that of physical purity; but the inoffensive simplicity of their manners is very remarkable. The northern Fins are also of a low stature, although taller than the Laplanders, whom they somewhat resemble, but the southern Fins are of a more graceful appearance. The Tartars are well known to differ in stature, complexion, and feature, from the Europeans. A stature, somewhat below what we call the middle size, a strong frame of body, a flat face, high cheek bones, hollow eyes, mostly black, and lively, and a tolerably fair complexion, are, in a greater or less degree, the general characteristics of all the Tartar nations. All these tribes are but little removed from the savage state, and their manners are such, as are generally observed in the first stage of civilization.

The Slavonic Russians, of which the great mass of the population consists, are a moderately sized, vigorous, and long lived race. Mr. Tooke considers them as inferior to the English, or the Spaniards, in bodily strength, but adds that, in the endurance of hardships, such as hunger, thirst, and want of repose, they are superior to every other nation, and that the lower class are remarkable for a healthy old age and longevity, which would still be more common, if such numbers did not shorten their days with brandy. A fair skin and ruddy cheeks are, among the ladies, the first requisites of beauty;

but they destroy their naturally fine complexions with paint, which even the lowest classes lay on with profusion. In this country, female charms bloom at an early period, and soon decay, a circumstance which is ascribed by Mr. Tooke to the frequent use of the hot bath. A strong propensity for keeping numerous retinues and brilliant equipages is every where prevalent. Splendid entertainments, at which gaming is practised, are also very much in fashion. It seems to be the general wish of every description of citizens, in Moscow and Petersburg, to avoid all visible marks of poverty, and to keep up as much as possible of an imposing exterior shew. In many respects, the opulent Russians form a curious junction of European and Asiatic manners. The common people, in the different parts of this extensive empire, have various peculiarities, in their customs, their amusements, and their arms. The beard is the great bodily ornament, which neither laws, taxes, nor the examples of their superiors, could ever make them lay aside. The native Russian dress, when composed of good materials, has a graceful appearance. The poor wrap themselves up with a sheep skin in winter. The lower classes have no beds, but sleep on the floor, or on a platform of boards; and in summer, very often in the open air. They are liberal in their entertainments according to the extent of their abilities; copious potations are common, and intoxication is not disgraceful, even among ladies of tolerable condition. Marriages are, in general, mere pecuniary contracts. The behavior of husbands, if estimated by the standard of more southern European manners, appears harsh, as they compel their wives to hard labor, and often oblige them to support them in their intemperance; but habit in this as in almost all other cases reconciles the females to their lot. In the large towns, however, the women are in a situation entirely different, and meet with great indulgence.

No nation is so fond of vocal music as the Russians. "On the whole globe" says Mr. Tooke "we shall scarcely meet with a country where the song is more jovial and universal than in Russia. They all sing from the child to the hoary head of age, and on all occasions. The country roads re-echo

with the songs of the drivers ; the village streets with the merry voices of the girls ; and the drinking houses are never without a concert." The most complete vocal music is that which is heard in the churches on Sundays, and holidays, and which gives great satisfaction, even to persons of taste. But the Russo-Greek church does not allow any instrumental music to be used in Divine worship. Next to singing, dancing is the most general amusement. Even the common people, who are not grown stiff with labor, dance with considerable agility, and for the most part to the sound of vocal music. The ringing of bells is also an amusement in which they take great delight. The Russians, of all ranks, have a strong attachment to gymnastic diversions. In severe winter nights the females make sledge parties on the ice, which are always accompanied with loud, and almost incessant singing. The populace is not a little addicted to superstition ; but this offspring of ignorance is common among the lower classes, in all countries. They have a number of superstitious observances for the purpose of ascertaining their future destinies ; they believe in the existence of witches, and the reality of witchcraft.

Of all the Russian customs, none merits greater attention than the universal use of the hot vapor bath. This oriental custom, first introduced for the sake of cleanliness, but afterwards converted to the purposes of luxury, gave rise, among the ancients, to some of the most magnificent works of architecture. Imperial Rome could once boast of above 800 baths, many of which, in point of magnificence and taste, might be considered as master pieces of art. The stupendous ruins of the Roman baths have excited the admiration of posterity, as the magnificence of those of the Persians astonished their Grecian conquerors. But in Russia, their simple construction is conformable to their primitive destination. The Russians generally use them at least once a week, and oftener, on several particular occasions, such as when returning from a journey. After remaining several hours in the bath, perspiring at every pore, they frequently plunge themselves into cold water, without experiencing the least injury, a practice which inures them to sudden transitions from heat to cold, and seasons them

against the effects of those extremes. They consider these baths as a remedy or a preventive against, almost, every disease, and most writers ascribe, to their frequent use, the uninterrupted health which the Russians generally enjoy. This custom, which from time immemorial has universally prevailed in Russia, and which makes an essential part of the system of living, from the earliest infancy to the latest period of life, among all ranks and conditions of people, must, indeed, create an important physical distinction between the Russians, and every other nation of Europe.

The feudal system prevails throughout the whole empire. There are, however, numerous classes of freemen; and the various means of acquiring freedom, afforded by the laws, greatly mitigate the rigours of slavery. We are told by the accurate and well informed Mr. Tooke that "the miserable situation of the Russian boors has been greatly exaggerated, and that, on some estates, they live happily and grow rich;" but he allows, at the same time, that their condition depends on the humour or caprice of their lord, and that although they acquire wealth, they consider the possession of it, so insecure, that they often bury it in the ground. Catharine II. in her instructions for a code of laws, expressed her dissatisfaction at the oppressive treatment experienced by this inferior class of her subjects, and unequivocally declares it to be her wish, that the feudal system should be entirely abolished, or the condition of vassalage ameliorated, and its oppressive abuses removed. The free æconomical society of Petersburg, proposed the important question, whether it would be expedient to abolish vassalage in Russia, with a prize for the most satisfactory answer. It was, however, finally decided in the negative. But, by the unwearied attention of the empress to the welfare of the peasantry, the feudal system was not only divested of much of its rigour; but a foundation was laid for its gradual extinction. Perhaps its immediate abolition might be dangerous and detrimental, in a country, where the great mass of the people have, as yet, no idea of liberty, abstracted from licentiousness. Rational liberty must be the gradual production of a more generally diffused civilization, which, in

Russia, can only be the work of time, notwithstanding, all the means which her enlightened sovereigns employ for promoting that beneficial design. Before the feudal system can be safely abolished by royal or imperial edicts, previous circumstances must have prepared a way for the change. In England its extinction was the progressive work of several centuries.

The Russians are resolute, bold, and enterprising, in the same degree with most other European nations, and inferior perhaps to none, in quickness of comprehension and promptitude of execution. They have a strong propensity to commerce, and are much addicted to sensuality. But the most distinguishing national characteristic of the Russian is that excessive cheerfulness and gaiety of disposition, in which the lower classes surpass every other people of Europe without excepting even the French.

SWEDEN.

SWEDEN is about 1,100 miles in length, and 600 in breadth, Its contents have been computed at 208,900 square miles with a population of fourteen inhabitants to each mile.

Sweden is, in general, a mountainous country. The mountain of Swucku, to which Bergman assigns 9,072 feet of elevation, is considered as the highest.

This country is intersected with various rivers, but the greater part of them are of little importance to navigation. The most considerable is the Dahl. The chief of the Laplandic rivers is the Tornea, which issues from a lake of the same name, and, after a course of about 300 miles, falls into the northern extremity of the Bothnic Gulph. This river derives some celebrity from the voyage of the French mathematicians, who, in the 18th century, took, on its level surface of ice, the base line of their series of triangles for measuring the length of a degree of the meridian in that latitude, within the arctic circle.

Few countries equal Sweden, in the number and extent of its lakes. That of Wener, is the largest, being 100 miles in

length, and 50 or 60 in breadth. It abounds with fish; contains many romantic isles; and is almost surrounded with forests and rocks of granite. This extensive lake receives twenty-four rivers; the Gotha is its only outlet into the Baltic.

Sweden is perhaps the parent country of mineralogy. Her celebrated writers, Wallerius, Bergman and Cronstedt, have laid the first solid foundations of that science. Among the Swedish mines must be mentioned those of gold, at Adelfors. The silver mines of Saalberg maintain some reputation. But on the whole, the Swedish gold and silver mines are productive of little profit. The mines of copper and iron are those for which Sweden is chiefly celebrated. The great copper mine near the town of Falun is supposed to have been worked near 1,000 years. Its mouth presents a vast chasm near three quarters of a mile in circumference, of which, the perpendicular depth is about 1,020 feet. The copper is found in large masses; and about 1,200 miners are employed in these extensive works. The whole number of this class of labourers in Sweden, is computed at 25,600. Copper is also wrought in the province of Jemmland, and vast quantities of iron are found in various parts of Sweden. The mountain of Gellivar forms a mass of rich iron ore, from 300 to 400 fathoms in thickness, and extending, in an irregular vein, the space of more than a mile. Sweden, is not deficient in lead, but copper and iron are her principal mineral productions.

The soil of Sweden is various; but it must be acknowledged, that sterility generally predominates.

This kingdom, extending from about the 56th degree of latitude, to some distance within the arctic circle, presents a considerable variety of climate. In the northern parts, winter is long, and extremely severe, but the summer, though short, is rendered hot by the length of the days, and the reflections of the sun beams from the numerous mountains. At Tornea, about the summer solstice, the sun is, for some weeks, almost constantly visible, descending at midnight for the space of only a few minutes below the horizon; above which he remains as little in winter. Even in the middle regions, the winter is long and dreary. At this season the Gulph of Both-

nia becomes a vast field of ice, and, travellers pass over it from Finland. The southern provinces lie under the same parallels as Scotland ; but the climate is far more severe.

The fertile parts, especially the vallies, are remarkable for the sudden and luxuriant vegetation which they display, as soon as the summer commences ; for here, as in most other high northern climates, the transition from cold to heat, and the contrary, is so rapid, as to strike out spring and autumn from the list of seasons ; and the fields, which before bore the aspect of dreary sterility, are in a few days covered with verdure. Even Finland presents many rich pastures, and some fields of rye, oats, and barley ; and, notwithstanding the barrenness of the soil, and the rigor of the climate, the agriculture of Sweden is so skilfully conducted, as greatly to excel that of Denmark and Germany. In treating of the vegetable productions of Sweden, we cannot omit the immense forests of pines and firs, that cover its rocky mountains, and constitute a considerable part of its wealth. These afford an inexhaustible supply of masts for shipping, and of plank for various uses ; while the tar, turpentine, and pitch, extracted from the trees, are almost of equal value with the timber. Of the other kinds of timber trees, there is no great abundance, and the species are far from being numerous. The ash, the oak, and the elm, although not scarce in the southern provinces, are incapable of withstanding the rigours of an arctic winter. In Lapland, all traces of timber disappear ; the mountains are naked ; and even the plains are chiefly covered with moss, which affords pasture for the numerous reindeer. Bountiful nature, however, has stored these barren regions with a variety of berries, which, being preserved under the snow, furnish an agreeable change of food to the inhabitants.

The reindeer is common throughout the whole extent of the Laplandic regions, and adapted by an all-wise Providence to the cold and dreary climate of the north, as the camel is to the scorched deserts of the south. This animal resembles the stag, but is considerably stronger ; and the antlers, which decorate the brows of the female, as well as of the male, are larger, and possess a greater number of branches. Among

the Laplanders the reindeer supplies the place of the cow, and the horse, neither of which, are formed to exist in those barren and dreary regions, where winter almost perpetually reigns, and vegetation is nearly extinct. The inhabitants of the frozen north, yoke the reindeer to their sledges, in which they travel, sometimes, to a great distance over immense morasses and mountains, buried in snow ; nourishing themselves with their milk, and their flesh. This animal is essential, not only to their convenience, but even to their very existence. Sweden affords an infinite variety of game, among which, is the cock of the forest, a bird, equal in size to a turkey. The dreary regions of Lapland, are also stocked with inconceivable numbers of land and water fowl, of various kinds.

Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, is not distinguished by its magnitude, being, in that respect, inferior to Philadelphia, though little more than a century, has elapsed since the foundation of the latter city. But, its singular situation, built on a part of two promontories, and seven small islands at the junction of the lake Meler, with a creek of the Baltic, gives it a romantic and striking appearance. Among the objects of curiosity in this capital, the arsenal merits the attention of the traveller. An immense collection of standards and arms, the spoils of different enemies, and a long line of the effigies of the kings of Sweden, in the armour which they actually wore, and arranged in chronological order, bring to his mind the recollection of past times, and former events. He will be no less particularly struck with the sight of the clothes which the famous Charles XII. wore when he was killed at Fredericshall, and which are here religiously preserved. They consist of a long tarnished blue frock, of common cloth, with large flaps, and brass buttons, a little greasy low cocked hat, a pair of stiff military boots, and two handsome gloves. This great monarch was remarkably plain in his dress, and commonly wore a leather waistcoat, and breeches, of the same material, often very dirty and soiled. Such was the ordinary dress of that celebrated monarch, the rival of Peter the Great, and the Ajax of Sweden.

In this city is an academy of sciences, and another of sculp-

ture and painting. Notwithstanding the recent improvements of Stockholm, the streets remain very badly paved, a circumstance that militates equally against convenience and elegance.* The harbor is of somewhat difficult access, its entrance lying through a narrow strait, interspersed with rocks, without the advantage of tides—and, during four months in the year, blocked up with ice. The manufactures of Stockholm, consisting chiefly of glass, china, woolen, linen, and silks, are far from being considerable. Its population is, by the latest accounts, estimated at 80,000. The number of births and burials in 1760, amounted, according to the bills of mortality, to 2120, and 3378, respectively. The number of inhabitants does not appear to increase. Stockholm has no great claim to antiquity; being founded about the year 1260. More than 200 years elapsed before it began materially to increase in importance; and the royal residence was not transferred hither, from Upsal, till the seventeenth century.

Upsal, the ancient capital, is next to Stockholm in dignity, though not in population, which, exclusive of the students, is supposed not to exceed 3000 persons. This city has a university of considerable fame. The colleges and some of the houses are handsome; but the greater number are built of wood, painted red, with high grass growing on the tops. Here lie interred the famous Gustavus Vasa, Christian IV. king of Denmark, the celebrated chancellor Oxenstiern, and the immortal Linnæus, who was a native of this place. At Upsal is a botanical garden, and a good library, in which is the famous MS. of a Gothic translation of the four gospels, on vellum, richly illuminated with gold and silver letters. This MS. the only monument of the ancient Gothic language, is supposed to be the work of the fourth century. Here are also shewn some Icelandic MSS. said to be above 800 years old. According to Mr. Carr, some Laplandic tracts are likewise to be seen, but they are probably written in that language, by Swedes. No historical documents authorize the supposition, that literature ever penetrated into the dreary region of Lapland.

* Carr's Travels round the Baltic, p. 145.

Swedish history, except in a few brilliant periods, is less interesting than that of several other nations. It was chiefly in the reigns of Gustavus Adolphus, and of Charles XII. that Sweden had any considerable influence on the general affairs of Europe.

No historical documents exist to inform us, whether the Celts or the Fins were the possessors of Sweden, before the Goths, emerging from their primitive seats on the north of Persia, established themselves in that country, and spread themselves over the whole Scandinavian peninsula. That barbarous and warlike nation, which once made so conspicuous a figure in the history of Europe, after proceeding from central Asia, along the northern shores of the Euxine, appears to have separated into two grand divisions—one advancing westward, on the north side of the Danube, into Germany, and another in a north westerly direction, into Scandinavia. History affords no certain information relative to the æra of these migrations. The western colony was, in time, intermixed with various tribes of successive adventurers; but the northern division, which settled in the Scandinavian peninsula, and to which no foreign conquest afterwards extended, remained pure and unchanged. The population of the southern parts of Sweden, is, therefore Gothic, while that of the northern provinces is mixed with the remains of the Fins; who, themselves, are blended with the Laplanders—a branch, perhaps, of the original Finnish stock, but reduced by the severity of its climate, and its concomitant circumstances, to a diminutive stature, like all the other inhabitants of the arctic regions. The Greeks were, probably, ignorant of the existence of Scandinavia, and the knowledge which the best informed Romans, Tacitus, Pliny, and Ptolemy, had of that region, extended no farther than to some parts of its southern coasts, and amounted, on the whole, to little more than vague conjecture.

Until the middle of the fourteenth century, the Swedish history, besides being uninteresting, is devoid of consistency. It appears to have been conquered by Denmark, about the middle of the eighth century. Sweden, in its turn, subjugated that kingdom about the year 900; but we know little of these

conquests, and indeed the contentions among obscure barbarians, in those remote times, scarcely merit any particular enquiry. About the year 1000, Christianity was introduced into Sweden, under king Olaf III.—but half a century elapsed before it was completely established. The year 1387, or 1388, opens a more luminous view—exhibits greater events—and introduces a period more brilliant in the Scandinavian history. Margaret, daughter of Valdemar, king of Denmark, and widow of Hugin, king of Norway, already reigning over the first of these kingdoms, as sovereign, and over the latter as regent, during the minority of her son Olaus, taking advantage of the discontent of the Swedes, oppressed by their king, procured from them a solemn tender of their crown. She then marched into Sweden, and expelled the reigning monarch. The death of her son Olaus, which followed soon after, put her in possession of the crown of Norway, by election—and united, in her person, the sovereignty of the three Scandinavian kingdoms.—This princess, to whom historians have given the title of the Semiramis of the North, joined, to a towering ambition and extensive views, a sagacity and penetration, which rendered her capable of forming the greatest plans, and of conducting the most complicated affairs. She saw the three northern crowns, which were then rather elective than hereditary, placed on her head, and immediately formed the grand design of rendering their union perpetual. She convened the states of the three kingdoms; and, in that assembly, the famous union of Calmar, so called from the place of meeting, was concluded. In this assembly it was established, as a fundamental law, that Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, should for ever be governed by one sovereign, who should be chosen, successively, from each of the three kingdoms, and be subsequently confirmed in his election by the two others—that each nation should retain its own laws, customs, and privileges—and that the natives of one kingdom, should not be advanced to offices of honour or emolument in another. But this union, apparently so well-calculated for the tranquillity, security, and aggrandisement of the Scandinavian empire, was productive of quite different effects. The vigorous administration of Margaret, restrained,

although not without some difficulty, the national animosity and jealousy which subsisted between the Swedes and the Danes, and which gave rise to a series of bloody and barbarous wars. The Swedes renouncing all connection with Denmark, elected Charles Camitson, the grand marshal, for their king. A succession of wars and revolutions ensued ; in consequence of which, Sweden was sometimes independent, and sometimes united with, or rather in subjection to Denmark ; but the Swedes were finally subdued by the arms of Christian II. and reduced to the condition of a conquered people. These unhappy disputes, produced some of the most tragical scenes that disgrace the history of mankind. The Swedes, at their last revolt against Christian I., had chosen Stene Sture as regent, and administrator of the kingdom. His son succeeded him in the regency ; but his authority, although acknowledged by the nation, was opposed by the archbishop of Upsal, primate of Sweden, whom Christian II. had brought over to his interest. This prelate being, for his contumacy, degraded by the diet, and deprived of his benefices, instigated Pope Leo X. to issue against the regent and his adherents, a bull of excommunication—the execution of which was committed to the Danish monarch. Christian II. uniting this specious pretext to his former claims, invaded Sweden ; but, being defeated in battle, he had recourse to stratagems of the darkest policy. Entering into an insidious negotiation with the Swedes, he offered to proceed, in person, to Stockholm, in order to confer with the regent—provided that six persons, whom he should name, were delivered as hostages for his safety. This proposal being accepted, Gustavus Vasa, a descendant of the ancient kings of Sweden, with five others, of the principal nobility, was sent on board the Danish fleet. The perfidious Christian immediately carried them prisoners to Denmark ; and returning, the year following, with a more powerful armament, invaded Gothland, and wasted the country with fire and sword. The regent of Sweden being killed in an ambuscade, and the senate divided on the choice of a successor, the Danish king, taking advantage of their dissensions, advanced to Stockholm, which surrendered at his approach. Gustavus

Trolle, the primate, now resumed his archiepiscopal functions, and placed the crown of Sweden on the head of the Danish monarch.

This coronation was followed by one of the most horrid transactions recorded in history. Christian had promised a general amnesty, and, repairing to the cathedral, swore, on the altar of the Supreme Being, that he would govern Sweden, not with the severity of a conqueror, but with the benevolence of a father. After this ceremony, he invited the senators and grandees to a sumptuous entertainment, that lasted three days—but concluded in the most tragical manner. The king and the primate had formed the horrid design of extirpating the Swedish nobility, and, in order to afford some pretext for their intended massacre, the archbishop, on the last day of the feast, reminded the king, that the amnesty accorded to crimes against the state, did not include those committed against the church, and demanded justice in the name of the pope. The hall was immediately filled with soldiers, who secured the guests.—The primate proceeded against them as heretics. A scaffold was erected before the gate of the palace, and ninety-four persons, of the first distinction, among whom was Eric, the father of Gustavus Vasa, were executed, for no other crime, than that of defending their country. The year 1520, constitutes the æra of this nefarious transaction; which was soon after followed by the deliverance of Sweden from Danish oppression. Gustavus Vasa, whom Providence had ordained to be the restorer of Swedish independence, escaped from his prison in Denmark, and, in the habit of a peasant, concealed himself among the mountains of Delacarla. Deserted by his guide and companion, who carried off his little treasure, he found himself destitute of all the necessaries of life, and upon the point of perishing with hunger. In this forlorn condition, he enrolled himself among the miners, and wrought under ground for bread. He soon became distinguished among the Dalecarlians, as well for his graceful mien, as for his strength and agility. Having already acquired a considerable ascendancy over those rough companions of his labours, he discovered himself to them at their annual feast, and exhorted them to as-

sist him, in asserting the independence of Sweden. They listened to him with surprise and emotion. Gustavus took the advantage of their favourable disposition, and entered on the bold and arduous enterprize of conquering, with a few undisciplined miners, a kingdom every where filled with Danish soldiers. Nothing, however, could withstand the precipitate valour of the Dalecarlians. Gustavus saw himself every where victorious ; and his successes soon gained him numbers of adherents in every part of the kingdom. His forces daily increased—the Danish fortresses every where surrendered, or were carried by assault. Every thing yielded to his courage, his conduct, and good fortune ; and, within two years after he took the field, and about three, from the subjugation of the kingdom by Christian II. Gustavus Vasa ascended the throne of Sweden.

From the ensanguined annals of war, and the horrors of tyranny, it is necessary to turn our eyes to the progress of society, and the condition of the great mass of the people.—Fewer authentic documents, relative to these subjects, exist in Sweden, than in several other countries ; but the few scattered hints that are extant, suffice to exhibit the outlines of a picture of society extremely disgusting. During the period which elapsed, from the earliest accounts, to the reign of Gustavus Vasa, the government of Sweden does not seem to have ever been regularly defined, or uniformly administered. The feudal system reigned with all its oppressive abuses ; and in no country, perhaps, had the nobles acquired a greater extent of power. In the north, from time immemorial, the sacerdotal order, whether Pagan or Christian, had been held in great veneration ; and, since the introduction of Christianity into Sweden, the dignified clergy had acquired a vast proportion of wealth, and a preponderating influence in public affairs. As commerce was neglected, almost the whole wealth of the kingdom consisted in lands, and was, consequently, in the hands of the prelates and nobles. These two classes, possessing all the property and power of the state, composed a great council, called the senate, which decided on all public affairs. This aristocracy, equally hostile to the authority of the king, and

the interests of the people, was the bane of national prosperity. The people were slaves—the king a mere nominal sovereign—and the crown being elective, Sweden was, in those ages, what Poland continued to be, till its dissensions invited foreigners to seize on its territories, and annihilate its national existence. The same fate had nearly happened to Sweden. The people perished in the contentions between their barons—while their internal disunion exposed them to the inroads and oppression of the Danes; and, had Sweden been surrounded by equally powerful neighbours, she must long ago have experienced the destiny of Poland.

Such was, for ages, the deplorable state of this kingdom. Gustavus Vasa first gave consistency to the government, and rendered the nation respectable. His circumstances, indeed, were peculiarly favourable. None of his predecessors had made their way to the throne through such difficulties; but none of them had ascended it with so many and so great advantages. He was at the head of a victorious army, attached to his person, and struck with admiration of his valour; and he mounted the throne by the universal consent of the nation. The ancient nobility were chiefly destroyed. The massacre of the most powerful of that order, by Christian II. although in the highest degree nefarious and horrible, proved of great service to Gustavus, in freeing him from those independent and haughty opponents, who had so long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy were still powerful by their numbers, their wealth, and their influence, and dangerous by their attachment to Denmark. The consequences of this state of things, the Swedes had repeatedly experienced. But the opinions of Luther, which had now made their way into the north, and acquired great credit in Sweden, afforded Gustavus an opportunity of annihilating the exorbitant power of that order, by changing the religious system of the kingdom. The establishment of Lutheranism in Sweden, was entirely a political measure, begun and continued by religious persecution; and the vigorous laws enacted in 1544, against the Catholics, shew, that Gustavus and the Senate of Sweden, had no better ideas of religious liberty, than Philip II., and

the Spanish inquisitors. In that age, indeed, the irrational spirit of intolerance actuated all sects and parties : instead of conciliating one another, by the mutual exercise of christian charity, they studied to widen every breach, by reciprocal injuries. The reign of Gustavus, was, on the whole, highly beneficial to Sweden ; which, instead of a Gothic aristocracy, the most turbulent and the most wretched of all political systems, became, at that time, a regular monarchy ; and, in arts and arms, in letters and commerce, began to make some figure among the nations of Europe.

Gustavus dying in 1559, was succeeded by his son Eric, whose jealousy of his brothers, excited them to revolt. A civil war thus ensuing, the senate espoused the cause of the princes, Eric was deposed in 1566, and John, his brother, was placed on the throne. His reign was chiefly distinguished by wars with Russia ; by the election of his son Sigismund to the throne of Poland in 1587 ; and by his repeated but ineffectual attempts to re-establish the Roman Catholic religion in Sweden. John dying in 1592, in the twenty sixth year of his reign, Charles, his brother, was chosen administrator of Sweden, and afterwards elected king in 1599. His reign was greatly disturbed by the intrigues of Sigismund, king of Poland, his nephew whose influence was predominant in Russia, and who had many adherents, even in Sweden. The Danes, encouraged by these circumstances, once more invaded the kingdom on which occasion the great Gustavus Adolphus, then only a minor, first appeared on the military theatre, on which he afterwards made so conspicuous a figure.

Charles dying in 1611, Gustavus Adolphus, his son, ascended the throne, and although only in his eighteenth year was declared of age by the states. No sooner was he seated on the throne, than he signalized himself by expelling the Danish invaders. In a war against Russia, he conquered the greatest part of Finland. He recovered also Livonia, and ravaged Lithuania and Prussia. Livonia, the conquered part of Finland, and some towns in the government of Novogorod, were confirmed by treaty to Sweden, which was thus aggrandized at the expense of Russia. An advantageous truce of six years

concluded with Poland in 1629, now left Gustavus at leisure to display his abilities on the more conspicuous theatre of Germany.

The house of Austria at this time threatened the extirpation of the Protestant religion, to avert the impending storm the Protestant princes had recourse to the king of Sweden, with whom they secretly formed an alliance. Gustavus had also particular reasons for making war on the Emperor Ferdinand Religious zeal and the love of military fame might be considered as additional motives. Always attentive to the rules of prudence he assured himself of the support of England and France, before he ventured on a war with the emperor. England, although secretly favourable to his designs, maintained an ostensible neutrality; but numbers of English and Scotch volunteers, by royal permission from Charles I. crowded to the Swedish standard, and the flower of Gustavus's army, with many of his best officers, consisted of those military adventurers. But his most constant and effectual support was that, which he received from France, in an annual subsidy of 1,200,000 livres.

At length having entered into Germany in 1631, the Swedish Monarch marched towards Liepsic, where Count Tilly, the imperial general, was encamped. The latter advanced to meet his antagonist, and a decisive engagement took place. The imperial army and that of the Swedish monarch, were about equal in number. But the Protestant auxiliaries, from Saxony, being raw and undisciplined soldiers, took to flight at the first onset. Nevertheless, the prowess of the Swedes, directed by the abilities of their king, gained a complete victory. Such was the consternation into which the imperialists were thrown by this defeat, that if the king of Sweden had marched directly for Vienna, it is generally supposed, that he might have possessed himself of that capital. But Gustavus through motives, which it is now difficult to discover, took a different route, and instead of carrying the war into the heart of the emperor's hereditary dominions, advanced towards the Rhine, and had the satisfaction of erecting a column on the

banks of that river to perpetuate the progress of his arms. The battle of Leipsic was followed by the most important consequences. The king of Sweden made himself master of the whole country from the Elbe to the Rhine, comprising a space of near 100 leagues, full of fortified towns. But this was not the only advantage derived from his victory. The members of the Evangelical Union, encouraged by his success, unanimously joined his standard; and the measures of the Catholic league were entirely disconcerted. The 1st of April of the following year, 1632, was rendered memorable by the death of that celebrated general, Count Tilly, who was killed, in disputing with the Swedes the passage of the Lech. The forcing of that river, with its various circumstances, is considered, in military history, as a masterpiece of generalship, and by that exploit, Gustavus acquired an immortal reputation. But on marching into Bavaria, and entering the capital, which opened its gates without resistance, he displayed the liberality of his mind, in a manner more honourable to his memory, than all his conquests. Being urged to retaliate on Munich the cruelties which the imperialists perpetrated at Magdeburg, when that place was taken by assault. "No" replied the Swede "let us not imitate the barbarity of the Goths, our ancestors, who have rendered their memory detestable, by abusing the rights of conquest, in doing violence to humanity, and destroying the precious monuments of art."

The next important action of the Swedish monarch was his attempt to force the entrenchments of the imperial general Walstein. The endeavour, however, proved unsuccessful, and after an engagement of ten hours, in which the king's person was in imminent danger, the Swedes were repulsed with great loss. The Austrian cavalry, then made a desperate sally from their entrenchments, and nothing but a masterly retreat could have saved the Swedish army from destruction.

The fate of Gustavus, was now fast approaching. Having learned that Walstein had removed his camp to Lutzen, he consulted his two favorite generals, Kniphausen, and Bernard, duke of Saxe Weimar, on the propriety of giving battle to the imperialists. The former, whose abilities were matured,

and whose courage, was tempered by experience, reprobated the temerity of unnecessarily hazarding an engagement against an enemy greatly superior in strength. He represented it as contrary to the true principles of the military art, and reminded Gustavus, that he was neither circumscribed in place, nor in any want of provisions, forage, or warlike stores. The duke of Saxe Weimar, on the contrary, rejected those reasonings, as the effects of a too cautious prudence, and declared for an immediate engagement. Gustavus, seemed at the first, to acquiesce in the opinion of Kniphausen, but afterwards came to a different determination, and resolved, once more, to try the fortune of arms, with the imperial general.

No sooner was the king's resolution made known, and orders given to march against the enemy, than the whole Swedish army was in motion; and no troops ever advanced with greater alacrity. But by an unfortunate mistake, in computing the distance, they found they had eight miles to march, instead of five; and that mostly over fresh ploughed lands; added to this, the season was wet, it being the month of November, and the soldiers often sunk to their knees in the mire. In this difficult and painful march, the vigor of the Swedes was exhausted, before they came within sight of the enemy. On arriving near Lutzen, they found their difficulties increased, by a marshy swamp, formed by a stagnant brook, over which, there existed no other passage than by a narrow bridge, sufficient only for two men to march abreast. Had Walstein been apprized of their approach, he might easily have prevented their passage. The day was nearly spent, and the sun was ready to set, before the Swedish army could clear this difficult pass; while the imperial general, at last informed of their approach, was employing all his skill in fortifying his camp, and preparing for the destruction of the enemy.

The king of Sweden now saw himself in a most perilous situation, being reduced to the necessity, either of giving battle, under the most unfavourable circumstances, or of attempting a retreat with troops, exhausted and almost fainting with fatigue. He decided in favor of the former measure. Early in the morning, on the 6th of November, 1632, he rode along

the lines with a commanding air, and harangued first the Swedes, and then his German allies, animating them by every motive that could stimulate courage. His emphatical exhortations were answered by shouts of applause from the army; and every soldier manifested his determination to conquer or die. Having disposed his army in order of battle, he placed himself at the head of the right wing, and drew his sword about nine in the morning, being attended by a body of volunteers, principally English and Scotch gentleman. The action soon became general, and both sides fought with unparalleled intrepidity. About eleven o'clock the king of Sweden fell, fighting, sword in hand, at the head of the Smaland cavalry. He had at first, received a wound in the arm, to which he paid little attention, till reduced almost to fainting, from loss of blood. At that moment, an imperial cavalier, advancing close to him, inflicted a mortal wound with a pistol, but, derived little advantage from his triumph, being at the same instant shot dead. A furious attack rendered it impossible to convey the king from the field. He was for some time held up in his saddle, but his horse, being wounded in the shoulder, made a violent plunge, and fell with his rider to the ground. The imperial cuirassiers, rushing forward, killed or dispersed all the attendants of the dying monarch. Seeing him laid on the ground, weltering in his blood, they asked him who he was, and, on receiving for answer, that he was the king of Sweden, and, finding it impossible to carry him off as a prisoner, they gave him several desperate wounds, and one of them dispatched him by a shot through the head. Thus fell Gustavus Adolphus, the greatest monarch that ever sat on the Swedish throne, and one of the most distinguished heroes of ancient or modern history. He united, in an eminent degree, the qualifications of the statesman and the commander; possessing that intuitive genius, which conceives the greatest designs, and that happy combination of courage and conduct, so necessary to their successful execution. But besides his political and military talents, his private virtues ought to be held up as an example to mankind. He was not more great as king, and

as an able commander, than as a pious Christian, a sincere friend, and a tender husband ; a dutiful son, and an affectionate parent.

After the king had fallen, the battle was continued with inexpressible fury. Never was a victory disputed with greater obstinacy. The Swedes, instead of being disconcerted or thrown into confusion by the fall of their king, thought rather of revenging his death, and fought like lions. The battle continued nine hours, and such was the determined valor of the Swedes, and the conduct of their generals, that the action terminated in their favor, and nothing but the approach of night prevented them from gaining a more decisive victory.

The transcendent abilities of Gustavus both in the cabinet and the field were evinced in the most conspicuous and unequivocal manner after his death. Like Philip of Macedon, he left behind him a number of generals trained to arms under his banners, and instructed by his example, as well as by his precepts, who during the space of eighteen years, gallantly maintained with astonishing valor and success the glory of the Swedish arms.

In the reign of this celebrated chieftain, and under his auspices, an enterprising company was formed in Sweden for colonising America. They obtained a footing on the scite of three of the present states, at an early period, when the English had only a few detached settlements in Virginia and New England. To human foresight it was then as probable that Sweden should be the parent country of what is now free America, as that England should monopolize that honor. The latter was at this period under the feeble government of Charles the first, whose reign was disastrous, and convulsed by civil wars. But from small beginnings the English colonies rapidly increased and their language, form of government and power, became paramount in the northern half of the new world. The Swedes in America were first conquered by the Dutch and both afterwards by the English. The descendants of these Swedish settlers form a part of the present population of New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware. They are not known as a distinct people, but their places of worship continue to be

called Swedish churches, as an evidence that their fore-fathers had once possession of the country. From this digression which may be allowed to a citizen of the United-States, we return to the proper history of Sweden.

Gustavus left only one child, the famous Queen Christiana. She was only six years of age when her father was killed, but through the transcendent abilities of the chancellor Oxenstiern, Sweden although engaged in a foreign war of long duration, remained tranquil and prosperous at home. Oxenstiern indeed is not less celebrated as a statesman, than Gustavus is distinguished as a warrior. Notwithstanding several disasters, he carried on in conjunction with France and the United Provinces a war of eighteen years against both the branches of the house of Austria, with such signal credit and success that Sweden had no small part in dictating the peace of Westphalia.

Christiana, the young queen of Sweden received an excellent education. She possessed a superior genius, and made its cultivation her principal object; for which purpose she invited to her court the most learned men of the age, among whom were Descartes and Salmasius. She corresponded with all the distinguished literati of Europe, and expressed a particular regard for Grotius. While she thus devoted herself to letters, she did not neglect the duties of a sovereign, but constantly maintained the honor of her crown. Her desire of independence having determined her neither to marry, nor any longer to encumber herself with the cares of government, she resigned her crown to her cousin Charles Gustavus, A. D. 1654, and having imbibed a predilection for the Catholic religion, as well as a classical attachment to Italy, she retired to Rome, in order to enjoy philosophical leisure and pursue her favourite studies.

Charles Gustavus was successful in his wars with Denmark and Poland. He made an entire conquest of Poland, but it proved of short duration, for although he obliged the Poles to take an oath of allegiance, they soon revolted. Charles died in 1660. His son and successor Charles XI. being a minor of five years of age, the regency judged it expedient to conclude a

peace with all the neighbouring powers. The most remarkable event of his reign was the victory which he obtained over his own subjects, in annihilating the power of the states, and changing the constitution of the country from a limited to an absolute monarchy. Under the administration of this prince however, Sweden made a respectable figure in the political system of Europe.

Charles XI. was succeeded by his son the celebrated Charles XII. This prince like his father ascended the throne in his minority. He was only fifteen years of age at his accession, and his father's testament had fixed his maturity at eighteen. The term however was abridged by the management of Count Piper, who soon became his first minister and principal confidant. It was not long before circumstances called his youthful ardor into full exercise, and afforded him an opportunity of displaying that intrepidity and romantic heroism, which under the direction of prudence, would have ranked him with the greatest monarchs of ancient or modern time. Charles though justly condemned for his obstinacy, temerity, and restless propensity to war, cannot be charged with wantonly beginning those hostilities, which were afterwards attended with so copious an effusion of blood. The commencement of the war, which so long and so violently agitated the eastern and northern parts of Europe, was rather owing to the cool and sagacious views of Peter the Great of Russia, than to the temerity of the young Swedish monarch. The czar was now intent on prosecuting his great plans for the civilization and aggrandisement of his empire, and above all things desirous of procuring a port on the Baltic, to facilitate the execution of his commercial schemes. The province of Ingria had formerly belonged to his ancestors, but Sweden not a century before had wrested it from Russia. He considered the youth and inexperience of Charles as affording a favorable opportunity for re-conquering the province, and thought that a junction with the kings of Denmark and Poland against Sweden, would facilitate this and perhaps still more extensive acquisitions. Thus a powerful confederacy was formed against the young king of Sweden. Charles renewed the former alliance of

Sweden with England and Holland, and received from these two powers a combined squadron of ships of war. Without loss of time, he immediately landed an army in Denmark, and began the siege and bombardment of Copenhagen, both by sea and land. By this decisive measure he soon brought the war to a termination. The citizens of Copenhagen sent deputies to beseech him to desist from the bombardment, a request which he granted, on their agreeing to pay him 400,000 rix dollars. The Danish monarch had no resource left but submission. A negotiation was opened and through the mediation of England and France, a peace was concluded, A. D. 1700, between Denmark, Sweden, and Holstein.

Russia and Poland were not included in this treaty, which left the young king of Sweden at liberty to direct his whole force against those formidable enemies. He first turned his arms against the Russians, who had undertaken the siege of Narva. His success there was followed by another decisive battle at Riga, which was then besieged by the Saxons and Poles. The victory on the side of the Swedes, was scarcely less complete than at Narva, and the consequences were to the last degree important. Charles now advanced through Courland and Lithuania, and the rapidity of his conquests gave his progress the appearance of a pleasurable tour, rather than of a military expedition. The Poles disaffected towards their king Augustus, murmured at seeing their towns occupied by Saxon garrisons, and their frontiers covered with Russian armies, and made little resistance against a prince whom they regarded as a deliverer rather than an invader.

Charles, taking advantage of this state of the public mind, formed the great design of using the discontents of the Poles, as the means of dethroning king Augustus, his implacable enemy. In this project he succeeded to the full extent of his most sanguine expectations. Having gained a decisive victory over the king of Poland at Glissaw, he lost not a moment in marching to Cracow, which surrendered without the least resistance. Scarcely waiting to take possession, he left that city immediately, in pursuit of King Augustus, to prevent him from re-assembling an army. This measure so well calcula-

ted to complete the expulsion of that prince, was considerably impeded by an accident which happened to the Swedish King, who unfortunately broke his thigh, and was for several weeks confined to his bed. During this interval, Augustus assembled a diet at Lublin, and prevailed on the nobles to maintain an army for his defence, and to allow the king of Sweden forty days to determine on peace or war. But, before the expiration of that term Charles having recovered; convened a diet at Warsaw which annulled the resolutions of that which Augustus had assembled at Lublin. He then advanced against the remains of the Saxon army, over which he gained a complete and easy victory. Augustus having retired to Thorn, from whence he escaped into Saxony, was now deposed by the diet of Warsaw, and the throne of Poland was in consequence declared vacant. On this occasion, Count Piper, as great a politician, as his master was a warrior, advised Charles to place himself on the vacant throne, a measure, which with a victorious army of Swedes, and a powerful party among the Poles, he might easily have accomplished. But Charles more influenced by romantic ideas of glory, than by maxims of political prudence, declared that he had greater pleasure in giving kingdoms, than in conquering them for himself. In conformity to these notions, he recommended to the Polish diet Stanislaus Leczinski, palatine of Posen, who was elected king by unanimous consent.

Augustus being expelled from this kingdom, threw himself upon the army of the czar, as the only resource that was left him in his desperate situation. Numerous armies of Russians entering Poland, began to waste with fire and sword the lands of all the nobles who adhered to King Stanislaus. But their devastations were not of long continuance. The king of Sweden defeated them in every quarter, and at last forced the shattered remains of their formidable force to retire beyond the Borysthenes.* Having effected the expulsion of the Russians, he resolved to carry the war into the hereditary dominions of Augustus, and directing his course towards Silesia passed the

* Voltaire Hist. de Charles XII. ubi supra.

Oder with about 24,000 men, and entered Saxony. Augustus now seeing himself destitute of every means of resistance, was obliged to sue for peace, which he obtained on the humiliating condition of renouncing his claims to the crown of Poland, and recognising the title of his rival Stanislaus. These bold and decisive measures, and the rapid success of his arms, had now rendered Charles almost the arbiter of Europe. France and the emperor courted his friendship. Louis XIV. in particular solicited his alliance, with an ardour proportioned to the distressed situation of his affairs, but the king of Sweden intent on his design of dethroning the czar, carefully avoided all engagements that might turn his attention from that grand object.

Thus was the intrepid but romantic monarch of Sweden, raised by a continued train of victories to the zenith of his glory. His subsequent misconduct, the decisive defeat at Pultowa, where he lost in one day the fruit of nine years of successful war, and his involuntary flight to Bender for refuge among the Turks, after seeing his veteran army which spread terror over Europe totally annihilated, are all related in treating of Russia. During his residence of more than five years in Turkey, the Russians, Danes, and Saxons, carried on the war against Sweden, not merely with vigor but with the most rancorous animosity; and the operations on both sides displayed a continual repetition of retaliated barbarities. Sweden was harrassed and exhausted, drained of men and money, and without a sovereign, was reduced to a desperate situation. The regency of Stockholm determined no longer to consult Charles in regard to their proceedings, and requested the Princess Ulrica Eleonora his sister, to assume the government until his return, and to conclude a peace with Denmark and Russia. The king receiving intelligence of this affair, signified to the Turkish vizier his wish to return through Germany into his own dominions, and the Turks heartily desirous of getting rid of him, neglected nothing that could forward his departure. He therefore set out, attended by a Turkish envoy, who conducted him to the frontier. The emperor of Germany had given orders that the Swedish monarch should be received in

every part of his dominions, with all the respect due to royalty, but Charles, unwilling to have his progress impeded by pomp and ceremony, chose to travel in disguise, and with only two attendants arrived at Stralsund in Pomerania on the 21st of November, 1714. From this place, notwithstanding the desperate situation of his affairs, he dispatched orders to all his generals to push the war against Russia, Prussia, Denmark, and Saxony, with redoubled vigor. The king of Sweden, however, was now surrounded by such multitudes of enemies that all the efforts of valor and conduct, might by a cool observer have been considered useless. The German troops of the elector of Hanover, George I. king of Great Britain, in conjunction with those of Denmark invested Wismar. Peter the Great of Russia, with a fleet in the Baltic of twenty ships of war with 150 transports, having on board 30,000 troops, threatened a descent upon Sweden, while the king was besieged in Stralsund by the combined army of Saxony, Denmark, and Prussia. Charles however was not in the least discouraged by the number of his assailants, or his complicated dangers. In Stralsund, he made as obstinate a defence as any recorded in history, against the besieging army of almost 40,000 men, commanded by the kings of Denmark and Prussia, and the gallant prince of Anhalt. When the place was reduced to the last extremity the king of Sweden fought like a private man among his grenadiers in two desperate attacks, in the latter of which, the besiegers carried the hornwork by storm. His friends could scarcely dissuade him from sustaining the grand assault which was hourly expected, At last however he yielded to their arguments, on the propriety of leaving a place which it was impossible any longer to defend, and where he must infallibly be made a prisoner. He therefore embarked in a small vessel and passing through the Danish fleet, under favor of the night, landed safely in Sweden. The next day Stralsund surrendered.

The remaining three years of Charles' life, were a continued series of fatigues, and desperate enterprises, of which the details would be tedious and useless. A new scheme of ambition was suggested by the baron de Goertz, which, al-

though Providence happily prevented its execution, is worthy of notice in history. The baron was one of the most artful and enterprising men of his time, endowed with a genius amazingly penetrating, fertile in resources, and from a congeniality of ideas, in the highest degree bold and romantic, had become the king of Sweden's particular favorite and confidential minister. To such a king, and such a counsellor, nothing appeared impossible. The project which Gortz had framed, was that of concluding a peace with Peter, and of joining the arms of Sweden and Russia, in order to place the pretender on the throne of Great Britain, and to give law to all Europe. Having received full powers from Charles, he entered into negotiations with the heads of the English jacobites and the courts of Madrid and Petersburg. A marriage was projected between the Pretender and Anna Petrowna, daughter of Peter the Great. Cardinal Alberoni, the Spanish minister, a great political genius, a man of boundless ambition, and of the most enterprising spirit, entered fully into the scheme. Conferences were appointed to be held, and every thing seemed to prognosticate the conclusion of a treaty which might have been productive of new convulsions in the political system of Europe. But fortunately for the peace of mankind, the death of the king of Sweden overthrew the schemes of those politicians. Charles had since his return from Turkey, made two expeditions into Norway, in the latter of which, he commenced the siege of Fredericshall in the month of December, when the cold in that severe climate was so intense, that the soldiers frequently fell down dead at their posts. The king, in order to animate them by his example, exposed himself to all the rigors of the climate, and the dangers of the siege, as much as the meanest soldier. On the night of the 12th of December 1718, while viewing the approaches, he was killed by a shot, either from the fortifications, or from some traitorous hand. On receiving the stroke, he instinctively grasped the hilt of his sword, and was found with his hand in that posture, but his death was instantaneous, and he expired without a groan.

The character of Charles XII. is one calculated to excite
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admiration, but it displays no qualities that command esteem or affection. A dauntless intrepidity, which excluded every sentiment of fear, an unwearied perseverance in enterprise, an astonishing firmness of mind under misfortune, a decided contempt of danger, and an enthusiastic love of glory were its distinguishing features. Qualities like these, united with prudence, would have ranked him with the greatest of heroes, but his romantic valor, and his indifference to consequences, have caused him to be regarded as little better than an illustrious madman. His singular obstinacy exhausted the resources of his kingdom, which he left in a miserable state of depopulation and poverty. The private character of Charles presents no amiable qualities. A stranger to social pleasures, little acquainted with literature, and insensible to the charms of the fair sex, a Goth in his manners, resentful, unfeeling, inaccessible to sympathy, he was calculated to inspire terror, but not to conciliate love or esteem.

Happily for mankind, his life was not of long duration. He fell at the age of thirty-six, after a reign of twenty-one years, of which, eighteen had been spent in the most bloody and ruinous wars. In casting a retrospective look on those times, it appears astonishing, that a country so poor, and of so small a population as Sweden could support so long a series of hostilities, against so many, and such powerful enemies. The death of Charles was the signal for peace. A cessation of arms almost immediately took place, and the Swedes raised the siege of Fredericshall. The baron de Gortz, was impeached by the senate of Sweden, of the crime of alienating the affections of the king from his people, and died by the hand of the executioner. The Swedes elected Ulrica Eleonora, sister of Charles as their queen, obliging her, however, to renounce all hereditary right to the throne, and imposing on her a variety of restrictions which, besides rendering the crown elective, re-established the ancient aristocracy. A peace was the next measure concluded, and the provinces on the eastern shores of the Baltic were ceded to Russia. These conditions were humiliating, but imposed by necessity. Sweden was drained of her men and money by the ruinous reign of Charles XII.

and being totally eclipsed by the rising splendor of Russia, has never, since that disastrous æra, had any considerable influence on the politics of Europe. The Swedish history, during the greatest part of the last century, has been uninteresting. The court of France, had generally a preponderating influence in her politics, but that of Russia afterwards gained the ascendancy. The reign of Adolphus Frederic, who ascended the throne in 1751, was rendered extremely troublesome by the contending factions, and by the restraints and oppositions which he met with from the senate. He died in 1771, and was succeeded by the late king Gustavus III. a man of extraordinary talents and accomplishments.

Gustavus III. ascended the throne in the twenty fifth year of his age. He was at Paris at the time of his father's death and wrote in the most insinuating terms to the senate. An extraordinary diet was called to deliberate on the affairs of the government. The king signed a treaty with that body consisting of twenty four articles, relative to the administration of government, among which was an express clause against any attempt to introduce absolute sovereignty or any infringement of the aristocratical constitution as established in 1720. Having made solemn declarations to rule according to the established form of government and accepted the crown on condition of maintaining the ancient constitution, he immediately began to project its overthrow. The enterprise was hazardous, and the king made use of every art to ensure its success. By his condescending behaviour to all ranks of his subjects, and his apparent concern for their welfare, he soon began to gain ground in the affections of the people, and at length became almost their idol. Contentions between the different orders of the states afforded him not only a pretext for his project, but also the means of carrying it into execution. Every means having been employed in order to render the people disaffected to the aristocratical form of government, the king took the proper measures for bringing a considerable number of the military over to his interests. The scheme being now ripe for execution, Gustavus in less than an hour made himself master of the whole military force of the capital,

and placed soldiers at the door of the council chamber, where the senate was assembled. He then seized the arsenal, planted cannon at the palace, the bridges, and all the avenues leading to Stockholm, and completely cut of all communication between the capital and the country. The senators were confined in separate apartments of the palace, and the king visited the different quarters of the city in order to receive oaths of fidelity from the municipality and the militia. The next day, the 20th of August 1772, the same oaths were tendered to the people, to whom the king addressed a speech, declaring that he abhorred every idea of despotism, and renounced every pretension to absolute sovereignty, esteeming it, as he had ever done, his greatest glory to be the first citizen among a truly free people; protesting at the same time, that his sole intention in overturning the aristocratic form of government, was to suppress licentiousness, to prevent oppression, and to ensure the tranquillity and happiness of his country. A proclamation was then issued, ordering an assembly of the states for the following day.

The next morning the palace was invested on all sides with troops, cannon were planted in the court, facing the hall, and soldiers stood over them with lighted matches. The states were here assembled by the king's command, and his majesty being seated on his throne, surrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of military officers, ordered his secretary to read a new form of government, which he had framed, and now offered for their acceptance. Being surrounded by an armed force, which taught them the necessity of compliance, the states signed the new constitutional act, and took the oaths to the king, which he himself dictated. His majesty then began the hymn of Te Deum, in which he was joined by the assembly. Thus in the short space of three days was this extraordinary revolution completed, and the aristocratical constitution of Sweden subverted without opposition, or effusion of blood, so well had the king adjusted his measures and taken his precautions. The new form of government which Gustavus established, has been greatly conducive to the good of his people; and the aristocratic body has never since attempted to recover its former power.

The war which Gustavus III. undertook against Russia appears to have been the most impolitic measure of his reign. To attack that powerful empire, was certainly a rash attempt, but the embarrassed state of Russia might afford Gustavus some flattering hopes of success. This war was of short duration and its issue of little importance.

But Gustavus was about to act on a more conspicuous theatre in taking the supreme command of the combined armies of Europe against the French republic, when he was assassinated at a masquerade in the opera house on the night of the 16th of March 1792 by a traitor named Ankerstrom, who gave him a mortal wound with a pistol shot, of which he expired in great agonies at the close of the twentieth year of his reign.

Thus fell, by the hand of an assassin, a monarch of the most brilliant accomplishments, and the most amiable qualities. Skilled in literature, and the arts, and courageous in arms, he seems to have wanted nothing but more extensive means of displaying his talents.

Gustavus Adolphus, his son, only fourteen years of age was proclaimed king, and the Duke of Sudermania, his uncle, and brother to the late sovereign, appointed sole regent.

The history of Sweden, when compared with that of some other countries, affords but few opportunities of observing the progress of letters and science, arts and commerce. Amidst the tumults of anarchy and the darkness of Gothic barbarism, some circumstances of a commercial nature however appear, that are worthy of observation. Sweden was in these affairs much behind Denmark, but so early as 1455, the former sent out a merchant ship of 1,000 tons burthen long before either England or France had vessels of so large dimensions.* But commerce could not flourish in a country rent with factions and oppressed by foreign tyranny. The reign of Gustavus Vasa first gave to trade, as well as to government vigour and stability. The acquisition of Livonia in the middle of the sixteenth century, contributed greatly to the increase of the Swedish trade. But the disastrous reign of Charles XII., in

* And. Hist. Com. vol. 1, p. 477.

which Sweden lost the fertile and commercial countries on the eastern coast of the Baltic, containing the cities and ports of Riga, Revel, and Narva, gave the most fatal blow to her trade, and inclined the balance of commerce as well as of power to the side of Russia. The age of Charles and his great antagonist Peter will ever be memorable in history, as the æra of this great revolution. In the last century some steps were taken for the revival of Swedish commerce. In 1731 the East India company was established and in 1740 a board of trade and manufactures was erected which has been of considerable advantage to the country. The late king Gustavus III. also endeavoured by every possible means to promote both the trade and the agriculture of the kingdom.

The religion of Sweden is Lutheranism. The Swedish hierarchy is similar to that of England.

In the revolution of 1772, Gustavus III. pretended only to restore the ancient limited form of government. But in 1789, an act of union was passed, which converted the constitution into an absolute monarchy. The king unites in his person, all the powers of government, and the diet can deliberate on no subject but what he chooses to propose. This assembly consists of nobles, and gentlemen of landed property, clergy, burghesses, and deputies of the peasantry. Each of these four orders has a speaker. So numerous a body might oppose a formidable barrier to the power of a monarch, with limited resources, but his dictatorial authority is supported by the great mass of the people. The latter consider it necessary to throw their weight into the scale, to counterbalance that of the aristocracy which is said to consist of about 2,500 families. Many of the most enlightened nobles also appear to regard the absolute power of the sovereign as the most efficacious means of guarding against the dangers of faction.

Although the government of Sweden was rendered by Gustavus III. as absolute as that of any kingdom in Europe, the king does not exercise any despotic authority. The laws are simple, just and mild, and no marks of tyranny appear.

The military force of Sweden consists of about 36,000 national troops, and 12,000 foreign infantry. The former are a

kind of militia, raised by the holders of crown-lands, and are enlisted for life. In supporting cold, fatigue, hunger, and indeed every kind of privation, the Swedish troops are equal to any in the world, and their determined bravery in battle, stands recorded in history. No nation of the ancient or modern world ever carried heroic valor to a higher pitch than the Swedes, under Gustavus Adolphus, and Charles XII.

In the war with Russia in 1792, the Swedish fleet consisted of thirty ships of the line. At present, it is reduced to about half that number. But Sweden pays great attention to the equipment of galleys of a flat construction, which as the Baltic is full of shoals, are found more serviceable than ships of larger dimensions.

The commerce of Sweden, is far from being important, being chiefly supported by her native productions. The exports are chiefly iron, timber, pitch, tar, hemp, and copper. Herrings have long formed a considerable article; but the fishery is much declined. An important part also of the imports from the isle of Bartholomew, in the West Indies, and a still greater proportion of those from China, are re-exported; Sweden affording but a small consumption of these articles. The principal imports are grain of various kinds; especially rye; Sweden, rarely producing a quantity sufficient for her own consumption. To these may be added tobacco, sugar, coffee, silk and wines.

The scarcity of specie in Sweden, is almost incredible. Gold and silver, are seldom, if ever to be seen, and even the heavy copper coins have almost disappeared, being supplanted by bank notes, some of which, are payable for very diminutive sums. The public debt, being mostly incurred at Hamburg, scarcely any kind of currency is seen, but the paper money of that city.

The Swedish manufactures are not numerous. Those of iron and steel are the most considerable. The manufactures of copper and brass, and the building of ships, likewise employ a great number of hands. There are some also of cloth, hats, watches, and sail-cloth, and in 1785 it was supposed that 14,000 persons were employed in those of wool, silk, and cotton.

The population of Sweden, is extremely small, when compared with its ample extent, a circumstance arising from the mountainous surface and barren soil of the country, together with the severity of the climate in the northern districts; Swedish Lapland, being supposed not to contain above 7,000 inhabitants. To these physical disadvantages may be added the low state of trade and manufactures, which do not, as in some other countries obviate the inconveniences of sterility, by affording employment to the inhabitants, and drawing supplies from abroad. The whole population of Sweden does not much exceed 3,000,000, but a late traveller, says, that it is rapidly increasing.

The language of Sweden, is a dialect of the Gothic, and nearly allied to the Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic.

Swedish literature cannot boast of its antiquity; the most ancient native chronicle, and perhaps the first literary composition of this country, being not more ancient than the fourteenth century. The literature of Sweden, indeed, can hardly be said to have dawned before the middle of the seventeenth century, when Queen Christiana, the celebrated daughter and successor of the Great Gustavus Adolphus, invited Grotius, Descartes, and other celebrated men of letters into the country. The seeds of learning and science, sowed by these distinguished philosophers, began gradually to expand, under the wise and beneficent reign of Charles XI. and grew to greater maturity in the last century, when the name of Linnæus alone, would have immortalized the literature of his country. With him, many other illustrious names may be joined in the various departments of natural history. Sweden, also boasts of native orators and poets, as well as historians; but not of many distinguished artists, the fine arts having been slow in their progress towards the north. The reign of the late king Gustavus III. was the Augustan age of Sweden, and the institution of numerous academies, now promotes the interests of science and literature.

Sweden boasts of three universities, of which, Upsal is the most ancient and famous. This kingdom has also twelve literary institutions, most of which, publish memoirs of their

transactions. But universities and academies are of less importance, than a general system of popular instruction, and this great business appears to have been less neglected in Sweden, than in most other countries of Europe. A late traveller informs us, that in consequence of having in almost every parish a school, nearly every peasant in Sweden can read.*

The Swedes of all ranks have in general, a graceful appearance. The men are robust, and both sexes well formed. The ladies, in general have a transparent delicacy of complexion.† It is, however, to be observed, that many parts of Sweden, and particularly among the lower order, the native complexion is browner, than in most other northern climates, where it is generally fair. The manners of the superior classes, are fashioned almost entirely on the French model. The Swedish nobility and gentry of both sexes, are for the most part well educated and highly accomplished; many of them speaking English, French, and German, with fluency. An attachment to luxury, is observable among the opulent Swedes; and all ranks in proportion to their circumstances, display a generous hospitality. The peasants are industrious and frugal, and live in the plainest manner. They generally fabricate their own clothes and furniture; trade and manufactures having made but little progress. They bake only once or twice in the year, and their bread which is made into thin cakes, consists of rye or oats, with which the bark of the larch tree is sometimes intermixed. The Dalecarlians in the west of Sweden, are not less remarkable for their strength, agility, and manly form, than for the honest simplicity of their manners. Their houses have a hole in the top, which serves for a window, and like all those of Sweden, are warmed by a stove.

The national character of the Swedes, does not in general, display any striking peculiarities. Honesty, courage, and generosity seem to be its prominent features.

* Carr's Travels round the Baltic, p. 177.

† Carr's Travels round the Baltic, p. 148.

DENMARK, NORWAY, &c.

THE Danish dominions, consisting of Denmark Proper, Norway, and Iceland, will be best described, by following those natural divisions, which no political events can annihilate.

Denmark Proper, consisting of the isles of Zealand, Funen, Laland, and Falster, with others of inferior extent, together with the Chersonesus Cimbrica, which contains Holstein, Sleswick, and Jutland, is situated between 54° and 58° north latitude, and between 8° and 11° east longitude.

The islands of Zealand, and Funen, are fertile and pleasant; consisting of fields separated by mud walls, and interspersed with vales, and gently swelling hills, covered with woods of beech and oak, but there is nothing like a mountain, either in the peninsula, or the isles that compose the ancient kingdom of Denmark, nor any river either, of historical fame, or commercial importance; although the rivulets as well as the creeks are numerous.

The country being level, the soil is generally fertile, and the unproductive tracts are capable of great improvement. The agriculture of Denmark, is of late greatly improved: a circumstance, chiefly owing to the emancipation of the peasantry.

The climate of Denmark is cold and humid. The winters are often very severe, and the transitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat, are often sudden and violent. In 1658, the great Belt, which is at least twenty miles in breadth, was so completely frozen over, that Charles X. king of Sweden, marched his troops across it from Zealand to Funen.

The vegetable productions of Denmark consist chiefly of pasturage, and different kinds of grain, and as agriculture is constantly improving, abundance must consequently increase.

The horses, especially those of the Holstein breed, are large and fine. The king has above 2,000, among which is a

breed, remarkable for being of a milk white colour.* His majesty, allows all the farmers to have their mares covered gratuitously, by his best stallions, which contributes greatly to improve the breed of horses in this country.

NORWAY, is situated between 55° north latitude, and the Arctic Ocean, presents a vast, although not well ascertained extent of territory, bounded by the Ocean on every side, except on the east, towards Sweden, from which it is separated by a long range of mountains.

The face of the country is extremely diversified and romantic; being almost entirely mountainous; especially the inland or eastern parts, which are a truly Alpine region. The grand chain which divides Norway from Sweden, is distinguished by different names.

The rivers, most of which rise from the Alpine chain, have only a short course. The principal river of Norway is the Glomen, which issues from the lake of Oresund, and runs nearly south about 300 miles. But numerous cataracts and shoals render it unnavigable, although about 50,000 trees are annually floated down it to Fredericstadt. The want of navigable rivers in this country is, however, in a great measure, supplied by the numerous creeks, with which the coast is indented. There are no canals in Norway, but a number of lakes exist, some of which are of a considerable extent and highly picturesque.

The mineralogy of Norway, is a copious subject. Some gold ore has been found, but not to any considerable amount, while in silver, Norway displays a superiority over Sweden; the mines of Kongsberg, forty miles south west of Christiana, having long been esteemed the richest in Europe. Mr. Coxe mentions a mass of native silver in the royal cabinet of Denmark, worth 600*l.* sterling. These mines were discovered by some peasants in 1623. They are worked by thirty-six shafts, and used to employ 4,000 men. At that time, their annual net produce was about 70,000*l.* sterling, but it is now supposed, that these famous mines barely defray the expense

* Carr's Travels round the Baltic, p. 100.

of working. The mines of cobalt at Frossum, are a recent discovery. This mineral production yields smalt, or powder blue; and the mine is supposed to produce a net annual revenue to the crown of 15,000*l.* sterling. In the region to the eastward of Drontheim are copper mines, some of which are very productive, and yield to the crown, a considerable revenue. But of all the Norwegian mines, those of iron are esteemed the most profitable. Alum works exist in the vicinity of Christiana.

Norway, presents a great variety of soils. Rocky sterility is, however, the predominant feature, although there are numerous vallies extremely rich and fertile. In the southern parts especially, several districts unite the most pleasing fertility, with the most variegated aspect. Numerous cottages romantically placed on rocky eminences, and interspersed amidst luxuriant forests, display the seats of peaceful industry.

Norway extending along the western side of the Scandinavian Alps, is exposed to the vapours of the Atlantic, which render the cold less severe than might be expected from so northerly a situation. But from this circumstance, western storms, and heavy rains are frequent, and impede the progress of agriculture.

The Norwegian Alps are generally clothed with pines, and firs, more than half their height, and the greatest part of the country may be considered as an immense mass of mountains and forests. Here, as in other countries, under the same parallels, vegetation is so rapid, that in some places, the corn is sowed and reaped in less than two months; yet the portion of arable land, is so small on account of the rockiness of the soil, and the climate so unfavourable, by reason of the autumnal rains, that the quantity of grain produced, is far from being adequate to the consumption. Hence, arises also the custom of mixing the bark of the larch tree with the bread, in conformity to the practice of the Swedish peasantry. The mountainous parts abound in pasturage and cattle, which here, as in several other countries of a similar nature, are driven to the hills in summer. An agricultural society has been established, by the judicious exertions of which, the country is so

much improved, that landed property, has within half a century, risen almost fifty per cent in its value.*

The Lemming, or Norwegian mouse, a singular animal of a reddish colour, and about five inches in length, seems peculiar to Norway and Danish Lapland. Immense numbers of these sometimes appear and spread desolation, equal to that produced in other countries by the locust. They proceed from the mountains of Kolen by a direct course towards the sea ; into which at last they submerge themselves, after having devoured in their route every thing that is edible. For want of other food they are said sometimes to devour one another. Danish, as well as Swedish and Russian Lapland, has its peculiar animal the rein deer, and as far as has hitherto been discovered all the Laplandic regions display the same zoology as well as the same botany. Scarcely any country equals, but probably none excels Norway in its ornithology, whether the amount or variety of species be considered. In the number of sea fowls, in particular, it greatly surpasses Sweden. Along the vast extent of the Norwegian coast, and the numerous rocky isles, with which it is skirted, their numbers often darken the air, and the sound of their wings resembles the roaring of a storm. The flesh of some of them is greatly esteemed, and the eggs are an excellent food. Eagles of the largest size are common throughout Scandinavia, but more numerous in Norway than in Sweden. Fish abounds on the coast, but the existence of the sea serpent is now considered by naturalists as extremely problematical, and the kraken mentioned by Pontoppidon, and other writers, as well as the mermen and mermaids, and other strange monsters of the Norwegian seas, are classed among the imaginary beings, produced by ignorance and credulity.

Norway presents many singular features of nature. The most remarkable is the Maelstrom or Muskoestrom a tremendous whirlpool, formed by the local position of the island of Muskoe and the adjacent coast. During about a quarter of an hour, at the turn of the ebb, and the flood, it is calm, but while the tide is rising and falling its noise is heard at the dis-

* Coxe's Travels, vol. 5, p. 18.

tance of several leagues, and it forms a dreadful vortex, into which ships are inevitably drawn and instantaneously shivered into fragments. The whale in spite of his struggles is often sucked into this vortex, and when it is violently agitated, vessels are sometimes attracted from an incredible distance. On the south of the Ferroe isles there is another whirlpool of a similar nature. The numerous picturesque views in Norway might be considered as natural curiosities by a traveller unaccustomed to such romantic scenery. There are many stupendous caverns; and mountains have sometimes been split or engulfed by subterraneous waters. Busching relates that in 1703, a farm in the province of Christiana was swallowed up with all its buildings, and that a chasm full of ruins and sands now occupies its place.

Copenhagen, the capital of Denmark is delightfully situated on the eastern coast of the isle of Zealand, about twenty five miles to the south of the noted passage into the Baltic called the sound. It is between four and five miles in circuit, regularly fortified, and contains about 82,000 inhabitants, exclusive of the sailors' quarters and four regiments of soldiers. The streets are divided by canals, which facilitate the conveyance of goods, but the foot paths are narrow and inconvenient. Copenhagen is the best built city in the north of Europe; but it is a place of no great antiquity, being founded A. D. 1169. It originally consisted of little more than a castle for the protection of shipping against pirates, who were then very numerous. Great numbers of people soon resorted thither, and from a few fishermen's huts it became a large trading town. It was twice taken, plundered and almost destroyed by the Lubeckers in 1242 and 1248, and twice by the Hanseatic fleets in 1361 and 1369, and was not made the capital of Denmark before 1443. Roschild an inland town in the same isle of Zealand had till that time been the metropolis.

Bergen is situated in a valley, on a small semicircular bay of the sea. Its trade is considerable, and its exports consist chiefly of fish, hides, and timber. The population is 19,000. This city being in former times wholly, and at present chiefly constructed of wood, has dreadfully suffered by repeated con-

flagrations. Since the year 1248, it has been no less than six times almost totally destroyed, the last conflagration being in 1771. Since that period, many of the houses and all the churches have been built of stone. Bergen was founded A. D. 1070.

Drontheim the most northern town of any note in the world except Tornea and Archangel, being situated in $63^{\circ} 20'$ north latitude, was the residence of the ancient kings of Norway. Its present population is computed at about 8000, and its trade is inconsiderable, although it exports some timber, fish, and tallow, and a small amount of copper, from the mines of Medal and Roras. It was anciently called Nidaros from the river Nid on which it is situated, and was founded about A. D. 997.

The castle of Cronberg, at Elsineur, commands the strait of the Sound, which is four miles across to Helsingors in Sweden. Here, all vessels passing the Sound pay a toll which is fixed by precise regulations. This castle mounts 365 pieces of cannon, and has subterraneous apartments for a regiment of soldiers. It was formerly esteemed impregnable, and supposed to be capable of preventing the entrance of any hostile fleet into the Baltic, but the British Admirals Nelson and Parker, passed it in safety, without deigning to return a shot.

Besides the islands which constitute the principal seat of the Danish monarchy, there are many smaller ones. Off the western coast of Jutland, are several, which are chiefly remarkable for the disasters they have suffered from the ravages of the ocean. The isle of Nortstrand was on the 11th of October, 1634, almost totally swallowed up. The sea rushing in with irresistible fury, entirely submerged the lower parts of the island, and swept away 1,332 houses, 6,400 persons, and about 50,000 head of cattle. Almost the whole coast of Norway is skirted with a continued series of small and unimportant isles, in general mountainous, like the opposite shores, with precipitous rocks and a deep sea dashing against their bases. These rocky islands form numerous and romantic groupes, separated by a multitude of narrow creeks, overshadowed by vast heights, and most of them uninhabited, except by innumerable flocks of sea fowl. Even those that are peopled and cultivated are of little importance.

The large and celebrated island of Iceland is worthy of more attention. Its length from east to west is about 260 miles, by about 200 in breadth from north to south, but its inhabitants are supposed not to exceed 50,000. The face of the country is mountainous, and the soil in general barren. The interior is very imperfectly known, but, according to the best information, the principal chain of mountains runs from the south east to the north west. Its most elevated peaks are covered with perpetual snow. Among these, Snæfel, or the snowy mountain is the highest. Its elevation is, according to Pennant, supposed to be about 2,286 yards. Several of the Icelandic mountains are volcanic, among which that of Hecla is the most famous. It rises to the height of about 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, and its summit is always covered with snow, except in those parts where it is melted by the subterraneous heat. The craters are numerous, although the eruptions are not frequent, none having happened from 1693 to 1766, when it emitted flames accompanied with a torrent of lava. The rivers are, from the limited extent of the country, confined to a short course; chiefly rising in the central ridge, and running to the northern coast. The boiling springs of Iceland are remarkable, particularly that of Geysir, which rising from an aperture of nineteen feet in diameter, springs up at intervals to the height of from fifty to ninety feet. The climate of Iceland is stormy, but the cold is less intense than might be expected from its situation, the northern extremity of the island reaching to the arctic circle. The vegetable productions of a climate and soil like that of Iceland, can neither be numerous nor abundant; although in fertile spots vegetation is rapid, as in other high northern latitudes. Wood does not thrive, and very few trees of any kind are to be seen in the island, though the quantities found in many places under ground, and sometimes at a considerable depth, afford an indication that it was once more abundant. A similar fact is observed in the Hebrides, the Orkneys, the isles of Shetland, and the bogs of Ireland. Corn cannot be cultivated to advantage in Iceland, as the crops are unproductive, and ripen with difficulty. There are some tolerable pastures, but the cattle are

of a diminutive size, and the horses in particular remarkably small. The surrounding seas afford abundance of fish, especially of Cod, which contributes in no small degree to the support of the inhabitants, and constitute an article of their trade.

Some have pretended, that Iceland was originally peopled from Scotland or Ireland, but these accounts are founded on no credible authority. All that we know from authentic documents, is, that about A. D. 874, a colony of Norwegians, discontented with the proceedings of their king Harold Harfager, retired into Iceland, where they formed an aristocratic republic. In 1070, Christianity is said to have been introduced into the island. The Icelanders, whose country afforded few incitements to avarice or ambition, continued during the space of almost two centuries under their aristocratical government, independent of any foreign powers, and the kings of Norway, by whose subjects it had been peopled, cared little to assert a barren sovereignty over it till the year 1261, when Haquin reduced it under his subjection. From that time it became an appendage to Norway, and with it, was annexed to Denmark.

A country so sequestered from the rest of the world, could afford little matter for political annals. But it is a singular circumstance in the history of literature, that, from the eleventh to the fourteenth century, learning flourished in Iceland more than in any other country of northern Europe. This literary phenomenon seems to have originated from the remote and sequestered situation of that island, removed as it was from the incessant revolutions and political convulsions with which other countries were agitated. Poetry seems to have flourished at an early period among the Icelanders. A college or school was founded at Scalholt; and soon afterwards four other institutions were established, for the instruction of youth in the latin language, theology, and some branches of philosophy. Among other valuable works, Iceland has produced the Edda, and from that source is derived all our knowledge of the Gothic mythology. From the Icelandic chronicles the Swedes, the Danes and the Norwegians, draw their chief intelligence relative to their ancient history. The Landamna

which records the names and the property of the original settlers, with the circumstances attending the distribution of that barbarian colony is an unique and valuable work. Even at present, the Icelanders are far from being immersed in ignorance, as the rarity of their intercourse with the rest of the world might lead us to imagine. A late intelligent traveller informs us, that he found more knowledge among the lower classes in Iceland, than is to be met with in most other countries, and that almost every peasant is well acquainted with the principles of religion, and the history of his country; a circumstance not to be generally observed in more opulent and polished nations.

Iceland was, four or five centuries ago, in a much more flourishing state than at present. This change, in its condition, is to be ascribed to a variety of circumstances—with many of which, the present age is not particularly acquainted. The principal causes, however, seem to have been the natural poverty, and rigorous climate, of the country. That such remote spots as Icolm Kill, and Iceland, should, by serving as places of refuge from political troubles, become the flourishing seats of learning and piety, is not surprising; and it is to be expected, that it should be neglected and almost forsaken, when countries more favoured by nature, being no longer agitated by the barbaric convulsions of the Gothic ages, enjoy tranquillity and attend to improvement. Iceland, in consequence of its physical circumstances, has more than once been subjected to all the horrors of famine. These calamities have often been caused, by the immense quantities of ice drifting on its shores from Greenland; which sometimes remaining unthawed during many months, and even during the whole summer, not only prevent all supplies from abroad, by rendering the coast of difficult and dangerous access, but put an entire stop to the fishing; and, at the same time, generate a cold, so excessive as to destroy all vegetation, and prove fatal to animal life.* The numerous bears which arrive with the ice, are

* In 1756, the drift ice on the northern coast, prevented any supply from being received, and caused a famine, of which many perished.—Copenhagen Gazette, apud *And. Hist. Comm.* vol. 1, p. 327.

also extremely destructive to cattle. This island has at various times suffered greatly by epidemical diseases. In the beginning of the fifteenth century, it was almost depopulated by a kind of pestilence, called the black death, and the small pox has since made terrible ravages. From these circumstances, it is no wonder that the country is thinly peopled, and its commerce of no great importance. The persons of the inhabitants are of a middle size, and well made, but not very strong. Their living is poor, consisting of milk, fish, vegetables, &c. with some meat, but very little bread. Their manners are simple and inoffensive—they are strongly attached to their poor country, and never think of emigration or travelling.

The history of Denmark, like that of the other northern countries, was, till a late period, involved in obscurity. The Cimbrian Chersonese, comprising Sleswick, Holstein, and Jutland, was known to the Romans;* and the earliest information concerning the islands in the Baltic, which constitute the chief seat of the Danish monarchy, is derived from Tacitus, who describes them as inhabited by the Suiones. He also adds, that they lived under a monarchical government. The original population of Denmark, seems to have been the Cimbri, or Celts, the ancestors of the modern Welch. On the progress of the Goths from the east, the Cimbri were expelled, and obliged to go in quest of new settlements. During the first six or seven centuries of the Christian æra, the Danes and their history seem to have been totally forgotten.

The depredations and conquests of the Danes and Norwegians, in the southern countries of Europe, constitute the most important, although not the most pleasing part of their history. In modern times, they have never been an object of terror to the southern powers, nor had any preponderating influence in the political scale. But their piratical expeditions long agitated the maritime countries of Europe; and their regular invasions were the cause of considerable revolutions. They made complete conquests of England and Ireland, with the Hebrides, the Orkneys, and the isles of Shetland, as well

* Tacit. de moribus Germanovum, cap. 44.

as of Normandy, in France: in Italy they obtained a permanent establishment, and founded a kingdom in Sicily. Their daring enterprizes, their horrible ravages, and their romantic successes, have been commemorated by the historians of those countries, and delineated in a masterly manner by Gibbon. The Danes and Norwegians, united with the Saxons, were expelled from the north of Germany, by the victorious arms of Charlemagne; and a mass of adventurers, from the maritime provinces of Sweden, known by the different appellations of Danes, in England—Easterlings in Ireland—Normans in France—and Varagians in the East, are included in one general representation. If we believe, as some have done, that the Varagians, who subdued the Slavonian states of Novogorod, and Kiof, founded the Russian empire—extended their conquests from the Gulph of Findland to the Euxine—and carried devastation to the gates of Constantinople, issued from the same barbaric source with the hordes, who, about the same period, rendered themselves so terrible to the countries bordering on the ocean and the Mediterranean, we cannot contemplate, without astonishment, the prodigious revolutions effected by those Scandinavian adventurers.

The Danes began their piratical excursions about the year 517; but these were neither frequent nor formidable till the reign of Charlemagne, and his conquest of Saxony. Immediately after that epoch, they became terrible to all Europe. Their vessels, though carrying sometimes 100 men, were small, and of a slight construction. With these, however, they were able to ascend the rivers, and ravage the interior parts of the country. Of their descents and ravages, we find numerous instances in the histories of France and England. Their first expeditions were, perhaps, excited by the poverty of their country—inadequate to the support of an increasing population; but having declared themselves the allies of the Saxons, and being strengthened as well as stimulated by them, they began to appear with formidable armaments. They soon proved so successful, that their system of piracy began to be considered both advantageous and honourable. The princes and nobles of Denmark and Norway, vied with each other

in similar undertakings, from which they began at last to aspire to permanent conquests. From the ninth, to the eleventh century, the histories of Europe are filled with accounts of their transactions. When we consider the rapid succession of their armaments, and the enormous numbers of those adventurers in different parts of Europe, it naturally excites our astonishment that Scandinavia and the Danish islands in the Baltic, could furnish armies of so much power. The great populousness of these countries, at that æra, is affirmed by Mezerai, the French historian. The inhabitants, he says, incited by the hope of plunder, enlisted in such numbers in those expeditions, and in the end, so many of them were either destroyed, or settled in other countries, that Scandinavia remains unpeopled to this day. But the Scandinavian territories have certainly had sufficient time to recruit their population, since the period in which they poured out their predatory swarms. Mezerai, however, makes another remark, extremely consistent with probability, that "all the dissolute French, and many of a like description, belonging to other countries, joined them." This was no unusual circumstance, in the irregular wars of the middle ages. The people being oppressed, under the feudal system, and trained to deeds of rapine and blood, in the frequent baronial wars, every country contained numbers of dissolute and desperate men, ready to join any party, and to engage in any enterprise that afforded a prospect of plunder. There is little doubt that numbers of profligates, and desperadoes of various nations, contributed to augment the Danish armies. Historians inform us, that in the reign of King Alfred, bands of English freebooters used to ravage the country, under the disguise of Danish soldiers.

It would be equally tedious and useless, to enter into a narrative of those barbarian wars. One circumstance rendered the Danish wars peculiarly embarrassing; no lasting peace could, on any terms, be concluded with these invaders. The faithlessness of the Danes, and their violation of the most solemn treaties, are remarked by all historians. The same observations have been made on the Saxons who invaded Britain; and such appears to have been the case with most of the bar-

barians who overturned the Roman empire. To account for this circumstance, it is necessary to remark, that it was not, perhaps, so much to be ascribed to any extraordinary perfidiousness of these nations, as to the nature of their expeditions. These, at least for a long time, were not national concerns, but the enterprises of private adventurers, undertaken at their own expense and risk—and for their own emolument. When, therefore, a treaty was concluded with one of their leaders, it was not regarded as binding, by the next invaders; and, as they followed one another in constant succession, no permanent peace could be established.

Christianity began to be propagated in Denmark about the commencement of the ninth century, by missionaries from Hamburg; but it was not fully established till the reign of Canute the Great, king of England, Denmark, and Norway, when it was followed by its general consequences—the cessation of piracy and rapine—and the diffusion of industry, commerce and civilization. The Danes then began to carry on their wars on the same principles as other Christian nations; and we hear no more of their predatory inroads, and their sanguinary massacres.* Canute the Great, was succeeded by his son Harold, who reigned only two years. Canute IV., brother of the last mentioned king, then ascended the throne. This prince greatly augmented the power and authority of the clergy in Denmark, and introduced the system of tythes into his dominions; a measure which, in some parts of the country, excited great discontent. An insurrection having, on this account taken place in Jutland, the king was there massacred in 1087, and the clergy placed him in the number of saints. They were indeed bound, in gratitude, to honor with a place in the calender, one who died a martyr in their cause. Eric II., who reigned from 1095 to 1105, captured the rich and powerful city of Julien, in Pomerania, and died in his pilgrimage to Jerusalem. Waldemar I., after a series of civil wars, with two competitors for the crown, began his reign in 1157—was successful in his wars against the Wends, or Slavonic inhabitants

* Rapin, vol. 1, Reigns of Ethelred and Canute.

of Pomerania, and died in 1182. Waldemir II. was, in the beginning of his reign, exceedingly prosperous and powerful. He conquered the greatest part of Livonia and Esthonia.—The Danish empire, at that period, comprised almost all the eastern and southern shores of the Baltic. But Waldemir, by his misconduct, lost a great part of his dominions. The Count de Schuvrin, on taking a journey to the holy land, committed his estate and his wife to the king's care during his absence. But Waldemir having seduced the countess, her husband, on his return, seized the king's person by stratagem, detained him three years in prison, and at last obliged him to pay a large sum, for his ransom. During the king's confinement, Pomerania, Mecklenburg, Lubec, and Dantzick, revolted. Adolphus, Count de Schauvemburg, seized on Holstein, and the Knights of the Cross, took possession of Esthonia, and Livonia. Waldemir, however, having towards the end of his reign, recovered Esthonia, and the town of Revel, died A. D. 1227. From this period, to the accession of Waldemir III., the Danish history displays only a series of troubles, and scenes of confusion. Intestine commotions, revolts, massacres, and assassinations, constitute its distinguishing features. Eric V., son of Waldemir, was assassinated by Abel, his brother, in 1250. Christopher I., was taken off by poison, in 1286, and Eric, his successor, was, in the same year, massacred by some of the nobles. During these troubles, the kingdom was split into so many divisions, that the regal authority was almost annihilated. The nobles and prelates, had acquired a domineering ascendancy, while the sovereign was left almost without either power or territory.

The anarchy, which prevailed in the kingdom, at last induced the Danes to elect for their king Waldemir, the son of Christopher II., their last monarch. This prince, ascended the throne of Denmark, in 1341. He retrieved, in a great measure, the affairs of the kingdom, and restored internal tranquillity. He also took, and plundered the great mercantile town of Wisbug, in the isle of Gothland, from whence he carried off a great booty; a circumstance, which involved him in a war with the Hanse Towns. These commercial states, entered

into an alliance with the king of Norway, the duke of Mecklenburg, and the earl of Holstein, and with their united fleets, took and destroyed Copenhagen, which however, was at that time, a place of little importance. The marriage of Margaret, daughter of this prince, Waldemir III., with Haguin VI., king of Norway, produced the famous union of the three northern crowns, regulated by the treaty of Calmar. Sweden soon found reasons for renouncing the union, founded on this treaty, but Denmark, and Norway, constitute to this day, only one monarchy.

Although, after the establishment of Christianity in Denmark, the Danes no more molested the southern parts of Europe, they were in general masters of the navigation and trade of the Baltic. No other power but the Hanse Towns, could contest with them that pre-eminence. In this respect, the situation of the Danish islands is extremely advantageous. Masters of the passages into the Baltic, the kings of Denmark, as early as the middle of the fourteenth century, began to impose a toll on all shipping entering the Sound. Since that time, they have had frequent disputes with foreign nations, on this subject, arising from the arbitrary augmentation of the toll. The continuance of these exactions, at last obliged England, France, and Holland, to unite in 1659, for fixing the amount of tolls, and a certain rate was established, which, was never to be augmented, in respect to these three nations. It has already been seen, that till the reign of Waldemir II., the Danes were extremely powerful, possessing almost all the shores of the Baltic, and had acquired considerable wealth. The principal source of the riches of Denmark at that period, appears to have been the herring fishery, on the coast of Schonen. At present, nothing is known of this famous fishery, the great current of herrings, having through causes unknown to naturalists, long since changed its course.

Frederic, duke of Holstein, was elected king of Denmark, in 1523, and dying in 1533, was succeeded by his son. Christian III., who, meeting with great opposition from the clergy, introduced the Lutheran religion into Denmark and Norway. Christian III. died in 1558, and was succeeded by his son

Frederic II., who carried on a war of nine years, against Sweden, in which both sides greatly suffered. Frederic, dying in 1588, Christian IV. his son and successor, involved himself in the troubles of Germany, in which he was unsuccessful, as well as in his wars with Sweden. But the reign of Frederic III., his son, who ascended the throne of Denmark in 1649, was particularly distinguished by a bloody and unsuccessful contest with Sweden. In this war, Charles Gustavus, or Charles X., king of Sweden, taking advantage of the severe winter of 1657, marched his army over the ice from Jutland, to the island of Funen, and from thence, over the Great Belt, which is about twenty miles broad, into Zealand. He then laid siege to Copenhagen, but Frederic defended his capital with great vigour, till a treaty was concluded at Ronschild. The conditions, however, being extremely disadvantageous to Denmark, the Swedes were no sooner departed, than the king began to take measures for eluding its execution. But the Swedish monarch, with admirable celerity, disconcerted his plans, and immediately returning into Zealand, reduced the castle of Cronenberg, and again besieged Copenhagen by land, while his fleet blockaded it by sea. The king of Denmark, displayed in these difficult circumstances, an unshaken firmness, and the citizens made an obstinate defence, till a Dutch fleet arriving in the Baltic, engaged, and defeated that of Sweden. The scale was now turned in favour of the Danes. Frederic, who on every occasion, displayed great abilities, gained many signal advantages over the enemy. The king of Sweden, was obliged to raise the siege of Copenhagen; and soon found himself in a difficult situation. At this juncture, an English fleet appeared in the Baltic, which enabled him to recommence for the third time, the siege of the Danish capital. But through the mediation of England and France, a peace was concluded in 1659, by which the island of Bornholm was restored to the Danes, and the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Schonon, with the island of Rugen, ceded to Sweden. The Danes had, during the space of three centuries, been in possession of Schonon, and consequently masters of both sides of the Sound.

This peace was followed by a revolution of an extraordinary nature : an elective and limited monarchy was rendered hereditary, and absolute, not by the force or intrigues of the monarch, but by the voluntary act of the people. The Danish monarchy, like those of Sweden and Poland, had hitherto been constituted on Gothic principles. The crown was elective, and the legislative power as well as the right of electing the sovereign, remained in the states, which originally consisted of two orders, the nobility and the deputies of the people. The establishment of Christianity occasioned the introduction of a third order, that of the clergy. These orders had their respective rights and privileges, while the crown had also its prerogatives and fixed revenues, arising from the demesne lands. But afterwards, when standing armies took place of the feudal levies, it was necessary to have recourse to various modes of taxation, to defray the public expenditure. The representatives of the people in the barbarous period of the middle ages, being greatly inferior in credit, talents, and influence, to the two superior orders, were unable to counteract the efforts of the nobility and clergy, who divested the crown of its prerogatives, and tyrannized over their inferiors. Such was the original form of government among all the Gothic nations, after their establishment on the ruins of the Roman empire ; and such was its progress in each, till a certain period, when commerce diffused wealth, and civilization produced political refinement and civil equity. At this period a series of unsuccessful wars had so greatly impoverished Denmark, that the nation was unable to raise money for paying the arrears of the army. The nobility had always been exempt from taxation, but the commons wished, in the present exigencies of the state, to abolish that exemption ; and the Lutheran clergy, who had been divested of the power and influence which their Catholic predecessors had possessed, joined with the commons. In a meeting of the states, therefore, it was proposed that the nobles should bear their share of the public burden. Upon this, Otto Craig, one of the nobles, insultingly desired the commons to recollect that they were only slaves to the lords. Nanson, the speaker of the commons, immediately replied, exclaiming with

indignation against the expression applied to them, and the assembly broke up in a ferment. The commons and the clergy having chosen the bishop of Copenhagen for their speaker, waited on the king with a formal proposal to render his authority absolute, and his crown hereditary. The monarch received the proposal with rapture, and promised the people all the benefits of royal protection. Prompt and decisive measures were taken for carrying the plan into execution. The gates of Copenhagen were immediately shut, and the nobles thus surprised and inclosed, had no other alternative than unconditional submission. Three separate acts were then drawn up, and signed by each of the three orders, in which renouncing all constitutional rights, privileges, and claims, they invested the king with absolute authority, and declaring the throne hereditary, gave him the full power of regulating the succession.*

This important and singular revolution took place in 1661. The people, however, obtained from it very little benefit, except that of seeing the nobility reduced to the same state of abject submission as themselves. All the advantage was on the side of the King, who thus gained without blood-shed, a decisive victory over a formidable aristocracy. This prince was, in 1670, succeeded by his son Christian V., who recommencing hostilities against Sweden, invaded the province of Schonen where he was for some time successful, but was totally defeated at the bloody battle of Lunden by Charles XI.; Christian however, still continuing the war, was again entirely defeated at Landscroon, and after having exhausted his resources in military operations, although Denmark had gained considerable advantages by sea, he was at length obliged to obtain peace by the restoration of all the conquests he had made in Schonen, after which he became a subsidiary of Louis XIV., and died in 1690. He was succeeded by Frederic IV., whose wars carried on in conjunction with Saxony, and Russia, against Charles XII., king of Sweden, are related in the historical sketch of that country. A general peace being con-

* Puffend. vol. 2, ch. 9.

cluded between those powers, Denmark, after a series of bloody and destructive wars with Sweden, began to enjoy the sweets of a settled tranquillity, which has not since been materially interrupted. In the year 1728, this kingdom experienced a dreadful domestic misfortune, in the almost total destruction of its capital by an accidental conflagration. This misfortune, however, like many others of a similar nature, has redounded to the benefit of posterity, in rendering the new city more elegant and commodious. Copenhagen is now one of the handsomest and most uniform cities in the north of Europe.

Frederic III. dying 1730, his successors Christian VI. and Frederic V. by adhering to a pacific system, promoted the happiness of their subjects, and the same plan has been in general continued, during the present reign. Christian VII., the present king of Denmark, espoused the Princess Caroline Matilda, youngest sister of his Britannic majesty. From the most authentic accounts, it appears, that soon after their union, a plot had been formed for the ruin of this amiable princess. The dowager queen, endeavoured to sow the seeds of dissension between the royal pair. By an appearance of friendship, she gained the confidence of the young queen, and then, by an aggravated detail of the faults and failings of the king, excited her to reproach him gently with his misconduct. Her next step, was to persuade the king, not to listen to the counsels of his royal consort, representing it as an unpardonable presumption in a queen of Denmark, to assume the authority of directing the king. Count Brandt, a Danish nobleman, and the celebrated Struensee, who being originally a physician of Altona, had, by his talents and address, risen to the post of principal minister of Denmark, were then his majesty's chief favourites, and both of them professed a great deference for the queen. These circumstances, opened a new scene of intrigue at the Danish court. Struensee and Brandt, attempted a variety of reforms in the administration of public affairs, and experienced the common lot of reformers, in being exposed to the virulence of faction, and the murmurs of popular discontent. The discarded placemen, and disappointed courtiers, assiduously paid their court

to the dowager queen. A variety of false, and injurious reports were now propagated against the governing party, and Struensee's ministerial and military reforms were represented as attempts to destroy the whole system of the government. The plans of this minister were certainly rational, and calculated for the public good, had they been more cautiously conducted, and introduced with less precipitation. His principal fault as a statesman, was temerity. He wished to operate immediately, a change that ought to have been gradual.

The dowager queen, and her partizans, having often deliberated on the measures proper to be taken, in order to accomplish their designs, it was at length resolved to surprise the king in the night, and oblige him to sign an order for committing the queen, Brandt and Struensee to prison. After this, accusations of high treason were to be brought forward against them, and, among other charges, that of having formed a design of poisoning, or dethroning the king. In addition to these accusations, witnesses were to be procured, to prove a criminal intercourse between the queen, and Struensee. On the morning of the 17th of January, 1772, this desperate scheme was carried into execution. A ball had been given at court the preceding evening, at which, both the king and queen had been present. About four in the morning, the queen dowager, accompanied by Prince Frederic, who had also been at the ball, General Lichstedt, and Count Rantzau went to the king's bed-chamber, and abruptly awaked him. They had previously reflected that the surprise and alarm which so unexpected an intrusion must necessarily excite, would be favourable to their design, and hastily informed him, that the queen, with Strunsee and Brandt, having formed a conspiracy to dethrone him, were at that moment preparing an act of renunciation, which they would compel him to sign, and that the only means he had left for preserving his crown and his life, was instantly to sign the orders which they had brought for arresting the parties. The king, for a long time, refused to sign the orders; but at last, overcome by their instances, and alarmed by their representations of his danger, he complied with hesitation and reluctance. Count Rantzau,

with three officers, instantly proceeded to the queen's apartments, and arrested her, in pursuance to his orders. Struensee and Brandt, were nearly at the same moment, seized in their beds. The brother of Struensee, with most of the members of administration, and others of their friends, to the number of eighteen persons, were all arrested before morning. Struensee and Brandt, were confined in the citadel, and loaded with irons. Their imprisonment was rigorous, and, after having undergone long and repeated examinations, both received sentence of death. On the 28th of April, these two once powerful courtiers, expiated on the scaffold, by amputation of the right hand, and decapitation, their real, or supposed crimes. The whole of this mysterious affair, is involved in impenetrable obscurity ; and can be developed, only, by Him, who sees in its true colours every human transaction.

After this unfortunate transaction, the powers of government appeared to be lodged, entirely, in the hands of the dowager queen and her son, who in his majesty's name transacted all public affairs. All the persons concerned in the revolution were promoted ; and a total change took place in every department of the administration. The Danish government had constantly avoided taking any part in the troubles of Europe, till the misunderstanding which took place, in 1800, between Great Britain and Russia. At that time, Denmark was drawn into the vortex of French and Russian politics, which then coincided. On this occasion, the British fleet, under admirals Nelson and Parker, having forced a passage through the Sound, destroyed a great part of the Danish fleet on the 2d of April, 1801, and bombarded Copenhagen. The Danes were left to support, alone, the tremendous attack of the British fleet. On that memorable day, however, they displayed the most dauntless intrepidity. The citizens of Copenhagen flew to their posts, where they behaved in a manner that would have done honour to regular soldiers. Nobles, mechanics, and shopmen, volunteered to defend the block ships, and all ranks of people vied with each other in bravery. The combat was of short duration ; but sanguinary almost beyond example. The Danes being fully convinced of the

impossibility of resisting the naval force of Great Britain ; a cessation of arms took place, and matters were happily adjusted. Previous to that period, the present prince royal of Denmark, had signalised his administration, by measures that contributed greatly to the welfare of his country. The emancipation of the peasantry ; the abolition of the slave trade, in the Danish colonies ; the liberal encouragement of letters, sciences, and arts ; the prudent measures taken for the promotion of industry, as well as for the diffusion of knowledge ; all concur to do honour to his character. During the short war, in which Denmark was engaged with Great Britain, she lost her West India islands, and her settlement of Tranquebar, on the coast of Coromandel. On the conclusion of peace, however, these were restored. Denmark soon retrieved her misfortune, and again saw her commerce flourish. During the first years of the present contest, between Great Britain and France, she continued to preserve her judicious system of neutrality. After the treaty of Tilsit, however, in 1807, the English government, apprehensive lest the Danish fleet might fall into the hands of France, determined to take possession of it. A powerful armament was therefore fitted out. Copenhagen surrendered, after a short resistance. Part of the town was destroyed ; the ships of war, and a vast quantity of military and naval stores, were carried off, and the maritime power of Denmark, was thus, probably, forever crippled.

The ancient history of Norway, is very imperfectly known, although the annals of most countries of Europe, commemorate the predatory expeditions of its hardy inhabitants, while those of France and Italy, as well as of Ireland, and the Scottish isles, record their more permanent conquests. The original population of this country, was probably Finnish, but the Fins were subdued by the Goths, who made a conquest of all Scandinavia. Till the ninth or tenth century, Norway, like other barbarous countries, was divided into a number of petty principalities, or kingdoms. The seat of the principal monarchy, was originally around the place, where now stands the city of Christiana, and it was gradually extended, till about

the year 910, when Harold Harfager, became king of all Norway.

About A. D. 874, Iceland was peopled from Norway, and in 982 the Icelanders discovered Greenland, which was long supposed to be an island, but is now well known to be a part of the continent of America. Columbus has the merit, and the glory of the important discovery of America, which has operated great changes in the political, commercial, and social system of Europe; but the Norwegian Icelanders, had visited this continent five centuries before, and were the first Europeans who discovered its shores. Christianity was established in Norway, in the reign of Olaus I., about 990. Olaus II. or St. Olaus, reigned from 1014 to 1030. Harold III. his son and successor, aspired to the English crown, and was slain in battle against Harold, king of England in 1066. Magnus V. in 1266, surrendered the Hebrides to Scotland. In 1367, Norway was united to Denmark, at which period its history sinks into that of the latter country.

h The religion of the Danish monarchy is Lutheranism. The hierarchy consists of twelve bishops, six in Denmark four in Norway, and two in Iceland. Many of the parochical livings are poor, but the poverty of the inferior clergy is in some measure compensated by the respect in which they are held by the people. The people of Denmark possess a great advantage in the simplicity, and precision of their laws, which are chiefly comprised in the code of Christian V. consisting of only one moderately sized volume. By this brevity and simplicity, the Danes are freed from those tedious and expensive litigations, and that endless train of chicanery so common in many of the southern countries of Europe. No parent can disinherit a child without a decree of the king in council. The criminal laws are lenient to a fault, but the game laws are severe, shooting being absolutely prohibited.

The army is computed at 70,000 men, of which Denmark furnishes 40,000 and Norway the rest.

The Danish navy formerly consisted of about thirty ships of the line manned with 11,000 seamen and 5000 marines. But it is now annihilated.

The annual revenue was computed at about 1,500,000*l.* sterling. The toll of ships passing the sound amounted on an average to the annual sum of 122,550*l.* The national debt was about 2,600,000*l.*

The Danish commerce was lately in an improving state. The greatest part of the exports, consist of native produce, of which, corn is a considerable article. Holstein affords a supply of horses and cattle to Holland. Timber, iron, and copper, with some silver, and considerable quantity of hides, particularly those of the goat, are the principal exports of Norway; those of Iceland, consist chiefly of dried fish, salmon, falcons, eider down, and brimstone. The acquisition of Altona, and the opening of the Holstein canal, which unites the Baltic with the German Ocean have greatly contributed to increase the trade of Denmark.

The manufactures of Denmark, are neither numerous nor important. The royal manufactures of Copenhagen, employ about 400 looms, in the fabrication of woollen cloths of various qualities. The improvements made by Count Roncellen, are more worthy of commemoration, than the destructive exploits of conquerors. That nobleman, has founded a village of 300 houses in North Jutland, and established manufactures of wool, iron, and leather.* He has also cut a canal of two miles in length, and constructed a wharf, and docks for building his own vessels, and exporting his own commodities. His agricultural improvements, also are conducted on a grand scale. Great things might be performed for the general benefit of the human species, if such examples were sufficiently imitated.

The population of the Danish dominion, is computed at 2,500,000.

The population, the revenues, and other resources of Denmark, plainly indicate that its political importance cannot be of any great weight in the balance of modern Europe. Her frindship or her enmity can only be of consequence from commercial circumstances, chiefly from her local position at

* Marshall, p. 2.

the entrance of the Baltic, and her command of the Sound. An alliance with that kingdom, would on this account, be equally advantageous to England, France, or Russia.

The Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic languages, as well as the German, Low Dutch, and Swedish, are dialects of the Gothic. But the Icelandic, is considered as the purest, and most ancient. The language of the Laplanders, is totally distinct from all these, and appears to be radically Finnish, with a few words borrowed from the Gothic.

Among all the northern nations, literature followed the introduction of Christianity: that of Denmark, cannot therefore boast of a higher antiquity, than the reign of Canute the Great, in the eleventh century. This circumstance easily accounts for the confusion and uncertainty of Danish and Norwegian history, till so late a period. The next century produced a literary phenomenon, in the celebrated Saxo Grammaticus, who, in an illiterate age, and a country scarcely emerged from barbarism, compiled a history of Denmark, which, although abounding with fables, displays a classical elegance of style, to which Europe, at that period, could bring forward nothing equal, or superior.

Sueno, being more concise, has a greater appearance of veracity, but his materials were necessarily drawn from the same source; uncertain chronicles, traditionary tales, and the songs of their bards. Such, indeed, composed the original basis of all primitive history. Norway, can boast of only a few native writers, and even these did not appear till a recent period. The more ancient Icelandic literature, so famed in history, is now extinct. After the general revival of letters, Denmark long continued to maintain that literary ascendancy over Sweden, which she had acquired at an early period; and the name of Tycho Brahe, is celebrated in the annals of astronomy, although his fanciful system is long since exploded. During the last century, however, Sweden has obtained the pre-eminence. The Danish literati, have almost exclusively confined themselves to the obscure paths of antiquarian research. Oeder, is distinguished as a botanist, and Niebuhr, as an intelligent traveller; but it would be difficult, to disco-

ver the name of an eminent philosopher, poet, or historian, in the literary annals of Denmark. In the polite arts, the Danes are extremely deficient.

The Danish universities are two ; those of Copenhagen and Kiel. There are also many Latin schools, maintained at the public expense. Denmark Proper, possesses nineteen—Holstein sixteen—Sleswick eleven—but in the wide extent of Norway, there are only four public schools, without any university, and only two in Iceland. There are also superior academies at Odensee, Soroe and Atlenzæ. The great business of popular education, although not conducted on a complete scale, by reason of the low salaries of teachers, is much better regulated than in the southern countries of Europe. Each parish is provided with two schools, where children are taught reading and writing, with the first principles of arithmetic. The masters of these seminaries, have salaries of about 12*l.* per annum, with some other small advantages. Salaries, so very trifling, must, in a great measure, defeat the end of these institutions, as they cannot suffice for the maintenance of the teachers, in a country, where, according to a late traveller, every thing is almost as dear as in England.* The Royal Academy of Sciences, was founded in 1742 ; and the Royal Society of Icelandic Literature in 1746. At Drontheim, in Norway, there is also a respectable institution, styled the Royal Society of Sciences.

The manners, of the superior orders in Denmark, differ little from those of the same classes in other parts of Europe. Through the patriotism and good sense of the prince royal, and the nobility ; the peasantry were some years ago emancipated, and the landholders have experienced the good effects of that measure, in the improvement, and advanced value of their estates. The nobility, indeed, have been as much benefited in the augmentation of their rents, as the peasants, in the enjoyment of liberty ; and both, have derived great advantage from the abolition of the old system of villainage. Mr. Coxe, describes the spirited, free, and open manners of

* Carr's Travels round the Baltic, p. 81.

the Norwegian peasantry, as well as their abundance of the comforts of life, in elevated strains. With all these advantages, however, their ordinary bread is of oatmeal, formed into flat cakes, and sometimes mixed with the pulverized inner bark of trees, as in Sweden. The Norwegians, are the strongest, and most robust of all the people of the North; and are remarkable for health and longevity: circumstances, which demonstrate both the salubrity of the climate, and the wholesomeness of their food.

The conversion of the Danish Laplanders to Christianity, appears to have been first attempted, about the year 1660, but with little success. A royal mission, however, being founded in 1714, Lapland is now Christianized. Their Christianity, indeed, is little more than nominal; many of their pagan superstitions yet remaining.

The Danes and Norwegians are naturally courageous, but they no longer possess that enterprising spirit, which distinguished their ancestors.

HELVETIC REPUBLIC, OR SWITZERLAND.

SWITZERLAND was anciently distinguished by the names of Helvetia and Rhetia. The districts which, ever since the famous revolution of 1308, have been comprehended under the collective name of Switzerland, are bounded on the west by France—on the south, and south east, by the kingdom of Italy—and on the north, and north east, by Germany. The extent, from east to west, is about 200, and from north to south about 130 miles.

No country, on the surface of the globe, exceeds Switzerland in the diversity of its appearance. The enormous chains of its towering Alps, with their tremendous precipices—regions of perpetual snow—and glaciers resembling seas of ice, form a sublime contrast to its luxuriant vineyards and cultivated fields, and its warm and verdant vallies, with their chrystal streams and tranquil cottages.

The mountains of Switzerland are supposed to be inferior to none in the world, except the Andes in South America. Mount Blanc, of which M. de Saussure first reached the summit, is generally thought to be the most elevated point of the old continent, being about 14,700, or 15,662 feet above the level of the sea. Enterprizing travellers have, in the last century, disclosed many of the wonders of the Alpine regions, and explored some of their most secret and tremendous recesses. Nothing, indeed, could be more tempting to adventurous curiosity. No description, however, that can be given, in any book of general geography, can convey just ideas of the Alpine regions.

The mountains of Switzerland would afford matter for volumes of description, but its rivers are a much less copious subject—for none of them are of any importance, in regard to navigation or trade, until they have passed the boundaries of this Alpine country. The Rhine and the Rhone, two of the principal rivers of Europe, with several others which they receive in their course, issue from the recesses of the Alps; and their

sources in the stupendous glaciers of those elevated regions, may be classed among the most magnificent scenes of nature.

The lakes of Switzerland are numerous. The most considerable are those of Constance and Geneva ; the former of which, is about forty-five miles in length, and nine at its greatest breadth. All the lakes in Switzerland swell in the summer, from the melting of the snow.

The soil of so mountainous a country, must necessarily exhibit every variety, from luxuriance to extreme sterility ; but it may be readily conceived that the latter predominates.

The climate has always been celebrated as delightful and salubrious ; but the winter is, in many parts, extremely severe, and the summer heats, in the deep valleys, are often oppressive. Cold gales, also, frequently descend from the Alps, which cause a sudden transition, apparently unfavourable to health. And it seems extremely probable, that the strong and robust constitution of the Swiss, proceeds as much from their temperance, and rural occupations, as from any particular salubrity of the climate. The goitre is prevalent in many parts of the Alpine districts. Switzerland, notwithstanding its contracted limits, exhibits all the variety of climate that distinguish the different countries of Europe. From the warm valleys, opening on the Italian frontier, to the Alpine summits, covered with glaciers and perpetual snow, the traveller experiences, in succession, the climates of Italy, France, and Lapland.

The productions of the soil are as various as the climate. In the lowest and warmest situations are numerous vineyards, abounding with the trees and plants of Italy, and the south of France. The lower declivities of the hills, which may not improperly be called the sub-Alpine regions, are diversified with cornfields and meadows, and the various kinds of trees that are seen in the south of England, and the northern and middle parts of France and Germany. Above these, on the still rising sides of the mountains, appear small woods of larch, of pine, and fir, and other natives of Scandinavia. But there is nothing that can be denominated a forest ; and such is the scarcity of wood, and even of turf, in Switzerland, that the dried dung of cattle is frequently used for fuel. These

upper woodlands, however, afford rich meadows, and fertile pastures—luxuriant in grass and clover, and embellished with an endless variety of mountain plants. Rising still higher towards the summits, extensive ranges of pasture grounds occur, to which the cattle are brought to graze, during two or three weeks, before and after midsummer. The last stage of vegetation, is a zone of rocky pasturage below the edge of the snow, covered with a short kind of turf. Here the effect of cold is strikingly displayed, and all the plants are alpine. In a country like Switzerland, tillage cannot be carried on to a great extent. Most kinds of grain, however, are cultivated. Barley and oats are produced in the higher—rye and wheat in the lower situations; but the crops are far from being productive, and public granaries have been found necessary, to supply any eventual deficiency. Industry is not wanting in Switzerland; but grazing is found more profitable than tillage. Pasturage, therefore, is the most important part of the system of Swiss farming; and their numerous herds of cattle, enable them to support large herds of swine, by means of the buttermilk and other refuse. Their cattle, indeed, are the principal support of the Swiss; and various preparations of milk, constitute a considerable part of the food, and even of the luxuries of their peasantry.

Almost the whole surface of the country, is an assemblage of natural curiosities. The stupendous summits of the Alps, clothed in eternal snow; the glaciers, or seas of ice, intersected with numerous deep fissures; the tremendous precipices; the descending torrents; the lakes and cataracts, are curiosities of a nature singularly sublime and striking. The avalanches, or masses of snow, which sometimes roll down from the mountains, and overwhelm whole villages, are extremely terrific. Instances, also, have occurred, of mountains bursting asunder, and burying whole villages in their fall.—Such was lately the case of Pleurs, near Chiavana, where the town was overwhelmed by the fall of a mountain, and thousands of the inhabitants perished. Recent instances also are known of similar, though less tremendous accidents. The glaciers have, of late, in a particular manner attracted the at-

tention of naturalists and travellers. That of the Rhone, is magnificent and sublime, beyond all the powers of description.

This world of wonder, the region of the Alps, is excellently displayed, in miniature, by the ingenuity and industry of General Plessier, who has accurately delineated the surface of the most mountainous district, in a model which deserves to be celebrated as an artificial curiosity, of the most interesting class. The length of the model is twenty feet, and the breadth twelve feet, exhibiting 203½ square leagues of country, in a parallelogram of 240 square feet. The composition is a sort of mastic, very hard and durable—and the whole is painted with different colours, so as to represent the objects exactly as they exist in nature. The woods of oak, pine, fir, &c. are clearly distinguished, and even the different strata of the rocks are marked. The plan is so minutely exact, that it comprises not only all the mountains, in their proportional elevations, with all the lakes, rivers, towns, villages, &c., but every village, every torrent, every bridge, and every road, is distinctly and accurately represented. This great work occupied General Plessier during the space of twenty years—from the fiftieth to the seventieth year of his life. It is unique in its kind, and highly merits the attention of the curious.

The ancient monuments of Switzerland are not numerous ; consisting of only a few Roman antiquities. But, of the middle ages, there are several interesting remains, such as Gothic castles, churches, and monasteries.

The original population of Switzerland, is, by some, supposed to have been Celtic ; but there is every reason to conclude, that the Helvetii were an ancient German colony, and of the Gothic race. The Helvetii, and the Rheti, having been conquered by Julius Cæsar, remained subject to the Romans, till the Allemanni, in the beginning of the fourth century, made an irruption into the country, and almost extirpated the former. It would be useless to trace the history of these obscure and unsettled times ; but it may not be amiss to mention, that, about the beginning of the seventh century, Christianity spread from France into Switzerland. In 909, the Hungarians, invading Germany, penetrated into Switzerland ; and

the country became a theatre of furious contests, during almost half a century—when, at last, these barbarians were expelled by the kings of Burgundy.

It appears that Switzerland was, afterwards, like the other countries of Europe, divided among a number of feudal lords, although considered as a part of Germany. About the year 1308, the Swiss, being grievously oppressed by the officers of the emperor Albert, of Austria, presented petitions to the imperial court, for a redress of grievances, which produced no other effect than an aggravation of their evils. Gresler, the governor, resolving to carry his wanton tyranny to the highest pitch, placed a hat on a pole, and commanded that the same respect should be paid to that symbol of his greatness, as to his own person. It was on this occasion, that, according to the commonly received account, the famous William Tell, having been observed to be deficient in respect, was, by the governor, condemned to be hanged, unless he could, with an arrow, cleave an apple on the head of his own son, placed at a certain distance. Tell performed the dreadful task, but the governor asking him why he had brought another arrow, which he observed stuck in his belt, the intrepid Swiss boldly answered, "This was intended for thy heart, had I been so unfortunate as to have killed my son." Having on this been imprisoned, he made his escape. Seizing the first favourable opportunity, he shot the tyrant; and, being joined by a patriotic band of his countrymen, laid the foundation of Swiss independence. Such is the generally received story; which, although commemorated by historians, and embellished by poets, is of doubtful credit, in regard to many of its circumstances. But it is certain that, about the æra just mentioned, the three cantons of Schwitz, Uri, and Underwalden, united together, for the purpose of mutual defence; and the house of Austria, being embarrassed by the factions which distracted the empire, was unable to make any vigorous efforts for their reduction. The confederated cantons, having subdued Glaris and Zug, admitted them to an equal participation of rights; and thus was gradually formed the Helvetic union, to which, in 1353, Bern also acceded. In 1383, Leopold, duke of Austria,

was defeated and slain, in attempting to reduce the Swiss to subjection; and, in 1471, they were still further strengthened, by an alliance with the Grisons, who had also revolted against the house of Austria. But the arms of the Swiss first began to be regarded as formidable, at the famous battle of Nancy, against that restless and warlike prince, Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, who was there defeated and slain.

In consequence of this victory, Swiss infantry began to be esteemed the best in Europe; foreign princes became desirous of employing them in their armies—and Louis XI., of France, took 6000 of them into his pay. His example has been imitated by his successors, as well as by other foreign powers.

The Swiss, have been frequently engaged in hostilities with the neighbouring powers, but without any important consequences. The principal events in their subsequent history, are, the introduction of the reformation; the revolt of the peasants of Bern, in the middle of the seventeenth century; and the late invasion, and conquest of their country by the French. In the first, the Swiss cantons acted a conspicuous part, and some of the principal reformers, as Zuinglius, Acolampadius, and others, were natives of this country. The result, however, although it produced a religious division among the cantons, did not dissolve their political union. The insurrection of the peasantry, was occasioned by their aristocratical form of government, which the people found extremely oppressive. Some of their grievances were redressed, but a rooted enmity seems to have subsisted, between the aristocratic, and the democratic orders, which in the end, contributed greatly to diminish that patriotism, for which the Swiss had formerly been so distinguished; and probably facilitated in no small degree the progress of the French arms, in the beginning of the year 1798. It could scarcely indeed be expected, that the cantons should be able without an ally, to withstand the overwhelming power of France; but it was also evident, that their resistance was extremely feeble, and shewed little of that energy, which formerly marked the Swiss character. The Bernese, alone, made a shew of resistance; but their soldiers, either wanting patriotism, or despairing of success, mutinied, de-

served their posts, and massacred some of their officers. The army was, by desertion, soon reduced to about half of the original number; and Bern surrendering by capitulation, to general Brune, all the other cantons submitted, without further resistance. The French, having thus made a complete conquest of Switzerland, changed the constitution, and even the name of the country. Provincial councils were established in different districts, and the cantons were incorporated under the name of the Helvetic republic.

The religion of some of the Swiss cantons, is the Catholic, and of others, that of Calvin. To the honour of the Swiss, it may be observed, that religious prejudices have little influence over their conduct; and that in general, the Catholics and Protestants, live together in a laudable state of unity.

The late Swiss constitution, resembled that of the United States of America; each canton, having its own constitution and laws, was independent in regard to its internal concerns; but all were united in one political confederacy. Of some, the government was aristocratical, in others, the democratical power prevailed. Since the conquest of the country, by the French, a new constitution has been modelled, apparently on the principles of the later periods of the Gallican republic.

Before the late conquest, the regular military force of the cantons, was computed at about 20,000 men; and there are said to have been twenty nine Swiss regiments in the service of foreign powers.

Commerce has never flourished to any great extent in this inland country. Cattle, constitute the chief produce, and cheese is one of the principal exports.

The manufacturing system is less attended to than it ought to be, considering the poverty and population of the country. Some manufactures, indeed, cannot be carried on to advantage, on account of the scarcity of fuel, but others might flourish. Linen, printed cottons, and silks, are fabricated, but in small quantities. Watches, are also a considerable article for sale, but in general, the manufactures of Switzerland are not important.

The whole population, is generally estimated at about 2,000,000; which gives about 130 inhabitants to each square mile, throughout the country.

The political importance, and relations of Switzerland, are merged in those of France ; and her dependence on that power, seems to be fixed, unless her emancipation should be effected by some unforeseen events.

The Swiss language, is a dialect of the German ; but the French is generally spoken among the gentry, and often employed by their best authors, as well as generally understood, throughout the republic.

In early times, Switzerland made no very conspicuous figure in literature, but since the revival of learning, and the reformation of religion, this country can boast of many eminent writers. Among the most distinguished, may be reckoned some of those of the last century ; as Haller ; Conrad Gesner, the natural philosopher ; Solomon Gesner, the poet ; Rousseau, and Neckar, natives of Geneva ; Bernouilli, and Euler, mathematicians ; Scheuchzer, the natural historian ; Zimmerman, the physician ; Leonard Meister, of Zurich ; and the famous Lavater, the physiognomist.

There is a university of considerable repute at Basle, and another at Geneva, with colleges at Bern, Zurich, and Lucerne.

The customs and habits of the Swiss, have been so often depicted, that the subject has become trite, and uninteresting. Among the superior classes, French manners preponderate. The houses of the peasantry are generally of wood, with the staircase on the outside, and are constructed in a style of simplicity, corresponding with that of their manners, as well as with the rude and romantic appearance of the country. The fabled happiness, and virtue of the Arcadian swains, approaches nearer to reality, among the Swiss peasantry, than any where else in Europe, and all travellers, represent this country as a model of moral beauty, as well as a subject of physical curiosity.

The Swiss are, in their persons, tall, and well made, robust, and handsome, and have long been esteemed for their fidelity, and courage. The Swiss regiments, in foreign service, have always been ranked among the best troops in Europe, and the issue of battles has often been decided by their bravery. Among the national characteristics, may be reckoned, an intense attachment to their native country.

AUSTRIA.

THE Austrian empire, is comprehended between 45°, and 52° north latitude, and between 12° and 27° east longitude ; and consists of the archduchy of Austria, the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary, the duchy of Transylvania, and the provinces of Slavonia, Croatia, and part of Dalmatia. The whole length of the Austrian empire, from the borders of Switzerland, to the frontier of Prussian Poland, is about 760 ; and its irregular breadth, about 250 miles. The original population, is a mixture of various races, but chiefly Gothic and Slavonic. The inhabitants of the Austrian dominions were always esteemed by the Romans, an exceedingly warlike race.

The face of the country, is in general, rather mountainous than level ; although it presents many extensive plains.

The Rhetian, or Tyrolese Alps, were well known to antiquity. They extend from south west, to north west, according to the general direction of the Alpine chains. They resemble the Alps of Switzerland, in possessing numerous glaciers, and other characteristic features.

Among the Austrian rivers, the majestic Danube, that celebrated boundary of the Roman empire, has, from its ancient fame—its length of course—and its importance to inland navigation and commerce, the principal claim to attention. This vast stream, rises in Suabia, pervades the Austrian empire almost in its greatest length, and is navigable through a prodigious extent of country. After a course of 1,300 miles, it discharges itself, by several mouths, into the Euxine Sea.

The Austrian empire far excels all other countries of Europe, in the variety and importance of its mineralogy. There is scarcely a province of this extensive territory, that cannot boast of its mineralogical riches. The mines of Bohemia, are of ancient celebrity. Silver, is found in many parts of that kingdom. But tin, is one of the principal productions of the Bohemian mines. There is at Dreyhacken, a mine of very pure copper. Quicksilver, lead, iron, magnet, alum, sulphur, vitriol, talc, terra sigillata and coal, are also reckoned

among the productions of Bohemia. Austria Proper, contains some mines of gold and alum, and furnishes saltpetre in great abundance. In 1754, a valuable mine of silver was opened in the southern parts of Austria. The iron of Stiria, supplies steel of the best quality, and great quantities of it are annually exported to England. The lead mines, near Pagau, yield annually, about 5,000 tons weight. At Zayring, there were silver mines, which, have been under water, since the middle of the twelfth century. There are also mines of coal in Stiria. Carinthia likewise, yields excellent iron, and the mines of Friesach are particularly famous. This province also, contains rich lead mines. The quicksilver mines of Idria, are celebrated in natural history. They were discovered in 1499, and have annually yielded 300,000lbs. weight of mercury. The common ore is cinnabar, but pure quicksilver, sometimes runs through the crevices. The mine is of a vast depth; the descent is by ladders and stone stairs. The length of the galleries is computed at 1,580 feet. These vast mercurial caverns, being extremely pernicious to health, the labours there carried on are sometimes allotted as a punishment to criminals.

The gold mines of Kremnitz, and the silver mines at Shemnitz, have given birth to these two cities, which, are therefore called mining towns. Hungary, contains rich mines of copper, and antimony; as well as some salt, alum, and coal. Saltpetre, is also produced in considerable quantities; and natron, or soda, is found in a lake, towards the frontier of Transylvania. The celebrated mine of opal, a gem preferred before all others, by the oriental nations, is situated at Czerweniza, in Hungary; and has been supposed to be the only one in the world. It is certainly the best, that has been discovered. The mines of Transylvania, and the Bannat; are also extremely valuable. The former of these provinces, has numerous gold mines, in some of which, the gold is mixed with antimony, lead, and iron; in others, with manganese and zinc. The importance of the salt mines of Wielitzka, has been greatly exaggerated by travellers. They are, however, sufficiently valuable, and wonderful. Their extent is 1,200

yards in length, from east to west, and 200 from north to south; and their depth, is prodigious. The galleries and chambers, are of an immense size, being supported by timber, or by vast pillars of salt, out of which material, even subterraneous apartments and chapels are formed. The miners, work by intervals of eight hours, after which, they are drawn up, and their places supplied by others. The salt is of an iron grey colour, sometimes intermixed with white cubes; and sometimes large blocks of salt are found imbedded in marle. The revenue, arising from these mines, has been computed at the annual sum of 100,000*l.* sterling.

The soil of so extensive an empire, must necessarily be various; but excepting the mountainous tracts, it is almost every where extremely fertile. Austria Proper is well cultivated—contains a happy peasantry—and has all the appearance of a flourishing province. Bohemia is greatly favoured by nature, in regard to its soil, which, as well as its climate is excellent. The necessaries of life, are consequently good and cheap. Hungary, however, excels all the other territories of the Austrian empire, in fertility. But from the imperfect state of agriculture, many parts of that rich country, present only extensive morasses and wastes. The great central plain of Hungary, extending 250 miles in every direction, presents in most parts, an extremely rich, but uncultivated soil. A late traveller says, that in crossing this plain, in some places, for fifty miles together, not a single village is seen; that all is an immense, and boundless waste, feeding numerous herds of cattle, in company with which, the hardy keepers sleep on the ground, covered with their sheep-skin clothing.* Such is the state of agriculture, and civilization, in that fertile country. But there is no doubt, but that the emancipation of the peasantry will soon be productive of great improvements. In the Polish Provinces now subject to Austria, agriculture has, from time immemorial, been in such a state, as might be expected from the oppressive system, which prevailed in Poland. A judicious traveller, who recently visited this country, found it overspread

* Townson's Travels, p. 236.

with vast tracts of thick, gloomy forests; and exhibiting few marks of cultivation or industry. In travelling between Cracow and Warsaw, a distance of about 250 miles, he met with only two carriages, and about a dozen carts. The soil, where not sandy, was, through want of draining and culture, almost every where marshy; and the peasantry, were the most miserable, that he had seen in any country.* This may be considered as a proof, that the cause of liberty and humanity did not suffer much, by the partition of Poland. There is no doubt, that, great improvements will be made in the state of this country, and of its inhabitants, through the influence of the Austrian government. Transylvania, and the other eastern appendages of the Austrian empire, have been little explored by travellers. All that is known of them in this particular, is, that their soil is in general good, but their agriculture very imperfect.

The climate throughout the Austrian dominions is tolerably mild, and in general salubrious, if we except Hungary. In that kingdom, many parts of the great central plain being through want of cultivation and drainage converted into stagnant morasses, the air is in some places very unwholesome: towards the Carpathian mountains it is much more healthful. The climate of Bohemia is excellent, as is proved by the high degree of health, strength, and cheerfulness every where observable among the inhabitants.

Bohemia is famous for hops, as well as for barley and wheat. The Bohemians brew excellent beer, which, as well as their hops forms a very considerable article of trade. Austria Proper contains numerous vineyards, and fields of saffron. Hungary is famous for its rich wines, and particularly for its Tokay, which is produced in a hilly and populous district, and owes its richness to a mixture of luscious half dried grapes. It is sold at near half a guinea per bottle, at the place of its growth. Amongst the vegetable productions of the Austrian dominions, must also be reckoned vast quantities of timber of various species. Numerous and extensive forests run in every

direction, especially along the Carpathian mountains, in Transylvania, and in the provinces formerly belonging to Poland. The general mild temperature of the Austrian territories, with the variety of their soil, and situation, from the lakes and levels of Hungary, to the snowy summits of the Carinthian, and Carpathian mountains, renders their botany exceedingly extensive.

The horses of Hungary are very small, but foreign breeds are plentifully introduced. Many of the native horses run wild, and in that state are sold in great numbers at the fairs. The horned cattle are chiefly of a peculiar colour, a slaty blue. The sheep resemble those of Wallachia, in their erect spiral horns, and their pendent hairy fleece. The large breed of wild cattle called *Urus*, or *Bison*, is said to be found in the Carpathian forests. The *Chamois* and the *Marmot* are not uncommon in many of the Alpine tracts; and some parts of the Carpathian mountains are infested with bears, and wolves. The *Danube* has several species of fish almost peculiar to that river, among which is a small but delicious kind of salmon.

The natural curiosities of the Austrian empire consist, chiefly, of its grand Alpine scenery in the mountainous regions; of calcareous rocks; and stupendous caverns. One of these caverns, near *Adisberg* in *Carniola*, is of a prodigious extent, displaying natural amphitheatres, bridges, &c. and containing room sufficient for the erection of villages. One of the most singular curiosities is the lake of *Cizekiretz* in *Carniola*. It is more than eight miles in length, and four in breadth. In the month of *June*, the water sinks under ground through various apertures at the bottom, and reascends in *September*, with considerable force, yielding a rich pasturage for a few weeks in summer, and in winter abounding with fish. The lake *Jesero*, in the island of *Cherso*, which diffuses its waters every fifth year only, exhibits a phenomenon of a similar nature.

Hungary and other parts of the ancient *Dacia*, contain many vestiges of the Roman power, as military roads, ruins, &c. Having been frequently exposed to the ravages of war, many of the ancient monuments have undoubtedly perished, but

several churches, monasteries, and castles, still attest the magnificence of their founders.

Vienna, the metropolis of the Austrian empire, and commonly regarded as the capital of Germany, is seated on the south, or rather the west, side of the Danube. The houses are generally of brick, covered with a durable kind of stucco and carried to the height of five or six stories. They are flat roofed, and have commonly three or four deep cellars, one under another, with an open space in the middle of each arched roof, for the admission of the air, and a tube passing from the lowermost up to the top, for the same beneficial purpose. The palaces, and public buildings are numerous, and magnificent. The imperial library contains between five and six thousand books, printed in the fifteenth century, many rare manuscripts and a very extensive collection of modern works. The cabinet of medals is exceedingly rich. Here also are many valuable private collections of natural history. The theatres are magnificent; there are several smaller ones in the suburbs; and the different places of public amusement are numerous. In the winter, sledge parties on the Danube, are a favourite diversion among the inhabitants of Vienna. At that season, the frost is often severe. In 1793 the cold was so intense, that the Danube was frozen till the beginning of March. Vienna teems with coffee houses and gazettes. There are no fewer than sixteen newspapers printed in this Austrian capital, besides which, there circulate many French, Italian, and English, and a still greater number of the different German papers and journals. Bull baiting is a favourite diversion among the populace of Vienna, and various places of resort, where amusements and sensual gratifications may easily be obtained, abound both in the city, and suburbs. The inhabitants of Vienna live in the most luxurious style. In no part of Europe, are the markets so plentifully supplied, and provisions so cheap. Hares are brought in by cart loads, and the abundance of pheasants, and partridges, is astonishing. The livers of geese are here esteemed a great delicacy, and the Jews alone possess the secret of fattening these animals to an enormous size. The indulgence of gormandizing, has here

no bounds. Notwithstanding the almost incredible plenty and cheapness of the most excellent butcher's meat, game and fish, tortoises, frogs, and snails, find a ready market. A pair of frog's legs are sold for about three farthings, and seven snails are charged at the same price as a plate of beef, or veal. Frogs are brought in quantities of 40,000, at a time, from the country, and bought up by the great dealers at Vienna, who keep them in cellars destined for that purpose.* Besides the extraordinary abundance of provisions, there is also a great plenty, and variety of excellent wines, so that nothing is wanting to render the Austrian capital the paradise of good living. But food for the intellect is neither plentiful, nor held in high estimation. Although well informed persons may be found there, the philosopher would scarcely consider Vienna as an Elysium. The people of all ranks are, in general, very little addicted to literary pursuits. But, since the accession of Maria Theresa, various efforts have been made by the Austrian monarchs, especially by Joseph II., towards enlightening their subjects, and inspiring them with a taste for letters and science. The capital can boast of several respectable institutions for that purpose. There is a university, a college of medicine, academies for the nobility, for the clergy, and for the fine arts, a school for the deaf and dumb, and several other laudable establishments.

Vienna, from its situation almost in the centre of the European continent, as well as from being so long the residence of the imperial court, is a place of great resort, not only for strangers from all parts of Germany, but also for foreigners from all parts of Europe, and presents an assemblage of various nations, with their respective costume and peculiar manners. The women are handsome, and well made; but, their countenances are not interesting. Their education leaves them in general destitute of mental accomplishments, but a spirit of gallantry is sufficiently prevalent; and in this respect the manners of the Austrian capital seem to partake of the cicesbeism of Italy and Spain, forming a kind of medium, between the

* See the descriptions of the city and people of Vienna, in Townson's Travels.

profligacy of the south, and the decency of the north of Europe. In the elegances of literature, and manners, Vienna is very far behind not only London and Paris, but also Dresden, Berlin, and Frankfort.

The trade of Vienna has, since the accession of Maria Theresa, been constantly in a state of improvement; but it is chiefly in the hands of strangers, and is far less flourishing, than it might be rendered, by good regulations, and proper encouragement. Although situated in the interior of the continent, the Austrian capital possesses by means of the Danube, and by its central position, between Hungary and Germany, incalculable advantages, with respect to inland navigation and commerce. Vienna has some manufactures of cloth, linen stuffs, stockings, silk, mirrors, porcelain, gold and silver lace, silver plate, and various articles of brass. Formerly these were not carried on to any great extent; but of late, they appear to be much improved. Vienna stands on the site of the ancient Vindobona, a frontier town, and fortress of the Romans; but was of little note, till the twelfth century, when it became the residence of the Dukes of Austria; and, under the later emperors of that house, it has been greatly enlarged and embellished. Its population, is computed by Zimmerman, to be 206,000; but it is probable, that he has not included the suburbs, which are far more extensive than the city, and standing at a distance from the walls, cause the whole of that metropolis, to occupy a very large space. The imperial garden at Schoenbrun, is one of the finest in the world. The hot-houses, are superior to every thing of the kind seen in other parts of Europe, and contain the greatest variety of rare plants, all in the most excellent state.* Prague, Buda, Presburg, and Gratz, are also respectable cities.

Trieste, the only sea-port of the Austrian dominions, is situated on a bay of the Adriatic; and on the declivity of a hill. The population, is estimated at 18,000. It was declared a free port, by the Empress Queen, Maria Theresa.

* Townson's Travels, p. 18—24.

The exports consist of quicksilver, and various metals ; with wines, and other native productions.

Many splendid churches, monasteries, and palaces, are seen in the various regions of the Austrian empire. Many of the Hungarian nobility have vast estates, and castles of corresponding magnificence. The chief of all, is that of Eisenstadt, the princely seat of the family of Esterhazy, which almost equals Versailles in splendor. But the situation, near an unwholesome morass, adjoining to the lake of Newsiddal, is one of the most disagreeable, and insalubrious, that can be imagined. The inhabitants, of the adjacent country, have a thin and ghastly appearance, arising from the annual visitation of the ague.

The predominant religion of the whole Austrian empire, is the Roman Catholic ; but all sects enjoy a liberal toleration. The Hungarian clergy are a powerful body. The archbishop of Gran has a revenue of about 36,000*l.* per annum. The archbishop of Vienna was a prince of the holy Roman empire, until France abolished the imperial dignity.

The Austrian empire, being an assemblage of different kingdoms, and states, laying claim to different privileges ; their various forms of government, are at least ostensibly different. Hungary, long an elective kingdom, although now hereditary, retains its diets, or aristocratical senate. Even the archduchy of Austria, has its states, consisting of four orders ; clergy, peers, knights, and burgesses. Every province has its separate government. But as they have so little connection, such various interests, and so great a degree of national animosity towards each other, and as the vast military force of the whole, is in the hands of the sovereign, no single state can resist his will. Many attempts were made by the emperor Joseph II. to reduce his extensive dominions under a uniform, and arbitrary government. If we except Hungary, Transylvania, &c. we may consider the Austrian empire, as an absolute monarchy ; for the local constitutions are mere forms and shadows of ancient systems, which have no weight in the political scale, against a powerful prince, with a numerous army at his command.

The laws vary, according to the different provinces ; each state having its peculiar code ; but in general, they are equitable and mild. The peasantry were emancipated in 1786. Before that memorable æra, the boasted liberty of Hungary, consisted in feudal aristocracy, and popular slavery. By the military constitution of Hungary, even the clergy, are not exempt from taking the field if required. Formerly the archbishop of Gran, and some other prelates, appeared, each at the head of 1,000 of their vassals. And, in the battle of Mohatch, in 1526, no fewer than seven bishops were left dead on the field.

The military force of Austria, which was computed by Boetticher, at 365,455 men, has been considerably diminished by her sanguinary contest with France ; and her territorial losses. As Austria still retains those countries, from which she always derived her greatest military strength, her armies must yet be formidable. From her local situation, she has never possessed a naval force. Had Venice been preserved, that acquisition might have given rise to an Austrian navy.

The whole revenue of the Austrian monarchy has been computed in 1794, by Crome, at 9,100,000*l.* But, since that time, Austria having lost the Netherlands, and the Italian provinces ; it is probable, that it cannot now exceed 8,000,000*l.* Before the last contest with France, the national debt, was computed at about 40,000,000*l.* sterling ; but it must, since that time, be considerably augmented.

The extensive countries, which compose the Austrian empire, although blessed with an exuberant fertility, and abounding in native productions, are disadvantageously situated with regard to foreign trade ; being wholly inland, and having no other port than Trieste. Hungary produces a great quantity and sufficient variety of valuable commodities, for carrying on an extensive trade ; but besides its local situation, a number of commercial restrictions counterbalance those advantages. The Hungarian exports at present, consist chiefly of cattle, hogs, sheep, wool, corn, flour, and wine ; which are carried to Vienna, and other parts of the Austrian dominions ;

not above a seventh part being sent to foreign countries.* The trade of Hungary, lies under many oppressive restraints, and it would appear as if Vienna regarded that kingdom, only as a magazine of raw materials, and a consumer of its manufactures.

No part of the Austrian empire, except its former Italian and Belgic appendages, has ever pursued an extensive manufacturing system; but of late that branch of industry has been greatly improved in Austria, Stiria, and Bohemia. The latter country, has long been celebrated for its manufactures of glass and paper. We are told by a late writer, that, in the archduchy of Austria, there are seven great manufactories of cotton, which employ 140,000 persons; and that thirty thousand individuals derive employment from the woollen manufacture at Lintz. The same author informs us, that the iron manufactures are numerous in Stiria, and that Bohemia has linen manufactures to the amount of 16,000,000 florins. According to these statements, it appears, that the manufacturing system of the Austrian dominions is becoming important.

Hoeck gives the number of 20,108,216, for the population of the whole Austrian empire, as it stood previous to the contest with France, in 1805.

The political importance of Austria, although much diminished, is still very great; and she must be considered as the third power on the continent, ranking next to France and Russia. Her political relations, also, extend to almost every country in Europe. Ever since the accession of Charles V., she has been the constant rival, and determined opponent of France. Since the aggrandizement of Prussia, which was partly at the expense of Austria, great jealousy has existed between these two powers. Inveterate wars have excited, and radical difference of religion, and manners, contribute to perpetuate the same animosity between Austria, and the Ottoman Porte. Russia, is the only continental power, with whose interests those of Austria can coincide, to any great extent.

* Townson, p. 194.

These two nations may, perhaps, one day, check the exorbitant power of France, dismember the Ottoman empire, and renew in Turkey, the scenes, which have been exhibited in Poland. Great Britain, is the natural ally of Austria; but the British fleets cannot protect an inland country against the invading armies of France.

The various languages of these aggregated dominions, may be assigned to three grand divisions; the Gothic, or German, the Slavonic, and lastly, the proper Hungarian, supposed to be a branch of the Finnic. Among people of rank at Vienna, French is the fashionable language. The German, spoken in Austria, Bavaria, and Suabia, is very impure.

The literary history of the Austrian empire, can neither boast of ancient memorials, nor of great modern improvements. Vienna, indeed, is crowded with pretended literati, but those who have attained to any degree of reputation, were principally foreigners. In the medical science, Storch, Van Swieten, and some others, have acquired a deserved celebrity. Some of their antiquaries, also, rise above mediocrity. Bohemia, and Hungary, have but few claims to literary eminence. Cosmas of Prague, who flourished about A. D. 1,130, possesses some merit as a historian. But his death left a blank in Bohemian literature. Transylvania has produced a natural philosopher, of considerable eminence, the Baron du Born, but he wrote in Latin and French; and the native language of Hungary, is not ennobled by any celebrated work. If we should make an enquiry into the causes that have prevented the progress of literature, and philosophy, in the Austrian dominions, we should find them, in the numerous wars, which have often desolated these countries; in the long continued influence of the feudal system; in the low estimation in which learning has always been held by the nobles, in the metaphysical bigotry, and obstinate adherence to ancient prejudices, which have so long prevailed in their universities; and in the multiplied restraints on the press. Under the benign auspices of the late Austrian monarchs, the literature of their dominions has had a gradual tendency towards improvement, and may in time become respectable.

The Austrian Empire contains several universities, but from a bigotted attachment to ancient opinions, they have promoted the progress of useful knowledge, less than might have been wished. The university of Vienna has, since 1752, been considerably improved. There are also universities at Prague, Inspruck, and Gratz. The university of Buda, has an income of 20,000*l.* sterling, but it is under such bad regulations, that not above 4,000*l.* is appropriated to the professors. The library too, is indifferent, but it contains a good collection of mathematical instruments; and the museum of natural history may rank among the first in Europe. Here is, also, an observatory, and a botanical garden.

A sketch of the Austrian manners, has already been given in the description of Vienna. It remains only to add, that the plenty, observable in the country, corresponds with that of the capital. The peasantry of Austria proper, live in that comfortable style, which results from the fertility of the soil, and the enjoyment of freedom. The lower orders, are little addicted to vice, and punishments are rare. Robberies are seldom committed, and murder but little known. When capital punishment is necessary, it is inflicted with great solemnity, and accompanied with public prayers; an example, worthy of universal imitation. The manners of the Hungarians resemble in many points, those of the Germans; but, among their peculiarities, they still retain their ancient dress. That of the nobility, is splendid and costly. The peasants wear only a wide coat of sheep skins, thrown over the shoulders, and grey linen trowsers, with boots or sandals. As arms are the chief occupation of the Hungarian nobles, so is agriculture, that of the plebians. Few of them meddle with mechanical arts, or commercial affairs. The former are carried on by the Germans; the latter, by the Greeks, Armenians, and Jews. The latter are spread over the whole country, being settled in almost every district. There are also immense numbers of gypsies, who lead a vagrant, and desultory life. The lower classes of people, in Hungary, sleep in their clothes; the use of beds being little known in that country. A great

national hatred exists between the Hungarians and the Austrians.

The various nations under the Austrian sovereignty, are more famed for arms, than for arts. Nature, indeed, has peculiarly fitted them for a military life. For this, the Hungarians and Croats are extremely well adapted, being tall and robust. Reisbeck affirms, that the Croats are the handsomest, and the Carinthians, the strongest men in Europe. Like their horses, they never tire. The Bohemians are also strong built men, and the best soldiers in the Austrian armies. But with all those physical advantages, the Austrian troops have not been able to withstand the arms of France. The decrees of him, by whose nod empires rise and fall, are inscrutable. Ambition for a while, may be allowed to scourge the earth; but he who permits its temporal sway, can suddenly check its career.

GERMAN STATES.

THE geography of Germany has, on account of its numerous political divisions, always been perplexed, but at this time the confusion is greater than at any former period. Not only is the Germanic constitution totally annihilated ; but territorial possessions and boundaries are altered ; new names are imposed ; and new kingdoms erected, which may be again overturned by the same hand that created them. Another continental war, may totally change the state of affairs, or a new determination of the French government, may entirely derange the most elaborate description of Germany. I shall therefore content myself, with exhibiting a general view of the grand features of nature, which are not subject to the caprice of man ; and making some remarks on such other circumstances of the country, as are not likely to experience a sudden change by the fluctuations of political affairs.

Germany may be considered, as extending from 45° to 55° , north latitude, and from 5° to 19° , east longitude, being about 600 miles in length, and about 500 miles in breadth. On the north, it is bounded by the Baltic Sea, by the Danish dominions, and the German Ocean ; on the east by Hungary, Bohemia, and the late territory of Poland ; on the south by Switzerland, and the Alps, which separate it from Italy ; and on the west by France, and the Batavian kingdom. But the German dominions of Austria, and Prussia, are comprised within this general definition.

The northern parts of Germany, present a continuity of sandy plains, of great extent. The southern parts may be regarded, as rather mountainous ; and many parts present extensive forests.

The principal rivers of Germany are, the Danube, the Rhine, the Elbe, and the Weser. The Rhine has its principal source in the country of the Grisons, amidst dreadful deserts of ice and snow ; and having traversed Switzerland, becomes, as it was in ancient times, the boundary between France and Germany. It afterwards enters the Batavian territories, and

finally falls, by several æstuaries, into the German Ocean, after a course of at least 600 miles. The Elbe rises in the mountains of Silesia, and falls into the sea, after a course of more than 500 miles. The Weser has its principal source in the territory of Hilburghausen, and runs a course of only about 270 miles, before it discharges itself into the sea. The shores of the Weser are low and unhealthy, being subject to great inundations. The Mayne, is a tributary stream of the Rhine, and joins it to the south of Mentz. The country near their conjunction, is inexpressibly beautiful, and picturesque. The Rhingau, a district on the eastern side of the Rhine, nearly opposite to Mentz, forms an amphitheatre of fifteen miles long, and six broad; the scenery of which surpasses the power of description. This district, which is the country of the true Rhenish wine, is protected from the northerly and easterly winds, by semi-circular hills; and contains thirty six villages. Travellers dwell with rapture and delight, on the description of this beautiful and romantic spot. The appearance of its inhabitants, shews, that the salubrity of the air corresponds with the elegance of the landscape. They are handsome, and uncommonly strong; possess a great deal of wit, and vivacity; and their countenances are expressive of sound constitutions, and cheerful minds. In this delightful district, is the monastery of Erbach, the richest in Germany. The monks live in the most luxuriant, and splendid style, keeping a pack of hounds, and fine hunters, as well as an excellent band of musicians. They are extremely generous and hospitable. The banks of the Rhine, from Mentz to Cologne, a distance of about seventy six English miles, are adorned with twenty cities. The fortress of Ehrenbretstein, near Coblentz, stands on a stupendous rock, which rises 800 feet above the river, and, from its summit, commands a view of the country, 100 miles round. In picturesque, and magnificent scenery, the banks of the Rhine, surpass those of every other river of Europe.

Saxony possesses the best portion of the German mines, and few countries can boast of greater fossil opulence. The metals are silver, copper, iron, lead, and tin; the last of an excellent

quality. The mines of Saxony, are an inexhaustible source of wealth. In 1788, their aggregate product, was valued at 700,639 dollars. The mineralogy of Hanover, is rich, consisting of silver, copper, lead, iron, cobalt, and zinc, with marble, limestone, and coal.

Saltzburg and Bavaria have several salt springs, which produce a considerable profit, and employ a great number of people.*

The climate of a country, which extends through ten degrees of latitude, must necessarily present a considerable variety. In the north of Germany, cold and moisture predominate. The flat, and unpleasant country of Westphalia, is cold, humid, and unhealthy. The climate of Saxony is temperate, and the air pure and salubrious. The middle and southern parts of Germany, are warm. The winters, throughout the whole country, are somewhat severe.

The vine thrives well on the banks of the Mayne, and in most of the countries to the south of that river. The famous wine, called Old Hock, is produced in a district, scarcely a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth. In some years, this spot affords 200 hogsheads. It belongs to the chapter of Mentz, and what is not consumed there, is distributed in presents, so that none of this wine is ever sold in foreign countries.

The German horses are heavy, and not remarkable for spirit. Among the animals of the forest, the most celebrated is the wild boar, which in many parts of Germany, but especially in Westphalia, attains to a large size, and affords to the nobility and gentry, their favourite diversion of hunting. The wolf is sometimes seen in the southern parts of Germany.

Stupendous caverns are found in many parts of the country, especially the remarkable caves of Hammelen, and Blackenburg. The termination of the latter of these caverns, has never yet been explored.

* It appears that the making of salt, from springs, is of great antiquity among the Germans. Tacitus de mor. Germanorum, lib. 13, cap. 57, Pliny Hist. Nat. lib. 37, cap. 7.

The antiquities consist of a few Roman remains in the south ; the Gothic cathedrals, erected by Charlemagne, or his immediate successors, and the numerous castles built by the ancient barons. Almost every one of the modern princes has a cabinet of curiosities, natural and artificial, ancient and modern, and some of the collections are excellent.

Among the cities of the German states, Dresden, Leipsick, Munich, Hamburg, and Frankfort, on the Mayne, are chiefly entitled to notice. Vienna, and Berlin, cannot, since the dissolution of the empire, be considered any longer as German states.

Dresden, the capital of the late electorate, but present kingdom of Saxony, is the most beautiful city of Germany. The streets are broad, and well paved, and the squares are spacious. The houses are built of freestone, for the most part of a uniform height, and the palaces and public buildings are numerous, and elegant. The library, the paintings, the cabinet of curiosities, &c. exhibit splendid collections, and the gardens are extensive and curious. This city has several important manufactures, among which that of porcelain, is the most celebrated. It contains also, a good university, and several other literary, and scientific institutions. The population of Dresden is computed at 50,000 ; and the inhabitants excel those of all the other German cities, in the elegance of their manners.

Leipsic is also a handsome city, containing about 33,000 inhabitants, with a famous university, and three great commercial fairs. But, it is chiefly remarkable for its celebrated book fair, which renders it the grand mart of German literature. At this fair, books are sold or exchanged, to the annual amount of 73,000*l.* sterling. A vast number of books, are also published at Leipsic.

Hamburg is situated on the Elbe. Here are some manufactures of cloth, stockings, &c. as well as considerable breweries, and extensive works for the refining of sugar. In the last of these branches, no nation excels the Hamburgers. They are furnished with the cane from Spain, and their trade in sugar, extends to all parts of Germany, Poland, and Russia. Before Hamburg fell under the military domination of France,

it was one of the chief commercial cities of Europe. In the year 1799, no fewer than 2,423 vessels entered its ports ; but, in its present circumstances, its trade, a great part of which was with England, must be extremely diminished. The population of Hamburg is about 95,000. Their religion is the Lutheran. Their numerous libraries do honour to their literature and taste. There are also many scientific institutions, and private collections of curiosities. Previous to its seizure by the French, Hamburg was independent, and the form of its government, aristocratical ; being vested in a senate, consisting of thirty-seven members. Concerning its civil and commercial state at present, we have no precise information.

Frankfort on the Mayne, lately an imperial city, and one of the great inland marts of Germany, is a large and handsome city, crowded with merchants, and literati, and containing 30,000 inhabitants, Catholics, Calvinists, and Lutherans. Jews also are here very numerous. The merchants are extremely rich. Within a circuit of six miles round Frankfort, are seen above forty magnificent villas, belonging to the opulent citizens ; an unequivocal proof of the lucrative nature of their commerce.

The political circumstances of Germany, have for many centuries been regarded as a perplexed labyrinth ; at present they exhibit a chaos of confusion and uncertainty. The celebrated Germanic constitution, consisting of an intricate assemblage of principalities and states, secular and ecclesiastical, under various titles and forms of government, monarchical and republican, all united under the paramount sovereignty of the emperor, as head of the whole confederacy, is now completely annihilated by the arms of France. In the present fluctuating state of affairs, it would be useless to attempt a description of the 300 different sovereignties, into which Germany was lately divided. These have been conferred, exchanged, or curtailed, according to the arbitrary will of the conqueror, and in conformity to his political views. It would indeed be next to impossible, to detail with precision, the changes that have taken place among the German states, or to foresee those

which may yet be effected. It is sufficient to observe, that out of the wreck of the German empire, and the dismemberment of Prussia, are formed four new kingdoms, those namely, of Bavaria, Suabia, Saxony, and Westphalia. Neither their boundaries, nor political systems, can yet be completely fixed; but in general terms, it may be observed, that Bavaria occupies the south east, Suabia, the south west, Saxony, the centre, and Westphalia, the north western part of Germany; the latter, consisting chiefly of the countries dismembered from Prussia. The city and territory of Warsaw is also assigned to Saxony, with a free passage through the Prussian dominions, between these two disjointed parts of the Saxon kingdom.* The fate of the inferior states, appears yet in a great measure undetermined.

The established religions of the different German states, are, the Catholic, the Calvinist, and the Lutheran. The Catholic religion predominates in the south; the Protestant in the middle and north. Bavaria is the chief of the Catholic, and Saxony, of the Protestant states. The two systems nearly counterbalance each other throughout Germany. The Protestants, however, are somewhat the most numerous. In different parts of the country, there is a great variety of sects, who mostly enjoy a liberal toleration.

It has been always supposed that the empire, if united, could have brought into the field an army of 500,000 men; a force which, if properly directed, might have set at defiance all the attempts of foreign ambition. In the present situation of affairs, nothing can be said, with any precision, respecting the revenues or military strength of the new German kingdoms.

Germany, being situated in the centre of Europe, and intersected by several large rivers, possesses considerable advantages for trade, and produces abundance of native articles.— But these natural advantages have been greatly counteracted, by the reiterated wars of which this country has been the theatre; as well as by its numerous petty governments, which created a multiplicity of customs and tolls. Nothing more

* Treaty of Tilsit, concluded in 1807, between Russia, France, and Prussia.

evidently displays the bad effects of such a system, in the internal commerce of Germany, than the view which Reisbeck has given of the navigation of the Rhine. Every prince, as far as his dominions extended on its banks, considered all vessels as foreign; and imposed on all, without distinction, the same intolerable taxes. Between Mentz and Coblentz, there were nine; and between Coblentz and Holland, no less than sixteen tolls to be paid. Temporary quarrels among the German princes, also, frequently impeded the commerce. From this view of circumstances, it is not difficult to perceive the important commercial advantages which the French have gained by extending their boundaries to the Rhine, and securing to themselves the free navigation of that river. The exports of Germany consist of its native products; among which may be reckoned, great quantities of timber, hemp, and other naval stores, and various manufactures. These are numerous, and many of them carried to a great extent, and a high degree of perfection. They consist chiefly of porcelain, silk, and cotton stuffs; toys, ribands, numerous articles of iron, steel, and other metals; cannon, and mortars; bullets, and bombshells.

The number of inhabitants in Germany is computed at 26,000,000; but this calculation includes the German dominions of Austria and Prussia, already described. The population of the German states, now under consideration, can scarcely amount to more than 19,000,000.

The political importance, and relations of Germany, may now be considered as annihilated, or swallowed up in the vortex of France. The inferior principalities and states, as long as they are suffered to exist, must be dependent on the four kingdoms of Bavaria, Suabia, Saxony, and Westphalia; while these monarchies themselves must remain subordinate to France.

The German is an original language; and the basis of the Swedish, the Danish, and the English. It is somewhat harsh and unpleasant, but energetic, and copious, and its beauties begin to be daily more known among foreigners. In the cities it is almost superseded by the French, which is univer-

sally used by the nobility, and gentry, throughout Germany. The Saxon is the purest idiom of the German language ; while the Southern dialects of Suabia, Bavaria, and Austria, are the most corrupt and barbarous.

German literature is a copious subject. It was late, however, in making its appearance ; and it was not till the eighteenth century, that it began to acquire any great reputation. Before that period, the German productions, were voluminous, heavy, and pedantic, and almost totally disregarded by other nations. Gottsched, a professor at Leipsic, who was highly esteemed and honored by Frederic the Great, of Prussia, introduced a better style of writing, by publishing a work on the principles of the German language, and by instituting a literary society for promoting the study of the belles lettres. From that epoch, the Germans began to write in their own language, with propriety and elegance ; and, by perusing and translating the best French and English authors, they improved their style and corrected their taste. It would be tedious to enumerate the German writers, who have distinguished themselves in the various branches of philosophy and mathematics, as well as in the study of antiquities and languages ; pursuits, to which they are, by their habits of industry and application, remarkably well adapted. In those parts of philosophy and science, which require perseverance and profound investigation, the Germans are scarcely surpassed by any nation. Of late, they have distinguished themselves in poetry, and other branches of the belles lettres. But literature, and science, have not equally flourished in all parts of Germany. Bavaria and Suabia are, in this respect, far behind the northern provinces. Saxony is the most celebrated seat of German literature ; and most of the chief philosophers and writers, were either born or had resided in that country.

In the arts, as well as in the sciences, the Germans have acquired distinguished reputation. In mechanics and chemistry, they have particularly excelled. Gunpowder, and artillery, are German inventions, of the fourth century. If printing was invented in Holland, it was soon after greatly improved in Germany. This country has also produced eminent archi-

pects, sculptors, painters, and engravers. In music, the Germans rival the Italians, and excel all other nations.

Germany can boast of numerous universities, both Catholic and Protestant, and every considerable city has various literary and scientific institutions. On the whole, education, especially in the northern parts, appears to attract greater attention than in several other European countries.

In England and France, the inhabitants of the country imitate the manners of the metropolis. In Germany no one city influences the habits of the others; but as the country is divided into distinct states, so they exhibit distinct customs, opinions, and practices. The multiplicity of sovereignties, the distinguishing feature of the political system of Germany, has produced consequences natural to such a division, and peculiar to this country, and to Italy. The German princes vied with each other in the number and pomp of their guards; in the magnificence of their palaces; in their collections of paintings; their libraries; their cabinets of curiosities; and in fine, in all the splendor of royalty. This taste for grandeur and elegance, afforded great encouragement to the arts; but as most of the dominions were contracted within narrow limits, and their revenues small, the taxes were consequently heavy, and their effects on agriculture and commerce, pernicious. A remarkable passion for shew and extravagance, very generally prevails among the higher classes of Germans. The merchants, as soon as they are able, purchase titles of nobility; and the example is followed by the stewards of the great, who make fortunes by oppressing the people. In their national character, persevering industry, and application, are prominent features. The Germans are, in general, frank, generous, and hospitable. They are, also, hardy, brave, and vigorous; and are generally esteemed good soldiers. If they have not, in latter times, maintained that character, it is owing to their disunited political system, and not to any want of personal qualifications. The greatness of France was a consequence of the division of Germany.

GENERAL HISTORY.

The history of Germany is often obscure, and always complex. Its different states have risen at different periods ; their boundaries have often been changed ; and some of its princes have acquired extensive dominions, which were never considered as parts of the German empire. The first population of Germany, appears to have been Celtic and Finnish.

The Romans, under Tiberius and Drusus, had, in the reign of Augustus, penetrated far into the north of Germany ; but they never built, or, at least, never kept up any forts, nor retained possession of any considerable part of the country, beyond the Danube and the Rhine.

The interior of Germany remained unexplored, till the reign of Charlemagne ; and the northeastern parts till a much later period. The first authentic information, relative to this country, and its inhabitants, is derived from the luminous pages of Tacitus, who wrote a work expressly on the subject. At that time, the Germans, although not savages, were still in a state of gross barbarism. They had no cities, but lived dispersed in villages ; they considered it as a mark of servitude to live in towns surrounded with walls, and used to say that the fiercest animals when confined, became dispirited and timid.* Throughout the whole extent of Germany, from the Rhine and the Danube, to the Baltic, there was scarcely one city previous to the ninth century. It was reserved for Charlemagne to conquer, and partly to civilize Germany. To him, the most ancient cities of Germany owe their origin. The history of the German empire under his immediate successors is included in that of the French monarchy. On the death of Louis IV., the last emperor of that race, Charles the Simple, being stript of his power by the usurpations of the French nobility, found himself too weak to assert his right to the empire. Conrad, Duke of Franconia, was advanced to the imperial dignity ; and thus the empire from being here-

* Tacit. Hist. lib. 4, cap. 64.

ditary by right of conquest in the posterity of Charlemagne, now became elective. This final separation, of Germany from France, took place A. D. 912; and from that period, the governors of provinces in Italy, and Germany, as well as in France, began to render themselves hereditary sovereigns of their respective governments; and the prelates, always powerful, acting on the same principles, acquired in those times of confusion, an equal degree of independence. On every election of a new emperor, the princes, the prelates, and nobles, had an opportunity of acquiring new privileges, and of imposing additional restraints on the imperial authority. The cities, also, gradually increasing in population, and importance, began to assume new powers, and extort new rights. At the close of the reign of Frederic II., the power of the emperors was extinguished in Italy, and, during the following interregnum, the most horrible confusion prevailed in Germany. The operation of laws entirely ceased, and every thing was decided by force. Robbery and pillage every where prevailed in the cities, in the country, in the villages, and on the high roads. For the purpose of remedying these disorders, several cities and towns entered into a confederacy, for their mutual safety, to which many princes and lords also acceded. By this union of force, the plunderers were driven from their castles, and the roads cleared of the banditti, with which they were infested. This confederacy has by some, been considered as the origin of the Hans Towns; but others date the commencement of that union, from an earlier period. But at what time soever the union was formed, it appears that many cities had then acquired great power and privileges, as it was one of their standing regulations, not to admit any city into the league, that did not keep the keys of its own gates, and exercise civil authority within itself, although it might acknowledge allegiance to a superior lord.* Various causes contributed to the foundation of cities; and a variety of circumstances concurred to give them greater importance, such as the meeting, in those places, of different

* And. Hist. Com. vol. 1, p. 162.

kinds of assemblies, councils, and courts of judicature ; the privileges and immunities granted them by sovereigns ; the security afforded by a numerous and concentrated population ; with the conveniences and amusements which they soon began to afford. All these, and many other advantages, first contributed to the aggrandisement of cities, before the resources of commerce and the resort of the opulent added still greater weight in the political scale.

The series of facts which compose the annals of the empire from the reign of Charlemagne to the period here under consideration ; the perpetual quarrels of popes, and emperors, disgraceful to religion, and disastrous to humanity, would not be worth recording or reading, if they had not a reference to something more interesting. But, they were introductory to a state of political society, which has ever since, till of late, existed in Italy and Germany. Both these countries had composed part of the empire of Charlemagne ; and under his successors, they both displayed the same confused system of aristocratical power, assumed according to circumstances, and consequently undefined and irregular. In France, various causes contributed to weaken, while in Germany every thing contributed to strengthen, its aristocracy. The French monarchs of the Capetine dynasty, established the regal power on the ruins of the feudal system ; while the German nobles, and Italian cities, aggrandized themselves on the ruins of the imperial authority. While France was organizing her monarchy, by uniting its discordant parts, in one compact political system, Italy and Germany were split into a number of independent principalities, and states, with this single difference between them, that those of the former remained unconnected, while those of the latter, formed a political confederation, under the paramount authority of the emperor, as the head of their association.

During the turbulent period, which had elapsed since the removal of the sceptre, from the house of Charlemagne, the princes, the prelates, and the principal cities, gradually assuming independent powers, at last composed an empire of a peculiar kind ; and the Germanic constitution, such as it has

lately been seen, was nearly formed.* The secular and ecclesiastical princes, and the imperial cities, had attained to that independent situation which they have since so long enjoyed; and possessing absolute sovereignty in their respective territories, under the superior authority of the emperor, exhibited a highly finished model of the feudal system.

Amid the reiterated tumults of political confusion, and military depredation, which mark those unhappy times, literature, sciences, and the arts, were almost extinct in Europe, and particularly in Germany. Commerce could not be expected to flourish, in a country so circumstanced.

After the long interregnum, which has led to the preceding observations, Rhodolph, count of Hapsburg, the ancestor of the present house of Austria, and the founder of its greatness, was elected emperor. It was not his possessions, nor his power, that raised him to the imperial dignity; for he was far from being one of the most considerable princes of the empire. His personal qualifications amply justified the choice, which the Germans had made of him, for their sovereign. The suppression of those disorders, which had prevailed during the interregnum, required the most vigorous exercise of authority. He caused about 100 highwaymen to be executed at once, and destroyed about sixty castles, which served as retreats to bands of robbers. By these vigorous measures, he re-established peace and security in the empire. Ottocar, king of Bohemia, having seized on the marquisate of Austria, Rhodolph dispossessed him of that territory. He gave Austria, with its appendages, to his eldest son Albert. He invested Rhodolph, another of his sons, with the duchy of Suabia; and he gave his three daughters in marriage, to the Count Palatine of the Rhine, the Duke of Saxony, and the Marquis of Brandenburg, three of the most powerful princes of the empire. These investitures and alliances, laid the foundation of the future greatness of the family. But, although his authority was fully established in Germany, he left Italy, the other branch of the empire to itself, and could never be

* Dr. Robertson's Hist. Charles V., vol. 1. p. 212.

persuaded to attempt its subjugation. He was not ignorant, that the revolts of Italy had been the source of all the misfortunes of the preceding emperors, and he considered it as useless to attempt the conquest of a country, which he knew would never remain in subjection. Confining, therefore, all his attention to Germany, he raised the empire to a respectable and flourishing state. By this prince, the German language was first introduced into the public acts, in place of the Latin, which had been hitherto used. He died in 1291, after a reign of eighteen years, with a high reputation, both for political and military abilities.

After the death of Rhodolph, an interregnum of nine months elapsed, before the German princes could agree, on the choice of another emperor. At length, Adolphus count of Nassau, was elected; but his reign was a continued series of troubles. He was at last deposed; and Albert of Austria, and son of Rhodolph, was raised to the imperial throne. In the reign of this emperor, happened the famous revolt of the Swiss cantons, which the house of Austria was never able to subdue. The principal vice of Albert was avarice, and he fell a victim to his own rapacity; being assassinated by John, Duke of Suabia, his nephew, from whom he unjustly withheld his inheritance.

Henry, Count of Luxembourg, was next elected emperor, A. D. 1309. His reign is rendered remarkable, by his Italian expedition. The unsettled state of that country, presenting a favourable opportunity of asserting the ancient claims of the emperors, it was resolved to undertake the conquest of Italy. The necessary supplies being granted, Henry set out for that country, at the head of a formidable army. As the Italians were divided into a thousand factions, the success of the emperor was so rapid, as to promise a complete conquest; but in the midst of his good fortune, he died suddenly at Benevento, in the year 1313. The suffrages of the electors being divided on the choice of his successor, two emperors were elected at the same time; Louis, duke of Bavaria, and Frederic duke of Austria. A war between these two rival emperors ensued, which desolated Germany, during the space of

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nine years. Frederic, being at last made prisoner, in a battle fought in 1323, tranquillity was restored to the empire.

Nothing of great importance happened till the commencement of the next century, which is memorable for the first dawnings of the reformation. In 1411, Sigismund, king of Hungary, was elected emperor, and soon afterwards summoned the council of Constance. The principal purpose, for which this council was convened, was to terminate the schism, which then prevailed in the church. This august assembly succeeded in settling the disputes concerning the pontificate; but both the council, and the emperor tarnished their honour, by condemning John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, to the flames. In the chief points of religion, these men nearly agreed with those, which a little before that time, Wickliff had held in England, and which Luther, with some variations, afterwards preached in Saxony. Their execution, in violation of the safe conduct which had been granted them, has fixed a perpetual brand of infamy on the memory of Sigismund.

The Hussites, in supporting the freedom of opinion, took a severe vengeance for the murder of their apostles. They first excited an insurrection in Prague, where they forced the town-hall and massacred the magistrates. The revolt soon became general, and they levied a formidable army. Wincelous, king of Bohemia, the emperor's brother, dying about the same time, that kingdom devolved on Sigismund, who sustained a long war against the Hussites, and was several times defeated by Count Ziska, their general. This intrepid chief maintained his ground with uniform success, and at his death ordered a drum to be made of his skin. The Hussites at last obtained a general amnesty, and the privilege of the cup, in the communion; a concession, which they considered of great importance. Such in those days was the attachment, both of the reformers, and the enemies of reformation, to the ceremonial of religion, while its practical doctrines and active power, were too little regarded.

Sigismund died in 1438, and was succeeded in the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary, by his son-in-law, Albert, Duke of Austria, who was also elected emperor. Albert dying the

next year, 1439, was succeeded in the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, by his infant son Ladislaus. Frederic of Austria, Albert's cousin, was elected to the imperial dignity, which since that period, has been hereditary in the house of Austria.

Frederic dying in 1493, was succeeded by his son Maximilian I., on whose death in 1519, his grandson, the famous Charles V., was raised to the empire. Charles, being by hereditary right, king of Spain, of Naples, and Sicily, and possessing the extensive dominions of the house of Austria, in Germany, and the Netherlands, together with the sovereignty of the new world, was by a particular train of circumstances, exalted to the imperial dignity. Francis I., king of France, had declared himself a candidate for that high honour, and both their claims appeared equally plausible. The situation of Germany, at that juncture, required an emperor, in whom great abilities should be seconded by ample resources. The Turks, then in the zenith of their power, and at the height of their military fame, were every where victorious. Selim had so completely secured his empire, on the side of Asia, that he was ready to turn the whole force of his arms against Europe. The fame of his conquests had excited throughout Christendom, a general alarm. Germany was, by her local situation, exposed to the first attack of the Ottoman power, and this consideration was sufficient to determine her princes, in the choice of an emperor. The kings of Spain, and France, presented themselves, as the only princes of Europe, that were able to oppose an effectual resistance to the progress of the Turks. The great power of Charles, and his extensive dominions, gave him the first place among Christian princes. The dominions of Francis, although less extensive, were more compact; his subjects were numerous and warlike; and in age, experience, and military reputation, he possessed a personal superiority over his rival. The other European princes could not remain indifferent spectators of a contest, the decision of which so nearly affected their interests. The Swiss cantons dreaded the elevation of either of the candidates: but their apprehension of the aggrandisement, of so near and so hostile a neighbour as Francis, inclined them to give an open preference

to Charles. The Venetians, through a similar jealousy of the proximity and ambition of Austria, although they wished to see both candidates set aside, were by their dread of the elevation of Charles, disposed to favour the claims of the French monarch. Henry VIII., king of England, was equally interested in the exclusion of both competitors, from a dignity, which would raise them so high above other monarchs. He at last, adopted a resolution to offer himself as a candidate for the imperial dignity. His ambassador, though loaded with caresses, by the German princes, returned with the information, that no success could be expected, from so late an application. Henry, reconciled himself to the disappointment, by imputing it solely to this circumstance, and gave himself no further concern about the election, or exclusion of the other candidates. Leo X., a pontiff, equally distinguished by his political abilities, and his patronage of letters, observed with attention the proceedings of the two rival monarchs, and his penetration enabled him to foresee the consequences. The exaltation of a king of Spain, and of Naples, to the imperial dignity, filled him with serious apprehensions, and the accession of a king of France, to the throne of Germany, was a prospect not less alarming. He considered the election of either, as fatal to the independence of the Holy See, and to the peace of Europe. The sagacious pontiff, therefore, directed all his efforts to induce the German princes, to elect out of their own body an emperor, who would be less formidable to other European princes. For this purpose, he put in motion every spring of political intrigue. His plan was the best, that it was possible in his situation to adopt: but in affairs so extremely complicated, all the efforts of political sagacity are frequently baffled. The German electors, perceived the full force of the fundamental maxims of their policy, to limit and depress the power of the emperor. To this maxim, they had for ages, invariably adhered, and to its observance they owed the splendor, and independence, which they had gradually acquired. The pope did not forget to remind them that by electing either Francis or Charles, they would give the empire a master, instead of a head, and reduce themselves from the con-

dition of sovereigns, to that of subjects. Influenced by these considerations, the electors resolved to reject both candidates, and unanimously fixed on Frederic, duke of Saxony, whose limited power could not excite any jealousy. This prince, however, more attentive to the safety of the empire, than dazzled with the splendour of the imperial dignity, refused the offer with a magnanimity, of which history records but few instances. He represented to the Germanic body, the impolicy of an obstinate adherence to old maxims, inapplicable to the present circumstances; reminded them that new conjunctures required new expedients; that the Turkish armies, led by a warlike, and victorious emperor, were ready to pour into Germany; that the imperial sceptre must be committed to some more powerful hand than his, or that of any other German prince; and that in so pressing an exigency, there was no other expedient, than that of choosing one of the two rival monarchs, either of whom could bring into the field, forces sufficient to arrest the progress of the enemy, and provide for the security of the empire. But he added, that since the king of Spain was a member, and prince of the empire, and possessed valuable hereditary dominions, stretching along the frontier, most exposed to the enemy, his claim was certainly preferable to that of the French monarch, who was in every respect a stranger, and had no hereditary possessions in Germany.

The two competitors, in the mean while, left nothing undone, that intrigue or bribery could effect. Charles employed all the refinements and artifice of negotiation, and remitted vast sums of money from Spain, in order to give weight to his claims. Francis, at the same time, attempted to gain the favour of the princes, by immense presents, and boundless promises. On the 28th of June, 1519, after an interregnum of five months and ten days, this important contest which held all Europe in suspense, was decided by the election of Charles, to the imperial throne.

The result of the election, left between the two potent rivals, an enmity, that was never extinguished. Two such powerful monarchs, whose dominions were in close contact,

could never want plausible pretexts of quarrel, and their perpetual rivalry, and ceaseless hostilities, kept the greatest part of Europe in a state of continual agitation. Spain, and all the other hereditary dominions of the emperor, were necessarily involved in the contest. Italy and England were also implicated.

Among the most important events of this period, was the reformation of religion, which took its rise in Germany. The scandalous abuse of indulgences, first excited thinking men to enquire into their nature, and consequences, and to dispute the legality of the authority, by which they were dispensed. Those extraordinary instruments, by which the living were released from sin, and the dead from the pains of purgatory, were first fabricated for the encouragement and recompense of those, who engaged in the croisades. They were next extended to such, as contributed money to the support of those wild expeditions. Leo X., the great patron of letters and arts, having exhausted his treasury, in liberal rewards to men of genius, in magnificent works, and in expensive pleasures, had recourse to a measure, which had been so successfully practised by his predecessors. He published a general sale of indulgences, and he was not without an apology for this extension of papal authority. He was then engaged in a most expensive undertaking; the building of the superb cathedral of St. Peter, the largest and most magnificent structure of the Christian world; and money was also wanted, to establish a fund, for carrying on a war against the Turks, the progress of whose arms threatened Europe with subjugation. As an accomplished monarch, an elegant scholar, and a patron of arts and literature, Leo stands almost unparalleled. Had he been a king of England, or France, his name would have been an honour to royalty; but as a pope, he was certainly misplaced. The laxity of his religious principles, approaching to Deism, rendered him careless of the interests of the church, and his liberal disposition involved him in wants, which imperiously demanded a supply. His necessities, the natural consequences of his immense expenditure, led him to measures for raising money, which shook the papacy to its foundation, and

diminished the revenues as well as the power of his successors, by separating half the Christian world from the communion of Rome. The councils of the Governor of the Universe, are inscrutable ; but both the friends and the enemies of the reformation, must acknowledge, that Leo was not less than Luther, an instrument in the hand of Divine Providence, for the introduction of this extraordinary revolution.

The sale of indulgences, established by papal authority, and sanctioned by prescription, had often succeeded, and probably might still have escaped animadversion, had the Dominican friars, to whom the business was entrusted in Saxony, executed their commission with greater discretion and decency. The irregularities of their conduct, gave general offence. Martin Luther, professor of theology, at Wurtemberg, in Saxony, began bitterly to inveigh from the pulpit, against the vices and irregularities of the monks, who retailed the indulgences, and afterwards to controvert the doctrines, on which they were founded. He published ninety-five theses, containing his sentiments concerning indulgences ; not as points of absolute certainty, but as subjects of enquiry, which he invited the learned to examine. Such was the commencement of the reformation in religion, which has operated so many, and such important changes in Europe.

Every opposition that had hitherto arisen against the church, had been speedily crushed. The papal power had triumphed over emperors, and kings ; it was reserved for a poor monk, to shake the foundations, and overthrow a great part of the colossal fabric. This was an event so little expected, that while Luther's doctrines were spreading over Germany, they excited little attention, and no alarm in the court of Rome. Leo X., absorbed in elegant and refined pleasures, delighting in works of magnificence, and intent on great schemes of policy, regarded with the utmost indifference, the theological cavils of an obscure friar. He imputed the whole to monastic emulation, and enmity ; and seemed willing to let the Augustinians, and the Dominicans, wrangle about the matter without interposing in the contest.

About doctrinal points, Leo gave himself little concern.

Attached to pursuits of a different kind, and naturally averse to severe measures, he was not formed for a persecutor. All the personal adversaries of Luther, and many dignified ecclesiastics, exclaimed against the unprecedented lenity of the pope, in suffering an incorrigible heretic to remain so many years within the pale of the church. In consequence of these invectives and representations, Leo found himself obliged to act more decisively ; and, in 1520, he issued a bull, in which Luther was excommunicated, and his writings condemned. This fatal step completely opened the breach, and for ever separated the church into two parties. During the whole of these transactions, the court of Rome, though under the direction of one of its ablest pontiffs, neither formed its schemes with that profound sagacity, nor executed them with that steady perseverance, which had long rendered it the most perfect model of political wisdom, to the rest of Europe. Had the pope acted with more promptitude ; had Luther's first departure from the church, immediately drawn upon him the full weight of its censures ; such severity would probably have deterred the elector of Saxony from protecting him, and the people from listening to his discourses ; and might even have overawed the reformer himself. If, on the contrary, the pope had testified his displeasure at the vices and excesses of the Dominicans, who retailed the indulgences, and imposed silence on the disputants, Luther would, in all probability, have proceeded no farther, and the whole affair would have insensibly died away ; or the question, like many others, have been confined to the schools. According to all appearances, the schism might have been easily reconciled, as, during a long time, Luther professed the most profound veneration for the pope, and was so far from questioning his authority, that he made repeated offers of submission to his decisions. But Leo concerned himself little about religion ; and those whom he employed, endeavoured rather to widen the breach, than to promote the unity of the church. The pope, considering the discontent of a poor friar, as unworthy of his attention, left Luther unmolested during the space of some years, which gave him leisure to propagate his opinions. But no rational

or equitable measures were taken to procure his reconciliation to the church; and the sentence of excommunication, which, at an earlier period, might have had a decisive effect, was delayed, until it was no longer an object of terror. While the daring intrepidity of Luther's character, and the impetuosity of his temper, rendered him the fittest person to undertake so bold a work as the reformation: the careless inattention of Leo X., and the haughtiness of his agents, concurred to its advancement.

Various causes had previously concurred, to prepare the public mind for the reception of Luther's doctrines. The long and scandalous schism, which, during the space of forty years, from 1378, to 1418, divided the church, had greatly diminished the veneration, with which the world had been accustomed to view the papal dignity. Two or three contending pontiffs, at once excommunicating and cursing one another, discredited their pretensions to infallibility. The laity, to whom all parties appealed, began to perceive that some right of private judgment belonged to them; and acquired the exercise of it so far, as to choose from between those infallible rivals, the one whom they judged proper to follow. The pontificates of Alexander IV. and Julius II., gave great offence to Christians. The profligate morals, and tyrannical administration of the former, and the restless ambition of the latter, greatly contributed to lessen the respect of the Christian world, for its spiritual head. The disorderly lives, and secular manners of the clergy, contributed also, in no small degree, to draw on them the aversion of the laity. These disorders were more prevalent in Germany, than in most other countries. Many of the bishops, and abbots, being not only ecclesiastics, but princes, their manners were rather accommodated to the latter, than to the former character. And the people becoming gradually enlightened, could hardly regard as ministers of Christ, and successors of the apostles, men wearing a military habit, with facings of gold, and silver lace; employed in tilts and tournaments; and exhibiting nothing in their life, and morals, conformable to the sanctity of their ecclesiastical profession. Since the period of the great schism in the see of

Rome, the art of printing had begun to diffuse some degree of knowledge, among the laity ; to keep up among them the remembrance of past transactions, and to excite them to exercise their thinking powers. From these, and various other circumstances, it is evident, that about the time of Luther's reformation, a revolution had gradually taken place in the public mind, which led to a result very different from that which followed the attempts of Wickliffe, Huss, and other reformers.

When Charles V. arrived in Germany, the doctrines of Luther were every where propagated, but no open rupture had taken place: none of the princes had embraced his opinions ; no encroachments had been made on the possessions, or jurisdiction of the clergy ; nor any change been introduced into the established forms of public worship. A deep impression, however, had been made on the minds of the people ; and the sparks were already scattered abroad which afterwards caused a flame that spread over the greater part of Europe. Charles cited Luther to appear before the diet at Worms, and granted him a safe conduct. Several of the reformer's friends reminded him of the fate of John Huss, and dissuaded him from placing himself in the emperor's power. Luther on this occasion gave proofs of the intrepidity of his character. "I am lawfully summoned," said he "to appear in that city, and thither I will go in the name of the Lord, though as many devils as there are tiles on the houses, were there combined against me." He accordingly went, and his reception at Worms was such as might have satisfied the most aspiring vanity. The populace every where assembled in crowds to see him when he walked abroad, and his apartments were constantly filled with princes and persons of the greatest distinction. Being examined before the diet, he refused to retract his opinions, and neither threats nor promises could prevail with him to alter his resolution. Some proposed to imitate the example of the council of Constance, in the case of John Huss, and to deliver to the flames this heretical monk : but the members of the diet refused to commit such a violation of the public faith. The emperor, unwilling to bring a stain upon his character by so nefarious a measure, permitted

Luther to depart in safety. An edict, however, was shortly after published in the name of the emperor, and by the authority of the diet, proscribing his person, prohibiting any prince of the empire to afford him protection, and requiring all to concur in endeavouring to seize him, as soon as the term of his safe conduct should be expired. The elector of Saxony, however, took him secretly under his protection, and with that prince, Luther found a secure asylum.

Charles soon began to have other affairs to engage his attention. The revolt in Spain, and hostilities with France, called him to a more arduous field of action, and gave full exercise to his political abilities.

During the contest between the emperor and France, almost one half of Germany had revolted from the see of Rome. Charles, on his return, appointed an imperial diet to be held at Spire, to take into consideration the state of religion. The diet, after much deliberation, confirmed the edict published at Worms against Luther, and prohibited any further innovations in religion, but particularly the abolition of the mass, until the meeting of a general council. Against this decree the elector of Saxony, the Landgrave of Hesse, and the prince of Anhalt, with fourteen imperial cities, entered a solemn protest; from which measure, they derived the appellation of Protestants, a name which has since become common to all the sects, that have revolted from the church of Rome.

The diet, next assembled at Augsburg, and the system, known by the name of the confession of Augsburg: was there presented and read, and after a slight examination condemned. The Protestant princes and states, perceiving their danger, assembled at Smalkalde, and entered into a league of mutual defence. But Solyman, being ready to invade Hungary, with the whole force of the Turkish empire, Charles saw the necessity of union, and granted the Protestants liberty of conscience, till the meeting of a general council; and on their part, they agreed to assist him against the common enemy.

The reformation, which gained in this manner a temporary legal sanction, had an extensive influence in freeing the minds of men from the control of spiritual oppression, and disposing

them to think for themselves ; but freedom, though one of the greatest of human blessings, is too often abused. Different sects sprang up among the reformers, some of whose tenets were subversive of peace and regular government. The disorders arising from a sect, distinguished by the name of Anabaptists, form a singular feature in the history of this period. Their peculiar tenet was, that baptism ought only to be administered to persons of mature age, and by dipping. This doctrine was perfectly harmless ; but they imbibed others of a dangerous tendency. They maintained that the civil magistracy was an encroachment on Christian liberty ; that all distinctions of rank ought to be abolished, polygamy allowed, and a community of goods established.

These levelling principles were greedily imbibed by numbers among the lower class of people, who embraced with enthusiasm, opinions, which promised to place them on an equality with their superiors. The peasants, in many places, rose in great bodies, and committed innumerable excesses ; but being destitute of a skilful leader, they were easily dispersed, and Muncer, their first prophet, perished on the scaffold. Several of his followers, however, continued secretly to propagate the opinions of the sect. About eight years after the execution of Muncer, two Anabaptist prophets, both of them Hollanders, John Boccold, a journeyman taylor, of Leyden, and John Matthias, a baker, of Haerlem, fixed their residence at Munster. Having made a number of proselytes, they assembled their associates from the neighbouring country, made themselves masters of the city, and expelled all the citizens, that had not embraced their opinions.

Their next step was to establish a singular kind of government in Munster, which they called the republic of Mount Sion, although Matthias assumed an absolute authority. The prophet sent emissaries to his friends in the Netherlands, requiring them to assemble at Mount Sion, that from thence, they might set out in a body, and reduce all nations under their dominion. Having excited the multitude to pillage the churches, he ordered them to destroy all books except the Bible, as useless or impious. He confiscated the property of such

as had fled, and having commanded every man to bring forth his gold, silver, and valuable effects, he desposited the whole in a public treasury. The members of this singular commonwealth being thus brought to a perfect equality, he ordered all of them to eat at tables prepared in public. His next care was to provide for the defence of the city. He collected vast magazines, repaired, and extended the fortifications, obliged every person without distinction, to work in his turn, and formed into a regular militia, all the inhabitants that were able to bear arms. By his own example, he animated his disciples to refuse no labour, and repine at no hardships; while he endeavored to add the vigour of discipline, to the impetuosity of enthusiasm. The Bishop of Munster in the mean while, collected a considerable force, with which he advanced to besiege the city. On the approach of the hostile army, Matthias sallied out, attacked and forced one quarter of the camp, and returning loaded with spoil, was received in the city with loud acclamations. Intoxicated with this success, he thought nothing impossible to the favorites of heaven. Accompanied by no more than thirty of the most enthusiastic of his followers, he went out again to attack the enemy, brandishing his spear, and boasting that like Gideon, he would with a handful of men "smite the host of the ungodly." The issue of this mad enterprise was, that the prophet, and his thirty fanatical associates were slain.

The death of Matthias occasioned at the first, great consternation among the disciples. Buccold, commonly called John of Leyden, soon revived their spirits, and assumed the same absolute direction of affairs, that the former prophet had possessed. But he changed the plan of operation, and instead of attempting to annoy the besiegers by sallies, he acted entirely on the defensive. This man, though less daring than his predecessor, was more ambitious, and a wilder enthusiast. Having by revelations and prophecies, prepared the minds of the people for some extraordinary events, he stripped himself naked, and perambulating the streets, proclaimed aloud, "That the kingdom of Sion was at hand; that whatever was highest on earth, should be brought low, and whatever was

lowest should be exalted." He then commanded the churches to be levelled with the ground. His next measure was to abolish the senate established by Matthias. Knipperdolling, formerly a wealthy citizen, and one of the first disciples, was degraded from the dignity of consul, to the office of hangman; to which strange transition, he submitted without reluctance, considering it as the will of heaven revealed to the prophet. In the place of the deposed senators, Buccold created twelve judges, corresponding with the number of the twelve tribes of Israel, retaining to himself the same authority that Moses anciently possessed among the chosen people. Being thus in possession of unbounded authority and power, he was in the next place prompted by ambition, to assume the regal title. A prophet whom he had tutored, assembled the people, and declared it to be the will of heaven, that John Buccold should be the king of Sion, and sit on the throne of David; and John protesting that he himself had received a revelation, commanding him to obey the heavenly call, was immediately acknowledged as sovereign by the deluded multitude. From that time, he wore a crown of gold, and royal robes. A numerous body of guards accompanied him when he appeared in public, and a Bible, and a naked sword were carried before him. He assumed all the pomp, and exercised all the functions of royalty, and in the appointment of the officers of his household and kingdom, Knipperdolling was nominated governor of the city, as a reward for his former obedience.

Buccold, now arrived at the height of power, gave unrestrained indulgence to sensual appetite. He ordered the prophets and teachers to exhort, and even to command the people, to make use of what he called their christian liberty, by taking a plurality of wives; a privilege which they declared to be granted to the saints. He himself set the example, by espousing fourteen. The multitude, imitating the conduct of their king, and prophet, gave way to the most horrible licentiousness. All the young women, grown up to maturity, were compelled to marry, and none of the godly were satisfied, without a plurality of women. Freedom of divorce, the constant attendant of polygamy, was also introduced, and every

excess, of which unrestrained sensuality is capable, was committed.

The profligacy of Buccold, and his followers, so disgraceful to the Christian name, filled both Catholics and Protestants with horror. Luther inveighed against this fanatical spirit, with great force of argument, and called on all the states of Germany to put a stop to a frenzy, so fatal to religion, and so pernicious to society. The emperor was occupied with other affairs : but the diet voted supplies to the Bishop of Munster, who being unable to keep a sufficient army on foot, had converted the siege into a blockade. The bishop's army, being thus reinforced, the city was more closely pressed : but the strength of the fortifications, and the diligence with which they were guarded, rendered it dangerous to attempt an assault. The besieged had undergone excessive fatigue in working at their fortifications, and they began to feel the pressure of famine. But such was the ascendancy which Buccold had gained over these infatuated people, that their hopes and their spirits suffered no depression, and they hearkened with implicit credulity to the predictions of their prophets, who assured them that heaven would soon interpose miraculously in their favor. Such as were suspected of an inclination to surrender, were punished with immediate death, as guilty of impiety in distrusting the power of God. One of the king's wives, having expressed some doubts concerning his divine mission, he cut off her head with his own hand, in presence of the others, who were so far from shewing any sentiments of horror at this atrocious deed, that they joined him in dancing with frantic exultation round the bleeding corpse.* While Buccold, their prophet and king, thus exercised a power equally despotic and sanguinary, over the minds and bodies of his subjects, they suffered without murmur or repining, all the horrors of famine. Animated by the most extravagant enthusiasm, their courage was buoyed up with fanatical hopes of celestial assistance, and rather than listen to the terms of capitulation offered by the bishop, they joyfully underwent the

* Robertson's Hist. Charles V. vol. 3, p. 89.

greatest hardships. A deserter at last having made his escape from the town, to the enemy's camp, informed the general of a weak part of the fortification, where the besieged, exhausted with famine, and fatigue, neglected to keep a sufficient guard. He offered to conduct a party thither in the night, and the proposal being accepted, a select detachment scaled the walls unperceived, and having seized upon one of the gates of the city, gave entrance to the rest of the army. The fanatics being thus surprised, concentrated themselves in the market place, where they fought with desperate valor, but being overpowered by numbers, most of them were slain, and the rest made prisoners. Among the last, were Buccold the king, and Knip-perdolling the governor. The king, loaded with fetters, was carried from city to city, as a spectacle to gratify public curiosity, and exposed to every kind of popular insult. His spirit, however, was not broken down by his misfortunes, and he adhered with inflexible firmness to the distinguishing tenets of his sect. Being brought back to Munster, he was put to death with the most exquisite and lingering tortures, all which he bore with astonishing fortitude. Such are the wonderful effects of enthusiasm, in communicating courage, and, "so difficult is it in some cases to distinguish between the martyr and the visionary." This extraordinary man, who, though only a journeyman taylor, had been able to acquire so astonishing a dominion over the minds of his followers, was no more than twenty six years of age, at the period of his execution. His talents, as well as those of Matthias, his predecessor, might perhaps in some situations have proved as useful, as they were here found dangerous to society. This extraordinary affair is here detailed at some length, as it exhibits in a striking manner, the wonderful and almost incredible effects of enthusiasm, on the human mind.

After the extinction of the fanatical kingdom of Mount Sion at Munster, the sect of Anabaptists, so tumultuous and sanguinary at its first appearance, soon became innocuous and pacific. In the United States and some other countries, they exist in considerable numbers: but they reject the enthusiastic and dangerous tenets of those who first bore that name, and

are in general industrious, humane, charitable, and in every respect, worthy members of society.

During these commotions in Germany, Charles was in Spain, preparing for an enterprise, which may be esteemed the most glorious transaction of his reign. The famous corsair Hayradin Barbarossa had succeeded his brother in the kingdom of Algiers, and obtained the command of the Ottoman fleet. By a complicated train of treachery and force, he had seized the kingdom of Tunis, and Muley Hassan, the exiled king, applied to the emperor for assistance, in recovering his throne. At the same time, his own subjects in Spain and Naples, brought daily complaints against the piracies and ravages, committed by the galleys of Barbarossa. Every motive, therefore, that ambition and policy could present, or the love of glory inspire, impelled him to undertake the restoration of an exiled prince, and the relief of his own subjects from barbarian rapine. He therefore concluded a treaty with Muley Hassan, and set sail for Tunis, with a formidable armament. The strong fort of Goletta, situated on an island in the bay of Tunis, was carried by assault, and the whole fleet of Barbarossa, was either captured or destroyed. He was also defeated in a bloody engagement on the land, and 10,000 Christian slaves having at the same time, made themselves masters of the citadel, Tunis offered to surrender at discretion. But the victorious troops stained their laurels, by an act of the most savage cruelty, which would have disgraced Mahomedans or Pagans. While the emperor was deliberating on the means of preserving the lives of the inhabitants, his soldiers, fearing to be deprived of the booty which they expected, burst suddenly into the town, and made a general massacre. No fewer than 30,000 perished in this indiscriminate carnage, and 10,000 were made prisoners. Muley Hassan was put in possession of the kingdom, on condition that he should acknowledge himself a vassal of the crown of Spain, put into the emperor's hands all the fortified sea ports, and pay an annual sum of 12,000 crowns. In addition to the glory of conquest, twenty thousand Christian slaves

of all nations, liberated from bondage, spread the fame of the emperor as their deliverer, throughout Europe.

This African expedition, and the extinction of the kingdom of the fanatics at Munster, took place in the summer of 1535 ; and in the succeeding year, the war was renewed between Francis and Charles, but as neither party gained any decisive advantage, a truce was concluded in 1538. The year 1540, was signalized by the revolt of Ghent, where Charles exhibited an awful instance of his severity. Twenty six of the principal citizens were executed, and a greater number were banished. The city was despoiled of its ancient privileges, and a new political and civil administration was ordained. A large sum was levied on the inhabitants, and an annual tax imposed for the support of a garrison. The Ghentois were in almost every respect, treated as a conquered people.

The emperor now found it necessary to direct his attention to Germany, where the divisions in the church, were daily widening. A conference was appointed between some of the most celebrated divines, and commenced in the diet at Worms. The pope highly disapproved of the measure, considering any attempt to regulate the affairs of religion in a conference of German divines, as an infringement of his authority. His remonstrances however were ineffectual. The conference was renewed at the diet of Ratisbon, in the emperor's presence. But all attempts to procure a reconciliation, and to re-establish the unity of the church, proved ineffectual. The minds of men were agitated with theological disputes, the different parties were influenced by opposite interests, and mutual jealousies. The pope, the rigid Catholics, and the Protestants, were alike displeased at the proceedings of the diet : the two first thought that too much, the last that too little was conceded.

The next enterprize of Charles was an expedition against Algiers ; that port having, since the taking of Tunis, become the common receptacle of all the Barbary corsairs. From the time that Hayradin Barbarossa had taken the command of the Ottoman fleet, Algiers had been governed by Hassen Aga, a renegado eunuch, who exceeded his master in cruelty, and

whose gallies harassed the coasts of the Mediterranean. Charles resolving to humble these desperate ruffians, set sail late in the autumn, contrary to the advice of Andrew Doria, who conjured him not to expose so fine an armament to almost inevitable destruction, by venturing to approach at that season the stormy coast of Algiers.

The remonstrances of Doria proved prophetic. No sooner had the emperor landed in Africa, than a dreadful hurricane arose, which scattered his fleet. A great number of his vessels were totally wrecked, while he with his land forces, were left exposed to all the fury of the elements, in a hostile country, without a hut or a tent to afford them a shelter; and harassed at the same time by the attacks of the Algerines. The admiral Doria, having at last the good fortune to assemble the shattered remains of the fleet, Charles re-embarked, after having lost a great part of his army by fatigue, famine, and the sword. Those who survived, were doomed to encounter new difficulties in their return. The fleet was dispersed by a second storm, and the ships were obliged separately to take shelter in different ports of Spain and Italy. As the first expedition of this emperor to Africa was the most glorious, the second was the most disastrous of his reign. Its unfortunate issue, shows the danger of temerity in important undertakings. Had Charles listened to the counsel of Doria, his experienced admiral, he might have avoided this dreadful calamity. But if he paid dearly for his obstinate rashness, his misfortune developed some valuable qualities in his character. His strength of mind, fortitude, and humanity, were on this occasion eminently conspicuous. He never appeared more truly great. He endured the same hardships as the meanest soldier; he exposed his own person wherever danger threatened; he encouraged the desponding, visited the sick, and wounded, and animated all by his example. When the army embarked, although a body of Arabs hovering at no great distance threatened to attack the rear, he was among the last that left the shore.

The calamitous issue of this expedition, which took place in the year 1541, encouraged the French monarch to re-com-

mence hostilities ; and an action equally contrary to the law of nature and of nations, furnished him with too good a pretext. The Marquis del Guasto, governor of Milan, having received intelligence of the destination of two French ambassadors, one to Venice and the other to Constantinople, ordered some soldiers of the garrison of Pavia to lie in wait for them as they sailed down the Po. The ambassadors with most of their attendants were murdered, and their papers were seized. So horrible a crime, which would have dishonoured the most uncivilized nations, justified Francis in the public opinion of Europe. After a war of three years, without any decisive advantages, a peace was concluded between France and the emperor, in 1544. About two years afterwards, Charles, resolving to reduce the Protestants, concluded a dishonourable truce with the Turks, leaving Solyman in the undisturbed possession of that part of Hungary which he then occupied.

The emperor had frequently solicited the calling of a general council, and in this proposal he had been joined by the other princes of Europe. The Protestants had united their suffrages for the same purpose, and Luther invariably declared his determination to submit to its decisions. But by a strange kind of policy, successive popes had invariably sought and found pretexts for postponing a measure, which alone could re-establish the unity of the church. If the papal see had not been more intent on preserving its power and authority than on providing for the security of religion, it would certainly have concurred with the general wish of Christendom. After various delays, the council of Trent was called in 1546, not less than twenty seven years after Luther's defection ; during which period the doctrines of that reformer had been rapidly spreading. It requires no great depth of penetration to perceive that the remedy was applied too late, and that a council summoned by the authority, and under the influence of the papal see, could produce no beneficial effect, when half of Germany had separated itself from the communion of Rome, and the reformed doctrines had struck so deep a root in several other countries. The Protestants, as might have been expected, denied the legality of the council of

Trent, which they considered as called to condemn rather than to examine their opinions. The death of their apostle Luther, which happened about this time, threw them into great consternation; but his opinions were now so firmly rooted, and so extensively spread, as to stand in no further need of his fostering hand.

The military preparations of the emperor, in the meanwhile, began to rouse the attention of the princes of the Smal-kaldic league. Having discovered that he had entered into an alliance with Paul III. for the extirpation of heresy, they saw that not only the suppression of the reformed religion, but also the extinction of German liberty was intended. They therefore resolved neither to renounce their religious opinions, nor to abandon their civil rights, and in consequence of this determination, they had recourse to arms. A warlike people soon crowded to the standard of religion. Enthusiastic zeal seconded their native ardor. In a few weeks, the confederates were able to muster 70,000 foot, and 1,500 horse; and had they immediately commenced hostilities, they might have dictated their own terms. But they spent their time in negotiating, instead of fighting, till the emperor received reinforcements and supplies. Several of the Protestant princes dreading his power, remained neutral, and others, allured by the prospect of advantage, had entered into his service. Thus, a confederacy at first so powerful, as to threaten the imperial throne, in the space of a few weeks fell to pieces. Charles imposed heavy fines on those who had taken arms against him, besides obliging them to deliver up their artillery and warlike stores, and to admit garrisons into their principal towns and fortresses. The Elector of Saxony, and the Landgrave of Hesse, still remained in arms, and Charles resolved to make them the victims of their obstinacy. He defeated the Elector of Saxony at Mulhausen, and made him prisoner. He then caused him to be tried for treason and rebellion, by a court martial of Italian and Spanish officers, who condemned him to suffer death by decapitation. The Elector heard with the utmost indifference this sanguinary sentence, which however, was not carried into execution. At the earnest entreaty

of his wife, he resigned the electoral dignity, and put Wittenburg, his capital into the hands of the emperor, who in return for these important concessions, granted him his life, and promised to settle the city of Gotha, with its territory, and a revenue of 50,000 florins, on him and his posterity. The Electorate of Saxony was immediately bestowed on Maurice, Marquis of Misnia. By the persuasion of this prince, the Landgrave of Hesse, who was still in arms, submitted to the emperor, and threw himself at his feet. But Charles, immediately ordered him to be confined as a prisoner, although Maurice and the Elector of Brandenburg, had rendered themselves sureties for his personal freedom. The good fortune of the house of Austria was now at its height, and its power scarcely admitted of any control. In Germany the emperor exercised all the rights of a conqueror, while his brother Ferdinand tyrannized with still greater severity over Bohemia.

The emperor now summoned a diet at Augsburg; and entering that place at the head of his Spanish troops, he quartered them in the city; and having cantoned the rest of his army in the environs, he took possession of the cathedral, where he re-established, with solemn pomp, the Roman mode of worship. After these preliminary steps, calculated to intimidate the members, and make them comply with his will; he exhorted them to recognize the authority of the general council, which he had been so solicitous to procure. The council itself, however, had undergone an important change. The pope, actuated by jealousy, at the emperor's rapid success against the protestants, had not only withdrawn his troops from the imperial army, but had also translated the council from Trent to Bologna, a city subject to his own jurisdiction. Such of the prelates, however, as depended on the emperor, still remained at Trent, so that the council was separated into two divisions. The diet of Augsburg, at the emperor's desire, petitioned the pope, in the name of the whole Germanic body, to enjoin the prelates to return to their first place of assembly. But Paul III. eluding their request, Charles saw that he could not entertain any hope of acquiring such an ascendancy, in a council held at Bologna, as to render it subservient to his

views. He therefore resolved not to acknowledge it as a legal representation of the church ; and employed some divines, of known abilities and erudition, to prepare a provisional system of doctrine, which became known by the name of "The Interim." This he presented to the diet, as a regulation to which all should conform, "till such a council as they desired could be called." It was, in almost every article, conformable to the faith of the church of Rome, and enjoined the observance of the Roman rites. In regard to two particulars, some latitude in doctrine and discipline was admitted. Such ecclesiastics, as had married, were allowed to retain their wives, and to perform their sacerdotal functions ; and those provinces which had been accustomed to partake of the cup in the communion, were still indulged in that privilege. This conciliatory system was hastily ratified in the diet ; for, although disapproved of by many, no one had the courage to oppose it. The emperor, therefore, prepared to enforce its observance, as a decree of the diet ; but, like all conciliatory schemes, proposed to men heated by disputes, it pleased neither party.—The Catholics thought it granted too much indulgence ; the Protestants thought it allowed too little—and both were dissatisfied. The measure was no sooner known at Rome, than the members of the sacred college were filled with indignation, and exclaimed with the greatest acrimony against the emperor's profane encroachment on the pontifical function. Several of the German princes remonstrated against the Interim ; and the imperial cities, with once voice, refused its admission. Charles, however, resolved to carry the plan into execution, in spite both of Rome and the Protestants. Employing force to teach submission, he stripped Augsburg and Ulm of their privileges ; and, by the prompt severity of his measures, terrified the other cities into a feigned compliance. The pope, although highly displeased at the emperor's assumption of the pontifical authority, in presuming to define articles of faith, and to regulate modes of worship, had sufficient knowledge of human nature, to perceive, that the Interim would prove one of the most troublesome enterprizes of Charles's reign ; and that a system which all condemned, and none approved of, could not

be of long duration. Paul, however, did not live to see the result. He was succeeded by Julius III., who shewed no haste, in causing the council of Trent or Bologna, to resume its deliberations. Unable, however, to resist the pressing solicitations of the emperor, who persisted in his resolution of forcing the Protestants into the pale of the church, he at last issued a bull, commanding the council to reassemble at Trent. Charles, in the mean while, held a diet at Augsburg, in order more fully to enforce the observation of the Interim, as well as to procure an authentic act of the empire, acknowledging the authority of the council, and commanding implicit conformity to its decrees. He carried his point in the diet; and all Europe was astonished at the absolute ascendancy which he had acquired over the Germanic body. Germany itself was no less terrified than amazed, at seeing the emperor assume the powers and prerogatives, which the pontiffs of Rome had so long exercised. The princes who had hitherto supported his measures, and contributed to his aggrandisement, began to tremble for their own safety, and to take measures for preventing the dangers with which they were threatened.

Charles had long aimed at bringing all Germany to a uniformity in religion; and of rendering the imperial power despotic. His measures had hitherto been so successful, that he considered the accomplishment of these designs, as almost infallible; and formed, in the next place, the project of placing his son Philip, on the imperial throne of Germany. Here, however, his ambition received a check. So determined an opposition was evinced by his brother Ferdinand, and all the electors, both ecclesiastical and secular, as convinced him of its impracticability. Seeing his hopes disappointed, in this scheme of domestic ambition, he directed his whole attention towards the establishment of uniformity in religion.

New troubles in Italy prevented the council from re-assembling before the 1st of September, when about sixty prelates, mostly from the ecclesiastical state, or from Spain, with a few Germans, convened at Trent. At the opening of the session, the abbot of Bellorane, the French king's ambassador, demanded audience, and in the name of his master, Henry II.

protested against the authority of an assembly, convened at so improper a juncture, when a war, wantonly kindled by the pope, rendered it impossible for the Gallican prelates to resort to Trent with safety, or to deliberate on matters of religion with the requisite tranquillity. He finished by declaring, that the king, his master, did not acknowledge this to be a œcumenic council, but should consider it as a particular and partial convention.

The emperor, in the meanwhile, exerted his utmost authority to establish the reputation and jurisdiction of the council. His zeal even anticipated its decrees, and he began to take the most rigorous measures towards exterminating the Protestant doctrines, before they were condemned. His arbitrary proceedings now fully developed his intention of subverting the Germanic constitution, as well as the reformed religion. Maurice, Elector of Saxony, and other Lutheran princes, who had hitherto adhered to the emperor, saw the necessity of setting bounds to his usurpations. Maurice conducted the execution of his designs with admirable policy, and impenetrable secrecy. In order to preserve the emperor's confidence, he established in his dominions the form of doctrine and worship prescribed by the Interim, and adopted every other measure that could tend to conceal his designs, while he was completing his preparation for war, and forming an alliance with the king of France. Having at last assembled an army, which amounted to 25,000 foot, and 5,000 horse; he published a manifesto explaining his reasons for taking arms, namely, to secure the reformed religion, to maintain the Germanic constitution, and deliver the Landgrave of Hesse from a long and unjust imprisonment. The French king at the same time published another manifesto, in which he assumed the extraordinary title of Protector of the liberties of Germany, and of its captive princes.

Imagination may conceive, better than words can express, the emperor's astonishment at events so unexpected. He was far from being in a condition to resist so formidable a force, and attempted to elude the danger by negotiation; but nothing was concluded. The elector continued his operations

with such vigor and rapidity, that he was very near surprising the emperor at Inspruck: but Charles being informed of his danger, saved himself by a precipitate flight. Maurice arrived at Inspruck only a few hours after the emperor's flight, and having pursued him to some distance, without success, he returned to the town, and gave up the imperial baggage to the pillage of the soldiers. Charles, in the mean while, pursuing his journey arrived at Villach in Carinthia. In consequence of these transactions the council of Trent was broken up. The German prelates immediately returned home, to provide for the safety of their territories; and the pope's legate was glad of so plausible a pretext for dismissing an assembly, which he found it so difficult to govern. On the 28th of April, 1552, the council was prorogued for two years; but ten years elapsed before it re-assembled.

This council, so long and so earnestly desired by the princes and states of Christendom, and from which so much had been expected, instead of restoring harmony to the church, had by the mixture of human policy, and passions with the views of religion, rendered the breach irreparable. Instead of any attempt being made to reconcile the contending parties, a line of distinction was drawn with studied accuracy, which confirmed their separation. The success of prince Maurice, however, produced the memorable peace of Passau, concluded in 1552; the principal conditions of which were, the liberty of the Landgrave of Hesse, the establishment of the Protestant as well as the Catholic religion, and the complete restoration of the Germanic constitution. This celebrated treaty overturned the vast fabric of despotism, in erecting which, Charles had during so many years exerted all the efforts of his power and policy.

Soon after the conclusion of peace, the emperor leaving his retreat at Villach, made formidable preparations for carrying on the war against his external enemy. The French having conquered Metz, Toul, and Verdun, Charles resolved to make a vigorous effort for the recovery of those important places. The French monarch, apprized of his design, had committed the government of Metz to the celebrated Francis of Lor-

rain, Duke of Guise, a person in all respects worthy of the trust. The reduction of that place was the first object of the emperor's operations. He undertook the siege in person, having under him the famous Duke of Alva, with the most experienced of his Italian and Spanish generals, who represented the danger of commencing the siege of a place of such strength, at so advanced a season. Charles, however, with his usual obstinacy, ordered the city to be invested on the 19th of October, 1552; and the trenches were almost immediately opened. The result was calamitous. Provisions became extremely scarce, and a contagious disease raged in the army, while the valor and vigilance of the duke of Guise, and the garrison, composed of veteran troops, with numbers of the French nobility, who served as volunteers, baffled every mode of attack. The emperor, to save the shattered remains of his army, was obliged to raise the siege, after having lain seven weeks before the town, and lost upwards of 30,000 men. The duke of Guise at the same time, by his humanity to the sick and wounded of the enemy, who were left in the most pitiable condition, completed the fame which he had acquired by his gallant defence of the town, and covered himself with merited glory. The following year, 1553, was rendered memorable by the death of the celebrated Maurice, Elector of Saxony. He may justly be considered as the most remarkable personage of that memorable æra, when singular occurrences and violent revolutions, afforded an opportunity for the display of extraordinary talents. His exorbitant ambition, and his unwarrantable usurpation of his kinsman's dominions, exclude him from the praise of a virtuous character: but his prudence and vigour in forming and conducting the most intricate plans, entitle him to the appellation of a profound politician.

The war between the emperor and France, continued with vigor, and with various success. Charles, although the most potent prince of Europe, had so greatly exhausted his finances by schemes of ambition, by continual wars, and expensive political intrigues, that the want of pecuniary resources frequently crippled his exertions. His armies often mutinied for

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want of pay, when they might have marched to victory, and thus were his best laid plans disconcerted.

In 1554, the emperor concluded the marriage of his son Philip with Mary, queen of England. The year following, he resumed his favourite project of placing him on the imperial throne; but his second attempt was attended with no better success than the former. He found the same inflexible firmness in the king of the Romans, and the same dislike to the measure among the princes of Germany. In the same year, 1555, was framed the recess of Augsburg, an amplification of the treaty of Passau. This recess, after confirming the establishment of the Protestant religion as formerly declared, provided that the Catholics and Protestants should give no disturbance to each other—that the Lutherans should hold all the ecclesiastical benefices of which they were then in possession—and that each particular state should have the right of establishing what system of religion it might deem proper, granting to such of its subjects as did not choose to conform, permission to remove whithersoever they pleased with their effects.

This instrument, confirming, explaining, and amplifying the treaty of Passau, may be considered as the basis of religious peace in Germany, and the bond of union between its different states. It has been the foundation of the religious system of the empire, and has fixed the German church in that state, in which it has with little alteration ever since remained. For at the same time that it placed the reformed religion on a firm and permanent basis, it proved an effectual barrier to its further extension; as from that period few dignified ecclesiastics have been willing to sacrifice wealthy benefices to theological opinions. It may also be observed, that this famous treaty was merely a political institution, formed on views of mutual convenience and benefit, not on any principles of religious toleration. One of its articles expressly declared, that the benefits of this pacification should extend only to the Catholics, and to the Protestants of the confession of Augsburg. The followers of Zuinglius and Calvin, with all other sectaries, still remained exposed to the rigor of the laws de-

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1555

nounced against heretics, nor did they obtain any legal security, until the peace of Westphalia, near a century after this period.

Charles, whose ruling passion had ever been the love of power, and who, during so many years had harassed and terrified Europe, by his intrigues, and his arms, on a sudden astonished the world by renouncing all schemes of ambition, and changing the highest station of human grandeur for the calm tranquillity of retirement. The voluntary resignation of such extensive power, and dominion, gave rise among the historians of that period to various conjectures concerning the motives that could induce a prince of so restless and enterprising a character to retire from the world at the age of fifty six, when objects of ambition operate with full force on the mind and are often pursued with the greatest ardour. Simple and obvious causes, however, will readily account for this extraordinary determination. Charles's health was rapidly declining: he had been attacked early in life by the gout, and its violence increased as he advanced in age. The vigour both of his body and his mind, was broken by the excessive pains which he frequently suffered. The long and violent paroxysms of that excruciating disorder, often rendered him totally incapable of attending to public affairs. As he had been always accustomed to inspect the business of every department, to examine every thing with his own eyes, and to decide according to his own ideas, it gave him the utmost concern to find himself obliged to commit the conduct of affairs to his ministers, and both in council and in action, to rely on the abilities of other men. The motives for this act with respect to which so much discussion has been had, have been fully explained by Charles himself. After reading the act of resignation in presence of his son Philip, his sister the Queen of Hungary, the assembled states of the Netherlands, and numbers of grandees of Spain, and of the princes of Germany, he rose from his chair of state, and leaning on the shoulder of the Prince of Orange, because unable to stand without support, he recounted with dignity, but without ostentation, all that he had undertaken and performed since the commencement of his

reign. He observed that "from the seventeenth year of his age, he had dedicated his thoughts and attention to public objects, reserving no portion of his time for the indulgence of ease, and very little for the enjoyment of private pleasure ; that either in a pacific or a hostile manner, he had visited Germany nine times, Spain six times, France four times, Italy seven times, the Netherlands ten times, England twice, Africa twice, and had made eleven voyages by sea ; that while his health permitted him to discharge his duty, and the vigour of his constitution was equal in any degree to the arduous office of governing such extensive dominions, he had never shunned labour nor repined under fatigue ; that now when his health was broken, and his vigour exhausted by the rage of an incurable disease, his growing infirmities admonished him to retire, nor was he so fond of reigning, as to retain the sceptre in an impotent hand, which was no longer able to protect his subjects." Prudence and magnanimity seem to have directed the closing scene, whatever influence they may have had upon the preceding actions of the political life of the emperor. Constitutional disease, and excessive fatigues having brought on him a premature old age ; he judged it more prudent to conceal his infirmities in solitude, than to expose them to the public eye ; and wisely determined not to forfeit the fame, nor lose the acquisitions of his better days, by vainly struggling to retain the reins of government "when he was no longer able to hold them with steadiness or guide them with address." Having in the most pathetic manner given to his son Philip, his last instructions, he set sail on the 17th September, 1556, for Spain. His voyage was prosperous, and as soon as he landed, considering himself dead to this world, he kissed the earth, saying, "Naked came I from my mother's womb, and naked I now return to thee, thou common mother of all mankind." He then retired to the monastery of St Justus, only a few miles distant from the city of Placentia, in Estremadura. In passing that way many years before, he had been struck with its charming situation, and remarked that this was a place to which Dioclesian might have retired with pleasure. The impression had remained so strong on his mind, that he fixed on

this monastery as his last retreat. It was seated in a vale of no great extent, watered by a small brook, and surrounded by rising grounds covered with lofty trees. From the nature of the soil, as well as the temperature of the climate, it was esteemed the most salubrious and delightful situation in Spain. His apartments consisted of six rooms, four of them with naked walls, the other two hung with brown cloth, and furnished in the simplest style. Here he buried, in solitude and silence, his grandeur, his ambition, and all his vast projects, which now seemed completely effaced from his mind. He even restrained his curiosity from any enquiry concerning the political transactions of Europe; and appeared to regard the busy scene which he had left, with a contempt and indifference, arising from his experience of its vanity. He employed a considerable portion of his time in religious exercises, and the rest in cultivating, with his own hands, the plants in his garden—in riding to the neighbouring wood, attended by a single servant on foot—in entertaining, at his homely table, a few neighbouring gentlemen—or in mechanical amusements, in which he always delighted. He was particularly curious in regard to the construction of clocks and watches; and having found, after a multitude of trials, that he could not bring any two of them to go exactly alike, he is said to have reflected with surprise and regret on the time that he had employed, and the pains he had taken, in the still more vain attempt of bringing mankind to a uniformity of opinion, on the speculative doctrines of religion. Happy would it have been for himself—happy for his subjects, had he begun at an earlier period to make such reflections.

In this sequestered retirement, Charles probably enjoyed, during more than a year, greater happiness than he had ever found on the imperial throne. But about six months before his death, the gout, after a longer intermission than usual, returned with increased violence. His constitution, already exhausted, was unable to withstand such a shock; and his mind, as well as his body, seemed gradually to give way. From that time, a kind of languor depressed his whole frame; and the eccentric act of celebrating his own obsequies, seems an

indication of a weak and disordered fancy. His domestics, with black tapers in their hands, marched in funeral procession to his tomb, which was erected in the chapel of the monastery. Charles himself followed, wrapped in his shroud ; and being, with awful solemnity, laid in his coffin, the service for the dead was chaunted by the monks. This mock ceremony was soon followed by his actual interment. The very next day he was seized with a fever, and expired on the 21st September, 1556, in the fifty-ninth year of his age.

On the momentous reign of Charles V., we have expatiated more largely than on most other periods. The great and singular revolutions which then took place, and the order of things to which it gave rise, hold it up to the reader's attention, as the most remarkable and important æra of modern history. It forms the most conspicuous line of demarcation between the barbarity of the middle ages, and the civilization of modern times. The revival of learning—its subsequent progress—and its rapid diffusion, by means of the newly invented art of printing, had begun to operate an important change in the state of the human mind. The reformation, which was in a great measure one of the effects of this incipient revolution, contributed, in no small degree, towards its completion. It was the most important event that had occurred since the subversion of the western empire. Its consequences were great in a political and moral, as well as in a religious point of view. It produced two great practical effects, of more signal importance, than all speculative opinions ; the freedom of the human mind—and the improvement of clerical morals. Spiritual despotism was banished from one half of Europe ; and in the other, its power has ever since gradually diminished.—The clergy, being before that period all powerful, acted almost without controul ; and scarcely shewed in their manners any conformity to their sacred profession. But as soon as the church was split into different divisions, the clergy of each party, seeing their actions exposed to the rigorous inspection of the other, grew more cautious in their moral conduct ; while the immense field of theological controversy which was then opened, obliged them to cultivate their intellectual faculties.

A spirit of emulation was naturally excited, which roused them to exertion; and the great body of the Christian clergy, of all parties, soon made a considerable advancement in learning and piety.

The reformation of religion is singly sufficient to distinguish the reign of Charles V.; as one of the most remarkable periods in the history of Europe; but several other circumstances also concur to render it memorable. The Germanic constitution, after being for some time ready to sink under imperial despotism, recovered its former privileges; and assumed the form under which it has ever since appeared, until the recent changes effected by the arms of France. In this reign, the power and glory of the house of Austria was at its zenith. On the resignation of Charles V., that illustrious house was divided into two branches—the German and the Spanish—and soon afterwards began to decline. This memorable reign may also be considered as the period which fixed the political system of Europe; and gave rise to a long train of most important events.

Ambition was the ruling passion of Charles, and occasioned the restless activity of his life. Artful, politic, bold, and enterprising, he was equally remarkable for cautious prudence in deliberation, and promptitude in execution. Those qualities which so strongly marked his character, gave him that decided superiority over contemporary princes, which he so long maintained. He possessed, in an eminent degree, the science which is of the utmost importance to a sovereign, that of knowing men, and adapting their talents to their proper departments. This was conspicuous in his choice of generals, ministers, and ambassadors; men whose abilities scarcely ever failed of justifying his selection. But his ambitious projects were the bane of his government, and involved him in continual wars; which exhausted his resources, oppressed his subjects, and prevented him from giving due attention to the interior police, and improvement of his extensive dominions. His whole reign was a series of insidious policy, and restless hostilities.

Charles at the same time, that he abdicated his hereditary

crowns in favour of his son Philip, resigned also the imperial dignity to his brother Ferdinand, king of Bohemia and Hungary, who had long previous to this time been elected king of the Romans. This prince ruled the empire in peace. His reign, though not distinguished by any remarkable occurrence, was the commencement of a happy period in the annals of Germany. Paul IV., dying in 1559, Pius IV. his successor, issued his bull for re-assembling the Council of Trent. All attempts for re-establishing the unity of the church, however, were ineffectual. The Protestants unanimously resolved to adhere to the confession of Augsburg. They contended that the right of convoking such an assembly belonged not to the pope, but to the emperor. The conciliatory measures proposed by Ferdinand, were rejected both by his Holiness, and the Protestant princes. From a view of preceding occurrences, of the interests, the passions, and prejudices of the parties concerned, and of the then existing state of things, it appears that the breach was irreparable. The court of Rome resolved to engross all the power, that Heaven was supposed to have delegated to mortals on earth. The reformers had already obtained, and were determined to keep their share ; and neither party was inclined to give up the claim. To reconcile such opposite interests, and views, which the various occurrences of almost half a century had produced, and confirmed, was impossible. The famous Council of Trent, which had been so often suspended, and renewed, convened much too late, prorogued too often, and continued too long, was in December, 1563, finally dissolved, more than twenty years after Paul III. issued his first bull for its convocation.

Ferdinand I., a prudent and peaceable prince, dying in 1564, was succeeded by his son Maximilian II. He, dying in 1576, was succeeded by his son Rhodolph, who inherited the pacific disposition of his father, and preserved Germany in a state of tranquillity.

Rhodolph dying in 1216, Matthias his brother succeeded him in the imperial dignity, as well as in the other possessions of the German house of Austria. For nearly half a century after the resignation of Charles the Vth, Germany enjoyed compara-

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tive repose, but about the close of that period, a furious war broke out, which interested all the powers of Europe, and during the long and calamitous period of thirty years, desolated Germany. Mutual jealousies had given rise to two politico-religious confederacies, distinguished by the names of the Catholic League, and the Evangelical Union. Various circumstances contributed to exasperate these two great factions against each other. Their respective names imply, that the one was instituted for the support of the Catholic, the other of the Protestant interest. Religion was the ostensible object of contest ; but motives of political interest chiefly predominated. In the course of this long and protracted war the emperor Matthias died, and was succeeded in the imperial dignity, as well as in his other dominions, by Ferdinand II. By the energetic measures of this Prince, the members of the Evangelical Union were completely reduced to subjection—the king of Denmark, who had been chosen general of the league in lower Saxony, was compelled to sue for peace, and Ferdinand saw himself at last in possession of an almost absolute authority. Fortunately for the German princes, his ambition overshoot itself, and raised obstacles which neither his policy nor power could surmount. He formed the two vast designs of re-establishing the imperial jurisdiction in Italy, and of converting Germany into an absolute monarchy. But in the attempt to reduce the princes and prelates of Germany from the condition of sovereigns to that of simple subjects, he was sensible of the danger of attacking both religions at once. He resolved, therefore, to begin with the Protestants ; and accordingly issued an edict ordering them immediately to restore all the benefices, and church lands, which they had held since the pacification of Passau. The princes of the Augsburg confession remonstrated against this edict, which they considered as an infringement of the Germanic constitution, and contended that the affair ought to have been made a subject of deliberation in a general diet. A diet was accordingly convoked at Ratisbon ; but although the majority of the Catholic princes exhorted Ferdinand to preserve the peace of the empire by confirming the treaty of Passau, he continued inflexible

in his determination. Cardinal Richelieu, and Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, however, defeated his ambitious designs, both in Italy and Germany. The Cardinal, having concluded a peace with the Hugonots, crossed the Alps at the head of 20,000 men, gained several advantages over the imperialists, and the Spaniards, their allies—expelled the duke of Savoy from his dominions, and prevented the revival of the imperial power in Italy. During this memorable contest, the German Protestants did little for themselves—all was done by their allies, particularly by the Swedes. The Protestants of Germany, indeed, seem to have had in this age either less zeal, or less courage, than those of France. The religious wars of the empire, exhibited few great native characters, and were productive of few splendid achievements. Ferdinand II., did not live to see the end of this sanguinary contest: he died in 1637, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand III., who continued the war with unabated vigor. On both sides, the greatest exertions were made. The emperor, sometimes brought to the verge of ruin, recovered himself by vigorous efforts, and the conduct of his brave commanders. He was however, reduced to the utmost distress; and Prague, with the whole kingdom of Bohemia, was about to fall a second time into the hands of the enemy; when the Hollanders, growing jealous of the power of France, and the Swedes being weary of long continued hostilities, afforded him an opportunity of saving himself from destruction, by a timely peace. This war was distinguished by brilliant exhibitions of military skill and bravery, too numerous to be particularized in general history. Gustavus Adolphus, Turenne, the famous Conde, Montecuculi, and others, distinguished in this war, will long be illustrious in the military annals of Europe. But after all their marches and countermarches, battles and sieges, less alteration took place in the territorial division of Germany, than might have been expected. The princes, and states of the empire were, with a few trifling exceptions, restored to the lands and prerogatives which they enjoyed previous to the war. In regard to religion, the stipulations of the treaty of Passau, were fully confirmed, and embraced the Calvinists,

as well as the Lutherans. It was also agreed, that the imperial chamber should consist of twenty-four Protestant, and twenty-six Catholic members; that six Protestants should be admitted into the aulic council; and that the general diets of the empire should consist of an equal number of Catholic and Protestant deputies. To these important regulations, were added a number of others, of inferior consequence. Such were the outlines of the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, which terminated the thirty years war, so famous in the annals of Germany, and which was generally considered as the basis of all subsequent treaties, until the extraordinary and unprecedented consequences of the late revolution in France, overturned the whole political system of Europe.

During the long period which elapsed from the elevation of the house of Austria, till the famous treaty of Westphalia, commerce had made a gradual progress. A country, so extensive and populous, generally fertile, and affording great quantities of indigenous produce, must also, as civilization advanced, have had a great demand for foreign commodities. From circumstances already mentioned, numerous cities arose, and the German princes, from feudal lords becoming petty sovereigns, began gradually to imitate in their little courts, the splendour of great monarchs. The cities, situated on the shores of the Baltic, or on the great rivers, taking advantage of their situation, equally convenient for exporting their native productions, and for importing and dispersing throughout Germany those of foreign countries, began at an early period to turn their attention to trade. The famous union of the Hanse Towns has already been mentioned. This confederacy, of which Lubeck was the head, was first formed in the turbulent times of robbery and piracy, which rendered all commercial intercourse unsafe, both by land and sea. But although the origin of the Hansatic league be involved in some degree of obscurity; its subsequent history, during the period now under consideration, is well known, and forms a commercial phenomenon of the middle ages. Sixty cities, are said to have entered at last into this compact, and they obtained particular privileges from the German emperors, and from foreign po-

tentates. They were divided into four classes. Lubeck was at the head of the first: Cologne of the second division: Brunswick was the chief of the third, and Dantzic presided over the fourth. Thus exhibiting the singular spectacle of republics, flourishing under the paramount sovereignty of a monarch, they employed themselves in extending their commerce, and acquiring wealth. They established comptoirs in different parts of Europe, and obtained great privileges from different sovereigns. About the year 1262, they began to resort to Bruges in Flanders, which was one principal cause of the great and almost incredible riches of that city, and of others in the Netherlands, during the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries. Almost the whole commerce of Europe was carried on by Venice, Genoa, Pisa, and other cities of Italy in the south; the German Hanse towns in the north, and the Netherlands in the middle station. This was a sort of systematic commerce, on which the trade of all the other parts of Europe depended, and which, though very remarkable for those barbarous times, would sink into insignificance in a comparison with that of modern Europe. It was, however, sufficiently important to procure for the Italian, the Flemish, and the Hanseatic cities, a degree of power, wealth, and splendor, which eminently displayed the advantages arising from trade. The Hanse Towns, which in this place are particularly the subject of consideration, soon grew so powerful, as to excite the jealousy of some of the neighbouring princes; particularly of the kings of Denmark and Norway, with whom they had violent contests. About the middle of the fourteenth century, the Hanse Towns, in a naval war with Denmark, totally destroyed the Danish fleet, and compelled Waladimir III. to make a disadvantageous peace. In 1360, this mercantile confederacy seems to have been completed by the union of no fewer than sixty-six cities. From that time, they were almost the only carriers by sea, between the northern nations of Europe, till after the commencement of the fifteenth century. During the latter part of the fourteenth century, the Hanse towns were in the zenith of their greatness, and absolute masters of the northern seas: their naval power was

dreaded, and their alliance courted by the greatest princes, who often hired their ships for the purpose of maritime war. They cleared the Baltic of the numerous pirates, by which that sea was infested, and who were generally persons of rank, possessing castles on the shore. Their strong holds were taken, and destroyed, and the pirates dispersed. This may be reckoned among the number of circumstances, which shew the turbulent and unhappy state of society in these ages, and the insecurity of commerce, and navigation, when both land and sea were rendered unsafe, by an extensive system of robbery and pillage.

The Hanseatic confederacy, however, having once attained to its meridian greatness, began gradually to decline. Many causes contributed to the decay of this potent confederacy, among which may be reckoned their frequent quarrels with the neighboring princes, but particularly their ruinous wars with Denmark, and the rising trade of Copenhagen, which being by Christiern II., in 1515, made the sole emporium for Danish commodities, gave a fatal blow to the trade of the Vandalic Hanse Towns. About the commencement of the seventeenth century, the Hollanders had almost entirely supplanted them in the Mediterranean trade. The Hanse Towns had scarcely any manufactures to support their trade, while the Netherlands were able to supply vast quantities of manufactured goods. The inattention of other nations to mercantile affairs, had thrown the whole of the carrying trade into their hands; but as soon as commerce became a subject of general attention, and every nation began to traffic with its own commodities, the trade, and consequently the shipping of the Hanse Towns, underwent a change. Before the middle of the seventeenth century, the famous Hanseatic league was little more than a name, and among all the cities of which it was composed, only Dantzick and Hamburg have retained till our days, any great commercial importance.

From a view of commerce, we must again turn to the turbulent scenes of politics. Ferdinand III., after having concluded the treaty of Westphalia, passed the remainder of his days in peace; and dying in 1657, was succeeded by Leopold,

who had to contend with two formidable enemies, France and the Ottoman Porte. Both these powers made encroachments on his territories. In 1664, the Grand Vizier Cuprogli, entered Hungary at the head of 100,000 men, where he met with a total defeat. But the emperor, being threatened by a revolt of the Hungarians, gave the Turks a favourable peace. In consequence of the vigorous measures of Leopold, the revolt of the former was soon subdued. That brave people, who had so often repelled the infidels, still remained dissatisfied ; and at last broke out again into an open rebellion, which threatened at one time the ruin of the house of Austria. Tekeli, chief of the insurgents, called in the Turks to his support ; and Mahomet IV., the reigning sultan, prepared the most formidable force ever sent by the Ottoman Porte, against Christendom. Leopold, seeing the gathering storm, entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with the famous John Sobieski, king of Poland, whose name had long been terrible to the Ottoman armies. Ever since Constantinople fell under the power of the Turks, Hungary had been the barrier of Europe, and presented an insuperable obstacle to the progress of the Ottoman arms. But now the Hungarians, driven to despair by imperial oppression, were constrained to unite with the enemies of Christendom, in order to resist the arbitrary measures of the house of Austria.

The Grand Vizier, Kara Mustapha, set out from Constantinople to take the chief command of a Turkish army, amounting to 280,000 men, with an immense artillery, proportioned to the magnitude of the armament. Being joined by the Hungarians under Tekeli, chief of the mal-contents, this prodigious military force entered Austria, and advanced towards Vienna. The duke of Lorraine, the imperial general, found himself unable to check the progress of the enemy : the emperor abandoned his capital : an immense crowd of inhabitants followed the example of the court : the roads were thronged with fugitives, in carriages, on horseback, and on foot : and numerous waggons laden with moveables, completed the scene of confusion. A general consternation prevailed throughout Germany, and all Europe waited the event with

anxious expectation. On the 17th of July, 1683, the Turks invested Vienna. The garrison consisted of about 15,000 men; to whom were joined near 50,000 armed citizens, and all were determined to make the most vigorous defence. Before the 1st of September, a breach was made in the fortifications of the city, and an assault was hourly expected. The Ottoman army, having in its march taken the right side of the Danube, and the Hungarians under Tekeli the left, the duke of Lorraine succeeded in preventing their junction, but was unable to afford any relief to the capital. The fate of Vienna was now drawing towards a decision, when a signal made from the mountain of Calenberg, by John Sobieski king of Poland, inspired the besieged with hopes of deliverance. The troops of this prince having joined the imperialists, the whole Christian army amounted to about 64,000 men, a force not equal in number to one fourth of that which it had to oppose. The Grand Vizier, relying on the strength of his army, had consumed his time in luxury, and neglected to push the assault, till it was too late to repair the mistake. The Christian army advanced towards the Turkish camp, and the Grand Vizier, resolving to make a vigorous effort, marched out to battle with the main body of his army, and ordered a corps of 20,000 men to make, at the same time, an assault on the city. But the name of the King of Poland was sufficient to paralyze the Turks. Those who made the assault on the city were vigorously repulsed, and their vast army being seized with a panic, was routed almost without resistance. Of the Christians, not above 500 fell in this singular engagement, nor did the loss of the enemy amount to much more than double that number. So great however, was the terror, and so precipitate the flight of the Turks, that they left behind them not only their tents, artillery, and baggage, but even the famous standard of Mahomet, which was taken and sent as a present to the Pope. The King of Poland, and the imperialists advanced soon afterwards in the pursuit of the enemy. A battle took place on the plains of Barcau, in which the Turks were again defeated, and the emperor at last, recovered all Hungary. He procured the crown thereof to be declared hereditary in

the house of Austria, and his son Joseph was proclaimed king. Although still engaged in war against the Turks, he had leisure to turn his attention towards France, and framed that famous association, known by the name of the League of Augsburg; the object of which was to check the power, and put a stop to the encroachments of France. In this league, the Emperor, Spain, and Holland were principals: Denmark, Sweden, and Savoy afterwards acceded. The flames of war were again lighted up in Germany, and the palatinate was wasted with fire and sword. The emperor, in the meanwhile, was successful against the Turks. Belgrade was taken, and the imperialists, commanded by the Prince of Baden, defeated the Ottoman armies in three successive engagements. This good fortune was not permanent. The Turks, imputing their losses to the misconduct of the Grand Vizier, that officer was sacrificed to the public indignation. A new vizier, a man of energy and abilities was appointed. The Turks recovered Belgrade, and all Upper Hungary, but again received a dreadful check, being in the year 1691, totally defeated by the Prince of Baden, with the loss of about 20,000 men.

The year 1697 gave a favourable turn to the emperor's affairs. The treaty of Ryswick re-established tranquillity in the west of Europe, and in the east, his arms were successful. Mustapha II., the reigning sultan, more enterprising and active than his predecessor, commanded his army in person; and the celebrated Prince Eugene of Savoy, was placed at the head of the imperialists in Hungary, where his consummate abilities shone forth in all their lustre at the memorable battle of Zenta. In this decisive engagement, the Grand Seignor was totally defeated. About 20,000 Turks fell by the sword, and 10,000 were drowned. All their ammunition, provisions, artillery, and baggage; with the magnificent pavillion of their Emperor, and the great seal of the Ottoman empire, fell into the hands of the imperialists. Seldom was victory more complete. After a fruitless attempt to retrieve his losses in another campaign, Mustapha was obliged to agree to a peace, which was signed at Carlowitz in 1699, by the plenipotentiaries of all the belligerent powers. By this treaty, the Morea and seve-

ral parts of Dalmatia, were ceded to Venice, Kamienieck was restored to the Poles, Russia was confirmed in the possession of Asoph; and all Hungary with Transylvania, and Slavonia, were ceded to the house of Austria. General tranquillity was once more restored to Europe; and the boundaries of the Austrian dominions, and of the Ottoman empire were fixed nearly on the same footing, as they now stand.

This pleasing calm was only a prelude to one of the most extensive scenes of war that had ever ensanguined the history of modern Europe. The Spanish succession was the grand object, on account of which, shortly after the peace of Ryswick, the flames of war were spread over all the western and southern countries of the continent. Charles II., king of Spain, being without issue, and in a languishing state of health, the prospect of his speedy death raised the hopes of the various competitors for the succession. These were Louis XIV., the Emperor Leopold, and the Elector of Bavaria, who severally founded their claims on consanguinity, more or less remote. The general interests of Europe required, that, to prevent the aggrandisement of either Austria, or France, the Prince of Bavaria should succeed to the crown of Spain; but he was unable to contend with either of the other two competitors. A complicated train of political intrigues therefore took place, and every machination that statesmen could devise, was employed by the claimants and their abettors. William III. king of England, foresaw the dangerous consequences that must arise from an addition of the Spanish monarchy to the already great possessions of the house of Bourbon, and considered it a masterpiece of policy to provide against that event by a partition treaty concluded with Louis XIV., by which Spain and her American empire were assigned to the Electoral Prince of Bavaria and the rest of her territories were divided between the Dauphin and the Archduke Charles, second son of the emperor. The Spanish ministry were fired with indignation on hearing of this projected division of their territory by foreigners. The King called an extraordinary council to deliberate on so unprecedented a transaction, and at length came to the resolution of making a testa-

ment, by which he declared the Electoral Prince of Bavaria sole heir to the whole of his dominions.* This decision was perfectly calculated to remove the apprehensions of Europe, as it was infinitely more favourable to the general balance of power, than the partition treaty. But the sudden death of the Electoral Prince, annulled the whole transaction, and revived those hopes and fears which had undergone a temporary extinction. William the III., and Louis XIV., again employed themselves in endeavouring to obviate the consequences, and a second treaty of partition was privately agreed to by England, France, and Holland; by which Spain and her American dominions were assigned to the Archduke Charles, and the rest of the Spanish territories were guaranteed to the Dauphin.

Every engine of political manœuvre was now set to work. The Emperor Leopold, expecting the succession to the whole Spanish monarchy, rejected the treaty of partition. Louis XIV., though he had become a party to the measure, resolved to use his endeavours to obtain the whole; and the Marquis de Harcourt, the French ambassador, by his dexterous policy and insinuating address, soon gained a powerful party to his master's interest at the court of Madrid. The inclinations of Charles preponderated in favour of the house of Austria, but the Spanish grandees and the clergy, and more especially the latter, desired a prince of the Bourbon family. Every intrigue was practised, and every argument was used, to sway the mind of the dying monarch, who, for a long time hesitating, at length resolved to consult the Pope on this important subject. His holiness decided in favour of the family of Bourbon, and in consequence of this decision, Charles made a will in which he declared the Duke of Anjou second son of the Dauphin, his successor in all his dominions. The nomination fell on this young prince to prevent the union of France and Spain, as it was the earnest wish of the Spaniards to preserve their monarchy entire and independent. This testament was kept a profound secret, till the death of Charles II., A. D. 1701, developed its contents. The Duke of Anjou being immedi-

* Voltaire *Siecle de Louis XIV.* chap. 16.

ately proclaimed king of Spain, by the name of Philip V., was crowned at Madrid with the consent of the whole nation. Louis XIV. took the most effectual measures for supporting him in his newly acquired throne. The Dutch immediately acknowledged his right. The king of England unable to draw his Parliament into his hostile views, found it necessary to adopt the same measures. Of all the great powers of Europe, the Emperor was the only one who refused to acknowledge the title of Philip V. to the crown of Spain.

Leopold, therefore, entered the lists against France and Spain without a single ally. In 1701 he commenced hostilities, by sending Prince Eugene into the Milanese, with an army of 30,000 men. That celebrated captain drove the French beyond the Oglio—made himself master of all the district between the Adige and the Adda—and penetrated into the territory of Bresciano. But Louis XIV. having, on the demise of James II., acknowledged the pretender, his son, king of England, by the name of James III., the parliament immediately concurred with the sovereign, in resenting the insult.—William III. died amidst his preparations for war; but his political views were adopted by Anne, his successor. The Dutch entered fully into the measures of England. A grand alliance was formed between England, Holland, and the Emperor; and war was declared against France, on the same day, at London, the Hague, and Vienna. Savoy and Portugal afterwards acceded to the confederacy; and a general war was kindled in the west of Europe. In this compendium of history, the object of which is to exhibit the progress of nations, rather than the cabals of courts, and the operations of campaigns, it would be impossible to examine the intricate maze of politics, or to detail the military manœuvres of this period. It is sufficient here to observe, that the allies incurred an immense expenditure of blood, and of money, to little purpose. Louis XIV. carried his point, by exhausting his dominions; and his grandson, Philip V., was, by the treaty of Utrecht in 1714, confirmed on the throne of Spain.

Leopold, who began this celebrated war, dying in 1705, left it to be continued by Joseph I., his son and successor, whose

reign it entirely occupied. Joseph died in 1711, and was succeeded by his brother, the Archduke Charles, whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain. The elevation of this prince to the imperial throne, materially changed the state of political affairs, and greatly contributed to promote the peace of Utrecht. That treaty was no sooner concluded, than a war, which arose in another quarter, gave occupation to his arms. The Turks had happily remained quiet during the grand contest of the Christian princes for the Spanish succession; but no sooner was the general peace concluded, than Achmet III. commenced hostilities against the Venetians, and seized on the Morea, in direct violation of the treaty of Carlowitz. The house of Austria being guarantee of that treaty, Charles was bound, both in honour and interest, to oppose its infringement. He accordingly declared war against the Ottoman Porte, in 1716, and the celebrated Prince Eugene was sent to conduct it. Having passed the Danube with a powerful army, he totally defeated the grand vizier Ali, at the battle of Peterwaradin. The year following he undertook the siege of Belgrade; where he sallied out of his entrenchments, routed the Turks with great slaughter, and took all their artillery, ammunition, and baggage. The immediate surrender of Belgrade, was the fruit of this important victory; and, after a short war of two years, the Porte was reduced by successive defeats, to the necessity of concluding the treaty of Passarowitz; by which Belgrade, and the Banat of Temeswar, were ceded to the emperor. But Venice did not recover her possessions in Greece—the Morea being left in the hands of the Turks. The Emperor, after some unsuccessful hostilities with France, Spain, and Sardinia, undertook a new war against the Turks. The Porte was at that time engaged in hostilities with Russia, and had already lost Asoph and Oczakow. Charles thought the crisis favourable for making new acquisitions, by lopping off from the Ottoman empire some of its provinces. But the result was contrary to his expectations. Prince Eugene was dead; and none of the surviving generals equalled him in abilities. The imperialists were repeatedly defeated; several important places were lost;

and Charles resolving to terminate a war, from which he reaped nothing but disgrace and misfortune, a peace between Russia, Austria, and Turkey, was concluded in 1739. Belgrade, Sabatz, the isle and fortress of Orsova, with Servia, and Austrian Wallachia, were ceded to the Porte; and the Danube and the Save, were made the boundaries between the Imperial and the Ottoman dominions. The next year, 1740, Charles VI. died. In him became extinct, the male issue of the ancient and illustrious house of Austria; the disputed succession to whose hereditary dominions, rekindled the flames of war, and involved Europe in new calamities.

One of the grand objects of the Emperor's politics was the arrangement, known by the name of the Pragmatic Sanction, which guaranteed to his daughter, the Archduchess Maria Theresa, married to Francis of Lorraine, Grand Duke of Tuscany, the succession to all the hereditary dominions of the house of Austria. Almost all the European powers had guaranteed this treaty; but lawless ambition can only be restrained by force, and a hundred thousand men would have been a better guarantee, than an equal number of treaties. Charles was no sooner laid in the grave, than numerous pretenders to the Austrian succession arose. The elector of Bavaria laid claim to the kingdom of Bohemia; and the king of Sardinia pretended a right to Milan; while Augustus III., king of Poland, as well as the kings of Spain and France, claimed title to the whole of the hereditary dominions, as descendants from different branches of the house of Austria. Maria Theresa, however, took peaceable possession of her vast inheritance, and by her engaging affability soon gained the hearts of her subjects. Her first care after conciliating the affections of her people, was to raise her husband to the imperial throne; but she was destitute of money, and a number of pretenders were ready to assert their claims, either to the whole or a part of her dominions: The king of Prussia, Frederic the Great, was the first who proceeded to action. In virtue of certain antiquated claims, he made a sudden irruption into Silesia with an army of 30,000 men, in order, as he said, to establish his right. When in the heart of that pro-

vince, and in possession of Breslau, its capital, he shewed an inclination to negotiate. He proposed to Maria Theresa to supply her with money and troops, to protect all her other dominions, and to exert all his interest to place her husband Francis of Lorraine on the imperial throne; in consideration of which he required only the cession of Lower Silesia.

This was, indeed, a small sacrifice to make, for so many and so great advantages, but the queen of Hungary, knowing that to comply with the requisitions of one pretender, would only give encouragement to others, resolved to begin with vigorous measures, to repel aggression by force, and oppose every attempt to dismember her dominions. She accordingly sent Count Neuperg, one of her ablest commanders, with a strong body of troops to expel the invaders. At the village of Molwitz, near Neiss, in Silesia, a desperate engagement took place between the two armies, which were nearly equal in number. The Austrians were defeated with the loss of 4,000 men. This victory was soon after followed by the reduction of the whole province of Silesia.

Although France had guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, the Cardinal de Fleury, a lover of peace, was unable to withstand that ardour for war which was excited in the French court by the king of Prussia's successful invasion of Silesia. A plan was immediately formed for finally crushing the house of Austria, and exalting that of Bourbon on its ruins. This was to be effected by dismembering the dominions of the queen of Hungary, and raising to the imperial dignity the elector of Bavaria, a stipendiary of France. The Count de Belleisle, with the chevalier his brother, were the principal authors of this project; and to them its execution was chiefly committed. Two French armies, one of 50,000, the other of 40,000 men, immediately entered Germany, and the Count de Belleisle acting in the double capacity of ambassador, and general, concluded, on the basis of this plan, a treaty between France, Prussia, and the elector of Bavaria. The elector being appointed by Louis XV., generalissimo, with the Marshals Belleisle and Broglio, to act under him, surprised Passau, entered Upper Austria, and advanced within a few

leagues of Vienna. Multitudes of the inhabitants fled from the capital ; the Danube was daily covered with boats ; and the roads were crowded with carriages and passengers. In this extremity, the queen committing her desperate affairs to the care of her husband and her generals, retired to Presburg, where, having assembled the states of Hungary, she recommended herself and her eldest son, yet an infant in arms, to their protection. Her youth, her beauty, and her distress made a deep impression on all present. The Palatines, drawing their sabres, declared themselves ready to die for the support of her cause. From promises, they immediately proceeded to action. The nobility were instantly in arms, and Count Palfy with 30,000 Hungarians, marched to the relief of Vienna. Kevenhuller, the governor, had a garrison of 12,000 men. The grand duke and his brother, Prince Charles, of Lorraine, were at the head of another large body ; Count Neuperg had 20,000 men under his command in Bohemia, while Prince Lobkowitz and other generals, were exerting themselves in raising new levies. These formidable appearances induced the elector of Bavaria to moderate his expectations. Instead of investing Vienna, he marched into Bohemia, and being joined by 20,000 Saxons, laid siege to Prague. The famous Count Saxe, took the city by storm, and displayed on this occasion, his humanity not less than his courage and bravery. He not only saved the inhabitants from violence, but the town from pillage, by which he acquired a glory, that conquest alone cannot give. The elector of Bavaria was crowned king of Bohemia at Prague, and proceeding to Frankfort, was elected emperor by the name of Charles VII. But the day of his elevation to the imperial throne, was the last of his good fortune. The Austrian general Kevenhuller retook Lintz ; dislodged the French from all their posts in Upper Austria ; entered the Emperor's hereditary dominions, and made himself master of Munich, the capital of Bavaria. Prince Charles of Lorraine, advancing at the head of 48,000 men, expelled the Prussians and Saxons from Moravia ; and Prince Lobkowitz with 16,000 men was appointed to observe the motions of the French in Bohemia. The retreat of the Prussians and Saxons seemed

to afford the Austrians an opportunity of concentrating their whole force against the French under Belleisle and Broglio; but the king of Prussia having received a reinforcement of 30,000 men, marched to the assistance of his allies, and defeated Prince Charles of Lorraine at Czaslau. The loss, however, was nearly equal, about 5,000 men being killed on each side. Soon after this engagement, the Prussian monarch, either weary of the war, or dissatisfied with the court of France, concluded an advantageous peace with the queen of Hungary, by which he obtained the cession of the whole province of Silesia, with the country of Glatz. A peace was also about the same time concluded between the queen and Augustus III. king of Poland, and elector of Saxony.

The Mareschals Belleisle and Broglio no sooner found themselves deserted by their allies, than they retired with precipitation under the cannon of Prague. There they entrenched themselves, while Prince Charles of Lorraine with the Austrian army, encamped in sight of them on the hills of Grinnitz. The French generals, now surrounded by superior forces, and deprived of all supplies, were reduced to the greatest extremity. Mareschal Maillebois, commander of the French forces on the Rhine, marched with 42,000 men to the relief of Prague, and was joined at Amberg by 30,000 French and imperialists, under Seckendorf and Count Saxe. The Prince of Lorraine, apprised of this movement, committed the blockade to general Festitz, with 18,000 men; and advanced with the main body of his army against Maillebois. In the meanwhile, the Mareschals Belleisle and Broglio sallied out of Prague, in spite of the blockading army, and attempted to form a junction with Maillebois. But the Prince of Lorraine rendered the measure impracticable. Maillebois was at last obliged to retreat into the Palatinate, while Belleisle and Broglio were driven back into Prague. The siege of this important place was now resumed. Maillebois being recalled, Mareschal Broglio made his escape in disguise in order to take the command of the French forces in the Palatinate. The eyes of all Europe were turned towards Mareschal Belleisle, and his small but gallant army, now destitute of all re-

sources but those of military skill and courage. In this desperate situation, Belleisle called into action all the powers of his genius, while his intrepid spirit communicated itself to his officers and soldiers. Almost every day the French made desperate sallies, which occasioned great loss to the besiegers. The blockade, however, being closely kept up, the French were reduced to the greatest distress for want of provisions, and Belleisle saw with great concern, the havoc which famine and disease were beginning to make among his troops. He resolved, therefore, to make a strenuous and final effort to effect a retreat. The great extent of the walls of Prague rendered his plan more practicable. Having made in one quarter of the town such dispositions as led the besiegers to expect a general sally, he marched out on the opposite side with 11,000 foot, and 3,000 horse ; and gained almost a day's march on the enemy. The ground was covered with snow : the cold was intense : he was in the heart of an enemy's country : and Prince Lobkowitz with a superior force hung on his rear. Amidst all these difficulties, Mareschal Belleisle so judiciously planned his rout, striking over frozen morasses, perhaps never before trodden by the foot of man, that he successfully completed his retreat ; one of the most memorable in military history ; having lost about 1,000 men through the excessive rigour of the season, but not one by the sword of the enemy.

The queen of Hungary, elated with her unexpected success, rejected proposals of peace that were made by the court of Versailles. She was now completely victorious, being in possession of the territories of the emperor Charles VII., while the French had lost above 100,000 men in supporting his cause. Her good fortune still continuing to attend her, she daily received the news of fresh victories : the Prince of Lorraine defeated the imperialists near Branau, and Prince Lobkowitz drove the French from all their posts in the Upper Palatinate. These two generals afterwards obliged Mareschal Broglio to abandon his strong camp on the Danube, and to retire with precipitation towards the Rhine. The emperor, finding himself stripped of his dominions, and aban-

done by his allies, took refuge in Frankfort, where he remained some time in obscurity and indigence.

Great Britain at last sent an army to the continent, which being joined by the troops of the electorate of Hanover, the earl of Stair took the command of the whole. The duke of Noailles, the French general, however, intercepted all supplies for the allied army. At this juncture, George II., king of Great Britain, with his son the duke of Cumberland, arrived at the camp of the allies, and found them in great want of provisions. The necessity of a retreat to procure subsistence, brought on the battle of Dettingen. In this engagement, the British and Hanoverian troops, animated by the presence and example of their sovereign, distinguished themselves by their valour. Victory declared herself in favour of the allies, and the duke de Noailles was obliged to retreat with the loss of about 5,000 men.

1743

A series of treaties and political intrigues now occupied the contending powers. The queen of Hungary, every where successful, refused to listen to any reasonable terms of accommodation with the emperor, who was now reduced to the condition of an illustrious beggar, dependent on the bounty of France. Her haughty behaviour produced a great change in the sentiments of the principal German powers. Their ancient jealousy of the house of Austria was revived, and they resolved to interpose in favour of the head of the empire. The court of Versailles encouraging these dispositions, a treaty of alliance was concluded with the emperor, the king of Prussia, the king of Sweden, as Landgrave of Hesse Cassel, and the Elector Palatine. A family compact of perpetual alliance, and mutual guarantee of possessions and claims, was also concluded between France and Spain. The greatest preparations were made by those two powers for supporting an extensive system of war. Louis XV. put himself at the head of his army in Flanders, which consisted of 120,000 men. The field marshals, the duke de Noailles, and the Count de Saxe, commanded under the king, and carried all before them. After a series of military manœuvres, the fugitive emperor Charles VII., recovered once more possession of his capital,

and his hereditary electorate. But he was in danger of being again expelled from his dominions, when death relieved him in 1745, from a life of anxiety and misfortunes. His son, Maximilian Joseph, wisely concluded a peace with the queen of Hungary, who confirmed him in the possession of his hereditary dominions, on condition, that renouncing all claim to any part of the Austrian succession, he should guarantee the Pragmatic Sanction, and give his vote to the Grand duke of Tuscany her husband, at the ensuing election of an emperor.

The queen of Hungary had now no other object in view, than the elevation of the grand duke her husband to the imperial throne; and would gladly have agreed to a peace on such terms as might have promoted her views. But the courts of France and Spain were resolved to oppose his election, and made an offer of the imperial crown to Augustus III., king of Poland and elector of Saxony. That prince, however, prudently refusing a gift, which it was not in their power to bestow, renewed his engagements with the courts of London and Vienna. The two grand objects of Louis XV. being the exclusion of the grand duke from the imperial throne, and the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands, he assembled two great armies, one on the Rhine to support the king of Prussia, and overawe the deliberations of the electors at Frankfort, the other in Flanders, under the celebrated Count de Saxe, who invested Tournay. The famous battle of Fontenoy took place April 30, 1745, in consequence of the allies attempting to relieve this important barrier town. The king of France and the dauphin were present in person. The British and Hanoverian troops were commanded by his royal highness the duke of Cumberland; the Austrians by Count Königseg, and the Dutch by the prince of Waldec. At the close of a well fought battle, the English column was at last obliged to retire with the loss of 7,000 men. The Hanoverians also behaved gallantly, and sustained great loss, but that of the Austrians and the Dutch, was inconsiderable. The French lost about 10,000 men. Their victory, however, was followed by important consequences. The allies were never afterwards able to face the enemy. Saxe and Lowendahl carried all before

them, and at the end of the campaign had reduced every town in Austrian Flanders.

The queen of Hungary, meanwhile, obtained the great object of her ambition, the elevation of her husband, the grand duke, to the imperial throne, in spite of the policy and power of France. The king of Prussia, however, having gained two bloody victories over the Austrians, invaded Saxony and made himself master of Dresden. So many advantages and losses, alternately succeeding and counterbalancing one another, induced the German powers to think of restoring tranquillity to the empire. The queen of Hungary and the king of Poland, elector of Saxony, concluded treaties of peace with the king of Prussia, and the elector Palatine. Augustus agreed to pay the king of Prussia 1,000,000 of German crowns in consideration of his evacuating Saxony; and the queen of Hungary confirmed him in the possession of Silesia. His Prussian majesty on his part, as well as the elector Palatine, agreed to acknowledge the validity of the emperor's election. Such was the termination of this memorable contest, which at its commencement threatened the total annihilation of the house of Austria, and ended in its complete re-establishment. The grand duke of Tuscany, husband of Maria Theresa, was by the whole Germanic body acknowledged as emperor, under the name of Francis I.; and their union being blessed with male issue, the imperial sceptre, as well as the hereditary crown, were continued in the ancient and illustrious house of Austria.

The war, so far as it particularly related to Germany, was now terminated, but it was still carried on with vigour in the Netherlands and Italy. In the former, the French under Saxe and Lowendahl, were almost constantly victorious. In Italy, success fluctuated between the contending parties. The treaty of Aix la Chapelle in 1748, put an end to this singular war, in which almost all the powers of Europe had been engaged, and after an infinite number of complicated operations, and of gallant exploits, after various turns of fortune, and a prodigious destruction of the human species, all, except the queen of Hungary and the king of Prussia, were losers. Even the two

last had gained nothing by all their exertions since the year 1742. The queen, except in the elevation of Francis to the imperial throne, might then have made peace on as good terms as she afterwards obtained, and his Prussian majesty obtained nothing more by the treaty of Dresden, in the year 1745, than had been ceded to him in 1742 by the treaty of Breslaw.

Germany reposed in tranquillity till the year 1756, when the empress queen of Hungary, who could never be reconciled to the loss of Silesia, one of the most fertile countries of Europe, and which yielded an annual revenue of 4,000,000 of dollars, entered into a league with the empress of Russia, and the king of Sweden, for the purpose of recovering this fine province, and even of stripping the king of Prussia of his hereditary dominions. The ancient animosities and jealousies which had ever subsisted between the houses of Austria and Bourbon, seemed to be forgotten; a close union was formed between the courts of Vienna and Versailles; and France entered into a league with Austria, Russia, and Sweden, against Prussia. An account of that war, which during the space of seven years, devastated Germany, will be more properly placed in a sketch of Prussian history. It suffices in this place to say, that after one of the most active and bloody, as well as the most ably conducted wars recorded in history, peace was, in 1763, restored on the principle of mutual restitution. Austria and Prussia were placed in the same situation as at the commencement of hostilities.

The emperor Francis I. dying in 1765, Joseph II., his son by Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary and Bohemia, succeeded to the imperial dignity. Immediately after his accession, he began to discover great ambition, penetration, and activity. Desirous of observing the state of other countries besides his own, he visited incognito and with few attendants, Rome, and the other principal cities of Italy. He afterwards paid a visit to Paris. He also made the tour of his own dominions, and in every part of his travels, observed with accuracy the state of arts, science, manufactures and trade. In 1789, the emperor, in conjunction with Russia, entered into a war against the

Ottoman Porte, and took the command of his army in person, having under him the celebrated general Laudohn. On the 12th September, the Austrians commenced the siege of Belgrade, and on the 8th October, that important place, with its numerous garrison, surrendered after a vigorous resistance. The remainder of the campaign was a series of important successes. Notwithstanding this tide of good fortune, Joseph II. was not a favourite of the Hungarians, who had so greatly idolized Maria Theresa his mother. She gained their affections by the affability of her manners, and by her respect for their privileges. The manners of her son were affable and engaging; but his measures were arbitrary, and many of his most beneficial reforms gave umbrage to the haughty Hungarians. On his succession to the hereditary dominions of his mother, the empress queen, he lost their affections by omitting to perform the ceremony of his coronation at Buda, and still more by removing the crown of Hungary to Vienna. Such is the attachment of men to ceremonies, forms, and insignia; and such the necessity of respecting established prejudices. But Joseph's attempt to impose a land tax, a measure unprecedented in Hungary, completely alienated the affections of the nobility. These well meant, but arbitrary measures prevented the emperor from receiving any assistance from the Hungarians, to whom the house of Austria, in its late season of difficulty and danger, owed its principal support. A peace, however, was concluded between Austria and the Porte, in consequence of which all conquests were restored.

The character of Joseph II. is a singular and striking one. Possessing a penetrating, active, and enterprising genius, and an extraordinary talent for observation, he was anxiously desirous both of aggrandizing his own power, and of meliorating the condition of his subjects. His various institutions and reforms, most of them highly beneficial, as well as rational, often met with considerable opposition, especially among those of his own religion: among the Protestants, they were in general better received. Amiable in private, and active in public life, he was constantly forming views for the improvement of his dominions, and the happiness of his people; and

was both a philosopher and a philanthropist. His only fault, was that of not perhaps sufficiently respecting the prejudices of mankind. His reforms seem to have been introduced in too arbitrary a manner; but that perhaps was the only manner in which they could be carried into effect. He seems to have been desirous of rendering mankind happy, even against their will. His peculiar views of things led him into arbitrary measures, and the whole plan of his government, tended towards despotism. This excited great disaffection in the minds of his subjects, and the latter part of his reign was agitated by turbulent commotions. Few monarchs have had an opportunity of being more fully convinced of the ingratitude of mankind. But he only experienced the common lot of reformers.

Some of his projects carry an appearance of singularity, though founded on the soundest physical, and moral principles. He considered it as a practice equally indecent and dangerous to convert the temples of the Supreme Being into pesthouses, by making them the receptacles of the dead. This superstitious custom he entirely abolished by procuring the passage of a law, which prohibited the interment of dead bodies in any church or chapel whatever. This salutary enactment is strictly enforced; neither rank nor opulence can obtain any exemption from its operation.* He also prohibited, under severe penalties, the wearing of stays by females, as a practice destructive to their health and shape. Another of his wise regulations, was the suppression of Blue Monday, a riotous holiday among the mechanics, spent in all kinds of debauchery. In consequence of this pernicious custom, not only a day's labour was lost, but Monday was distinguished by outrages of every description. The companies of taylor's, shoemakers, and other mechanics, in many cities in Germany, formed riotous confederacies, and being soon joined by numbers of disorderly persons, committed violent outrages and set all laws at defiance. The mechanics of Vienna sent notices to those of Berlin, Dresden, Leipsic, Frankfort, and other cities

* Dr. Render's Travels in Germany. vol. 1, p. 66.

exciting them to riot, and denouncing vengeance on all who should presume to work on Monday. These proceedings excited a general alarm throughout Germany, and seriously attracted the attention of the emperor. At his command the matter was taken into serious consideration at the diet. An edict of the emperor and the diet was therefore published, by which the custom of keeping Blue Monday was totally abolished. The punishment inflicted on offenders was six years confinement to hard labour, in the fortifications. The edict was vigorously carried into execution, and several ringleaders were condemned to the punishment which it denounced. Blue Monday was soon forgotten ; and the empire received an increase of labour as well as of public security. His next measure was the suppression of the greater part of the numerous monasteries in the Austrian dominions, which he justly considered as a political evil. But the measure which throws the greatest lustre on his reign, is the establishment of religious and civil liberty, in granting a universal toleration, and abolishing the feudal system. He used his despotism for the laudable purpose of freeing one part of his subjects from the tyranny of the other.

The depressed state of the peasantry had, soon after the general peace of 1763, attracted the attention of Maria Theresa, and the year following she enacted the regulation called the *Urbarium*, by which the indeterminate exactions claimed by the lords from their peasantry, whether in labour, produce, or money, were abolished, and the rights of both were accurately defined. The *Urbarium* of Maria Theresa, may be considered as a curious monument in the history of society, and far more interesting than the relation of a battle or a siege. The emperor Joseph II. completely put an end to the feudal system in his dominions, by abolishing the *adscriptio glebæ* in Bohemia and Moravia in 1781, and in Hungary in 1785. The nobility, although they considered the abolition of villainage, by an imperial mandate, as illegal, were soon so fully convinced of the benefits arising from that measure, that in 1791, after the emperor was dead, the liberty of the peasants, as well as religious toleration in its fullest extent, was established

in the Hungarian diet. Rander, a late traveller, speaks thus of Joseph II. "Had the life of that profound legislator been extended to a later period, his empire would have made, at the present day, a more brilliant figure than it does in the improvement of the arts and sciences, in the police, in agriculture, and in every thing that can interest the welfare of society." Townson, another traveller, observes, "that it was the avowed intention of Joseph II. to form out of his extensive dominions, peopled by 25,000,000 of inhabitants, governed by different laws, enjoying different privileges, speaking different languages, and in different degrees of civilization, one uniform government." This indeed appears to have been the chief object of his political views: it was a grand and perhaps not an impracticable plan; and the attempt was certainly worthy of a great politician and legislator.

Since the trade and navigation of the Hanseatic confederacy fell to decay, the commerce of Germany took a turn more suitable to the situation and natural resources of the country. The establishment of numerous manufactures, especially in the free cities, proved a great source of wealth. But the period which elapsed, from the general peace of 1763, to the French revolution, was the happiest that Germany ever experienced. The courts of Vienna and Berlin vied with each other in promoting national improvement. Many of the other courts imitated their example; and amidst the enjoyments of peace, Germany made a rapid progress in arts, sciences, literature, agriculture, and commerce.

Joseph II. dying in 1791, in the 26th year of his reign, his brother, Peter Leopold, grand duke of Tuscany, succeeded to the imperial throne, as well as to the hereditary dominions of the house of Austria. By his conciliatory measures, the Belgic provinces were reunited to the Austrian empire, and a peace was concluded with the Porte. In his reign was held at Pilnitz, the famous conference in which the plan of attacking France was proposed and discussed. The emperor hesitated for some time, but at last seemed to resolve on vigorous measures—when he died, after a short sickness, in 1792. His politics were far more conciliatory than those of his predeces-

sor. He appeared little inclined to innovation, and willingly left mankind to enjoy their prejudices.

Francis II., his son, succeeded to his hereditary dominions, and in July, the same year, was elected emperor. His reign has been distinguished by bloody and unsuccessful wars against France. From the commencement of the French revolution, the history of Austria, and indeed of the whole German empire, is implicated in that of France, to which, for the sake of avoiding repetition, the reader must be referred. It may here suffice to observe, that in consequence of these wars, Austria was stripped of her Italian and Belgic dominions.

PRUSSIA.

PRUSSIA, which began to exist as a kingdom only at the commencement of the eighteenth century, became by gradual accessions so extensive, as to rank among the first powers of Europe, and to dispute with Austria, the balance of Germany. After so rapid an aggrandizement, however, this mighty state has experienced a still more sudden fall.

The whole country, except a part of Silesia, is generally level; and in some places covered with thick forests.

The only mountains in the Prussian dominions, are those of Silesia.

Its chief rivers are the Elbe, the Spree, the Oder, the Pregel, and the Memel. The Vistula can scarcely at this time be ranked among the Prussian rivers.

The most distinguished and peculiar mineral production of Prussia is amber, for which that country has been famed from early ages. This curious article, is chiefly found on the Smoland shore of the Baltic. It reposes on wood-coal, at the depth of about 100 feet, and is found in lumps of various sizes, some of which are of five pounds weight. It is often also washed on shore by tempests.

The climate of all the countries bordering on the Baltic, is in general, cold and moist. Prussia Proper is deluged with rain in the autumn, and has about eight months of winter. Silesia excels all the other Prussian provinces in the purity and wholesomeness of its air; but the western and southern parts, which lie near the mountains, are exposed even in summer, to sharp freezing winds.

The vegetable productions of the Prussian dominions, consist chiefly of corn, and pasturage. Prussia Proper produces all the different kinds of grain, but the chief crop is buckwheat. In Brandenburg, that grain and rye are almost the sole objects of cultivation, as wheat and barley are scarcely ever seen.

Berlin, the capital of Prussia, is situated on the banks of the small river Spree, in $52^{\circ} 32'$ north latitude. It extends about four miles and a half in length, and is one of the most

beautiful and magnificent cities in Europe. The plan is extremely regular, being the result of one design. The streets are spacious and well paved, although the country scarcely produces a single stone. This defect was supplied by the contrivance of Frederic the Great, who compelled all the vessels, that came up the Havel and the Spree, to take on board at Magdebourg, a quantity of free-stone, and to disembark it without charge at Berlin. The principal ornament of this elegant capital, is the Linden walk, an umbrageous and beautiful promenade, formed of triple rows of Linden trees of the most graceful appearance. It forms the centre of the street, having carriage roads on each side, from which it is protected by handsome lines of granite posts, connected by bars of iron, and illuminated by large reflecting lamps. The houses in Berlin are generally large, well built of brick, and stuccoed, but some are of stone. Berlin, with all its magnificence, betrays a great appearance of poverty. Many of the large houses are let by stories to mechanics, and several other buildings which make a grand appearance, are only barracks for soldiers. The population of this capital, computed at about 145,000, is far from corresponding with its extent. Although Berlin is not less than four miles and a half in length, and near three in breadth, a great part of this vast inclosure is occupied by gardens and fields, which give the city a rural appearance. The number of houses according to the highest calculation is short of 7,000. Each house must, therefore, contain the average number of twenty-one persons, a circumstance for which it is easy to account, from the spaciousness of the houses, and the general custom of different families occupying the several stories. This capital of the Prussian monarchy, was founded in the twelfth century, by a colony from the Netherlands, but it owes its chief embellishment to Frederic the Great, who rendered it the seat of elegance, as well as of science, letters, and arms. The garrison of Berlin generally consisted of 26,000 men, being the most numerous of any in Europe, except that of Constantinople.

The predominant religion of Prussia is the Protestant, in its two chief divisions of Lutherans, and Calvinists. Roman

Catholics also are numerous. The universal toleration which prevails extinguishes all theological enmity.

The political constitution of Prussia is an absolute hereditary monarchy ; but the wisdom of successive sovereigns has rendered the government mild and beneficent. Frederic the Great reformed many abuses in the administration of the laws, and his government was equitable ; but its whole tenor was military, a fault inherent in the Prussian system, and the natural consequence of a central situation between three powerful neighbors, Austria, France, and Russia.

The Prussian laws are as mild and equitable as those of most nations on the continent.

The military force of Prussia, amounted at one time to at least 200,000 men, including about 40,000 cavalry. Under Frederic the Great, the Prussian troops were universally esteemed the best in the world, but by some unaccountable management, they have scarcely made any stand against the veteran battalions of France. At present, no computation can be made of the remaining force of this monarchy. As Prussia has never had much either to gain or lose by sea, her whole attention has been directed to the land service, which could alone protect her against her powerful neighbours. For this reason, she has never attempted to create a navy.

The revenues of Prussia, before the late contest with France, have been variously computed, from three to five millions, but late events have rendered it impossible to make any estimate.

Prussia never stood high in the commercial scales ; and at present, her trade may be said to have undergone at least, a temporary annihilation.

The Prussian manufactures produce a variety of articles for home consumption, but a very small quantity for exportation. Frederic the Great established a silk manufacture ; and there is also at Berlin, an establishment for the making of china, nearly equal to that of Dresden. But the linens of Silesia constitute the most important of all the Prussian manufactures.

The population of the Prussian dominions, was computed at somewhat more than 8,000,000. After her late reverses it is

difficult to make any estimate, but the remaining population can scarcely exceed 6,000,000.

The political importance and relations of Prussia, may now be considered as annihilated. That great monarchy, lately so powerful and extensive, now lies at the mercy of France, and must necessarily be dependent either on that country or on Russia.

The language of Prussia is the German; but French is universally spoken by the nobility and gentry. The Prussian literature is of recent origin, and has few pretensions to excellence. Frederic the Great was one of the most distinguished writers of the kingdom; but he held German literature in contempt, and composed all his works in French. Among the Prussian writers, we find few native names of distinguished celebrity. The literary court of Frederic the Great derived its lustre chiefly from the talents of the monarch, and a few foreign literati.

There are several universities and schools; but popular education is generally neglected in Prussia.

The history of Prussia cannot be considered as possessing any claims to a splendid antiquity; but it may justly boast of its modern lustre, although it has lately suffered a temporary eclipse.

It is difficult to discover whether the first known inhabitants were of Slavonic, or Gothic origin. Tacitus and Pliny had only a very confined knowledge of those parts of the world which lay beyond the limits of Roman conquest, and geography. The north of Germany had been subdued by the Swedes, the Danes, and the Poles, but had always recovered its liberty. Its inhabitants, however, adhered to Paganism longer than any other nations of Europe, except the Laplanders. The frenzy of the croisades, and the romantic rage for fighting the infidels, so prevalent in the middle ages, had, during the eleventh and twelfth centuries, given rise to several orders of religious knighthood, who were obliged, by oath, to use their endeavours to protect and extend Christianity. Among these, the Teutonic order in Germany was one of the most illustrious. Having distinguished themselves in the wild enterprises car-

ried on in Palestine, and being at last expelled from their acquisitions in Asia, these Christian champions were obliged to return into Europe. Their fervid zeal, and impetuous valour, could not remain inactive. After having so long employed their arms against the Mahometans of the east, they resolved to turn them against the Pagans of the north. They invaded Prussia; and, after bloody wars and great slaughter, completed, about the middle of the thirteenth century, the conquest and conversion of that country.* Their government was a kind of republic, under its grand master, who was a prince of the empire. They had long and bloody wars with the Poles; but about the year 1458, the cities of Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, dissatisfied with the government of the knights, transferred their allegiance to Casimir, king of Poland. A war consequently took place between that prince and the Teutonic knights; and, after a contest which continued thirteen years, the Poles were victorious. That part of Prussia which lay on the west of the Vistula, was annexed to Poland, from which circumstance it became distinguished by the appellation of royal; the knights retained the other part, under condition of doing homage to the Polish monarch. Albert, a prince of the house of Brandenburg, being, in 1511, elected Grand Master of the Order, maintained a long war against Sigismund, king of Poland. Hostilities were terminated, by erecting that part of Prussia which belonged to the Teutonic Order, into a hereditary duchy, of which the investiture was given to Albert, under condition of doing homage to the kings of Poland. In 1618, the inheritance devolved on the electoral branch of the family of Brandenburg, in the person of John Sigismund.—This prince dying the next year, was succeeded by George William, whose reign, including the thirty years war, was a continued series of misfortunes—his country being alternately ravaged by the Swedes and the imperialists.

Frederic William succeeded, in 1640, to the electorate of Brandenburg, and the duchy of Prussia. He was then about twenty years of age, and discovered uncommon marks of ge-

* Robertson's Hist. Charles V. vol. 2, p. 375.

nus and prudence. He distinguished himself in several wars against the Poles and Swedes. And, although inheriting only the wreck of a dismembered patrimony, he not only recovered his dominions, and extended their ancient limits, but also retrieved his finances. Having restored peace to his country, he promoted the arts; and wisely profiting by the errors of despotism and intolerance, received and encouraged the French refugees, who recompensed the protection afforded them, by diffusing knowledge and industry throughout his dominions.

This Prince, justly called the Great Elector, dying in 1690, Frederic I., his son and successor, obtained from the emperor Joseph I. the regal title, and was soon afterwards acknowledged as king of Prussia, by all the European powers. This first Prussian monarch was succeeded, in 1713, by his son Frederic William I., a prince of great political abilities; who having undertaken a successful war against Charles XII., king of Sweden, obtained the cession of part of Pomerania. Frederic William encouraged trade, and added to the improvement and population of his dominions, by establishing in various parts of them, numerous colonies of Swiss and other foreigners. His administration was externally pacific, but internally severe. He was more intent on preserving, than on extending his possessions; but being of an austere disposition, and a strict observer of military discipline, he governed the state by the same laws as he did the army. His political principles were completely despotic, but he was certainly, on the whole, a distinguished prince. The immense treasure which he had amassed, by the most rigid economy, and the army which he had raised and disciplined, enabled his son, the great Frederic, to make such efforts as astonished Europe. Frederic William I., may justly be considered as the author of the subsequent greatness of Prussia; an honour which his illustrious son gives him in his memoirs. "Frederic William," says he, "left at his death 66,000 men, his finances augmented, the public treasury well filled, and a surprising order in all his affairs. In the laborious life, and sagacious conduct of this prince, may be discovered the source of the future prosperity of the royal house."

Frederic William I. died in 1740; and his son, Frederic II., frequently called by the English Frederic III., and by all Europe deservedly surnamed the Great, ascended the Prussian throne. Reviving some antiquated claims of his family to a part of Silesia, he marched an army into that province about a year after his accession, in order to establish his right. After a bloody and eventful war from 1741 to 1745, Prussia again enjoyed the blessings of peace, and its monarch the sweets of leisure. Frederic did not consume his hours in the display of vain pomp, or in the indulgencies of voluptuous indolence. Study served him as a relaxation from labour. He rendered his hours of repose illustrious by his literary productions. His *Memoirs of the House of Brandenburg* published in 1751, six years after the conclusion of peace, shew how well he filled up the vacancies of time. In the year 1756 the calm was succeeded by a storm, which agitated the greatest part of Europe, and which to Prussia was tremendous and dangerous beyond all example. The court of Vienna had, ever since the treaty of Dresden in 1745, viewed the rising greatness of Prussia with jealousy, and had never been reconciled to the loss of Silesia. The empress queen therefore entered secretly into a league with Russia, and the king of Poland as elector of Saxony, for the recovery of that fine province, and even with the ulterior view of partitioning the Prussian dominions. This confederacy did not escape the vigilance of the penetrating Frederic. He had never ceased to keep a watchful eye on the intrigues of the court of Vienna. The war between France and Great Britain taking place at the same time, and the former of these powers entering into the confederacy with Austria and Russia, the king of Prussia concluded with his Britannic majesty a treaty, by a fundamental article of which, it was agreed to oppose the entrance of foreign troops into Germany. His Prussian majesty, having demanded from the cabinet of Vienna a clear explanation on the subject of the hostile preparations, which he saw carrying forward on the borders of Silesia, and receiving only evasive answers, resolved to anticipate the designs of his enemies. He called heaven and earth to witness, that the empress queen, whom he had made the

arbitress of peace or war, would alone be chargeable with all the blood that would be spilt, and all the consequences that should ensue from the prosecution of hostilities.

Being fully convinced of the intentions of the court of Vienna, Frederic resolved to begin his operations by carrying the war into the heart of the enemy's dominions, instead of waiting for their attack. To facilitate the successful invasion of Bohemia, he first took possession of Saxony, with an army of seventy battalions, and eighty squadrons, which formed a junction in the vicinity of Dresden. Augustus, being unable to resist such a force, abandoned his capital, and retired to his camp at Pirna. The King of Prussia, leaving a considerable body of troops to blockade the Saxon camp, resolved to give battle to the Austrian army, under General Brown, who had taken a strong position at Lowositz. The action was long and obstinate, and the loss nearly equal. Both parties claimed the victory, but it is evident that the Prussians had the advantage, for Marshal Brown failing in his attempt to relieve the Saxons, their army, consisting of about 14,000 men, was obliged to surrender; and Augustus, who had taken refuge in the fortress of Konigstein, retired into Poland. Saxony, being thus abandoned, served for winter quarters to the Prussians. The victorious Frederic levied heavy contributions on the country—seized the public revenues—made himself master of the archives of Dresden—and broke open the secret cabinet, where the papers relating to foreign transactions were kept. From these documents he obtained the particulars of the confederacy formed against him by the courts of Vienna, Dresden and Petersburg. A process was now instituted in the Aulic council against his Prussian majesty, on account of his invasion of the Saxon electorate. Through the influence of the court of Vienna, and the terror of the confederacy which it had formed, he was put to the ban of the empire. The circles were accordingly commanded to furnish their contingents of men and money. These, however, were slowly collected, and probably the army of the empire would scarcely have been able to act, had it had not been seconded by the French, under the Prince de Soubise. Prussia was now in a situation that seemed

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to threaten the extinction of the monarchy. An army of 130,000 Russians was ready to enter that kingdom, while the Swedes, having also acceded to the confederacy, were ready to invade Pomerania, and the empress queen of Hungary had augmented her forces to 180,000 men. These formidable armies were to take the field at the same time, and to act in concert. In the mean while, Marshal Brown had formed the Austrian army into four divisions in order to cover Bohemia. Making every allowance for the superior abilities of her monarch, and the acknowledged discipline and valour of her troops, it scarcely seemed probable that Prussia could withstand the shock of such tremendous armaments. Frederic, however, resolving to penetrate into Bohemia, arranged his army, like that of the Austrians, in four divisions. The formidable forces of the enemy, and the strong positions which they had taken, did not prevent him from penetrating even to Prague. A bloody battle was fought on the 8th of May, 1757, in the vicinity of that city. The king of Prussia was completely victorious, but with the loss of 3,000 men killed, and 6,000 wounded. Among these were 400 officers, many of whom were of high rank. General Ziethen, one of the bravest of the Prussian commanders, here lost his life. The loss of the Austrians, who fought with extraordinary bravery, was considerably greater than that of the Prussians. Marshal Brown was mortally wounded, and died in a short time after the action. In this famous battle, which proved fatal to two of the greatest generals of Europe, the valour and military skill both of the Austrians and the Prussians, were eminently displayed.

After this defeat, the main body of the Austrian army, about 50,000 in number, took shelter in Prague, while about 16,000, chiefly cavalry, joined Marshal Daun. The intrepid Frederic now ventured on a measure which astonished all Europe, and which cannot be defended on principles of military science. He invested Prague with an army but little superior to that which was confined within its walls. In all his military operations he seems to have acted with as much self confidence, as if he supposed that nothing could resist his victorious arms.

Marshal Daun having prudently remained inactive, until he had received strong reinforcements, began to advance, and the Prussian monarch, while besieging Prague, was in danger of being himself besieged in his camp, by that general. Being informed of Marshal Daun's movements, he marched from before Prague, and having formed a junction with the prince of Bevern, advanced to attack the Austrians at Kolin. The dispositions of Marshal Daun were of the most masterly nature. The grand attack being made by Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, at the head of the Prussian columns, supported by a powerful train of artillery, was pushed with such irresistible force against the right wing of the Austrians, as to throw them into confusion. They instantly, however, recovered themselves, and maintained their position, with inflexible firmness. The Prussians in turn began to give way, but soon renewed the combat. Never did any army display greater bravery. During the space of four hours and a half, the Prussians returned seven times to the charge. The last and most violent effort was made by the king in person at the head of the cavalry. Victory, however, declared for the Austrians. The Prussians, sinking under the superiority of numbers, and the disadvantage of the ground, in which their cavalry could not act with effect, were obliged to relinquish the contest. They remained about two hours longer on the field, and retreated without being pursued. The slaughter on both sides was great, about 20,000 men being left dead on the field. The Prussian monarch, in consequence of this memorable defeat, was obliged to raise the siege of Prague, and to evacuate Bohemia. This misfortune was soon after followed by others. A Russian army of about 100,000 men under Marshal Apraxin, entered Prussia, their light troops, consisting of Cossacks, Calmucks and Tartars, displayed the conduct and manners of barbarians. The cruelties which they committed on the inhabitants, were such as had long been unheard of in the military history of Europe. The Russian commanders used every possible means to put a stop to these enormities, but without success.* The country was deserted by the husbandmen, and

* Tooke's Hist. Russia, vol. 2, p. 303.

their army was in danger of being deprived of the means of subsistence. General Lehwald with only 24,000 men, ventured to attack this formidable horde. Superiority of numbers, obliged the Prussians to retire, and leave the enemy masters of the field, but they retreated in excellent order. Lehwald, though beaten, had killed five times more of the Russians, than he had lost of his own men. The recal of General Apraxin delivered Prussia for a short time from this destructive enemy.

Sept
1757

While the Prussian dominions were ravaged on one side by the Russians, they were invaded on the other side by the French. The convention of Closter-Seven, left Marshal Richelieu and the prince de Soubise at full liberty to direct their whole force against Prussia. A Swedish army of 20,000 men, also entered Pomerania, and laid the country under contribution. One Austrian army had invaded Silesia, and another suddenly presented itself before Berlin, and levied a contribution on that capital. The king of Prussia, now surrounded with enemies, was obliged to direct his attention and his efforts towards every quarter. After a train of masterly manœuvres, he gained, on the 5th of November, 1757, a complete victory over the French and Imperialists at Rosbach. Here the Prussians fought with the energy of despair; the columns of the enemy, unable to withstand their irresistible attack, were totally routed, and driven off the field, with the loss of 9,000 men killed, wounded and prisoners. Among the last, were eleven generals, besides 300 officers of inferior rank. The loss of the Prussians did not much exceed 300 men. This signal victory was counterbalanced by serious losses. A numerous army of Austrians and Hungarians under the generals Daun and Nadasti, having entered Silesia, took the strong town of Schweidnitz, and made the garrison, consisting of near 6,000 men, prisoners of war. They afterwards stormed the intrenchments of the Prussian army, and Breslau immediately afterwards surrendered to the Austrians.

Amidst these reverses of fortune, the king remained still undaunted. Resolving to make a vigorous effort to retrieve his affairs, he marched immediately against the Austrians. Prince Charles of Lorraine and Marshal Daun, relying on

their superior strength, advanced towards Glogau, in confidence of victory. The two armies met near Lissa, where a general engagement took place, and after an obstinate contest in which each party alternately had the advantage, the Austrians were at last totally defeated. The king of Prussia displayed in this action the most masterly strokes of generalship. The Austrians left about 6,000 dead on the field, with nearly the same number of wounded. The approach of night seems to have been the only circumstance that prevented the total destruction of their army. The loss of the Prussians amounted to about 5,000 killed and wounded. Within a week after the battle, the Prussians took 20,000 prisoners, 3,000 wagons and 200 pieces of cannon, with a great number of military trophies. This celebrated battle was fought on the 5th of December 1757: and on the 19th, Breslau, though defended by a garrison of several thousand men, surrendered to the arms of his Prussian majesty. Prince Charles of Lorraine, with the remains of his shattered forces, retired into Bohemia. The retreat of the Russians having at the same time left general Lehwald at liberty with near 30,000 men to act against the Swedes, he obliged them to abandon their conquests in Pomerani, and drove them under the cannon of Stralsund. While this tide of success attended the army of Prussia, fortune also declared in favour of her allies. The French having violated the convention of Closter-Seven, his Britannic Majesty considering himself no longer bound by that treaty, invested Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick with the chief command of the electoral forces. That consummate general, after driving the French from post to post, at last compelled them to evacuate their conquests, and repass the Rhine, beyond which river he followed them. A variety of manœuvres now took place. The duc de Broglie having defeated the Hessian army, gained the command of the Weser. Prince Ferdinand in his turn was obliged to repass the Rhine, and to put his army into winter quarters. His Prussian majesty began the campaign of 1758 with the siege of Schweidnitz, which he soon compelled to surrender. He then suddenly entered Moravia, and laid siege to Olmutz. Marshal Daun was too

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cautious to attempt the relief of that place, by a battle, but he effected his purpose by intercepting a convoy of 400 wagons destined for the use of the besieging army. The loss was irreparable, and the King of Prussia saw the necessity of relinquishing his enterprise. He gained, however, as much honour in conducting his retreat, as Marshal Daun did in rendering it necessary. Having concealed, under an incessant fire, his intention of raising the siege, he broke up his camp about midnight, and proceeded into Bohemia without molestation. The Russians having again entered the Prussian dominions, and invested Custrin, he immediately marched to its relief. The Russian generals, Fermor and Brown, receiving intelligence of the approach of the king of Prussia, immediately raised the siege. The king, though greatly inferior in numbers, relying on the valour and superior discipline of his troops, resolved to bring the enemy to an engagement. The event did not disappoint his hopes. The dispositions of the Russian generals were excellent, but the attack of the Prussians was made with such impetuosity, and continued with such vigour, and skill, as to be irresistible. Never was an attack more obstinately sustained. Whole regiments of Russians were cut down, but not a man quitted his ranks; and fresh regiments still pressing forward, the Prussian infantry, which had supported so many violent shocks with immoveable firmness, yielded at last to the collected impulse. All seemed lost, when the king by a rapid and masterly movement brought the cavalry of his right wing to support his centre. The Prussian horse now pressing upon the Russian foot, drove them back with great slaughter, and allowed their own battalions leisure to collect themselves, and rally. Returning to the charge, the Prussian infantry decided the doubtful contest. The enemy being every where thrown into confusion, the field became no longer a scene of battle, but of carnage. The Russians, though broken, distracted, and cut to pieces, never offered to quit the field. They kept their ground until seven in the evening, and even then made a new struggle for victory. When darkness put a stop to the effusion of blood, they left 10,000 men dead on the field, and about 5,000 mortally

wounded. The loss of the Prussians amounted to about 1,500 men. In consequence of this terrible defeat, the Russian army retreated to the frontiers of Poland; and the king marched to the relief of his brother, Prince Henry, who was surrounded with enemies. The Prussian monarch and Marshal Daun vied with each other in skilful manœuvres, till at last, on the 15th of October 1758, the Austrian general attacked and defeated the Prussians at Kochkischen. The loss in men was nearly equal, being about 7,000, but the king, besides leaving behind him the greatest part of his campequipage, lost Prince Francis of Brunswick, and Marshal Keith, two of his ablest generals. His Prussian majesty, having by a train of masterly movements driven the Austrians from that country, returned into Saxony, and forced Marshal Daun to raise the siege of Dresden. The sieges of Leipzig and Glogau were abandoned at the same time. The Russians, also, who in their retreat had invested Colberg, were constrained to relinquish their enterprise, and the Swedes, who had entered that country, were not more successful in their operations. Prussia was triumphant over all her enemies.

The fortune of war, however, was preparing for the great Frederic a dreadful reverse. The Russians, under General Count Soltikoff, having advanced into Silesia, and defeated General Wedel, the king resolved to oppose them in person. Leaving Prince Henry to watch the motions of the Austrians, he marched with about 10,000 of his best troops to join Wedel. Marshal Daun, knowing that the Russians always lay under great disadvantages, on account of the inferiority of their cavalry, had detached General Laudohn with 12,000 Austrian horse, to give stability to their army. Laudohn and Soltikoff stationed themselves at Cunnersdorf, oppdsite to Frankfort. Their army, thus united, consisted of about 100,000 combatants. The king of Prussia could not muster above half that number; but his pressing circumstances, and his sanguine hopes, induced him to hazard an engagement. On the 12th of August 1759, he forced the enemy's entrenchments with great slaughter. The Russians lost more than half of their artillery, but, although defeated in every quarter, they again

1759

formed under cover of the Austrian cavalry, and posted themselves in an advantageous situation, called the Jews' burying ground. Prudence, and past experience of the obstinate valour of the Russians, ought to have taught the king to rest satisfied with so great an advantage, gained over an enemy so superior in numbers; but animated by the expectation of completing his victory, by the total destruction of the Russian army, and supposing only one effort more to be necessary for attaining this grand object, he renewed the attack. But his harassed troops were not equal to the tremendous attempt. The infantry attacked the main body of the Russian army, but were repulsed with a terrible slaughter. The king put himself at the head of his cavalry, but their vigour was spent. After having been so long engaged in one of the hottest days ever felt, both men and horses were equally exhausted. The Austrian cavalry broke in upon them with the impetuosity of a torrent; while the fire of the Russian artillery was incessant and destructive. The Prussians were at last obliged to yield to the irresistible shock. The king endeavouring to rally them seemed prodigal of his life. He had two horses killed under him, and several bullets passed through his clothes. All his exertions were ineffectual. The battle was irretrievably lost, and the approach of night only preserved the Prussian army from total destruction. All their cannon was taken. About 30,000 men were left on the field; of whom 16,000 were Prussians.

The consternation of the court and city of Berlin, on receiving intelligence of this diaster, surpassed description. When the king had obtained possession of the village of Cunnersdorff, he wrote to the queen in those terms, "We have driven the Russians from their entrenchments. Expect within two hours to hear of a glorious victory." On the receipt of this billet, all was joy and exultation. But soon afterwards, another was delivered to the queen, expressed in the same laconic style, "Remove," says the king "from Berlin with the royal family. Let the archives be carried to Potsdam. The town may make conditions with the enemy." Nothing but terror and dismay was now to be seen at Berlin.

The general consternation was augmented by the indistinct rumours which followed, that the army was totally routed, that no account could be heard of the king, and that the Russians were advancing against the capital.

His Prussian majesty by his subsequent conduct, effaced all the disgrace incurred by his temerity. The dreadful disaster which he had suffered, only served to display the vast resources of his genius, as well as the unshaken fortitude of his mind. By a judicious movement, he posted himself so advantageously that the Russians durst not approach Berlin, and having, in a short time, refreshed and recruited his shattered army, and supplied the loss of his artillery from the arsenal of Berlin, he again appeared formidable; and while all Europe believed that the Austrians and Russians would make a rapid conquest of his dominions, his skilful measures obliged both to act entirely on the defensive. A detachment of the army under General Wunch having joined another under General Finck, recovered all Saxony, except Dresden. Prince Henry, marching with incredible celerity into that electorate, joined those two generals, and obliged Marshal Daun to separate from Soltikoff, in order to cover Dresden. The king also, getting between the Russians and the town of Glogau, obliged them to relinquish a design which they had formed for reducing that place, and to retire into Poland.

His Prussian majesty might now have terminated the campaign with advantage, but being desirous of closing it with some decisive stroke, he formed the grand design of not only cutting off from the Austrians all means of subsistence; but also of rendering their retreat impracticable, by seizing the passes into Bohemia. He accordingly detached General Finck with nineteen battalions, and thirty-five squadrons, to occupy the defiles of Maxen and Ottendorf. This service was successfully executed, and no doubt was entertained that Marshal Daun would be obliged to hazard a battle, or to surrender at discretion. The case proved exactly the reverse. That able commander having sent detachments to seize on the neighbouring eminences, so completely surrounded the Prussians, as to preclude all possibility of escape. General

Finck with eight other general officers, and near 20,000 men, were, after a gallant defence, obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war.

This unfortunate affair ended the campaign of 1759. The king of Prussia began the next on a defensive plan, with the most judicious arrangements that military science could devise. But the enterprising spirit and sagacious conduct of the Austrian General, Laudohn, totally disconcerted his measures. That skilful and active commander, by artful feints and rapid marches, deceived the Prussian general, Fouquet, and surrounded his small army. Being thus attacked in his entrenchments, Fouquet was mortally wounded, and 4,000 of his men being killed, the rest, about 7,000 in number, surrendered themselves prisoners of war. The reduction of Glatz, by General Laudohn, was the immediate consequence of this decisive victory. The victorious Laudohn was now ready to lay siege to Breslaw. The king of Prussia's defensive system being thus overturned, he quitted his fortified camp on the frontiers of Saxony, and directed his route towards Silesia. Marshal Daun advanced towards the same quarter, and by forced marches outstripped his antagonist. In consequence of this movement, the king, displaying a bold stroke of generalship, wheeled in the opposite direction, and suddenly appeared before Dresden. All his efforts to gain possession of it, however, were baffled, and Dresden held out, till the approach of Marshal Daun from Silesia, obliged him to raise the siege. General Laudohn, in the mean while, commenced the siege of Breslaw; but, after annoying the town by a heavy bombardment, he was compelled by Prince Henry to relinquish his enterprise. The Russian army, under Czernichef, had now reached the frontiers of Silesia; another body of Russians entered Pomerania; and the Swedes, with 20,000 men, re-commenced their operations in that province.

The king was no sooner apprized of the approach of the Russians, than he resolved to attack the Austrians before the arrival of a new enemy. He was at that time in danger of being surrounded by the three Austrian armies, of Daun, Laudohn, and Lacey, who had effected a junction, and formed the

design of attacking him with their united forces. The Prussian monarch quitted his camp in the night—occupied the heights by which Laudohn was to advance—and defeated that enterprising general; who, after losing about 8000 men, was obliged to retreat. By this victory, the Prussian monarch not only rescued himself from imminent danger, but prevented the junction of the Russian and Austrian armies in Silesia. Having joined Prince Henry, he marched, in the next place, against Marshal Daun, who had formed the blockade of Schweidnitz, and compelled him to abandon his enterprise.

While this great commander was thus displaying his uncommon mental energies in Silesia, General Hulsén, in Saxony, gallantly supported the reputation of the Prussian arms; but in another quarter, the state of affairs was very different.—Count Czernichef, the Russian commander, having joined the Austrian General Lacey, their united forces made themselves masters of Berlin, where they levied a contribution, destroyed the magazines, arsenals, and founderies, and took up their quarters in the royal palaces, which they pillaged of a great part of their valuable furniture. But, on hearing of the king's approach to the relief of his capital, they retired by different routes. In the mean time, almost all Saxony was conquered by the imperial army. The French laid Halberstadt under contribution. One part of Pomerania was ravaged by the Swedes, and another by the Russians. The king's situation now seemed desperate. It became necessary for him to exert all the vigour of his genius; and to attempt, by the boldest enterprise, to extricate himself from these complicated difficulties. He resolved, therefore, to make an extraordinary effort. Marshal Daun was encamped, with an army of 80,000 men, in the neighbourhood of Torgau, in the strongest position that tactical science could choose. The Prussian monarch had only 50,000; yet, in this desperate situation, he resolved to attack that able and experienced general, in his apparently impregnable camp—and to strike a decisive blow before the close of the campaign. The battle of Torgau, fought November 23, 1760, was, in regard both to valour and military skill, one of the best contested actions in the annals of war. The courage and con-

duct of the two commanders were equally conspicuous. Marshal Daun received a dangerous wound in the thigh, and the king a slight contusion, by a musket ball, on the breast. About 10,000 were killed and wounded on each side. The Prussians, who gained a signal victory, took near 8000 prisoners, among whom were four generals, and two hundred inferior officers, and recovered all Saxony before the end of the campaign. New lustre was thus added to their arms, and the shock seemed to be communicated to every hostile quarter. General Laudohn immediately raised the siege of Cosel, and evacuated Silesia. The Russians gave up the siege of Colberg, and retired into Poland. The Swedes in Pomerania were defeated by the Prussians, and obliged to take refuge under the cannon of Stralsund.

During the campaign of 1761, his Prussian majesty, finding his resources exhausted, and his armies consumed in unavailing efforts, and indecisive victories, acted solely on the defensive. But this plan did not exempt him from misfortunes. The Austrians under General Laudohn took Schweidnitz by surprize, and Colberg surrendered to the Russians. The king found himself in a worse situation at the close of this, than of any former campaign. The Russians wintered in Pomerania, and the Austrians in Silesia. By this position they were ready to commence their operations earlier than formerly, and to act with greater vigour and concert. Nothing seemed capable of averting the fate of the illustrious Frederic, who was now considered as a victim devoted to the vengeance of his numerous and powerful enemies. But when all human efforts appeared unavailing, Providence interposed. The tremendous storm which seemed ready to burst upon Prussia, was dissipated by one of those sudden and unforeseen changes in human affairs, which instantly decide the fate of nations, and baffle all political conjecture. The death of Elizabeth, empress of Russia, and the accession of Peter III. to the throne, produced an unexpected revolution in the affairs of the belligerent powers. The new emperor immediately concluded a treaty of peace, and afterwards of alliance with his Prussian majesty. And Sweden followed the example of Russia in

terminating the war. The king of Prussia, now relieved from a great part of the load by which he had long been oppressed, was enabled to act with vigour against his remaining enemies. A body of Russian irregulars being ordered to cooperate with the Prussians, made an irruption into Bohemia, and the Austrians in their turn, experienced the ravages of those ferocious allies, now become formidable enemies. But the sudden revolution in Russia by which Peter III. was deposed, and his consort Catharine II. was elevated to the throne, seemed to portend a fatal reverse to the Prussian monarch. The event was more favourable than might have been expected. That prudent princess indeed withdrew her troops from his alliance: but she preserved inviolate the treaty of peace concluded by her predecessor.

The two grand objects of his Prussian majesty, were the recovery of Schweidnitz, and the expulsion of the Austrians from Silesia. Both these designs were successfully carried into effect. Schweidnitz, although defended by a garrison of 9,000 men, was after a siege of two months obliged to surrender. The Prussian armies now made different irruptions into Bohemia. One body advanced almost to Prague, and destroyed a large magazine, while another laid a great part of the town of Egra in ashes. Several parties penetrated into Franconia and Suabia, ravaging the country, and levying contributions to the amount of 1,000,000 sterling; and several princes of the empire were obliged to sign a compact of neutrality, in order to preserve their territories from future depredations. In the month of February, 1763, a treaty of peace was concluded between the king of Prussia and the empress queen of Hungary, on the condition of mutual restitution of conquests and oblivion of injuries. Thus terminated this obstinate contest between Austria and Prussia. After the repeated devastation of so many fertile and flourishing provinces, the defacement of so many fine cities by bombs and balls, and so tremendous a destruction of the human species, both parties were placed in the same situation as at the commencement of the war.

From this period, the banners of this illustrious commander

were no longer displayed in the field, except in the short dispute with Joseph II. concerning the Bavarian succession, which terminated without any important consequences. Having acquired the reputation of the greatest general of modern times, he employed the remainder of his reign in cultivating the arts of peace, with the same ardour that he had formerly displayed in war. His powerful patronage, as well as his refined taste, eminently contributed to the advancement of arts, sciences, and learning in Prussia. Potsdam owes to him almost its creation, and Berlin its principal embellishments. Under his auspices, agriculture was greatly improved. His predilection for the language, the literature, and manners of France, and his contempt of those of Germany, have been perhaps, justly censured. During his reign, every thing was as much French at the court of Berlin, as at that of Versailles. He composed all his works in that language, in which he distinguished himself among writers of the first class, at least for perspicuity. His depth of thought will long be admired. It is only to be lamented that his philosophy was not more in unison with Christianity. In his military enterprises he has sometimes been accused of temerity; but his circumstances were frequently such as did not permit him to consult times and situations. Temerity could scarcely dictate any thing, that in his condition, was incompatible with prudence. His military talents, on the whole, have seldom been equalled, perhaps never excelled in ancient or modern times. Equally distinguished for valour and conduct, the exploits of every contemporary commander were lost in the splendour of his victories, and of his retreats. The most striking features of his character are those of the warrior, the statesman, and the scholar. He was the patron of all that is great in arms. He died in 1786, and left to his successor a consolidated power, a formidable army, able generals, and a full treasury.

Frederic the Great, was succeeded by his nephew Frederic William II. ; a prince who had already given the most flattering hopes, that his reign would be as glorious, and his administration less rigorous, than that of his uncle. The Prussian monarchy was in the height of its splendour, being one of

the most powerful kingdoms in Europe, flourishing in arts, formidable in arms. The beginning of his reign realized all the expectations that such favourable circumstances naturally concurred to excite. Cabals of courtiers, and unforeseen incidents contributed to destroy the flattering calm. The councils of Europe began to fluctuate, and the tremendous revolution of France gave rise to new plans of policy. Prussia and Austria undertook to reduce that revolted nation, and re-establish the authority of its monarch. The enterprise appeared easy to two such formidable powers. Scarcely was any doubt entertained of its success. The general opinion which prevailed throughout Germany, was, that the undisciplined troops of France could make little opposition to the warlike battalions of Prussia, or Austria. As the scene was wholly new and unprecedented, the issue of the enterprise baffled all political and tactical calculation.

The memorable events of the war are related in other parts of this work. It is sufficient in this place to remark, that the conduct of Prussia has been inexplicable. The great promoter of the revolutionary war, she was the first that made peace with the Gallic republic.

Frederic William II. died in 1797, and his sceptre was transferred to his son, Frederic William III.

After constantly refusing to join in the second coalition of the great continental powers, Prussia at last undertook single-handed, to cope with that formidable power which had recently shaken to its very foundations the Austrian throne, and shattered to pieces the formidable army of Russia. The issue of the contest was not less extraordinary than the time was ill-chosen. It could scarcely have been supposed that the magnificent edifice of Prussian greatness, which Frederic II. had erected, could have been crumbled to pieces in a few days. Some strange infatuation seems to have fallen upon Prussia, or some lurking treachery must have obstructed her political views, and impeded her military operations. The Prussian army was one of the finest that Europe had ever seen in the field, and was scarcely less than 200,000 in number. The resistance which it made, however, was only of short duration.

1806

On the 10th of October 1806, Prince Ferdinand of Prussia lost his life in the first skirmish that took place with the French. On the 14th the battle of Jena was fought, which put a period to the greatness of Prussia. The king and the duke of Brunswick commanded in this action. Their army consisted of about 180,000 of the finest troops in the world; that of the enemy, commanded by the French emperor, was somewhat superior in number. The Prussians were totally defeated, the number of killed and wounded amounted to more than 20,000, and according to the most authenticated accounts, near 40,000 were made prisoners. The duke of Brunswick was mortally wounded, and died some days after the action. The French advanced to Berlin, and took possession not only of Brandenburg and the greatest part of Silesia, but also of Hamburg, Lubeck, Mecklenburg, and several other German states. Most of the Prussian towns surrendered without resistance, and the different divisions of the army flying from the scene of defeat and disaster, being every where pursued and intercepted, fell into the hands of the enemy. According to the French bulletins, 143,000 prisoners were taken within a few weeks after the entrance of their army into the Prussian territories.

The overthrow of a great and warlike nation, by one single defeat, is a phenomenon in modern history. If extent of territory, and number of inhabitants, be taken as the criterion of national strength, Prussia was far more powerful in the year 1806, than when she successfully resisted, half a century before, the united forces of Austria and Russia, supported by France and Sweden. What a field of remark and reflection, for the politician and the philosopher! What a theme for the future historian, when partiality and prejudice shall have subsided, and more authentic documents shall have dispelled the mists which contradictory information has raised!

The battle of Jena crumbled to pieces that magnificent military fabric which Frederic the Great had erected. After that fatal day, Prussia scarcely made any further resistance; her cities, her towns, her magazines, and her scattered battalions, fell one after another, into the hands of the enemy. And this mighty

power, which, not half a century ago, was one of the most formidable in Europe, has been obliged to make peace with France, on the hard conditions of resigning her dominions in Westphalia and Poland, together with the city of Dantzic, and of shutting her ports against the trade of Great Britain.

The commercial history of Prussia is much less striking than her military annals. The origin of her trade is as ancient as that of, perhaps, any other nation of the north ; but its progress has been gradual, and distinguished by few interesting features. The merchants of Hull' traded to Prussia so early as the year 1372. But it was in the year 1386, that the first commercial treaty appears to have been concluded between England and the knights of the Teutonic order, then sovereigns of Prussia. In latter times, the trade of that kingdom considerably increased ; and the acquisition of the great commercial city of Dantzic, rendered it respectable. But Prussia has now lost that celebrated port ; and, indeed, her commerce may at present be considered as annihilated.

AFRICA,

TOGETHER with Europe and Asia, formed the only parts of world known to the ancients, and is one of the four quarters of the globe. It was first peopled principally by Ham, and his descendants. It was not known for many ages that Africa was a peninsula, every where surrounded by the sea, excepting at the isthmus of Suez, which joins it to Asia. The knowledge of the Romans was restricted to those provinces which stretch along the Mediterranean. At a former period, it contained several kingdoms and states, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth, and power, and for the most extensive commerce. Almost all its northern parts were full of people, from the Red Sea to the Atlantic Ocean. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia were much celebrated, and the rich and powerful state of Carthage extended her commerce to every region of the then known world; and even the British shores were visited by her fleets. At length the Romans, after a contest which lasted for more than 100 years, totally subdued this famous republic, and destroyed their city, and then reduced under their power, other kingdoms and states of Africa. The Roman empire retained its possessions in this country for several ages, and found in them an ample source of revenue, as well as a granary for her citizens.

The 10,000 talents (amounting to about four millions sterling,) which vanquished Carthage was condemned to pay within the term of fifty years, were a slight acknowledgement of the superiority of Rome, and bear a very small proportion to the taxes afterwards raised both on the lands, and on the persons of the inhabitants, after the fertile coast of Africa was reduced into a province of the empire.

Africa is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, which separates it from Europe; on the east by the isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divide it from Asia; on the south by the Southern Ocean; and on the west by the Atlantic, which separates it from America. It extends from $37^{\circ} 10'$ north latitude, to $34^{\circ} 29'$ south latitude, or about

4980 miles; and from $17^{\circ} 33'$ west longitude, to $51^{\circ} 20'$ east longitude, or about 4790 miles. Its figure is that of a triangle, or pyramid. As the equator passes nearly through the middle of the country, the greatest part of it lies between the tropics, and the heat, augmented by the reflection of the sandy soil of the interior, is hardly tolerable to any besides the natives. Those parts, however, that lie near the coasts, or in vallies, and on the banks of the rivers, are very fertile; and the country in general, is capable of great improvement by cultivation. Its situation for commerce, is uncommonly convenient. It has an easy communication with Europe, Asia, and America. Its coast is opposite to that of Europe for almost a thousand miles from east to west, and the distance of one from the other is no where 100 leagues, and in some places not more than 20. It is separated from Asia only by the Red Sea, for a considerable interval from north to south, and their distance is from 5 leagues to 50: it also fronts the southern coast of Asia, though at a greater distance, and is adapted for commerce by the interposition of islands from Madagascar to Malabar, and by the alternation of the trade winds. Its coast for 2000 miles, lies opposite to America, and the western islands, at a distance of 500 to 700 leagues. It has besides, many large and navigable rivers, by which it is intersected in various directions, and a communication formed between the interior and the surrounding ocean, while its harbours are very numerous and commodious. It contains a great variety of rich mines, of which the natives have not been able to avail themselves sufficiently, on account of their ignorance of the operations of mining. On the northern coasts the fields, though imperfectly cultivated, produce very large crops of grain; and it is very reasonably supposed, from the qualities of the soil and climate in different parts of the country, that the richest articles of the East and West India commerce might be obtained from Africa. The spices of Banda, Ternate, and Amboyna, might be produced on the rich and fruitful shores of Melinda on the east side, or on those of the slave coast on the west side of the country. The cinnamon of Ceylon, the tea of China and Japan, and the coffee of Mocha, might be pro-

duced on the same coast; and it has been affirmed that the sugars of Barbadoes and Jamaica, and also the ginger, cotton, rice, pepper, or pimento, with the cocoa, the indigo, and every other plant which is now obtained from those islands, would be as easily produced in Africa, and the crops would be equally profitable if they were cultivated with the same skill and industry, as in America. Notwithstanding the capability of cultivation, and the advantages for commerce, which Africa possesses, it is lamentable to reflect that a country which has near 10,000 miles of sea coast, many large rivers, and good harbours, a productive soil and extensive population, should remain destitute of the benefits which arts and industry and commerce might afford them. It is a reproach to neighbouring nations, that such a country should be so long neglected.

The inland parts of Africa seem in all ages of the world to have been in the same barbarous and uncivilized state, in which we find them at present. There are in Africa none of those great inlets, such as the Baltic, and Adriatic seas in Europe, the Mediterranean and Euxine seas in Europe and Asia, and the gulfs of Arabia, Persia, India, Bengal, and Siam, in Asia, for carrying maritime commerce into the interior parts of that large continent; and the rivers of Africa are at too great a distance from one another to support any considerable inland navigation. Its population is about 50 millions.

The native governments of this continent, are throughout despotic and oppressive. All, however, appear to be independent. Egypt is little more than nominally dependent on Turkey. The Cape of Good Hope is the only considerable European colony.

The ancients and moderns have concurred in giving a very unfavourable representation of the disposition and character of the native Africans. They describe them as proud, indolent, thievish, revengeful, addicted to all kinds of lust, cruel, inconstant, superstitious, and cowardly. But this degeneracy of character is owing more to their bad education, their tyrannical governments, and their unsettled state, than to any physical cause. Africa has produced several distinguished

persons, among whom we might enumerate St. Cyprian, Augustine, and Tertullian in the class of divines ; Hanno, Hannibal, and Asdrubal, in the list of heroes ; Terence among the poets, and many others. We might also appeal to the industry with which they have formerly cultivated their lands, and applied to commerce and the useful arts. If they are now generally ignorant, and depraved, idle, dishonest, or superstitious, we are to seek the cause of the evil in the nature of their governments, and the inattention and neglect with which they have been treated.

The chief geographical features of Africa are the mountainous ridges of Atlas ; the great central chain supposed to pervade this continent from east to west ; the extensive sandy deserts, the singular and fertile vale of Egypt ; and the rivers Nile and Niger. The chief physical and moral distinctions of its inhabitants are their black complexion : their perpetual barbarism ; and their unhappy lot in being the prey of foreigners, who from time immemorial have dragged them away into slavery.

The immense deserts of the interior, the most distinguishing feature of African geography, have given rise to a system of travelling more generally practised there than in any other part of the world. As there are few rivers, and no inland seas, the arts and advantages of navigation are unknown in the greatest part of this vast continent, and the whole commerce of the interior of Africa is necessarily carried on by caravans. The physical situation of those sequestered regions is productive of circumstances not uninteresting to the merchant and the philosopher. The business of conducting journies through immense deserts, which insulate the few cultivable spots, requires peculiar talents and habits. It has become almost the exclusive employment of several tribes, on whose manners and characters the effects of their peculiar mode of life are strongly marked.

The roads through the African deserts are not distinguished by any permanent marks, to the erection of which many obstacles exist. In such places as afford stones, the people of the caravans sometimes collect a few large ones and raise small

heaps at various distances. This contrivance is found very serviceable on their return, but in places where the sand is loose and deep, it becomes impracticable. They are therefore obliged to rely chiefly on the facility acquired by habit of distinguishing the general aspect of the country, the appearances of certain rocks, and other characteristic features of nature, which are but little varied. Their total ignorance of the compass is a great disadvantage to those rangers of the deserts, and their knowledge of the fixed stars is very imperfect. But although they are little acquainted with the names of the constellations, they distinguish such as may guide their course in the night. Their deviations from the true line, however, are not unfrequent.

The people of some of the caravans take a small stock of dried meat; others content themselves with a leather bag of flour, another of hard baked bread, a leathern vessel of honey or treacle, and another of butter, the quantity of each being proportioned to the length of the journey. Water is also an indispensable article, and is carried in leather bags. These journeys are performed chiefly with camels, which are remarkably patient of hunger, and thirst. The caravan consists of no determinate number, varying between 200 and 2000. Besides the excessive heats and other hardships to which those traders are exposed, they frequently run the risk of being attacked by the roving Arabs of the desert, who make robbery their profession. But Mr. Browne, a late traveller, thinks the danger arising from the winds and moving sands greatly exaggerated; and entirely explodes the idea of caravans and armies being overwhelmed by them. He supposes that if such assemblages of people have been buried in the sands, it can only have happened after want of water, the influence of a hot wind, or other causes had deprived them of the power of motion. The number of men and animals which may have successively perished through such causes, and afterwards been found covered with sand, might induce succeeding travellers to believe that whole caravans had been suddenly overwhelmed in their march.

The want of inland seas and rivers, together with the exten-

sive sandy deserts, has deprived the different parts of this vast continent of the means of easy communication ; shut up the interior countries from all intercourse with civilized nations ; and perpetuated the barbarism of their sequestered tribes.

The prevalent religions of Africa, with the single exception of Abyssinia, are Mahometanism and idolatry. The former seems to extend over all the northern countries as far as the Niger : and the intolerant fanaticism of its professors, together with their jealousies of the whites, concur with physical circumstances in preventing the progress of European discovery. The various forms under which paganism exhibits itself in the southern regions, are subjects too minute and unimportant for historical detail. Extravagant rites and absurd ideas, among which may be reckoned a general belief in the power of witchcraft, are its principal characteristics. An important subject of physical investigation, is the black complexion, which, with several variations of feature, occupies a wide extent of latitude, quite across the continent. But an attempt to explain this phenomenon, would lead us far from the accustomed objects of history. We therefore simply mention the fact, leaving the rationale thereof to philosophers.

NORTHERN AFRICA,

EXTENDING from Egypt along the Mediterranean, as far as the Atlantic Ocean, comprehends the states of Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco. Their respective limits, however, are little known, and ill defined. In the midst of barren deserts, a frontier of a few miles is of little value. The inhabited country shall be displayed in a general view, as all the circumstances both physical and moral, of the different states, are nearly similar. They have for the most part shared the same fortune, and their affairs are therefore included in one portion of history.

The soil partakes of the general character of Africa, and of the correspondent latitudes of America, being light and sandy except the vallies and the low lands, bordering on water. These lands present in many places, a deep and rich mould.

The climate, in the countries between Mount Atlas and the

Mediterranean, is temperate and pleasant, except from the beginning of June to the end of August, when the heats are excessive, and unfriendly to health. The winter season commences about the middle of October, towards the end of which the rains set in, and generally continue till the beginning of February ; but the cold is seldom very severe.

In the time of the Romans, Northern Africa was famed for its never failing fertility. At present, agriculture is greatly declined, and the quantity of productions consequently diminished. They are, however, far from being inconsiderable. Morocco is the most fertile of all those regions, and together with Algiers, supplies the garrison of Gibraltar with considerable quantities of provisions. Corn of all kinds is plentiful, and the wheat is of an excellent quality. All those countries produce excellent fruits, as well as flowers of the greatest beauty and fragrance.

The domestic animals are, in general, the same as in Europe, with the addition of the camel and dromedary. From these countries, the Romans were chiefly supplied with lions, leopards, &c. for their public exhibitions in the circus.

No specimens of modern art are here to be seen ; and the monuments of antiquity, that still remain, are mostly in a ruinous state. In some places are seen remains of Roman magnificence, and a few vestiges of the Saracenic ; but nothing striking is presented to view ; their history being obscured by time, and their grandeur defaced by barbarians. They only serve to excite a faint recollection of the ancient splendour of those countries, first as the seat of the Carthaginian power, and afterwards as a Roman province.

In all these states the government is despotic. The despotism of Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers, does not reside wholly in the deys ; the soldiery, by whom they are elected, frequently depose them.

Scarcely any such thing as law, can be said to exist in these countries ; every thing is decided by arbitrary power. In Morocco, the sovereigns frequently act the part, both of judges and executioners ; and the despotism of the monarch being diffused through every branch of the government, is shared

by a number of inferior officers, always the agents, and often the victims of tyranny.

The military forces of these states are not exactly known, but are far from being numerous. Those of Algiers, the most powerful of the piratical states, are not supposed to exceed 7,000 foot. The emperor of Morocco might bring into the field a considerable number of men, but the negro cavalry constitutes the chief strength of his army. They are slaves, brought young from the interior of Africa; trained up to a military life; and knowing no other master or parent than their king, are the firmest support of his despotism. The whole maritime strength of all these African states is contemptible.

The commerce carried on between the Christian states on the northern coasts of the Mediterranean, and the territory of Tunis, is very considerable. Previous to their war with England, the French possessed the greatest share of this traffic. In one year, three hundred vessels arrived at the port of Marseilles from Tunis, laden with the produce of the Barbary coast. Of this, wool constituted the principal subject of export. Large quantities of it were annually carried to the different ports of France, where it was made up into cloth; and in that shape carried back to the Barbary market. From this process, the French merchants derived immense profits, similar to those which accrue to the English, from their traffic with the United States. The trade of Morocco is inconsiderable; that of Algiers, which is not of much greater importance, was also, previous to the revolution, in the hands of the French. The exportation of provisions, of which the chief produce of Algiers consists, is prohibited by the Dey. The English garrison at Gibraltar, is nevertheless permitted by a subsisting treaty, to carry provisions from the port of Oran. Great Britain has no direct trade with the Barbary states, a circumstance somewhat surprising, as the produce and manufactures might, it would seem, be advantageously exchanged. A considerable amount of British fabrics, however, is conveyed into Africa, through the channels of France and Leghorn. It is said that a trade is carried on between Tunis and Tombuctoo, a large city in the central part of Africa, of the magnificence

and extent of which, extraordinary accounts have been given. Our information, however, with regard to this place, is vague and unsatisfactory ; as no traveller of credibility has yet been able to penetrate through the immense deserts which must be traversed in order to reach it. The traffic is conducted by means of caravans, which set out for Tombuctoo and Guinea, in October, and in June arrive again at Tunis. They take out coarse woollens, fire arms, gunpowder, watches, hard-ware, &c. In return they bring back slaves, ivory, and gold-dust.

In the states of northern Africa, the manufactures are neither numerous, nor conducted on an extensive scale, unless we may except that of red caps, of which incredible quantities are made at Tunis, and dyed of a beautiful scarlet colour. Soap is also a considerable article of African manufacture.

The political importance of those states merits little attention. They have no relation to Europe, except by commerce or piracy. They may considerably annoy the Mediterranean trade of any nation that has not a naval force sufficient to command respect for its flag.

The language is in general, a corrupt kind of Arabic, spoken in various dialects, and intermixed with words derived from the Moors, and the other nations, of which the population is composed.

The Mediterranean coast of Africa, now so rude and barbarous, was the birth place of Terence and Tertullian, and enjoyed the light of the Gospel at an early period of the Christian æra. With the exception of the city of Tunis, scarcely so much as a shadow of literature, or the arts, can be said to exist in any of the states of Barbary. The Moors and Turks, however, evince a disposition to letters, which, if it were encouraged by their government, might lead to a better state of things. They send their sons to school at an early period ; but, in consequence of the ignorance of the teachers, the utmost proficiency to which they arrive, is to be able to read the koran. The education of daughters is never thought of.

In refinement of manners and morals, the inhabitants of these states are equally deficient. The people are a mixed race, and although the Arabian religion and manners have

prevailed, the original Moorish blood still predominates. The soldiers and mariners of Tripoli, Tunis, and especially of Algiers, are an intrepid class of men, and often fight desperately on board their piratical vessels. The Arabs are said to be a hospitable people, and the most inoffensive of all the inhabitants. The Berberes, or ancient Moorish tribes, who reside in the mountainous districts, and are governed by their own elective sheiks, are an obstinate, fierce, and savage race. The dey of Tunis is obliged to send annually a large army to collect his tributes.

The countries of Northern Africa may be reckoned among those, the history of which presents a lamentable decline from a state of civilization and prosperity, to a state of barbarism and depression. The original population of those regions appears to have been derived from Syria ; at least the best historical documents, and the general voice of antiquity represent the Carthaginians as a Phœnician or Tyrian colony. According to Sallust, however, the Medes, the Persians, and the Armenians, had peopled some of the maritime provinces.

Of the history of Carthage, we have no other accounts than those transmitted us by the Greeks and Romans. From the narrations of the latter, who, it must be remembered, were then rivals and enemies, it appears, that the Carthaginians were equally greedy of power, and of gain, and aimed no less at universal dominion, than universal commerce. It is certain, that before her fatal contest with Rome, Carthage was extremely opulent and powerful, having extended her sway over almost the whole of Northern Africa, and conquered a great part of Spain as well as all the isles of the Mediterranean. In commercial greatness, she surpassed every other nation on the globe, and the exploits of some of her generals raised her military as high as her mercantile fame. The government of Carthage, like that of Rome, was republican. It appears, however, that the administration was extremely corrupt, and the state constantly agitated with factions. A party in the Carthaginian senate, inimical to the interests and fame of Hannibal, effected the ruin of that celebrated commander, and saved Rome from destruction. Carthage seems to have been pecu-

liarly averse to diminishing its population. It purchased its conquests, and provided for the national safety, not by the sacrifice of men, but of money. Its wars were carried on, and its domination extended by foreign mercenaries, levied from different quarters; and its numerous armies presented an assemblage of needy and desperate adventurers, from all the countries round the Mediterranean. These foreign mercenaries were seldom found deficient in the field of battle. The troops of Hannibal, chiefly composed of Spaniards and Gauls, performed wonders, and nearly annihilated the Roman name. The discordant factions in the senate of Carthage caused the ruin of that great and powerful republic; which the Roman arms, according to every probability, could not otherwise have accomplished.

No remains now exist to attest the magnificence of Carthage: but the narrative of its destruction, by the Romans, indicates its immense population and opulence; and history informs us of its extent. It was one of the largest cities in the world, and probably the richest, as it was both warlike and mercantile; and had accumulated wealth, both by conquest and by commerce. Rome was only rising to greatness; Athens had long been declining, and it seemed probable, that in magnitude and opulence, Carthage would be rivalled only by Alexandria.

From the year 146 B. C., Carthage and its dependencies became an appendage to Rome. The war with Jugurtha, also, added Numidia and Mauritania to the dominions of the latter; and her power extended from the confines of Egypt, to the coast of the Atlantic. Mauritania, the present Morocco, however, was never more than partially explored and colonized. But Africa proper became a flourishing province. A new Carthage arose from the ruins of the ancient seat of Punic power, and became one of the principal cities of the Roman empire. Carthage, and the whole of northern Africa, being subjected to Rome, shared her fortunes, partook of her prosperity, and were involved in the calamities which occasioned her downfall. About the beginning of the fifth century, the Vandals, passing from Spain into Africa, made themselves masters of that province, and founded a kingdom, which con-

tinued till the reign of Justinian. But that Emperor having sent from Constantinople a formidable fleet and army, under the command of the celebrated Belisarius, the Vandalic kingdom of Africa was finally subverted, and annexed as a province to the eastern empire. From this time, till the Arabian conquest, Africa remained subject to that empire, and was considered as one of the fairest jewels in its diadem.

The seventh century was marked by the extraordinary revolutions effected by the Arabians, throughout a great portion of the globe. In the year 647, only seven years after the capture of Alexandria, Abdallah, the lieutenant of the caliph Othman, undertook the conquest of northern Africa. With an army of 20,000 Arabians, from the camp of Memphis, joined by the same number, from Medina, he began his march towards the west, but met with a vigorous resistance from the Greek prefect at Tripoli ; and, after a campaign of about fifteen months, retreated to Egypt, with rich spoils, and a great number of captives, but without making any permanent establishment. Nothing of that kind was accomplished till 672, when, in the town and fortress of Cairoan, about fifty miles to the south of the present Tunis, and the ancient Carthage, Akbah founded a citadel, that might overawe the barbarous natives, and serve as a place of retreat to the Arabians, in case of any disaster. Advancing through the interior, to the shores of the Atlantic, he is said to have spurred his horse into the waves, declaring, that had not his progress been stopped by the ocean, he would still have proceeded into unknown countries, preaching the unity of God, and exterminating, with the sword, all nations that should persist in idolatry. This zealous conqueror and apostle soon found that he had already advanced too far. An universal defection of the natives, recalled him from the shores of the Atlantic. He found it impossible to retain his conquests, and met with an honourable death, being surrounded and overpowered by multitudes of insurgents. His successor, Zuheir, avenged his death, and vanquished the natives in several engagements. This general experienced the fate of his predecessor, in an unsuccessful encounter with an army sent from Constantino-

ple. The western expeditions of the Arabians were again suspended, by the discord which prevailed in the caliphate ; but the return of domestic tranquillity, allowed them to resume the conquest of Africa. In the year 692, the standard of the caliph was delivered to Hassan, governor of Egypt ; and an army of 40,000 men was destined for the grand expedition against Africa. The arms of this general, were more fortunate than those of his predecessors. He took and pillaged Carthage, the metropolis of the whole province, but was soon obliged to retire, by the appearance of a formidable armament from Constantinople and Sicily. The Arabians retreated to Cairoan and Tripoli ; and the Christians, immediately landing, took possession of Carthage. They were obliged, in their turn, to evacuate that city. The commander of the faithful prepared, against the ensuing spring, a more formidable armament. A decisive battle was fought near Utica ; the Christians were totally defeated—and Africa was irrecoverably lost. Carthage was delivered to the flames ; and, although a small part of its former site was afterwards re-peopled, it never more acquired any political or commercial importance, but gradually dwindled to an insignificant village ; and few remains of this celebrated metropolis of Africa, are now discoverable.

The expulsion of the Christians, and the possession of their cities, did not render the Arabians masters of the country, and they still found great difficulty in completing their conquest. The Berberes still resisted the power of the conquerors. Under the auspices of their queen Cahina, who, by assuming the character of a prophetess, secured their implicit obedience, these barbarians acquired some degree of union, and attacked the invaders with an enthusiasm equal to their own. The insurrection was general. The veteran bands of Hassan, every where overpowered by innumerable hosts of barbarians, were inadequate to the defence of their new conquests. The Arabian chief, being obliged to give way to the overwhelming torrent, retired to the confines of Egypt ; and five years were spent in waiting for succours from the Caliph. This insurrection of the Africans is represented as dreadfully destructive, and it is said, that the whole country from Tangier to

Tripoli, exhibited one general scene of desolation. Ignorance and a love of the marvellous, may have given rise to some exaggerations among the Arabian historians; but it is natural to suppose, that so violent an insurrection of such numbers of furious barbarians, whose impetuous vengeance was roused by enthusiasm, and encouraged by their royal prophetess, must have been attended with dreadful disorders. Hassan, however, resolved on another attempt to restore the Arabian empire in Africa. All the cities, all the friends of civil society, Christians as well as others, received the Mahometan general as the saviour of their country, and united against the barbarous Moors. The same spirit of universal revolt again broke out, but was finally quelled. In this last insurrection, and final reduction of the Moors, the number of prisoners is said to have amounted to no less than 300,000, of whom 60,000, the Caliph's fifth, were sold for the benefit of the public treasury. If this statement be correct, it may enable us to judge of the extent of the insurrection, and the number of the insurgents. By the extinction of this rebellion, the conquest of Africa was rendered complete. About 30,000 of the Moorish youth were enlisted in the troops of the Caliph. The Moors, who in their manners and habits of life, resembled the Bedouins of the deserts, embraced the religion of the conquerors, and were proud to adopt the language, and assume the name of Arabians. The blood of the strangers and natives was insensibly intermingled; and "from the Euphrates to the Atlantic, the same nation might seem to be diffused over the sandy plains of Asia and Africa." The deserts of Arabia, however, could never supply colonies that could bear any proportion to the number of the natives, and the aboriginals. Moors must always have constituted the great mass of the population.

Till the time of Musa, the viceroyalty of Africa had remained an appendage to that of Egypt. But the Caliph Walid I., erected it into a separate province, and assigned to Musa an independent authority.

The Africans once more attempted to throw off the yoke of their conquerors, and nearly effected their expulsion, having

made themselves masters of Cairoan, the capital. Hantele Ben Seffran, governor of Egypt, was in 741 sent by the Caliph Kakim, against the insurgents, whom he subdued with great slaughter, and regained possession of Cairoan. The courage of the Africans, however, was not extinguished, nor their resources exhausted. They again assembled a numerous army, but were a second time defeated by the governor of Egypt. This contest is represented by historians as one of the most sanguinary in the annals of the world, and was attended with a prodigious slaughter of the insurgents. In 749 Abd. El. Rachman, governor of Africa, threw off his allegiance to the Caliph, and assumed the sovereign authority; but the rebel being slain by his brothers, a civil war between the fratricides ensued, which proved the ruin of their short lived dynasty. The Caliph Abu Mansur, in 772, sent his lieutenant Yerid, into Africa, who succeeded in reducing the province, and restoring tranquillity. About A. D. 800, Ibraim Ben Aglab renounced the authority of the Caliph, assumed the style and state of sovereign of Africa, maintained himself in his usurpation, and transmitted the sceptre to his posterity. Under the dynasty of the Aglabites, Sicily was subdued. Syracuse, after having sustained a siege of nine months, was taken, A. D. 877, and all the inhabitants were put to the sword. This great commercial city was given up to plunder, and the booty was immense. In 908 a revolution took place, which raised a new family to the sovereignty of Africa, and eventually to that of Egypt. Ziadet Ullah, having murdered his brother, seized the African sceptre. A revolt arising, Ziadet was obliged to abandon his dominions, and take refuge in Egypt. With this prince expired the dynasty of the Aglabites, which, during the space of 108 years, had reigned over Africa, from Egypt to Morocco.

On the expulsion of Ziadet, Obeid Ullah assumed the sovereign authority, and founded the dynasty of the Fatimites. This Arabian family, which had been settled in Egypt, pretended to deduce its origin from Fatime, the daughter of Mohammed, and wife of Ali. Abuel Cassin, son and successor of Obeid Ullah, displayed great talents for politics and war.

The dominion of the Aglabites had not extended over the ancient Mauritania. That western region of Africa was ruled by the Edrissites, another Arabian family, who had established an independent sovereignty, and built the city of Fez. But Abuel Cassim, in the first year of his reign, subdued the Edrissites, and united under his dominion all the Mahomedan part of Africa, from Egypt to the Atlantic.

The transplantation of the Fatimites to Egypt, gave rise to a new dynasty in Africa. Abu Tummin, before his departure for Cairo, resigned the sovereignty of Africa on condition of homage, to Yussef Ben Zeira, of a family which sprang from Arabia Felix, and is known in African history by the appellation of the dynasty of the Zeirites. The reign of this prince is distinguished by the suppression of several dangerous revolts, and some other successful enterprises. Abuel Cassim Mansur, his son, who ascended the African throne in 983, reigned with great splendour, and built, at an extraordinary expense, a magnificent palace at Cairoan. In perusing the annals of the Arabians since the time of Mahommed, it affords some pleasure, when we are able to turn from the history of their bloody conquests, to a view of their progress in the arts of civilization and elegance. Even in the sands of Africa, these at last took root, and Cairoan, which stood in the midst of a desert, displayed the magnificence of its sovereigns. This city, the capital of the Arabian empire in Africa, was in the most disadvantageous situation that can be conceived. All its vegetable food was brought from a considerable distance ; and the scarcity of springs, constrained the inhabitants to collect, in cisterns and reservoirs, precarious supplies of rain water. These disadvantages, however, were in some measure counterbalanced, by the security, which its inland situation afforded against the fleets of Constantinople. In this barren spot, a citadel was erected and a colony planted ; and in the space of a few years the palace of the governor was surrounded with a number of private habitations. Under the dynasty of the Aglabites, and the first princes of the Zeirites, Cairoan became the seat of letters and arts, as well as of empire, and was adorned with magnificent structures. A war, however, which broke out

A. D. 1050, between Moaz, the sovereign of Africa, and Mostansir, the Fatimite Caliph of Egypt, was fatal to its grandeur. Moaz was defeated in the field, and the Egyptians gained possession of Tripoli, and afterwards of Cairoan; where they stopped the springs, and destroyed the magnificent palaces of the monarchs of Africa. Moaz, overwhelmed with misfortunes, sunk under their weight, and terminated a long and prosperous reign in the greatest misery.

From this time the empire of the Arabians in Africa began to decline. The conquest of Sicily, by the Normans, gave a military impulse, which was severely felt on all that continent. The power of the Zeirites was also abridged, and their empire contracted, by the defection of western Africa; where a new family, called the Marabuts, arose, and founded an independent monarchy. They acquired dominion, through a pretended zeal for religion. This revolution took place about A. D. 1060; and in 1069, Yussuf, the second prince of that race, founded the city of Morocco. The Zeirites were unable to re-establish their dominion in the west; and were frequently exposed to the attacks of the Greeks and the Sicilians, who frequently harassed the maritime parts of Africa. The latter, in particular, made themselves masters of all the coast from Tunis to Tripoli. Foreign wars and intestine commotions terminated the dynasty of the Zeirites. It was succeeded by that of the Elmohads, who repaired most of the losses which the empire had suffered under the Zeirites. Tomrut was the founder of the dynasty of the Elmohads. He was succeeded by the celebrated Abd-el Muonin, originally a doctor in theology, whose talents were adequate to the management of a contest in the field, as well as in the schools. He reduced Oran, Fez, and Morocco; and, having put an end to the Marabut dynasty, was acknowledged sole sovereign of all Mahometan Africa. About the year 1150, he sent formidable armies into Spain, to the assistance of the Moors, who were hard pressed by the Christians; and, about nine years afterwards, he expelled the Sicilians from Tunis, and the rest of their stations on the African coast. The succeeding princes of this dynasty afforded powerful support to the

Mahometans of Spain ; and several of them made war in person on that kingdom, with various success. On the fall of the dynasty of the Elmoahads, about the year 1266, Africa was divided into all those petty states, which, with little variation, subsist to this day.

About the year 1347, Abu-el Hassan, sultan of Morocco, reduced under his dominion all the other African states ; but his power was only transient—his empire soon fell assunder, and the different states resumed their independence. From this time, the history of northern Africa is sufficiently replete with unimportant revolutions, conspiracies, murders, and usurpations, among its petty princes ; but can be little interesting to the reader, till the beginning of the sixteenth century, when a revolution took place which renders it more worthy of attention. This great event was brought about by persons, whose rank and circumstances seemed to preclude them from acting any important part on the theatre of the world. Horuc and Hayradin, the sons of a potter in the isle Lesbos, in the Archipelago, impelled by a restless and enterprising spirit, forsook their trade and joined a crew of pirates. In their new profession they soon distinguished themselves, by their valour and activity ; and becoming masters of a small brigantine, they carried on their piracies with such conduct and success, that they soon assembled a fleet of twelve gallies, besides several vessels of smaller force. Horuc, the elder, called Barbarossa from the red colour of his beard, was admiral, Hayradin being second in command ; and their names soon became terrible, from the Hellespont to the straits of Gibraltar. Together with their fame and their power, their views were extended ; and while acting the part of corsairs, they adopted the ideas, and acquired the talents of conquerors. The convenient situation of the ports of Africa, so near the great commercial states of Christendom, suggested the advantages that might be derived from an establishment on that coast ; and an opportunity of attaining this object presented itself, which they took care to improve. Eutemi, king of Algiers, having made several unsuccessful attempts on a fort which the Spanish governors of Oran had built near his capital, so-

licited the aid of Barbarossa, whose valour the Africans considered as irresistible. The corsair gladly accepted the invitation, and marched to Algiers at the head of 5,000 men, a force which gave him the absolute command of the town. Perceiving that the light armed troops of the Moors were incapable of opposing his disciplined veterans, he murdered the monarch whom he came to assist, and caused himself to be proclaimed king of Algiers. He next attacked the neighbouring king of Tremescen, and having vanquished him in battle, annexed his dominions to the Algerine kingdom. At the same time, he harassed the coasts of Spain and Italy, with fleets that resembled the armaments of a great monarch, rather than the squadrons of a corsair. The devastations which they committed attracted the attention of Charles V., who, in the beginning of his reign, furnished the marquis de Cornaro with a force sufficient to make an attack on Tremescen and Algiers. That officer, assisted by the dethroned king of Tremescen, having defeated Barbarossa in several engagements, obliged him to shut himself up in Tremescen, where he was immediately besieged. After defending the place to the last extremity, he was overtaken in attempting to make his escape, and slain, while fighting with an obstinate valour, worthy of his former fame and exploits. His brother, Hayradin, who was not his inferior either in ambition or abilities, assumed the sceptre of Algiers, and displayed great talents for government. He regulated with consummate prudence the interior police of his kingdom; carried on with great vigour his naval operations, and extended his conquests on the continent of Africa. But perceiving that the Moors and Arabs submitted to his government with reluctance, he put his dominions under the protection of the Sultan, and received from him a considerable body of Turkish troops, and the chief command of the Turkish fleet. Proud of this distinction, Barbarossa, for so Hayradin was also called, repaired to Constantinople, and gained still more the affection and confidence of the Grand Seignior, and his Vizier. To them he proposed the scheme of making himself master of Tunis, and obtained whatever he required for carrying his project into execution.

Tunis, although one of the most flourishing kingdoms on the coast of Africa, was at this time torn by intestine divisions. Mahmed, the last king, having thirty-four sons, appointed Muley Hascen, one of the youngest of them, to be his successor. That weak and barbarous prince first poisoned his father, to prevent his altering the succession; and then put to death all his brothers whom he could get into his power. Alraschid, one of the eldest, was so fortunate as to escape, and found a retreat among the wandering Arabs. But perceiving their inability to afford him any effectual assistance towards ascending the throne; and dreading their natural levity, which might dispose them to deliver him up to his merciless brother, he fled, as his last refuge, to Algiers, and implored the protection of Barbarossa; who immediately perceiving the advantages that might be derived from supporting his title, received him with every possible demonstration of respect and friendship. Allured by promises of effectual assistance from the Turkish emperor, Alraschid was easily persuaded to accompany Barbarossa to Constantinople. But on their arrival, the treacherous corsair, regardless of his promises, proposed to the Sultan a plan for annexing Tunis to the Ottoman dominions, by using the name of the exiled prince. Solyman approved the proposal, which, though perfectly consistent with the character of its author, was highly disgraceful to that of a great monarch. A formidable armament was immediately equipped; and Alraschid flattered himself with the hope of soon entering Tunis in triumph. But at the moment when this unhappy prince was about to embark, he was arrested by the order of Solyman, and shut up in the seraglio. He was never more heard of; but his fate, though unknown to the world, can easily be conjectured.

Barbarossa sailed with a fleet of 250 vessels, from Constantinople towards Africa; and, after ravaging the coasts of Italy, appeared before Tunis. Having landed his troops, he declared that he came to assert the right of Alraschid, whom he pretended to have left sick on board of the admiral's galley. The fort of Goletta, which commanded the harbour, was delivered up. The inhabitants of Tunis took up arms, and declared

for Alraschid with such unanimity and zeal, that Muley Hascen was obliged to save himself by a precipitate flight. The gates were immediately opened to Barbarossa, as the restorer of their lawful sovereign. But when Alraschid did not appear; and when, instead of his name, that of Solyman resounded among the Turkish soldiers, the people began to suspect some treachery. Their suspicions being soon converted into certainty, the Tunisians ran furiously to arms, and invested the citadel, in which Barbarossa had placed his troops. But the corsair having foreseen such a revolution, was prepared for the attack. By a brisk discharge of artillery, he dispersed the numerous but irregular assailants, and compelled them to acknowledge Solyman as their sovereign, and himself as his viceroy.* Having thus gained possession of the kingdom of Tunis, his next care was to put it in a proper state of defence. He strengthened the citadel which commands the town; and having fortified the Goletta in a regular manner, made it the principal station for his fleets, and his arsenal for military and naval stores. Being now possessed of such extensive territories, and a port so well fortified, he carried on his depredations against the Christian states, to a greater extent, and with more destructive violence than before; till daily complaints of his outrages, drew upon him the formidable arms of the emperor Charles V. The expedition of this monarch, though it considerably checked, did not annihilate the power of the African corsairs. Algiers has ever since been, and now is, the centre of the piratical system; which, to the disgrace of Christendom, is either bought off with bribes, or suffered to subsist.

UNEXPLORED COUNTRIES OF AFRICA.

EXCEPT the already described countries of Egypt, Abyssinia, the states on the coast of the Mediterranean, the Cape colony, and the other particular spots on the sea coast, in which

* This account of the origin of the piratical states of Barbary, is taken from Dr. Robertson's Narrative. See Hist. Charles Vth, vol. 3, book 1.

European settlements and factories are thinly scattered, all the rest of Africa may be considered as an unknown region. As we possess no documents that can constitute the basis of a methodical description, we shall therefore consider it under the general divisions of western, southern, eastern, and central Africa.

On the western coast of Africa, in proceeding southward from Morocco, a number of Moorish and Arabian tribes are spread over those sandy and sterile regions, almost to the river Senegal. On that river, and on the Gambia, we meet with the Jalofs and the Foulahs. The former are an active and warlike race, and esteemed the handsomest of the negro nations; the latter are of a tawny complexion, with pleasing features. The maritime part of Guinea, distinguished by the appellations of the Grain, the Ivory, and the Gold coast, extends from about 12° west, to about 8° of east longitude, and is mostly comprised between the parallels of 5°, and 9° of north latitude. At the western extremity is the English settlement of Sierra Leone, formed in 1787, under the patronage of a very respectable society of gentlemen, for the laudable purpose of promoting the civilization of Africa. In September, 1794, a French squadron attacked and destroyed this settlement, which, however, has through the prudent measures of the directors, already recovered from its misfortunes, and great progress has been made by the colonists, in clearing and improving their lands. To the east of Sierra Leone, are the Foulahs of Guinea, a powerful race, totally different from the nation of the same name near the river Gambia. It is said, that they can bring into the field 16,000 cavalry. They profess the Mahometan religion, and being surrounded by pagan tribes, think themselves authorised to make war for the sake of procuring slaves. They have some mines of iron, which they work, and some manufactures of silver and leather. Teembo, their capital city, is said to have about 7,000 inhabitants. The Mahometan religion extends along the western coast of Africa, as far as the Gambia, where Paganism commences; but the former system gradually gains ground, and begins to prevail among several of the negro tribes.

The kingdoms of Dahomy, and Benin, are powerful and extensive states on the coast of Guinea. Dahomy, including Whidah, is supposed to extend from the coast about 150 miles within land, but this is only conjecture, as no European has penetrated half so far into the interior. The country, as far as it is known to Europeans, is flat, the soil in general, a deep rich loam, but in some places, a little light and gravelly. There is not, however to be seen in the whole country a stone as large as an egg. The Dahoman territory is represented as extremely fertile. The inhabitants cultivate maize, and millet, yams, and potatoes. Oranges, plantains, bananas, pine apples, melons, and various other fruits, and vegetables abound. The country also produces indigo, cotton, tobacco, the sugar cane, and a variety of spices. Among the animal productions are sheep, goats, hogs, buffaloes, and elephants. The religion of the Dahomians consists of an inexplicable mass of superstitions. The government is one of the most despotic on the face of the globe. There is no intermediate degree between the king and the slave. No subject whatever can approach the royal presence without prostration; and in that posture, every minister and courtier must receive his majesty's commands. The king keeps on foot, a considerable standing army, commanded by an Agow, or general. But the most singular spectacle which the Europeans meet with in Dahomy, is the review of female troops, commanded by a female general, and subordinate officers of the same sex. Some thousands of women, immured in the royal palaces, are said to be regularly trained and exercised to arms. They serve as body guards to the monarch, and when any extraordinary emergency obliges him to take the field in person, they accompany him in his expeditions.

The Dahomians have several useful arts and manufactures for home consumption, and appear to be in a higher state of civilization than any of the other negro nations, with which the Europeans are acquainted. They are also extremely fond of the manufactures and merchandize of Europe. Courteous to strangers, and cruel to their enemies, their national character appears strongly marked with that mixture of politeness

and ferocity, which is occasionally found among people in the first stages of civilization.

The kingdom of Benin stretches along the coast from about 7° north, to about 1° south-latitude, and is supposed to have a very considerable extent of inland territory. The face of the country is level, and the soil fertile, and entirely without stones. Its climate is hot, and extremely unhealthy. The capital city, called also Benin, is situated on the river of the same name. This stream is of considerable magnitude, and divides itself into several branches. The city is said to be spacious and well peopled, and to contain thirty streets, which are kept tolerably clean. But the houses are only low hovels, built of clay. The government is monarchical, but with this strange singularity, that the sovereign power is placed in the hands of three chiefs, who have the controul over the king. The inhabitants of this country, and probably all the other nations of Guinea, appear to acknowledge a Supreme benevolent Deity, whom they consider far above all human worship; but they offer sacrifices to inferior and malignant beings, to appease their anger, and avert their malevolence.

Further to the south is Loango, a country of considerable extent. It was formerly possessed by the Portuguese, but they appear to have been expelled. The principal exports are elephants' teeth, tin, lead, copper, and iron. The people are industrious, and exercise many of the useful arts. The soil is chiefly a compact clay. Even the mountains are said to consist wholly of clay, without any mixture of rock. The climate is hot, and extremely insalubrious. The heats are the greatest during the rainy season, which begins with the month of November, and ends with that of March. The country, however, is fertile, and abounds in the tropical productions.

Congo is on the south of Loango. Of this country, we have no very recent authentic account. Both in its physical and moral state, it greatly resembles the other countries already mentioned. The Portuguese have a settlement at St. Salvador, the capital city, which is seated on the top of a considerable mountain. The king appears to be entirely

under their influence, and the whole country virtually under their dominion.

Contiguous to Congo on the south, is the country of Angola, which is said to be governed by several petty princes. The Portuguese have several settlements, and are masters of the coast, although other European nations trade with the natives. The countries situated on this extensive coast, which stretches from the river of Senegal, to the south of Angola, have, during the long period of nearly three centuries, been the seat of the slave trade; but this iniquitous traffic in human flesh being now abolished in the dominions of France, England, and the United States of America, is almost entirely confined to the Spanish, Portuguese, and Dutch colonies; and its final extinction among all the nations of Europe, is probably no very distant event.

From Angola almost to the Cape colony, the coast is little known. From Cape Negro, to the parallel of about thirty degrees south latitude, it presents a vast extent of desert, scarcely inhabited. The Hottentots are spread over the southern part of the continent.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

THE celebrated Cape colony, which occupies the southern extremity of Africa, is about 550 British miles in length, and 233 in breadth; but in this extent of territory, there are many large tracts, consisting of ranges of rocky mountains, and level plains of hard clay, mixed with sand, which, being absolutely unimproveable, are doomed to perpetual sterility. Of this country and its inhabitants, a more particular description is given under the head of the Hottentots.

EASTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

THE Eastern coast of Africa being visited chiefly by the Portuguese, is still more imperfectly known than the western. On leaving the territory of the Cape, we first meet with the Caffres, or properly Koussis; Caffre being not a national ap-

pellation, but an Arabic word, signifying, in general terms, an unbeliever, and consequently of no precise meaning in geography. The Caffres, or Koussis, are of a bright black colour, tall and stout, and their features are not disagreeable. The clothing of both sexes, consists only of hides of oxen, rendered pliant as cloth ; but most of them go nearly naked, and are in general tattooed. They believe in a Supreme Being, and a future state of rewards and punishments ; but they have no external worship—no sacred rites—nor any priests. Instead of these, however, they have conjurors, whom they greatly revere. They are governed by a chief, whose power is very limited. He has no revenue, but possesses a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed, in order to support his family and maintain his dignity. He has no troops at command ; and has no other authority than that which arises from his being revered as the father of a free people.

On the north of Sofala, is the extensive kingdom of Mocaranga, preposterously called Monomotapa ; which is the title of the monarch, not the name of the kingdom. The large river Zambezi, is supposed to encircle the kingdom on the west and the north. At the distance of about ninety or a hundred miles from the coast, it divides into two large branches, forming a delta ; and again subdividing, falls into the sea by five mouths—the principal stream being called the Luabo. In the month of April, the Zambezi inundates the low country. A chain of high mountains, called the spine of the world, stretching from north to south, and covered with perpetual snow, is said to pervade the interior. The level country, however, is exposed to excessive heats ; but the soil is, in general, said to be fertile. Some of the mountainous parts abound in gold. The Portuguese, who engross all the commerce, have a station near the mountains of Fura, about six hundred miles within land, where the largest quantities of that metal are found. They have, also, some fortresses on the coast. According to the imperfect accounts which are given of this country, the government seems to resemble the disorderly feudal system, which once prevailed in Europe. The

king is acknowledged as paramount sovereign ; but the country appears to be under the immediate government of numerous chiefs, whose children are retained at court as hostages, in order to ensure their fidelity. The monarch's guards are said to consist of females, slightly armed.

Although the Portuguese possess the important stations of Mosambique, and Melinda, they give themselves little trouble to explore these regions, or at least publish no accounts of them, and excepting the coasts, they present only a blank in geography. The Portuguese city of Mosambique, situated on an island about two miles from the continent, in $15^{\circ} 8'$ latitude, and $40^{\circ} 10'$ longitude, is large and populous, containing many churches and monasteries. Its trade consists chiefly in gold, elephant's teeth, and slaves.

Melinda, the capital of the kingdom of that name, is also in the possession of the Portuguese, who have a fortress and several churches in the city. Melinda is a Mahometan kingdom, founded by an Arabian colony, but the inhabitants are a mixture of Pagans, the original natives of the country ; Mahometans of Arabian descent ; and Christians converted by the Portuguese. The productions of this kingdom are rice, sugar, cocoa, and the other tropical fruits. It also affords gold, ivory, ostrich feathers, various kinds of drugs, and other articles common to the equatorial regions of Africa. The coast of Zanzibar is represented as in general marshy, and unhealthy. The little kingdom of Quiloa, with that of Mombaza, and the small aristocratical republic of Brava, are also dependent on the Portuguese. In proceeding still towards the north, the coast of Ajan presents an extensive tract of sandy deserts, thinly inhabited by a few scattered Arabian tribes. The kingdom of Adel is an Arabian colony, extending from the deserts of Ajan, northward to the entrance of the Straits of Babelmandel, and Cape Guardafui. The prince and most of the people are Mahometans. From Sofala, northward as far as to the Red Sea, Arabian colonies are every where found ; but the period of their establishment is not recorded in history. The Portuguese under the famous Vasco di Gama, were the first Europeans who visited these parts, and soon afterwards

reduced them under their dominion. At present, they may be justly considered as masters of all the eastern coasts of Africa, from Sofala to the kingdom of Adel, a vast extent of maritime territory, comprising many rich and fertile countries, which in the hands of an enterprising people, such as the Portuguese were in the sixteenth century, might receive incalculable improvements, and afford abundant supplies of national wealth. If the spirit of industry, investigation, and enterprize were resuscitated, and properly encouraged in Portugal, her subjects being masters of Congo, and Angola, Mocaranga and Mosambique, on the opposite coasts of Southern Africa, might open an immense field of geography, and natural history. A company of scientific men, attended by 300 or 400 regular troops, might with safety explore the whole intervening interior. In the present situation of Portugal, her influence in these remote regions must be inconsiderable, and will probably be of short duration.

CENTRAL AFRICA.

THE vast central regions of Africa have recently excited a considerable degree of public curiosity. The African Society of England, instituted in 1788, has promoted a spirit of inquiry, and its liberal patronage has enabled intelligent and enterprising travellers to make bold attempts towards exploring this widely extended scene of geographical obscurity. That celebrated association was composed of several learned and illustrious individuals. Its object was to promote discoveries, in the interior of the African continent; and persons every way qualified for the important and arduous undertaking, were selected and employed. The first of these geographical missionaries was Ledyard, a native of Connecticut, who undertook at his own request, the difficult and dangerous task of traversing from east to west, in the latitude assigned to the Niger, the broadest part of the continent of Africa. On this bold adventure, he set out from London on the 30th July, 1788, and on the 19th August reached Cairo. From that place he transmitted accounts to his employers, and informed

them that his next communications would be from Sennaar ; but death put an end to his discoveries, and disappointed the hopes that had been founded on his enterprising genius.

Under the patronage of the same illustrious society, Mungo Park undertook to penetrate by a new route into the interior of Africa. His great object was by traversing the country nearly in the direction of the Niger, to proceed to the great central city of Tombuctoo, which is well known to exist, although never yet seen by any European traveller. In the month of December 1795, Mr. Park set out from the British factory of Pisania on the banks of the Gambia, and taking his route through the kingdoms of Woolli, Bondou, Kayaaga, Kasson, Kaarta, and Ludamar, penetrated as far as that of Bambara, where the town of Silla, in longitude $1^{\circ} 30'$ east, was the boundary of his progress. He describes several of the countries through which he passed as beautifully diversified, with gently swelling eminences, forests, and valleys, displaying in some parts a beautiful and picturesque scenery, an abundant fertility, and a state of cultivation far superior to what might be expected in the interior of Africa. From the summit of a high hill in the kingdom of Kasson, Mr. Park had an extensive and enchanting prospect of the country, where the number of the towns and villages, and the excellent cultivation, surpassed every thing he had yet seen in Africa. In most of those countries, cotton, tobacco, and various kinds of grain, are produced in tolerable plenty. But the most singular of the African productions described by this enterprising and intelligent traveller, and indeed one of the greatest curiosities in the whole vegetable kingdom of nature, is the shea tree, an important object of cultivation in Bambara and the neighbouring countries, and furnishing a considerable article of inland commerce. This tree resembles an American oak, and bears fruit like a Spanish olive, the kernel of which, exposed to the sun, and afterwards boiled, produces butter. Mr. Park says that this butter is whiter, firmer, and to his taste of a richer and finer flavour than the best that is made from milk. It may be kept good the whole year without salt. The chief geographical objects that occurred in the route of this adventurous tra-

veller, are the river Joliba or Niger, and the city of Sego, the capital of the negro kingdom of Bambara. After encountering innumerable difficulties and dangers, and suffering extreme hardships, Mr. Park reached this city, which appeared to consist of four distinct towns, two on the northern bank of the Niger, and two on the southern. They are all surrounded with high mud walls; the houses are built of clay, of a square form with flat roofs, some of them have two stories, and many of them are white washed. Besides these buildings, Moorish mosques are seen in every quarter, and the streets though narrow, are broad enough for every useful purpose, in a country where wheel carriages are unknown. From the best information that could be obtained, Sego contained about 30,000 inhabitants, was in North Latitude $14^{\circ} 10'$ and East Longitude $2^{\circ} 26'$, and about 300 miles to the southward of Tombuctoo. The view of this extensive city, the numerous canoes upon the river, the crowded population, and the cultivated state of the surrounding country; formed altogether, a prospect of civilization and magnificence, which was not expected in the bosom of Africa.

In Ludamar Mr. Park met with a shereef, who resided at Walet, the capital of the Moorish kingdom of Beeron, situated to the north of Bambara, and who had visited Houssa, and lived some years at Tombuctoo. From this man he learned that Walet is larger than Tombuctoo, but being remote from the Niger, and its trade consisting chiefly of salt, it is not much frequented by strangers. He was also informed by the shereef, that Houssa was the largest city he had yet seen, and that many Jews resided at Tombuctoo. Mr. Park exhibits in the following words, a summary of the information which he collected at Silla and in other places during the course of his journey, relative to those celebrated cities of central Africa. "To the north east of Masina, a kingdom on the northern bank of the Niger, and at a short distance from Silla, is situated the kingdom of Tombuctoo, the great object of European research, the capital of this kingdom, being one of the principal marts for that extensive commerce which the Moors carry on with the negroes. The hopes of acquir-

ing wealth in this pursuit, and zeal for propagating their religion, have filled this extensive city with Moors and Mahometan converts. The king himself, and all the chief officers of state are Moors, and they are said to be more severe and intolerant in their principles than any of the Moorish tribes in this part of Africa. The present king of Tombuctoo is named Abu Abrahima. He is reported to possess immense riches. His wives and concubines are said to be clothed in silk, and the chief officers of state live in considerable splendour.

“ The city of Houssa, the capital of a large kingdom to the eastward of Tombuctoo, is another great mart for Moorish commerce. Many merchants who had visited that city, all agreed that it is larger and more populous than Tombuctoo. The trade, police, and government, are nearly the same in both ; but in Houssa the negroes are in greater proportion to the Moors, and have some share in the government.”

From these accounts of the intolerance of the Moors in those countries, where their fanatical zeal is fomented by avarice, and their enmity to Christians, heightened by their jealousy of European interference in their lucrative and exclusive commerce, it is easy to perceive the difficulty and danger that must attend a journey into the central parts of Africa. The traveller must be under the indispensable necessity of passing for a Mussulman.

Having continued his journey along the banks of the Niger to Silla, a large town about eighty miles to the eastward of Sego ; Mr. Park found his farther progress impracticable. The tropical rains set in—his finances were exhausted—and a variety of difficulties obliged him reluctantly to terminate his expedition, at a point somewhat more than sixteen degrees to the eastward of Cape Verd, and precisely in the same parallel, at the distance of about 1000 British miles within the continent of Africa, but 200 miles short of the desired station of Tombuctoo, the grand object of his perilous journey. This adventurous and indefatigable traveller, after a lapse of several years, again undertook the Herculean task of exploring central Africa. The result is not yet known.

The plans of the African Society for investigating the phy-

sical and moral state of the interior of this vast continent, and for eventually promoting the civilization of its remote and barbarous tribes, are more worthy of historical commemoration, than many of the great but mischievous schemes of politicians. The adventurous undertakings of its geographical missionaries; their solitary expeditions in those distant and unknown regions, are surer indications of enterprising fortitude, than the exploits of conquerors at the head of victorious armies. An equal degree of praise is due to those adventurers, whom curiosity alone, without patronage, has excited to enlarge the boundaries of human knowledge, by exploring the recesses of geographical obscurity. Among these, Mr. Browne has greatly contributed to improve our knowledge of the eastern part of the interior of Africa. On the 25th May, 1793, this curious and enterprising traveller set out from Assiut in Egypt, with the Soudar caravan. Striking immediately into the desert, they left the lesser Oasis on the right, and proceeded to the greater Oasis, where they passed through several villages. Mr. Browne's view of this country lay in a nearly direct line from north to south, of about 100 miles in length. A chain of mountains extends along the eastern side: the rest of the country is a plain of different levels, interspersed with abrupt rocks of rugged form and various sizes, consisting chiefly of grey granite. The soil is of various qualities, but its general character is sterility. In the north are large uncleared tracts, overgrown with low and thorny shrubs, from which gum is gathered, and there are numbers of large trees. There are no meadows. The periodical rains fall from the middle of June till the middle of September, and the face of the country is then intersected with numerous rivulets, and invested with a delightful verdure; but it soon re-assumes its former dusky appearance. During the rest of the year, the whole northern part of the kingdom is parched up by the sun. In the south, water is more abundant, and the country more fertile. From the investigation of this traveller, we derive considerable information with regard to the plants and animals of Dar Fur. Maize, cotton, and hemp, are among the common productions, and the gardens afford great plenty of

melons, cucumbers, &c. Wheat is ripe in about three months after sowing. Elephants are seen in great numbers, and their flesh is highly esteemed among the inhabitants, as an article of food.

The town of Cobbe, in latitude 14, contains 6,000 inhabitants. The buildings are all of clay. In it are five or six schools, in which children are taught to read and write.

The religion of Dar Fur is the Mahometan, marked with all the features of intolerant zeal. The government is a despotic monarchy. The sovereign has no council to direct him, and is under no controul but that of the koran. The present sultan Abd-el-rachman, is an usurper, having dethroned his nephew after defeating him in battle. There is as much competition for the sovereign authority in this petty kingdom, as in the most powerful and opulent empire. Abd-el-rachman is described by Mr. Browne as a person of the middle size, about fifty five years of age, alert and active, with eyes and features abounding in fire, and expression. His complexion was perfectly black; but his countenance very different from that of the negroes. He is honoured with the most profound veneration, and wherever he passes, all the spectators are obliged to appear bare-footed, kneeling. At a public audience, Mr. Browne saw him seated on his throne, under a lofty canopy of various kinds of stuffs, of Syrian and Indian fabric. The Melcks, or ministers were sitting in a respectful posture, bending down their heads, and behind them was a line of guards, who had caps ornamented in front with a small piece of copper, and a black ostrich feather. The space in front was filled with more than 1,500 petitioners and spectators. During the whole ceremony an encomiast stood on the left hand of the monarch, crying out with all his strength; "See the buffaloe, the offspring of a buffaloe, a bull of bulls, the elephant of superior strength, the powerful sultan Abd-el-rachman-el-Raschid. May God prolong thy life, O Master. May God assist thee, and render thee victorious." Such is the barbaric pomp of the petty monarch of Dar Fur.

The military force does not exceed 2,000 men. From the state of agriculture, the quantity of produce, and the general

appearance of the country, our author, who resided three years in Dar Fur, does not estimate the whole population of the kingdom at a greater number than 200,000 souls. The people, being of different tribes, have different languages, several of which are dialects of the Arabic.

The complexion of this people is for the most part perfectly black, and their hair short and woolly, but their features are very different from those of the negroes of Guinea. The Arabs, who are numerous, retain their native distinctions of feature, complexion, and language. The disposition of the Furians appears to be more cheerful than that of the Egyptians. They are fond of dancing, and in spite of the law of Mahomet, for which they pretend so much zeal, they are not less attached to drinking. A fermented liquor, called buza, procures them the enjoyment of intoxication, in which they indulge with the most riotous excess. In 1795, the sultan prohibited the use of this liquor, under the penalty of death; but even the edicts of despotism have not been able to extinguish their strong propensity to inebriation, which is still indulged, though with less publicity. Polygamy is extensively practised, and the licentious intercourse of the sexes is indulged with little restraint, or regard to decency. Thieving, lying, and cheating in trade, are vices almost universal. In a word, the moral picture of the people is more disagreeable than the physical circumstances of the country. This description of Dar Fur, by an intelligent traveller, after a residence of three years in that kingdom, might in all probability be with little variation applied to most of the petty Mahometan states in the northern part of the interior of Africa, such as Fezzan, tributary to the dey of Tripoli, Bornou, Cashna, Beerou, Dar Kulla, and several others; known from the reports of the traders, who come with the caravans to the various commercial stations.

After reviewing the laborious and perilous attempts of those adventurous travellers, it will not be amiss to examine how far they have succeeded in illustrating the geography of Africa. Mr. Park, from personal view, has brought to light several Negro and Moorish kingdoms, in the western part of the interior, and decided a curious geographical question,

by ascertaining the course of the Niger from west to east. From information extremely probable, he has also nearly determined the situation of the great central cities of Tombuctoo and Houssa ; and developed several important particulars relative to their politics and commerce. Mr. Browne has not only given a minute description of Dar Fur, from his own observations, but has also collected from the Jelabs or travelling merchants, much important intelligence concerning many countries to the south and the west of that kingdom. Mr. Park's travels on the western side terminated at $1^{\circ} 30'$, and those of Mr. Browne on the eastern part at $28^{\circ} 8'$ longitude, east from Greenwich. The intelligence obtained by the former, extended to 4° , that collected by the latter reached to about 17° , east longitude, So far the rays of modern intelligence throw a faint light upon central Africa. Between these meridians is found a deficiency of 13° , or 876 English miles, concerning which, all is vague conjecture. But between the limits of their actual observations, is an interval of twice that extent, or of 1,752 miles, a space comprising the cities of Tombuctoo and Houssa, the termination of the Niger, and in fine, the most interesting part of central Africa, the knowledge of which still remains a desideratum in geography.

END OF VOLUME VIII.

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