CITADEL OF KINGSTON

THE

PEOPLE'S HOME BOOK:

AN

INSTRUCTIVE AND INTERESTING

COLLECTION OF

ILLUSTRATED MISCELLANY,

DESIGNED FOR

POPULAR READING:

EMBRACING

HISTORICAL EVENTS, GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTIONS, SCIENTIFIC DISCOVERIES, PERSONAL NARRATIVES, INSTRUCTIVE BIOGRAPHIES, MAGNIFICENT CREATIONS OF ART, SUBLIME OPERATIONS OF NATURE, ANTIQUITIES OF ANCIENT, AND RELICS OF FEUDAL TIMES.

WITH

ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY ILLUSTRATIONS,

REPRESENTING

CITIES, LANDSCAPES, CASTLES, MARINE VIEWS, AQUEDUCTS, VIADUCTS, BRIDGES, MANUFACTORIES, PALACES, CHURCHES, MONASTERIES, ANTIQUITIES AND DEVELOPMENTS IN THE ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE KINGDOMS.

BY THOMAS H. PRESCOTT, A. M.

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the materials, and we now present the whole, — in a garb we trust by no means distasteful, — to the reader for his amusement and instruction. We trust that the diligent reader of the following pages will realize that his time has been not only profitably, but agreeably spent; and that he will arise from their perusal not merely a happier, but an abler man. To a rational mind, that amusement soon cloys which does not instruct as well as delight, — to obtain both these results has been our object, and we hope we have not been entirely unsuccessful.

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Aquatint

HOME BOOK

OF

ILLUSTRATED MISCELLANY.

THE EMPIRE OF JAPAN.

JAPAN was first made known to Europeans by MARCO POLO. This intelligent old Venetian traveler resided for many years at the court of the great Kublia Khan, the conqueror of China. Being in much favor with the emperor, and employed in missions that led him to take extensive journeys throughout the Mongol empire, he obtained a knowledge of many parts of the world of which Europeans were quite ignorant; and it is affirmed "that if the name of a discoverer of Asia were to be assigned to any person, nobody would better deserve it." Marco Polo did not visit Japan. He could therefore only describe it from such reports as were made to him. He calls Japan, Zipangu, a name supposed to be formed from the Japanese Dshi-penkue, or, as Charlevoix gives it in French, "Gepuan-que," the meaning of which is, "The kingdom or empire of, or towards, the rising sun." We have evidently got Japan from the same word. Marco Polo's account of Japan, or Zipangu, is interesting, and we therefore give it from Mr. Marsden's translation.

"Zipangu is an island in the Eastern ocean, situated at the distance of about 1500 miles from the mainland, or coast of Manji.* It is of considerable size; its inhabitants have fair complexions, are well made, and are civilized in their manners. Their religion is the worship of idols. They are independent of every foreign power, and governed only by their own kings. They have gold in the greatest abundance, its sources being inexhaustible; but as the king does not allow of its being exported, few merchants visit the country, nor is it frequented by much shipping from other parts. To this circumstance we are to attribute the extraordinary richness of the sovereign's palace, according to what we are told by those who have

* "The distance of the nearest part of the southern island from the coast of China, near Ning-po, not being more than 500 Italian miles, we may suppose that our author, in stating it at 1500, speaks of Chinese miles, or li, which are in the proportion of one-third of the former."—*Translator's Note.*

access to the place. The entire roof is covered with a plating of gold, in the same manner as we cover houses, or more properly churches, with lead. The ceilings of the halls are of the same precious metal; many of the apartments have small tables of pure gold, considerably thick; and the windows also have golden ornaments. So vast indeed are the riches of the palace, that it is impossible to give an idea of them. In this island there are pearls also in large quantities, of a red (pink) color, round in shape, and of great size; equal in value to, or even exceeding, that of the white pearls. It is customary with one part of the inhabitants to bury their dead, and with another part to burn them. The former have a practice of putting one of these pearls into the mouth of the corpse. There are also found there a number of precious stones.

"Of so great celebrity was the wealth of this island, that a desire was excited in the breast of the grand Khan Kublai, now reigning, to make the conquest of it, and to annex it to his dominions. In order to effect this, he fitted out a numerous fleet, and embarked a large body of troops, under the command of two of his principal officers. The expedition sailed from the ports of Zaitun and Kinsai, (Zaitun is probably Amoy, and Kinsai the port of Ning-po, or of Chu-san), and crossing the intermediate sea, reached the island in safety; but in consequence of a jealousy that arose between the two commanders, one of whom treated the plans of the other with contempt, and resisted the execution of his orders, they were unable to gain possession of any city or fortified place, with the exception of one only, which was carried by assault, the garrison having refused to surrender. Directions were given for putting the whole to the sword, and in obedience thereto the heads of all were cut off, excepting eight persons, who, by the efficacy of a diabolical charm, consisting of a jewel or amulet introduced into the right arm, between the skin and the flesh, were rendered secure from the effects of iron, either to kill or wound. Upon this discovery being made, they were beaten with a heavy wooden club, and presently died. (The idea, says Mr. Marsden, of being rendered invulnerable by the use of amulets, is common amongst the natives of the Eastern islands.)

"It happened after some time that a north wind began to blow with great force, and the ships of the Tartars, which lay near the shore of the island, were driven foul of each other. It was determined, therefore, in a council of the officers on board, that they ought to disengage themselves from the land; and accordingly, as soon as the troops were reimbarked, they stood out to sea. The gale, however, increased to so violent a degree that a number of the vessels foundered. The people belonging to them, by floating upon pieces of the wreck, saved themselves upon an island lying about four miles from the coast of Zipangu. The other ships, which, not being so near the land, did not suffer from the storm, and on which the two chiefs were embarked, together with the principal officers, or those whose rank entitled them to command an hundred thousand or ten thousand men, directed their course homewards, and returned to the grand Khan. Those of the Tartars who remained upon the island where they were wrecked, and who amounted to about thirty thousand men, finding themselves left without shipping, abandoned by their leaders, and having neither arms nor provisions, expected nothing less than to become captives or to perish, especially as the island afforded no habitations where they

could take shelter and refresh themselves. As soon as the gale ceased and the sea became smooth and calm, the people from the mainland of Zipangu came over with a large force in numerous boats, in order to make prisoners of the shipwrecked Tartars, and having landed, proceeded in search of them, but in a straggling, disorderly manner. The Tartars, on their part, acted with prudent circumspection, and being concealed from view by some high land in the centre of the island, whilst the enemy were hurrying in pursuit of them by one road, made a circuit of the coast by another, which brought them to the place where the fleet of boats was at anchor. Finding these all abandoned, with colors flying, they instantly seized them, and pushing off from the island, stood for the principal city of Zipangu, into which, from the appearance of the colors, they were permitted to enter unmolested. Here they found few of the inhabitants besides women. When the king was apprised of what had taken place, he was much afflicted, and immediately gave directions for a strict blockade of the city, which was so effectual that not any person was suffered to enter or to escape from it during six months that the siege continued. At the expiration of this time the Tartars, despairing of succor, surrendered upon the condition of their lives being spared. These events took place in the course of the year 1264. The grand Khan having learned, some years after, that the unfortunate issue of the expedition was to be attributed to the dissension between the two commanders, caused the head of one to be cut off, and the other he sent to the savage island of Zorza."

Kæmpfer quotes from the Japanese annals an account of this attempt at conquest by Kublai Khan, thus confirming the general accuracy of Marco Polo. The annals, however, take no notice of the rather extraordinary event mentioned towards the end of the quotation, and simply state that the entire expedition perished; a result attributed to the favor and protection of the gods of Japan. The date, 1264, Mr. Marsden remarks, must be an error of some one of Marco Polo's transcribers, as the true period should be 1280–81.

Marco Polo was the guiding star of Columbus; and during the years in which he nursed the visions which led to the discovery of America, the hope of finding the golden island of Zipangu, or Cipango, as well as Cathay, inspired him with persevering zeal. On his first voyage he fancied Cuba was Zipangu; and in the same year, 1492, a German geographer, who had accompanied the Portuguese navigator, Diogo Cam, in his voyage of discovery along the coasts of Guinea, made a terrestrial globe, in which he placed Zipangu at no great distance to the west of the islands of Cape Verd. The progress of discovery dispelled these errors. The Portuguese, during the next half century, in their active career, both of conquest and discovery, explored the eastern seas and countries of Asia; and in 1542 one of their navigators was driven by a storm into a harbor of the principal island of Japan, the Zipangu of Marco Polo. He was treated with great kindness by the natives, for the rigid restriction which now for exactly two centuries has prohibited all access to the country, was then unknown. The Portuguese were not slow in availing themselves of the opportunity of extending their commerce; and in 1549, a young Japanese who had been taken to Goa, and was baptized, induced the Jesuits to send a mission to Japan. Amongst the first who arrived was Xavier, the "apostle of the Indies." The progress of the Jesuits was at first very slow, for they

ANESE CITY——SIMONOSEKI

JAPAN—ANNUAL EMBASSY OF THE DUTCH.

had all the difficulties attendant on the acquisition of language and acquaintance with customs. Kæmpfer says, "The fathers being then as yet unacquainted with the manners, customs, language and policy of the Japanese, were obliged to get their sermons, and what else they had to propose to the people, translated into Japanese by not over skillful interpreters, and the Japanese words expressed in Latin characters; which being done, they read out of their papers what they did not understand themselves, and in a manner, as may easily be imagined, which could not but expose them to the laughter of a less serious and attentive audience." But perseverance conquered these difficulties. They established themselves in the country, and built a college at the great city of Meaco; a rough English captain, who visited Japan in 1612, and who speaks rather contemptuously of the Jesuits, admits that they had accomplished some good. "The Portuguese Jesuits," he says, "have a stately college in this city, very well furnished with men of that society; they breed up abundance of Japanese youth, reading philosophy and divinity to them, making a great many of them preachers, and, I suppose, at last, Jesuits too. There is no doubt but they endeavour to make them as good as they can, and, amongst other arts, teach some of those that are peculiar to their order. They have the New Testament translated into the Japanese tongue; and besides this hopeful set, breeding up in the college, there are reckoned five or six thousand that profess Christianity in Meaco."

While the Jesuits were thus prosecuting their labors, their commercial countrymen were also successfully establishing themselves in Japan. A number of marriages between the Portuguese and the Japanese took place; and as the Portuguese acquired wealth, and thought their footing firm in the country, they became proud and overbearing. This led to ill feeling. Those of the Japanese who were attached to their old customs and religious practices became naturally jealous of the proud foreigners, and of those of their countrymen who adhered to them; and thus two parties were formed; one, by far the most numerous, attached to the old institutions and old state of things; the other, much inferior in numerical strength, but active and numerous enough to irritate into hatred the growing jealousy. Meanwhile, the Dutch, and also the English, were trying to undermine the influence of the Portuguese, and to get a share of the Japanese trade. In Harris's "Collection of Voyages," a Mr. William Adams is termed the first Englishman "that we know of, that visited the great island of Japan." He went as pilot to a Dutch trading fleet, consisting of five sail, which left the Texal in 1598. After enduring much from storm and sickness, and losing sight of their companions, the crew of the vessel in which Mr. Adams sailed reached Japan in a very exhausted state. "But," says the narrator, "'twas their ill luck to meet with Portuguese and Jesuits here. They were forced to make use of them for interpreters indeed, but they had far better been without any, and chose rather to have used the silent language of gestures and signs, than employed such interpreters as they were. For these men gave that character of them that they commonly give of their European neighbors in all parts of the world where they meet them—that they were spies or pirates, and not trading men, as they themselves pretended. And this set the Japanese so against them, that Mr. Adams tells us he was apprehensive at one time that they should have had the fate of pirates in that country, which is, to be set up upon crosses. Now,

when a company of poor seamen came to throw themselves upon their mercy, as it were, in a strange country, where they were not able to speak for themselves, and where their lives and liberties depended entirely upon the people's good opinion of them, to go and serve them at that rate, was an unpardonable piece of villainy, and an action so very inhuman and base, as was only fit for Portuguese and Jesuits to be guilty of."

Mr. Adams, however, escaped the danger of being executed as a pirate; and being sent for by the emperor, resided with him several years. According to his own account, he "had so great a stroke at court that even the Jesuits themselves were willing to make use of his interest there, and courted him to be their patron; and he declares that by his means both Spaniards and Portuguese received several favors from the emperor, which they were otherwise in no likely way of obtaining." Speaking of the trade in Japan, Mr. Adams says that "silks and cloths are very vendible commodities there, and that for ready money. The Japanese have wherewithal to be very good paymasters, and can afford to give the best rates for a commodity, having gold and silver enough in their own country. A very happy people, to be both rich and wise, and have these advantages so eminently—money and wit, which do seldom meet together. He tells us the Dutch were admitted to a free trade there, and had very good acceptance with the emperor; and had entered into an agreement with him to send a ship or two well laden thither every year."

The same "Collection of Voyages" contains an account of "the eighth voyage set forth by the East India Company, with three ships under the command of Captain John Saris." Captain Saris attempted to establish an English factory at Japan. On his arrival at Firando, one of the numerous small islands which lie close to the larger islands composing Japan, and where the Dutch had a trading station, he was very kindly received. The natives, says the Captain, "were very highly pleased with the entertainment we gave them; and our English music made no small part of their diversion and pleasure a-shipboard; they made no scruple of promising all the encouragement and kindness they could afford us, especially upon the presenting of our king's letters, which they received with a wonderful joy and satisfaction. This letter the governor would not pretend to open, till he had sent for *Auge*, as he called him, to interpret it to him. This *auge* signifies in their language, a pilot; and the person intended by it was no other than Mr. Adams, our countryman and friend, and at this time a man of no little note and significancy in Japan. A dispatch was sent away immediately for him, as likewise to the great emperor up in the country, to give him notice of our arrival and business." An order came for Captain Saris to visit the Japanese emperor; and in obeying it he had an opportunity of seeing a large portion of the country, visiting the chief cities, Meaco, and Yeddo, which he calls Eddo. He procured a license for the English to trade in Japan, a copy of which is given in the account. It commences, "we give free license to the subjects of the king of Great Britain, viz., Sir Thomas Smith, governor and company of the East India merchants and adventurers, forever safely to come into any of the ports of our empire of Japan, with their ships and merchandises, without any hindrance to them or their goods. And to abide, buy, sell, and barter, according to their manner, with all nations; to tarry here as long as they think good, and to depart at their pleasures," &c., &c.

The Dutch, who had previously established themselves at Firando, were jealous of the English; and the Portuguese were jealous of both. There are several letters given from a Mr. Cocks, who was left by Captain Saris in charge of the English Station at Firando; in one of them, dated in 1619, the following odd story is told: Mr. Cocks, "having gone to do his duty to the emperor, on the coming in of the English ships, found in the presence a certain boasting Dutchman, that told the emperor strange stories of his own country, and extolled his king of Holland to the skies, as the greatest and most potent prince in all that part of the world, together with a vast deal of such stuff as that. But he, who understood the Japan language, though the Dutchman thought he did not, told him before the emperor, that he need not have told his majesty such a lie as that, since all the world knew that they had no king in Holland, but only a stadtholder, who did not so much govern the people as the people governed him. And whereas he had the impudence to say that his king, as he called him, held all other princes of Christendom in subjection; 'twas well known that the king of England had been his country's protector, or they had never been in a condition to come and make a noise abroad in the world. The Dutchman was pretty much confounded to lose his king all of a sudden; but there was no help for that; and the Spanish and Portuguese that were there at the time well knew the truth of what was said. The company were extremely diverted, and there was old laughter amongst the Europeans to see the Dutchman so bewildered to find out his king, which they very well knew he never could do."

Meanwhile, the hatred and jealousy between the Portuguese and the natives professing Christianity, and the great body who adhered to the old superstitions, had been growing stronger every day. So early as 1590, it had broken out into an open feud, and many lives were lost. Events also occurred which placed them in the situation of parties politically opposed to each other. The supreme authority in Japan had been usurped; and the usurper, doubtless to consolidate his authority, patronized the stronger party, and discouraged the weaker. Still, though restrictions were laid upon the exertions of the Jesuits, they were not altogether proscribed, until the rash indiscretion of some Franciscans brought down the vengeance of the court. These friars (whose conduct Charlevoix, himself a Jesuit, repeatedly and severely censures) arrived from Manilla, and in spite of the pressing solicitations of the Jesuits, and in defiance of imperial authority, set about building a church, and publicly preaching in the streets of Meaco. For this they urged the very proper plea that we "ought to obey God rather than men." But in their zeal they forget another great guiding rule laid down for missionaries, to "be wise as serpents and harmless as doves," for they excited the Japanese to destroy their idols, and even went the length of attempting to set fire to a temple. From this period the power and influence of the Portuguese and Jesuits declined rapidly, and the native Christians were exposed to all manner of insults from their countrymen. Mr. Cocks, the English resident at Firando, writing in 1614, speaks of "a civil war being ready to commence that threatens very great calamities to the whole country," and in 1619 mentions the dreadful sufferings to which the Christians were exposed. The Portuguese affirmed that the Dutch, in their zeal to supplant them, replied to the question, if they were Christians,—no, that they were Dutchmen. Kæmpfer denies

this, and says that the reply was, that they were Christians, but of a different sect from the Portuguese priests. Mr. Cocks, in describing the persecution to which the Japanese Christians were subjected, states that "they made their very children martyrs with them, and carried them in their arms to the stake, choosing rather to resign them to the flames, than leave them to be educated in the Pagan religion." Under one of the plates in Charlevoix's book on Japan is this inscription—"Father Spinola, attached to a stake, giving his benediction to a child of *four* years, who is going to be beheaded."

The Dutch found on board a Portuguese vessel letters addressed by a Japanese of rank to the king of Portugal. They were forwarded to the governor of Firando, and by him to the emperor of Japan. These letters were said to contain proofs of an extensive plot amongst the Portuguese and Japanese Christians against the emperor. The reputed writer of them was condemned and executed; and immediately afterwards, in 1637, appeared the decree which, from that day to this, has shut up Japan from all foreign access. It was ordained that "the whole race of the Portuguese, their mothers and nurses, and whatever belongs to them, shall be banished to Macao," the Portuguese settlement in China; native Christians were ordered to be arrested and committed to prison, and rewards were to be paid for the discovery of priests and Christians; the Japanese were forbidden to leave their own country, and foreigners were prohibited from entering Japan, under the severest penalties.

Several thousands of the Japanese Christians rose in arms, and, taking possession of an old fortification in the neighborhood of a place called Simabarra, determined to defend themselves to the last extremity. The emperor called upon the Dutch, as a proof of their sincerity as allies, to aid him in reducing the insurgents. Feeling their own influence to be tottering, they complied, and sent a ship of war to batter the place. It was taken; and it is affirmed that 40,000 Japanese perished in this insurrection. In the same year, 1638, the buildings on the little island of Firando were demolished, and the Dutch removed to an island in the harbor of Nagasaki, the only port that from that time has been open to foreigners. An attempt was made by the Portuguese, in 1640, to recover their lost footing; they sent an embassy from Macao, which consisted in all of 73 persons. The emperor of Japan paid little respect to the rights and privileges of ambassadors. The Portuguese were arrested, and all executed, with the exception of twelve men, who were turned adrift in a small vessel, with a haughty message from the emperor, that if the king of Portugal dared to set foot in the empire of Japan, he would receive the same treatment. These twelve men were never afterwards heard of.

Kæmpfer compares the appearance and position of the Japanese islands to those of the British islands; and on looking at the map, the comparison seems fair and obvious in several points. The British islands are a group lying off the north-west coast of Europe; the Japanese are a group lying off the north-east coast of Asia. In each group there is one large or chief island, containing the principal cities, and constituting the bulk and main body of the kingdom or empire. In each case these principal islands are long and comparatively narrow, stretching over several degrees of latitude from south to north. The German Ocean, as an enclosed sea, may bear some comparison to the sea of Japan, and the strait of Corea to the strait

of Dover. The population of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is estimated at the present time to be about 26,000,000; that of the empire of Japan is conjectured to be about 25,000,000.

The number of islands composing the empire of Japan is unknown. There are, however, three large islands, which, with the number of islands or islets, compose what is properly the empire. The names of the three islands, which lie close to each other, are Kiousiou, Sitkokf, and Niphon, the largest. These cover about as many degrees of latitude, from south to north, as do the British islands. But at the northern end of Niphon is the island of Yesso, which, though not included in what is properly called the empire, is a dependency of it; it is about as large as Ireland. Beyond Yesso, covering the sea between it and the southern point of the projecting peninsula of Kamschatka, are the Kurile islands, on some of which the Japanese have settlements. Taking in Yesso, the Japanese islands extend from the 31st to the 45th degree of north latitude, and are roughly calculated as containing about 160,000 square miles, or about 40,000 more than the British islands.

The sea around the islands of Japan is dangerous, from sudden storms and the extreme shallowness of the shores. This physical circumstance assists the Japanese authorities in maintaining their non-intercourse system. Large European vessels cannot lie near to the land; and for the same reason the Japanese vessels or junks are of small draught of water. The climate of the southern portion of the country has been compared to that of England. "Japan," says Kæmpfer, "boasts of a happy and healthy climate. The air is very inconstant, and subject to frequent changes; in the winter it snows and there are occasionally sharp frosts; the summer, on the contrary, particularly during the dog-days, is intolerably hot. It rains frequently throughout the whole year, but with the greatest profusion in the months of June and July." Waterspouts are occasionally formed in the adjoining seas—"the Japanese fancy they are a kind of water-dragons flying up into the air." Japan is also liable to earthquakes, which have occasionally done great damage; they "happen so frequently that the natives dread them no more than we Europeans do an ordinary storm of thunder and lightning. They are of opinion that the cause of earthquakes is a huge whale creeping under ground, *and that they signify nothing.*"

The interior of the islands is yet too slightly known to be described with any minuteness or accuracy. Even the coasts are far from being laid down with distinctness. The general aspect of the islands may be described as varying from the hilly to the mountainous. This is more especially the case with the large island of Niphon; the rapidity with which its rivers run down to the sea is stated as a proof of its being generally elevated in the centre. Volcanoes, both active and extinct, occur on the large and small islands: in the large dependent island of Yesso there is a bay called Volcano Bay, having a volcano on each side of the bay.

From the populousness of the empire of Japan, all the large islands abound with towns and villages. The capital of the empire is Yeddo, sometimes called Jedo, Iedo, and Eddo, though Yeddo seems to be the generally received orthography. It lies on the east side of the island of Niphon, on the gulf of Yeddo. Captain Saris, from whose account we have already quoted, saw it in 1612, and describes it as "glorious in its appearance, the very tiles of the houses being gilded, and the posts of the doors set

off with a shining varnish. They have no glass windows, but all of board, which open in leaves, and are very delicately painted. There's a causey runs clever through the chief street of the city, which street is as broad as any in England, and a fine river passes along by or rather underneath the causey. At every fifty paces there's a well-head substantially fitted up of freestone, and served with buckets for the people to fetch water with in case of fire." Being the residence of the emperor and the court, it is a very populous city, being supposed to contain from a million to a million and a half of inhabitants. On this subject the Japanese indulge in great exaggeration. "They showed us," says Captain Gollownin, "a plan of the capital, and told us that a man could not walk, in one day, from one end of it to the other. When we questioned the Japanese respecting its population, they affirmed that it contained upwards of ten millions of inhabitants, and were very angry when we doubted it. They brought us, the next day, a paper from one of their officers who had been employed in the police in Yeddo. It was stated in this paper that the city of Yeddo has in its principal streets 280,000 houses, and in each of them there lived from 30 to 40 people." The city is subject to frequent fires. In 1703, one of the earthquakes that commonly occur in Japan nearly destroyed it, when many thousand persons perished. The emperor's palace occupies a large enclosed space in the centre of the city.

The next city is Meaco, the residence of the Daïri, or spiritual emperor. It is an inland city, and is supposed to contain about half a million of inhabitants. "Some Europeans," says Gallownin, "call the residence of the spiritual emperor Miako or Meaco. The word means metropolis, and is given by the Japanese to this city as a distinction. Its proper name is Kio, and Kioto the name of the province." "We took Meaco in our way," says Captain Saris; "this is one of the greatest cities in Japan, and a place of mighty trade. All the tradesmen dwell in a part of the city by themselves; the Japanese think it very unseemly and irregular to have men of so many several professions and businesses mixed together, as they are in other places; they are for making all of the same trade neighbors to one another. The most magnificent temple of the whole country is here at Meaco, built of freestone, and as long as St. Paul's in London, (he means *old* St. Paul's), arched, adorned with mighty pillars, and as lofty as that." Xavier, in 1553, says that he was informed that Meaco, previous to some devastation which it had suffered, actually contained 180,000 houses. Kæmpfer states that it contained 6000 temples, and that he took a whole day riding through, from one end to the other, though not exactly in a straight line.

There are three other towns which rank with Yeddo and Meaco as imperial towns, forming the five imperial towns of Japan. These are Osaka and Sakay, on the coast, at no great distance from Meaco; and Nagasaki, on the island of Kiousiou. The Dutch factory was removed to Nagasaki in 1638, from the island of Firando. It is placed on a little island in the harbor called Desima, united to the mainland by a bridge. The word *Sima* means an island or peninsular piece of land, and occurs frequently in Japanese names of places, as the reader may remark by glancing over a map. Desima is said to mean the island in advance or in front, as lying before the town of Nagasaki.

The English factory founded by Captain Saris at Firando had been

broken up about the year 1623, about fifteen years before the removal of the Dutch to Nagasaki. An attempt was made in 1674 to revive the English commercial intercourse. On the arrival of the English vessel in the port of Nagasaki, it was boarded by the Japanese authorities, and the Captain told them that he came with license from the king of England, for the East India Company to trade and have commerce with them, as had been done several years before, but not these forty-nine years past, and presented them with a copy of the license granted in 1612 to Captain Saris by the emperor of Japan. The Japanese governor and his assistants perused it with much attention, and then asked for the original with the emperor's seal attached to it. The English Captain replied, that when the establishment was broken up, the original treaty was returned to the imperial council. The Japanese then inquired if England was at peace with Spain and Portugal, and also what was the religion of the English, with other questions. They went away, and coming back again, said that if the English would be content to trade as the Dutch did, they should be permitted to do so; but then, according to the Japanese custom and manner, it was necessary that the guns, ammunition, and boats should be delivered into their hands, to be carried ashore for safe custody. Boats were placed round the ship, filled with soldiers. After many delays and repeated examinations of the captain and his crew, an order at last came from the emperor, requiring the English ship to be gone; their arms were returned to them in the harbor, and forty Japanese boats having towed the vessel out, the ammunition was then delivered, but with strict charges not to fire off any guns on the coast.

Several other attempts to open a communication with Japan were made at different times, but were baffled much in the same way. Indeed the inducements to attempt establishing a trade became less from year to year, so that about the middle of the 18th century the Dutch were entertaining the idea of withdrawing, on account of the insignificancy of the trade, and breaking up their factory at Nagasaki. In the present century, "The war with England," says Captain Golownin, "having prevented the Dutch from trading direct to Japan, they freighted ships in the United States of America with valuable cargoes for Japan. These ships entered Nagasaki under the Dutch flag. The cargoes were delivered before the Japanese began to take particular notice that both these ships and their crews differed very much in appearance from the vessels and seamen they had been accustomed to see. But suspicion was in particular excited by the superior quality of the goods, which were, in fact, all English; the governor, on discovering this, immediately ordered the ships to be reloaded and dismissed the harbor.

The attempts of the Russians to open an intercourse were also resisted. Krusenstern, who conducted an embassy to Nagasaki in 1805, was compelled to submit to the closest inspection, and to deliver up his powder and arms. The Russians were not permitted to go in their boats even a short distance from the ship, except to a barren spot on a small island, where they were hedged in with bamboos so as to be precluded from the sight of anything but the heavens, as the Japanese forgot to put a roof on. An official document delivered to Captain Golownin, warned the Russians that they would be "driven back by cannon balls," if they attempted to open an intercourse. "Our countrymen," say the pertinacious authorities, "wish

to carry on no commerce with foreign lands; for we know no want of necessary things. Though foreigners are permitted to trade at Nagasaki, even to that harbor only those are admitted with whom we have for a long time maintained relations, and we do not trade with them for the sake of gain, but for other important objects. From the repeated solicitations which you have hitherto made to us, you evidently imagine that the customs of our country resemble those of your own: but you are very wrong in thinking so. In future, it will be better to say no more about a commercial connection."

Nagasaki is supposed to contain about 70,000 inhabitants. The harbor is strictly watched and guarded; it is long and narrow, the water gradually and rapidly diminishing in depth, from 40 fathoms, outside the port, to 4 fathoms, off the Dutch factory.

The wood-cut will give an idea of a Japanese seaport town. It represents Simonoseki, a small seaport on the south-western extremity of the island of Niphon, on the strait which divides at this part Niphon from Kiousiou. It lies in the route taken by the Dutch embassy in going from Nagasaki to Yeddo. From Nagasaki this route crosses the island of Kiousiou to Kokura; then passing from that town it crosses the strait of Simonoseki, on the island of Niphon; from Simonoseki it travels to the great trading city of Osaka, and from thence to Yeddo. Simonoseki lies at the foot of a range of hills, which here come close to the sea; by looking at the wood-cut, the reader will remark that the houses are generally of one story, which is the general characteristic of Japanese houses; they are mostly built of wood. The towns thus occupy a large extent of surface. The streets are extremely narrow, and the houses except those of the rich, stand close to each other. This causes a fire, when it breaks out, to be very destructive. One chief remedy in the case of a fire consists in pulling down the houses adjoining, which is comparatively easy, as they are made up of beams and thin boards.

After the authority of the Koubo Sama, or secular emperor, was established, it became a custom for the nobility of various grades in Japan to present themselves once a year at the court in Yeddo. To this custom the Dutch were required to conform; and hence originated the annual embassies made from the factory at Nagasaki to the emperor; and it is to this circumstance, as has already been mentioned, that we owe a considerable portion of our knowledge of the interior of Japan, and of the habits and character of the people. Great ceremony is observed in conducting the embassy to Yeddo. The ambassador is the head of the Dutch factory; he is accompanied by the physician of the factory and secretaries, and attended by a numerous retinue of Japanese, appointed ostensibly as a guard of honor, but in reality to watch the embassy, and to prevent it having much communication with the inhabitants generally. The route from Nagasaki to Yeddo has been already described. In Kæmpfer's time it occupied a period of about three months to go and return, including the stay at the capital.

Along the great roads are numerous inns and post-houses. The post-houses are placed at regular distances, and at each there is a postmaster, whose duty it is to keep registers of all travelers, to attend to the carriage of letters, government edicts, &c. The inns consist of two stories, the lowest one serving as a storehouse. Each inn has a garden attached to it.

Both sexes carry fans when they go out or travel; and the ingenuity of the Japanese is exhibited in the fact, that on what may be termed traveling fans there is to be found, painted or written, the different traveling routes, lists of inns, and other useful information; besides which, little road-books are sold by boys and others on the highways.

We shall confine this article to an abridgment chiefly of Kæmpfer's account of the annual embassy, as it was performed in his time.

All princes and lords being obliged to make their appearance once a year, this was done by the Dutch about the middle of February. Having sent their presents on before, they sail for Simonoseki. Their goods are all marked with the possessor's name and what they contain. Their train on an average (varying from the escorts they pick up and drop on their visits as they proceed) may be 100. Each day's journey is long and fatiguing from morning (saving an hour for dinner) till evening, making ten to thirteen Japanese miles a day. They have the same honor paid them as traveling native princes. The entertainment on the road is as good as could be desired; yet the narrow compass of liberty is a cause of complaint. The attendants leave you on no occasion; at your inn you cannot go beyond the *garden;* on the road, if you dismount, the cavalcade instantly stops. The Bugjo, or commander-in-chief, studies night and day the nature of his instructions and the journals of his predecessors, following *step by step* their actions and behavior. It is looked upon as a proof of his faithfulness to *exceed* them. Nay, some of them insist, in spite of accident, on reaching the same inns at the stated times. The landlord treats them as they would princes of the empire. He comes ceremoniously out of the town or village, addressing all of them, bowing and com plimenting them, then hastens to his house and a second time receives them. When in their apartments the landlord and his chief domestics attend, each with a dish of tea, which they present with a low bow, repeating in a deep-fetched voice, *Ah, ah, ah,* an expression of submission or inferiority. What else they want their own servants fetch. Civility in every shape is shown more than could be expected from the most polished nation. The behavior of the Japanese, from the meanest countryman to the greatest lord, is such that the whole empire might be called a school of civility and good manners. They have so much sense and innate curiosity, that if they were not absolutely denied free and open conversation and correspondence with foreigners, they would receive them with the utmost kindness and pleasure.

The following extract from the journal of Kæmpfer shows how populous was the country through which they passed:—

"February 10, 1691.—Mr. Von Butenheim, the Dutch ambassador to the emperor's court, took leave of the two governors of Nagasaki; packed baggage: on the 14th we left our island attended by the two governors and their whole court. It is a journey of about 200 German miles from Nagasaki to Yeddo. Pass thirty-three large cities with castles, seventy-five small towns, and innumerable villages and hamlets. Our train consisted of a *Doser*, his deputy, a bailiff, then our interpreter, Dr. Kæmpfer, and his assistant, all on horseback. Last of all came the *Soriki*, or Bugjo, as chief of the train. The cooks, servants, and kitchen furniture were sent before, as also clerks to note expenses, provide horses, take memorandums, &c."

On their arrival at the commercial city of Osaka, one of the chief seaports in Japan, they had an interview with the governor, whose conversa-

tion turned chiefly on the following points — that the weather was very cold—that we had made a very great journey—that it was a singular favor to be admitted to the emperor's presence—that of all nations the Dutch alone were allowed the honor. He then asked "whether we were not extremely delighted with the sight of their country after so long and fatiguing a journey?"

They reached Yeddo after a journey of twenty-nine days from Nagasaki. Here a house was assigned to them, and all care taken of them, but they were strictly guarded, and not suffered to leave their quarters. Their time was occupied in arranging their presents, and preparing themselves for the expected audience, for which, however, they had to wait several days.

The palace, or residence of the emperor, occupies a larges pace nearly in the centre of the city of Yeddo. The palace is more a collection of houses than one house. The houses of the Japanese are generally of one story, and the emperor's palace is not an exception. The mansions of the rich, which are numerous in Yeddo, are not deficient in neatness or convenience. Most of them are built of wood. The walls of the apartments are hung with mats fringed and embroidered and ornamented with paintings.

On the day appointed for the first audience of the Dutch embassy the whole party was conducted with much ceremony through the exterior gates and courts of the palace to the hall of audience, called the Hall of the Hundred Mats. Here the emperor was seated cross-legged to receive them.

"Our resident," says Kæmpfer, "was received into the emperor's presence, when they all cried out *Hollande Captain*, which was the signal for him to draw near and make his obeisances. Accordingly he crawled on his hands and knees to a place shown him between the presents duly ranged on one side and the place where the emperor sat on the other, and then kneeling, he bowed his forehead quite to the ground, and so crawled backwards like a crab without uttering one single word. So mean and short a thing is the audience we have of this mighty monarch. Nor is there any difference to the greatest prince of the empire.

"Our second audience. We were conducted through lines of life-guardsmen and shown to the imperial apartments by some great officers of the crown. *Benjo*, a chief minister, bade us welcome in the emperor's name. The mutual compliments being over, we were asked a thousand ridiculous and impertinent questions. They desired to know how old each was — his name, which we were commanded to write on a bit of paper— what distemper I thought most dangerous—how I proceeded to cure cancerous humors and imposthumations of the inner parts — the distance from Holland to Batavia—from Batavia to Nagasaki — whether European physicians did not search after medicine to render people immortal, &c., &c. The emperor, who had hitherto sat among the ladies, now drew near to us; he ordered us to take off our cloaks of ceremony, then to stand up that he might have a full view of us; again to walk—to stand still—to compliment each other—to dance—to jump—to play the drunkard—to speak broken Japanese—to read Dutch—to paint—to sing—to put our cloaks on and off. Meanwhile we obeyed the emperor's commands, and I joined to my dance a love song in High German. In this manner, with innumerable such other apish tricks, we must suffer ourselves to contribute to the emperor's and the court's diversion. The ambassador is free from this and the like commands, for as he represents the authority of his masters, much

care is taken that nothing should be done to injure or prejudice the same Besides that, he showed so much gravity in his countenance and behavior as was sufficient to convince the Japanese that he was not at all a fit person to have such ridiculous and comical commands put upon him. Having been thus examined for two hours, though with great apparent civility, some servants then came in, and put before us a small table with Japanese victuals. We ate some little things. We were then ordered to put on our cloaks and take our leave; and without delay complied with, putting thereby an end to this second audience."

"The rich Japanese," says Captain Golownin, "make a great show with their equipages. The princes and most distinguished people have carriages which resemble our old fashioned ones, and were introduced into Japan by the Dutch. They are sometimes drawn by horses, but for the most part by oxen. But they are more commonly carried in chairs, like the sedan chairs in Europe. They also ride on horseback, but consider it as vulgar to hold the bridle themselves; the horse must be led."

The different villages are obliged to maintain the roads in their vicinity. There are post-houses along the lines of roads for supplying post-horses, bearers, traveling servants, &c. These post-houses are distinct from the inns. Thunberg, in traveling between Osaka and Meaco, compares the appearance of the country to that of Holland for neatness and regularity. The whole space on both sides, as far as he could see, was nothing but a fertile field; and he passed through a continual succession of villages, built along the sides of the roads. The only wheel-carriages seen by Thunberg were on the road between Osaka and Meaco; the one town standing in somewhat of the same relation to the other as Liverpool does to Manchester. For though Meaco is distinguished as the residence of the spiritual emperor, it is also a chief manufacturing town, and Osaka is one of the greatest seaports in Japan, and so gay a town withal, that the Japanese have a name for it signifying "the theatre of pleasure."

The commercial intercourse of the Japanese is entirely internal, with the exception of the guarded commerce with the Dutch and the Chinese. The intercourse amongst themselves is kept up by coasting-vessels, and by the roads. There is a custom-house in each port, which has the superintendence of the loading and unloading of goods, levies the duty, &c. They have also officers having functions analogous to our harbor-masters; and for the advantage of the merchants the government publishes a kind of commercial gazette, which contains an account of the prices of goods in different parts of the empire. The state of the crops is also watched, and particulars communicated from time to time. Owing to the variety in the climate and productions of Japan there is considerable inducement to keep up the internal traffic. Thus the northern part of Niphon abounds with wood, but is deficient in rice, which is grown abundantly in the southern parts. Wood being very valuable to the Japanese for building and other purposes, there is in these commodities alone a staple of commerce. The cultivation of cotton, the manufacture of salt, extensive fisheries along the coasts, the growth of tea and tobacco, which are used to an extent as to be necessaries of existence, the production and manufacture of silk, the working and manufacture of copper into kettles, fire-irons, and kitchen utensils, steel manufactures, such as the making of swords, daggers, and metallic mirrors, manufacture of porcelain, in which they excel the Chinese, the cultivation of

vegetable productions, which constitute a favorite article of diet, nex[illegible]ital as a and fish, &c., all supply, the industrious Japanese with active employ[illegible] con-

The origin of the Japanese is uncertain; from the cast of their feature[illegible]on. they are supposed to belong to the Mongul race. It seems probable that the civilization of the country was derived from China. The Japanese traditions carry up their origin to demi-gods. "Though traditions of this sort," said an intelligent Japanese to Captain Golownin, "are ridiculous and incredible, yet we must not disturb the belief of the people in them, as this may be useful to the state. They cause the people to prefer themselves to all other nations, to despise foreign manners, and, in general, everything that is foreign; and the Japanese have learned by dear-bought experience that it has always been attended with misfortune to them when they adopted anything foreign, or suffered foreigners to interfere in their concerns. Besides, the same prejudice that teaches a people to love their country binds them to their native soil, and hinders them from exchanging it for a foreign land."

This quotation gives the *rationale* of the continued existence of the Daïri, or spiritual emperor, in Japan, long after he has lost all actual power. The Daïri, as an hereditary monarch, is supposed to be descended from the Kami, or demi-gods, who, in obedience to the will of heaven, peopled Japan. The tendency of the Oriental mind to combine spiritual and temporal power in one individual is well known; Druidism has been conjectured by Sir James Macintosh to be of eastern origin. But in an early state of society, when the principles of government are scarcely, if at all, understood, it seems a very natural result that temporal power should be submitted to, because enforced by sanctions which claim a spiritual or divine origin.

The Daïri of Japan was the supreme monarch, but exercised a large portion of his authority through a deputy, whose official name was Koubo, and who was commander-in-chief, with other high functions. There is a title of honor amongst the Japanese—Sama—to which our word *lord* is perhaps an equivalent. It is applied to various ranks, up to the highest. An ambitious Koubo Sama set an example of aspiring to be the master, not the highest servant, of the Daïri. The struggles which arose out of this, and also from one Koubo Sama attempting to supplant another, kept Japan long in an unquiet state, until about the beginning of the seventeenth century, when one, more successful or abler than the rest, succeeded in establishing his authority. This was the Koubo Sama who granted to Captain Saris a license to the English to trade in Japan. But his authority was not established without a fearful sacrifice of life; and partly out of the jealousy of the usurper arose the expulsion of the Portuguese, the extinction of Christianity, and the shutting up of Japan. Captain Saris mentions the terrible evidences of an unquiet and scarcely settled state, and also the vengeance of a conqueror, in the crosses and gibbets with the mangled bodies of executed persons, which met his eye in profusion, especially near to the capital. But though the Daïri was deprived of all actual power, the cunning or dextrous Koubo Samas have carefully preserved his hereditary existence, still affecting to pay him the greatest respect, and to obey him. Any law issued must have the signature of the Daïri. He is maintained at Meaco in great state as a sacred person; the hereditary succession is carefully provided for; and at stated periods, having long intervals between

them, the Koubo Sama comes with much pomp to visit the Daïri, and to pay his affected homage.

The supreme authority in Japan may be considered as divided between the emperor and a few of the higher branches of the princes. The emperor, though considered as absolutely supreme, is in fact not so, his council possessing very great influence in affairs of state. The whole structure of authority in Japan may be considered as resting on a basis of hereditary descent. Society is divided into different classes—the reigning princes, the nobility, priests, soldiers, merchants, mechanics, peasants, and slaves. The military profession is held in honor; and the common people give the soldiers the title of *sama* (lord, or sir, according to rank) in addressing them. Obedience to authority is much insisted on; and from the prevalence of the doctrines of Confucius, the government may be considered as strengthened by the force of opinion. But the severity with which the law is put in force against offenders, real or supposed, makes obedience as much a result of fear as of opinion. The families of the princes who are sent to govern districts, are obliged to reside at Yeddo; and being in the hands of the emperor, give to his authority a strong influencing power.

The extraordinary faith (or principles) of Buddhism was introduced into Japan from China about the middle of the sixth century. The original or primitive religion of Japan still exists, though much disfigured. "The adherents of this religion," says Golownin, "believe that they have a preference before the others, because they adore the ancient peculiar divinities called Kami, that is, the immortal spirits, or children of the highest Being, who are very numerous. They also adore and pray to saints who have distinguished themselves by a life agreeable to heaven, uncommon piety, and zeal for religion. They build temples to them. The spiritual emperor is the head and high-priest of this religion." The opinions of Confucius and of the Brahmins, mixed up with many mean and debasing superstitions, are to be found in Japan. But many of the educated Japanese are materialists.

The account of the captivity of Captain Golownin is calculated to make us think, on the whole, very highly of the national character of the Japanese, especially when all circumstances are considered. He was captured by treachery, and the bay in which he and his companions were taken prisoners was named by the Russians, Deceit Bay. But in consequence of outrages which had been previously committed at some of the Japanese settlements on the Kurile Islands, the Japanese were very jealous and fearful of the Russians. Besides, it is at the peril of the lives of the authorities, even in the distant settlements of Japan, to open any communication with foreigners. Captain Golownin was the commander of a Russian vessel; he repeatedly tried to open a communication with the authorities, and in Deceit Bay on Kounashir, the nearest Kurile island to Yesso, he was, after many manœuvres, invited to a conference. Having gone with two officers and a few men, he was, after being hospitably entertained, suddenly overpowered, while his vessel was fired upon and compelled to leave the coast. At first the prisoners were very roughly used, carried over to the large island of Yesso, and kept confined in the city of Khakodade, and then in the populous city of Matsmaï, both on the sea-shore of the strait of Sangar, which divides Yesso from the northern end of Niphon. But though Yesso is only a dependency of Japan, governed by noblemen who come from

Yeddo for stated periods, and whose families are kept in the capital as a security for their behavior, as soon as the Russian prisoners came in contact with the regular authorities they were treated with great consideration. Even an ill-judged attempt of Captain Golownin and some of his companions to effect their escape, during which they were absent several days, suffering great hardships and vainly trying to seize a boat, was not made matter of very serious complaint. Had they escaped, the disgrace of the governor of Yesso would probably have followed, as he allowed them considerable indulgences; yet on their recapture, their motives in attempting to escape were appreciated, and after a mild rebuke, they were confined with some rigor for a little time, and then allowed their former indulgences. After being kept about two years and three months, they were, not without tedious negotiation, given up to the Russians; but their Japanese companions, from the governor downwards, parted from them with expressions of congratulation at their obtaining their liberty, and regret at parting with them.

Such is a very brief view of the interesting empire of Japan. It has long contained within it much of what we call civilization. There is a supreme authority, law administered, a strict police maintained, highways, with accommodations for traveling, and a regular post; arts and manufactures carried on; schools for the instruction of youth; reading and writing is a very common accomplishment; they are no mean proficients in much that may be called science; they have amusements, such as the drama; are fond of gardens; and in spite of all the vices of their exclusive system of government, calculated to foster admiration of themselves and contempt for others, there is, on the whole, a very kindly and liberal spirit amongst the people. They are insatiably curious, teasing an unfortunate stranger with a pertinacity more determined than that of a New England man, as to his birth-place, parentage, country, customs, &c., &c. Their morals are not the strictest; but they are a superior race to the maritime Chinese, having more pride and not so much duplicity, especially of the mean and tricky kind. The bulk of the people would not be averse to intercourse with foreigners, if the law were not maintained so strictly; and perhaps a time is not far distant when we may get freer access to Japan.

Actuated by this hope, the Government of the United States, in the course of the year 1852, directed its attention to the accomplishment of this object. Our settlements on the shores of the Pacific have already given a great extension, and in some respects a new direction, to our commerce in that ocean. A direct and rapidly increasing intercourse has sprung up with Eastern Asia. The waters of the Northern Pacific, even into the Arctic sea, have of late years been frequented by our whalemen. The application of steam to the general purposes of navigation is becoming daily more common, and makes it desirable to obtain fuel and other necessary supplies at convenient points on the route between Asia and our Pacific shores. Our unfortunate countrymen, who from time to time suffer shipwreck on the coasts of the eastern seas, are entitled to protection. Besides these specific objects, the general prosperity of our States on the Pacific requires that an attempt should be made to open the opposite regions of Asia to a mutually beneficial intercourse. It is obvious that this attempt could be made by no power to so great advantage as by the United States, whose constitutional system excludes every idea of distant colonial depend-

encies. The President has accordingly been led to order an appropriate naval force to Japan, under the command of a discreet and intelligent officer of the highest rank known to our service. That officer is instructed to endeavor to obtain from the government of that country some relaxation of the inhospitable and anti-social system which it has pursued for about two centuries. He has been directed particularly to remonstrate in the strongest language against the cruel treatment to which our shipwrecked mariners have often been subjected, and to insist that they shall be treated with humanity. He is instructed, however, at the same time, to give that Government the amplest assurances that the objects of the United States are such and such only as above indicated, and that the expedition is friendly and peaceful. Notwithstanding the jealousy with which the governments of Eastern Asia regard all overtures from foreigners, the President is not without hopes of a beneficial result of the expedition. Should it be crowned with success, the advantages will not be confined to the United States, but, as in the case of China, will be equally enjoyed by all the other maritime powers. In all the steps preparatory to this expedition, the Government of the United States has been materially aided by the good offices of the King of the Netherlands, the only European power having any commercial relations with Japan.

The long interdict which has denied to strangers access to the ports or territory of that country, and the singularly inhospitable laws which its government has adopted to secure the seclusion, having been productive, of late years, of gross oppression and cruelty to citizens of the United States, it has been thought expedient to take some effective measure to promote a better understanding with this populous and semi-barbarous empire; to make the effort, not only to obtain from them the observance of the rights of humanity to such of our people as may be driven by necessity upon their coasts, but, also, to promote the higher and more valuable end of persuading them to abandon their unprofitable policy of seclusion, and gradually to take a place in that general association of commerce, in which their resources and industry would equally enable them to confer benefits upon others, and the fruits of a higher civilization upon themselves.

The extension of the domain of the United States to the shores of the Pacific, the rapid settlement of California and Oregon, the opening of the highway across the Isthmus of Central America, the great addition to our navigation employed in trade with Asiatic nations, and the increased activity of our whaling ships in the vicinity of the northern coasts of Japan, are now pressing upon the consideration of this Government the absolute necessity of reviewing our relations to those eastern communities which lie contiguous to the path of our trade. The enforcement of a more liberal system of intercourse upon China has met the approval of the civilized world, and its benefits are seen and felt, not less remarkably in the progress of that ancient empire itself, than in the activity which it has already imparted to the pursuit of Eastern commerce. China is awaking from the lethargy of a thousand years, to the perception of the spirit of the present era, and is even now furnishing her quota to the adventure which distinguishes and stimulates the settlement of our western coast.

These events have forced upon the people of America and Europe the consideration of the question, how far it is expedient with the rights of the civilized world to defer to those inconvenient and unsocial customs by which

a nation capable of contributing to the relief of the wants of humanity shall be permitted to renounce that duty; whether any nation may claim to be exempt from the admitted Christian obligation of hospitality to those strangers whom the vocation of commerce or the lawful pursuits of industry, may be incidentally brought in need of its assistance; and the still stronger case, whether the enlightened world will tolerate the infliction of punishment for contumelious treatment upon the unfortunate voyager, whom the casualties of the sea may have compelled to an unwilling infraction of a barbarous law.

These are questions which are every day becoming more significant. That oriental sentiment which, hardened by the usage and habit of centuries, has dictated the inveterate policy of national isolation in Japan, it is very apparent will not long continue to claim the sanctity of a national right, to the detriment of the cause of universal commerce and civilization, at this time so signally active in enlarging the boundaries of human knowledge, and the diffusion of comfort over the earth. The day has come when Europe and America have found an urgent inducement to demand of Asia and Africa the rights of hospitality, of aid and comfort, shelter and succor, to the men who pursue the great high roads of trade and exploration over the globe. Christendom is constrained by the pressure of an increasing necessity to publish its wants and declare its rights to the heathen, and in making its power felt will bring innumerable blessings to every race which shall acknowledge its mastery.

The Government of the United States has happily placed itself in the front of this movement, and it may be regarded as one of the most encouraging guaranties of its success, that the expedition which has just left our shores, takes with it the earnest good wishes, not only of our own country, but of the most enlightened communities of Europe.

The opening of Japan has become a necessity which is recognized in the commercial adventure of all Christian nations, and is deeply felt by every owner of an American whaleship, and every voyager between America and China.

This important duty has been consigned to the commanding officer of the East India squadron, a gentleman in every respect worthy of the trust reposed in him, and who contributes to its administration the highest energy and ability, improved by long and various service in his profession. Looking to the magnitude of the undertaking, and the great expectations which have been raised, both in this country and in Europe, in reference to its results, and the casualties to which it may be exposed, and the necessity to guard it, by every precaution within the power of the Government, against the possibility of a failure, the Secretary of the Navy thought it proper, with the President's approbation, to increase the force destined to this employment, and to put at the disposal of Commodore Perry a squadron of unusual strength and capability, consisting of the line-of-battle ship *Vermont*, the steam-frigates *Mississippi* (the flag-ship of the Commodore), and *Powhattan*, the corvette *Macedonian*, the sloop-of-war *Vandalia*, and the store-ships *Supply* and *Southampton*, which, with the ships on that station—the steamer *Susquehanna*, and the sloops-of-war *Saratoga* and *Plymouth*—will constitute a command adapted, we may suppose, to any emergency which the delicate nature of the trust committed to the Commodore may present. It is probable that the exhibition of the whole force, which will be under the

command of Commodore Perry during the first year, will produce such an impression upon a Government and people who are accustomed to measure their respect by the array of power which accompanies the demand of it, as may enable him, to dispense with the vessels whose term of service is drawing near to a close, and that they may be returned to the United States without any material prolongation of their cruise.

A liberal allowance has been made to the squadron for all the contingencies which the peculiar nature of the enterprise may create. The commanding officer is furnished with ample means of defence and protection, on land as well as sea, with the means also of procuring despatch vessels when necessary, transports for provision and fuel, and such other employments as may be required. Special depots of coal have been established at various points and abundant supplies provided. He has, in addition to the instructions usually given to the squadron on this station, been directed to avail himself of such opportunites as may fall in his way to make as accurate surveys as his means will allow, of the coasts and seas he may visit, and to preserve the results for future publication, for the benefit of commerce.

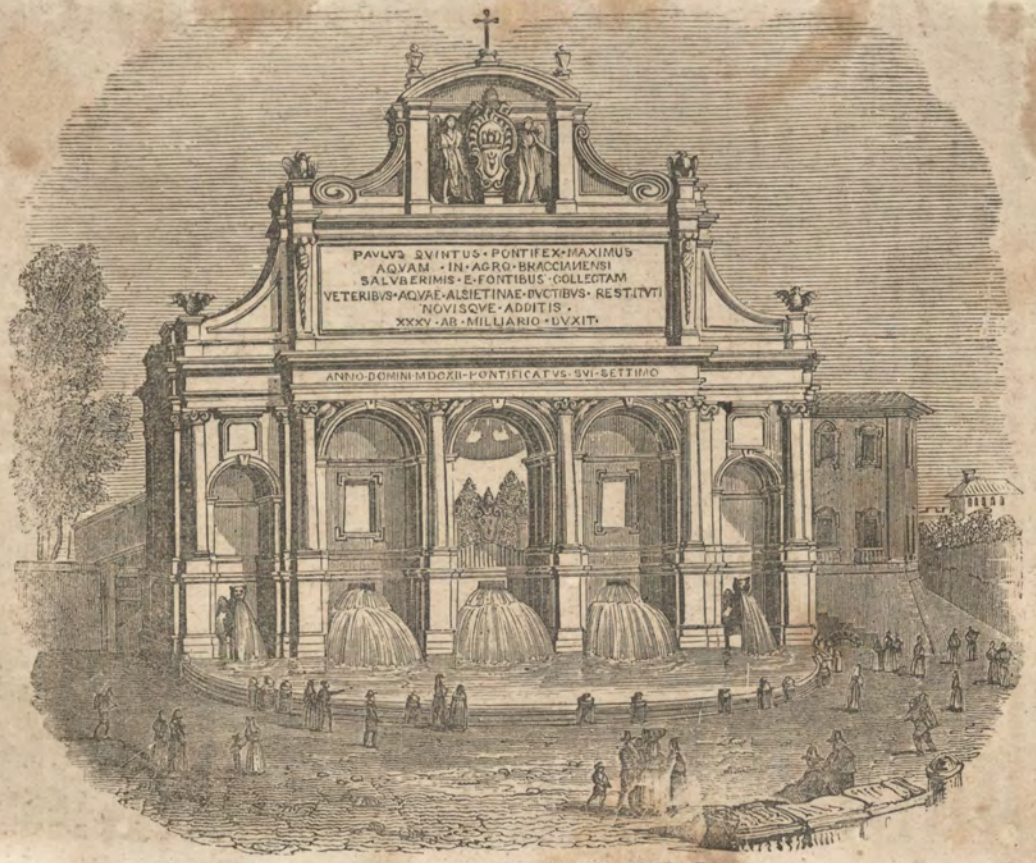
Intelligence has also reached this country that the Emperor of Russia has started an expedition for Japan, consisting of the frigate *Pallas*, a tender, and a screw-steamer bought in England,—to be under the command of vice-Admiral Poatatine, a very efficient officer and a worthy man. The frigate left Cronstadt in October, 1852, and was to stop at some port in the English Channel, where the Expedition would finally start from. It is said to be for scientific purposes, but it is pretty certain it is sent to watch the American Expedition, of which they are almost ridiculously jealous.

It is understood that the expedition from the United States goes prepared to exhibit to the Japanese all the arts, inventions and improvements of civilized and enlightened life. It carries with it not only specimens of the various machines used in agricultural and manufacturing departments, but wire and implements for erecting and working a line of telegraph, and iron and engine for laying and running a short route of railroad. It is ardently to be hoped that success may attend this expedition, and that this rich and fruitful country may be opened to the commerce of the world, or at least forced to acknowledge and practice the laws of humanity and hospitality

FOUNTAINS AT ROME.

NO people ever equaled the Romans in the magnificence of the works which they constructed for the purpose of bringing supplies of water to their various provincial capitals, as well as to Rome itself. Strabo says, that such a quantity of water was introduced into the city, that whole rivers seemed to flow through the streets and down the sewers; so that every house had its pipes and cisterns, sufficient to furnish a copious and abundant supply.

Their aqueducts are incontestible monuments of the greatness of their



ROME—FOUNTAIN OF PAUL V.

designs; and valleys, mountains, and extensive plains offered no impediments which they did not surmount by skill, and the exercise of an indomitable will. The edifice where various aqueducts united was called "castellum," and was generally not only a solid but even magnificent construction. Sometimes they were cased with marble, and ornamented with marble pillars. Pliny states, that Agrippa alone erected 130 of these reservoirs, and opened 105 fountains in connexion with them, which were adorned with 300 brass or marble statues. It is believed that the daily supply of water in ancient Rome amounted to 800,000 tuns. The three aqueducts which now remain are those of the Acqua Vergine, of the Acqua Felice, and of the Acqua Paulina. The first discharges itself into the Fontana di Trevi; the second into the Fontana di Termini; and the third divides itself into two channels, one of which supplies the Fontana Paolina represented in the engraving. The quantity of water which is supplied is abundant, the quality extremely salubrious; and the arrangements for an equal distribution of the element are on a scale of convenience as well as magnificence. Every quarter, however poor, is well supplied; and there are few of the fountains which do not possess some claim upon the attention, either from their size, form, or situation. Mr. Eustace remarks, in his "Classical Tour," that "the modern Romans, though inferior in numbers and opulence to their ancestors, have shown equal taste and spirit in this respect, and deserve a just eulogium, not only for having procured an abundance of water, but for the splendid and truly imperial style in which it is poured forth for public use." He proceeds to draw an amusing comparison between these fountains and the water-works that often adorn public walks and palace-gardens. "Artificial fountains," he says, "in general are little better than ornamental pumps, which sometimes squirt out a scanty thread of water, and sometimes distil only a few drops into a muddy basin. Those on a greater scale now and then throw up a column, or pour a torrent, as occasion may require, on certain state days, or for the amusement of some distinguished personage, and then subside till a fresh supply enables them to renew the exhibition. Such are the so much celebrated water-works of St. Cloud, Marli, and Versailles; inventions which can be considered only as playthings, calculated, like a theatrical decoration, to act an occasional part, and to furnish a momentary amusement, but too insignificant to be introduced into the resorts of the public." The three finest fountains of Rome are the Fontana Felice, the Fontana di Trevi, and the Fontana Paolina. The Fontana di Trevi is considered to be the finest fountain in the world. It is supplied with a deluge of water; and in the summer evenings the square in which it stands is resorted to on account of the freshness which is diffused through the air. The waters of the Fontana Felice are discharged into a vast basin through a rock, under an Ionic arcade, built of white stone, and faced with marble. The Fontana Paolina, represented in the cut, was constructed by the architect Fontana, by order of Pope Paul V., with materials taken from the forum of Nerva. Six Ionic columns of red granite, support an entablature containing inscriptions, and supporting the arms of the pontiff. The water rushes in a complete torrent through the principal issues, and in a smaller stream through orifices in the mouths of dragons, which are placed in niches on each side. A fine basin of white marble receives this abundant supply of water, which is of the purest kind. Eustace says:—"The lofty situation of this fountain renders

it a conspicuous object to all the opposite hills. The trees that line its sides and wave to the eye through its arches, shed an unusual beauty around it; and the immense basin which it replenishes gives it the appear ance, not of the contrivance of human ingenuity, but almost the creation of enchantment."

THE HOT FOUNTAINS OF ICELAND.

IN the neighborhood of the volcanic mountains of Iceland, the traveler frequently finds his way stopped by frightful rents in the earth, and deep fissures in the lava. He also treads on ground that sounds hollow beneath his feet; and there he sometimes hears the rushing of water in the concealed chasms over which he is walking, and at other times, where apertures occur in the thin crust of the earth, he sees steam issuing forth from the subterranean conduits and towering in the air.

The volcanic fires which pour forth such tremendous eruptions from Mount Hecla, the Yokuls, and other craters, though, generally speaking, they do not exert their more terrific energies except after intervals of years, are yet not extinct, but, burning unseen, extend far from the craters themselves, and convert the waters that flow near them into boiling fluid and highly rarefied vapor, which at certain vents maintain perennial eruptions. Instead of fire, smoke, liquid lava, lapille, and ashes, these vents or aqueous craters discharge columns of steam and spouts of boiling water; and instead of years, in most cases, only a few hours intervene between their efforts.

The most important of these issues are at Haukadal, considerably in the rear of Hecla, whose three snow-clad summits towering over a ridge of intervening hills, are, however, visible from the spot. Here, within a very limited space, are some dozens of geysers, the clouds of vapor they are constantly emitting being visible at the distance of several miles. The term geyser, which is the generic name of these hot spouting springs, is derived from the Icelandic verb "geysa,"—"to rage, to burst forth violently." The most important of the fountains at Haukadal is called the "great geyser," and as it seems to be the greatest in Iceland, we shall more particularly describe it.

Whatever may be the activity of the numerous fountains that surround it, the great geyser is always the prominent object in the extraordinary scene. It is surrounded by a large circular mound formed by the earth and matter it has ejected and deposited during the course of ages. Internally this mound is hollow, presenting a basin about one hundred and fifty feet in circumference, which is ordinarily filled to the depth of about four feet with boiling water, beautifully clear and crystalline. In the middle of this basin a pipe or funnel, about ten feet in diameter, but wider at top,

ICELAND—GEYSERS, OR HOT FOUNTAINS.

descends perpendicularly in the earth to the depth of nearly eighty feet. It is this tube that is the vent of the subterranean action of fire and water. The bottom and sides of the basin within the mound are covered with whitish siliceous incrustations, rendered perfectly smooth by the constant action of boiling water. Two small channels open from the sides of the basin and allow almost constant passage to some of the water. This water, still hot and strongly impregnated with mineral matter, on leaving the mound flows through a turfy kind of soil, and by acting on the peat, mosses, and grass, gradually produces some of the most beautiful specimens of petrifaction. Leaves of the birch, and of the other stunted trees which grow in that inhospitable climate, are also found incrusted, so as to appear as of white stone, yet still preserving not merely their general form but their minutest fibres unaltered.

All the Icelandic travelers agree in representing the eruptions of the great geyser as occurring at irregular intervals. We take our account of an eruption from Dr. E. Henderson, who visited and paid great attention to the fountain in 1814 and 1815. Low reports and slight concussions of the ground give the first signal of coming violence. These symptoms are succeeded by a few jets thrown up by the pipe or funnel in the centre of the basin, and then, after a pause of a greater or less number of minutes, a rumbling noise is heard underground, louder reports succeed, and concussions strong enough to shake the whole mound; in the interior of which the water boils with increased violence, and overflows the edges of the capacious basin. Other reports soon follow, being louder and more rapid than the preceding, and not unlike the discharge of a park of artillery. Then, with an astounding roar and immense velocity, the water rushes through the pipe, and rises into the air in irregular jets, which are surrounded and almost concealed by accompanying volumes of steam. To these first jets loftier and more defined ones succeed, and there is generally a central or main jet presenting a column of boiling water from nine to twelve feet in diameter, and from fifty to seventy feet in height, on an average. Sometimes the main jet exceeds a hundred feet in height, and other geysers are said to throw water, though not in such volume, to a greater elevation. As the jets of the great geyser issue from the central pipe, the water in the basin near to the pipe is raised about a foot and a half, and as the columns descend into the orifice whence they were ejected, the water everywhere overflows. Unlike the eruptions of fire from the crater of a volcano, which often last for days without any apparent diminution or pause, these boiling fountains seldom play longer than six or seven minutes at a time. Then the action of the central pipe ceases; dense steam covers for awhile the basin; and when that moves off, nothing is seen but a sheet of clear, hot water, and all is quiet, until, after an interval of some hours, faint reports announce the approach of a fresh eruption. On Dr. Henderson's second visit to the great geyser, in August, 1815, when he pitched his tent close to it for two days, its eruptions occurred pretty regularly every six hours, and some of the columns of water rose to the height of one hundred and fifty feet.

Situated at about one hundred and fifty yards to the south of the great geyser, and scarcely inferior to it, is the new geyser, whose eruption Dr. Henderson thus describes:—

"From an orifice nine feet in diameter, a column of water, accompanied

with prodigious volumes of smoke, was erupted with inconceivable force, and a tremendous roaring noise, to varied heights of from fifty to eighty feet, and threatened to darken the horizon, though brightly illumined by the morning sun. * * * When the jets of water subsided, their place was occupied by the spray and steam, which having free room to play, rushed with a deafening roar to a height little inferior to that of the water. On throwing the largest stones we could find into the pipe, they were instantly propelled to an amazing height, and some of them that were cast up more perpendicularly than the others, remained for the space of four or five minutes within the influence of the steam. A gentle northern breeze carried part of the spray at the top of the pillar to one side, when it fell like drizzling rain, and was so cold that we could stand below it and receive it on our hands and face without the least inconvenience. While I kept my station on the same side with the sun, a most brilliant circular bow, of a large size, appeared on the opposite side of the fountain; and, on changing sides, having the fountain between me and the sun, I discovered another, if possible still more beautiful, but so small as only to encircle my head. Their hues entirely resembled those of the common rainbow."

Still nearer to the great geyser, at the distance of only eighty yards from it, there was formerly another fountain, called the roaring geyser, from the continual noise it made. Its jets rivaled in height those of the great geyser, but in consequence of an earthquake, in 1789, its volume of water was greatly diminished, and in the course of a few years this fountain entirely ceased. At the same time, however, another geyser which had been insignificant before, began to throw up water and steam to a great height.

Earthquakes, by intercepting the subterranean currents of waters, or by opening new channels and giving other directions to those waters, by disrupting the crust of the earth here, or by filling up former crevices there, and by other processes not so easily detected, exercise an immediate and great influence over these fountains. During the dreadful earthquake that shook the island to its very centre, in 1784, not only did the greater geyser shoot up with increased violence, but no fewer than thirty-five new boiling fountains made their appearance close to them. Many of these thirty-five have since wholly subsided.

The most remarkable of the geysers still in activity, next to those already described, are the strockr, the little geyser, and the little strockr. The name of strockr is derived from the Icelandic verb "strocka"—to agitate, to put in violent motion. Dr. Henderson informs us he discovered what he calls the key to this fountain, by which he thought he could make it play whenever he had a mind, and even double its usual height. He threw in a quantity of the largest stones he could collect—presently it began to roar—he advanced his head to look down the pipe or tunnel, but had scarcely time to withdraw it, when up shot the jets of boiling water carrying the stones with them, and attaining a height which he calculated at two hundred feet. Jets surpassed jets until the water in the subterranean cavern being spent, only columns of steam were emitted, and these continued to rise and roar for nearly an hour. The next day he repeated the experiment with the like success; and leaving the spot to go on his journey, he says he often looked back on the thundering column of steam, and reflected with amazement at his having given such an impulse to a body which no power on earth could control.

The little geyser is remarkable for the regularity of its discharges, playing about twelve times in twenty-four hours. Its jets, however, seldom exceed twenty feet in height.

The little strockr is still more curious, from the rapidity as well as regularity of its action, and from the eccentricity of its projection. Instead of having intervals of hours like the generality of the geysers, it plays every quarter of an hour, and instead of throwing up its waters perpendicularly, it darts them off in numerous diagonal columns. Dr. Henderson calls it "a wonderfully amusing little fountain."

Numerous other minor orifices and cavities lie round these; some of them boiling and bubbling, and being covered with the most beautiful incrustations.

From the quantity of vapor emitted from these numerous vents, it often happens that the steam unites, and forming a vast cloud, ascends, rolls, and spreads itself, till it completely covers the confined horizon and eclipses the mid-day sun. The effect produced by the reports and loud roaring of these fountains, during the stillness of night, is described as being peculiarly impressive. On the brow of the neighboring hill, nearly two hundred feet above the level of the great geyser, there are several holes of boiling clay, some of which produce sulphur and efflorescence of alum. On the reverse of the same hill, and at its base, are more than twenty other hot springs.

Among the other boiling fountains in different parts of the island, travelers have particularly described those in the narrow valley near Reykium. There, some of the springs, which do not erupt, but regularly contain water at the temperature of 200° of Fahrenheit, are used by the Icelanders for boiling, for washing their clothes, and other domestic purposes. Beyond these occur extensive banks of hot sulphur and hot clay. At the immediate edge of the valley are two large geysers frequently in eruption. They are situated at the base of a beetling mountain, whose rugged crags rise about five hundred feet above the springs. It has been calculated that, during an eruption, one of these two geysers throws up 59,064 gallons of water every minute.

Not far from this spot, numerous hot springs exist in the bed of a considerable river, and the quantity of boiling water they emit is so great that it cannot be kept under by the cold water of the river, but forcing its way upwards, it bubbles and spouts above the surface of the stream.

WHIRLPOOLS.

WHEN we consider that three-fourths of the entire surface of our globe is covered with water, and that this water is in a constant state of agitation, more or less violent, it is natural to suppose that there must be various causes for this agitation, since some portions of sea or ocean are circumstanced so very different from others. We shall probably find that there are three sources whence this disturbance is derived: first, the action of winds blowing over the surface of the water, and disturbing it to a small depth; second, the tides, caused by the attraction of the sun and moon, and which influence the whole body of water on the surface of the globe; third, currents in the ocean, brought about by local and partially acting causes. It is to some of the latter that we shall direct our present attention.

Two of the most remarkable and constant currents are those which flow from the poles towards the equator, and from one continent to another in a direction from east to west near the equator. Both of these are caused mainly by the rotation of the earth on its axis. Whatever has a spinning or whirling motion has a tendency to be thrown off from the center or axis of rotation; and as the water near the poles is nearer to the earth's axis than that at the equator, it is driven from the former position towards the latter by the rotation of the earth, and thus gives rise to currents which are known to flow from the poles towards the equator. When Captain Parry endeavored to reach the North Pole on the ice, he found that a current was carrying the ice on which he walked more rapidly towards the south than he was walking towards the north.

A ship going from Europe to America sails nearly to the latitude of the Canary Islands before it begins to cross the Atlantic, in order to avail itself of a current constantly flowing westward in that latitude. A similar current, and flowing in a similar direction, is met with in crossing the Pacific Ocean from America to Asia. This tropical current is probably occasioned by the rotation of the earth, by which the water on the surface is somewhat retarded or left behind in its course; that is, it moves onward not quite so fast as the earth beneath it, and therefore appears relatively to be moving in an opposite direction, that is from east to west, the earth moving from west to east.

These currents would be uniform and unchanging were it not for the interruption occasioned by continents. But as the ocean is studded with continents and islands, over which it cannot flow, the currents are arrested and turned into other directions, and thus give rise to various smaller currents in almost every part of the world. Sometimes a current, meeting with an island, is broken or separated by it, and flows around both sides of it, then the two branches meet on the farther side of the island, and cause an agitation which sometimes produces an extraordinary effect. Sometimes a part of the bed of the ocean is hollowed out into a gulf, and if a strong

current flows over it, or if two currents meet there, a vortex or whirlpool, is occasioned. When therefore we hear of whirlpools, we may in general consider the name to apply to a spot where opposing currents meet, and whirl round each other with great velocity, forming frequently a vortex into which ships are drawn.

One of the most remarkable instances of this kind is the *Maelstrom*, off the coast of Norway. There are two islands, called Lofoden and Moskoe, between which the depth of the water is about forty fathoms; but on the other side of Moskoe the depth is scarcely sufficient for the safe passage of a vessel. At flood-tide the water rushes between the two islands with great force; but at ebb-tide the violence is so extreme that scarcely any cataract equals the roar which is heard, and which is audible to a distance of several leagues; and it forms vortices or pits of such an extent and power, that if a ship comes within their attraction, it is drawn in, carried down to the bottom of the sea in a whirl or spiral, and dashed to pieces, the wrecks being thrown up again when the sea becomes calmer. This calmness only exists for about a quarter of an hour, at the turn of the ebb and flood. When the stream, heightened by a storm, is at its greatest violence, it is dangerous to come within two or three miles of it; boats, ships, and yachts have been drawn in before they were aware of their danger. Whales have been known to be drawn into the vortex, notwithstanding all their efforts to extricate themselves; and on one occasion, a bear, in attempting to swim from Lofoden to Moskoe, to prey upon the sheep who were pasturing on the latter island, was similarly engulfed, roaring terribly when he found his danger. Branches of firs and pines, after being absorbed by the vortex, rise again torn to pieces; which seems indicative of the rocky nature of the bottom. In 1645, early in the morning of Sexagesima Sunday, the whirlpool raged with such noise and impetuosity, that, on the island of Moskoe, the very stones of the houses fell to the ground.

An American captain visited the Maelstrom at one of its calmer moments, and thus describes it: "We began to near it about 10 A. M., in the month of September, with a fine north-west wind. Two good seamen were placed at the helm, the mate on the quarter-deck, all hands at their station for working ship, and the pilot standing on the bowsprit between the night-heads. I went on the main-topsail yard, with a good glass. I had been seated but a few minutes when my ship entered the dish of the whirlpool. The velocity of the water altered her course three points toward the center, although she was going eight knots through the water. This alarmed me for a moment: I thought that destruction was inevitable. She, however, answered her helm sweetly, and we ran along the edge, the waves foaming round us in every form while she was dancing gaily over them. Imagine to yourself an immense circle running round, of a diameter of a mile and a half, the velocity increasing as it approximated towards the center, and gradually changing its dark blue color to white; foaming, tumbling, rushing to its vortex; very much concave, as much so as the water in a funnel when half run out; the noise, too, hissing, roaring, dashing—all pressing on the mind at once, presented the most awful, grand, and solemn sight I ever experienced. We were near it about 18 minutes, and in sight of it two hours. From its magnitude I should not doubt that instant destruction would be the fate of a dozen of our largest ships, were they drawn in at the same moment."

Opinions as to the cause of the Maelstrom are not free from the contradiction which may be expected where the danger of a near approach is so great. Kircher entertained the extravagant opinion that there was an abyss at the bottom of the Maelstrom, which after penetrating a considerable distance into the earth communicated with the distant gulf of Bothnia. M. Schelderup, however, conceives that nothing more is necessary for the explanation than the admission of two opposing currents contending with each other. It is found that while the tide is flowing from north to south, in the neighboring ocean, a stream or current is flowing from south to north between the two islands; and it is believed that the periodical change of the tide every six hours, the change in the opposite direction of the current between the isles, and the frequent collision between them, are sufficient to occasion a whirlpool between the islands. Nothing, however, but a knowledge of the nature of the bed of the sea between the islands will fully explain the whole phenomenon.

Sibbald has described a remarkable temporary whirlpool among the group of islands called the Orcades. The whirlpool is not fixed to any particular place, but appears in various parts of the limits of the sea among the islands. Wheresoever it appears it is extremely violent, and boats, managed by persons not familiar with the spot, would inevitably be drawn in and destroyed. But the people who are accustomed to it always carry with them an empty cask, a log of wood, a large bundle of straw, or some other object in their boat. As soon as they perceive the whirlpool, they throw the bait, we may perhaps call it, into the vortex; the substance thrown in, whatever it may be, is whirled round into the center, and carried under water. As soon as this is done, the surface of the water lately occupied by the whirlpool becomes calm and smooth, and the boat can be safely rowed over it. The vortex is then, after some time, seen to rise up at some distant spot.

There is a saying, which, from its antiquity, has become common property, that "In avoiding Scylla, we rush into Charybdis;" applied when, in seeking to avoid one danger, we rush into another. The allusion is to a dangerous spot in the Mediterranean. Sicily is separated from Italy by the Strait of Messina. On one side of this strait is the rock called *Scylla*, about two hundred feet high; and on the other side a whirlpool, or something approaching to it in character, called *Charybdis*; and the passage between these two was looked upon as awfully dangerous by the ancients. The imagery of the ancient Greeks transformed these into two sea-monsters ready to devour all that came between them. Virgil says :—

> Far on the right her dogs foul Scylla hides;
> Charybdis roaring on the left presides,
> And in her greedy whirlpool sucks the tides,
> Then spouts them from below; with fury driven
> The waves mount up, and wash the face of heaven.
> But Scylla from her den, with open jaws,
> The sinking vessel in her eddy draws,
> Then dashes on the rocks."

There are circumstances which seem to show that Charybdis is very similar in its cause to the Maelstrom. The Charybdis is observable when the current is passing through the strait; but at intervals of about six hours, when the direction of the current changes, there is a calm for about a quarter of an hour. Spallanzani visited the Charybdis, in order to deter-

mine whether it was in reality a whirlpool, which is generally understood as a revolving portion of water, tending towards a depressed vortex in the center. As he approached Charybdis, it appeared like a group of tumultuous waters, increasing in size as he came nearer. There was a revolving motion within a small circle of about a hundred feet in diameter, within which was an incessant undulation of agitated waters, which fell, beat, and dashed against one another. Still, although his bark was rocked and beaten to and fro very violently, Spallanzani was enabled to cross the Charybdis, and found that there was not the all-absorbing circular motion which renders the Maelstrom so dangerous. On questioning the pilots respecting the appearance of the spot when at its greatest degree of agitation, he learned that when the current and the wind are opposed to each other, and both violent, the disturbance is at its height. It then contains three or four small whirlpools, or even more, according to the degree of its violence. If at this time small vessels are driven into the Charybdis by the wind or the current, they are seen to whirl round, rock, and plunge, but are never drawn into the vortex; they only sink when filled with water by the waves dashing over them. When larger vessels are forced into it, they cannot extricate themselves, whatever wind they may have; their sails are useless; and after having been for some time tossed about by the waves, they are in danger, if not managed by skillful pilots, of being dashed on a neighboring rock, wrecked, and the crew destroyed.

The manner in which the rock Scylla adds to the danger of the strait, appears to be this. If a ship extricate itself from the vortex, and is carried by a strong southerly wind, it will emerge from the strait in safety; but should it meet with a northerly wind, it is likely to be driven on the rock of Scylla, unless navigated by skillful pilots. There seems no reason to believe that the Strait of Messina is less difficult and dangerous than it was in the times commemorated by Virgil and Homer; and we may therefore conclude that the dissipation of the terrors which it was wont to excite is greatly due to the improvements in navigation, by which the power of the mariner to avoid such dangers is greatly increased; partly also to the fact that such things are now investigated in the sober tone befitting science, and freed from the poetic exaggeration formerly used in describing them.

There is in Greece a remarkable irregularity or disturbance in the waters of a narrow strait, which, though not precisely a whirlpool, has its origin probably from a similar source. The island of Negropont (anciently Eubœa) is divided from the main continent of Greece by a narrow strait, formerly called the Euripus. In this strait the currents or tides have, from the earliest ages, been marked for their irregularity. It was observed by the Jesuit Babin, that in the first eight days of the lunar month, and from the 14th to the 20th inclusive, and also in the three last days, it is regular both in its ebb and flood; but on the other days of the month it is very irregular, the ebb and flood returning sometimes eleven, twelve, thirteen, or even fourteen times within twenty-four hours. The cause of this phenomenon has not been fully explained, but there can be little doubt that opposing and contending currents are the chief source.

We have not space to adduce other instances of phenomena partaking of the nature of whirlpools; nor is it necessary for us to do so, for the descriptions of the Maelstrom and of Charybdis are sufficiently illustrative of their nature and aspect generally.

COMMERCE OF ANTWERP.

ONE of the most fruitful sources of interest to which an historian, at once accurate in details and philosophical in his general views, could direct his attention, would be the vicissitudes of commerce, and the causes which have successively rendered first one place and then another the chief marts of the trade and industry of nations. Such a subject, instead of being far removed from the common direction of human sympathies, is closely allied to them.

To trace the early dawning of national industry amongst any people, to estimate the benefits which it more or less diffuses, the sordid habits of existence out of which it raises them, and the comforts and wealth which are supplied in its advancing course,—and then to picture an ensuing period of decline, of the decay of individual fortunes, and of the fall and final extinction of national greatness, until the places which once resounded with the voices of busy and active men, are visited only in long after ages by the curious traveler, who explores their scattered ruins in search of relics of their former splendor;—these successive changes of human interests suggest to the imagination considerations which are strongly affecting. But there is this consolation in reflecting upon the apparent fickleness of commerce, that it has generally been the folly and blindness of men which have driven her from place to place, though they choose to fix the blame upon some inherent cause from which it would be useless to expect stability. Those fluctuations which are to be attributed to natural causes—to some newly discovered path to the richest producing countries—though they may have occasioned local effects of a trying nature, have always been the means of developing and extending more widely the advantages of commercial intercourse. As men become more enlightened in their general views, we may expect fewer instances of commercial vicissitude; and the principal causes which have most powerfully contributed in past times to bring about changes in the direction of trade, must at all events exercise a smaller degree of influence than they have hitherto done.

England was almost the last amongst European nations in obtaining its proper share of commerce. How far it now outstrips them in this respect, it is not necessary to show at present. They were preceded by the Hans Towns, the French, the Venetians, the Flemings, Portuguese, and Dutch, who each enjoyed, at various intervals, a considerable portion of foreign trade, while that of England was insignificant or had scarcely any existence. Foreign wars, internal dissensions, and ill-judged restrictions, restrained the nation from pursuing a course so well adapted to its position and the character and energy of its population. In the fourteenth and part of the fifteenth centuries the Netherlands was the principal seat of European commerce. Bruges had long been the emporium of trade and the great depôt for the productions of the north and south of Europe. The spectacle of industry and its attendant wealth and splendor, which

presented itself to the traders who frequented Bruges from every quarter of Europe, furnished a useful lesson on the advantages which the arts of useful life were capable of conferring, and might have the effect of diverting neighboring sovereigns, who wasted their resources in war, to more gainful and peaceful courses. Sluys was the seaport of Bruges, from which, by a fine canal about nine miles in length, vessels were enabled to unload in the heart of the city. In 1482, in consequence of some dispute between the Bourgeois of Bruges and the Archduke Maximilian, the port of Sluys was blocked up, and the sources of the wealth of Bruges were seriously injured. The great trade of which it had been the centre was transferred to Antwerp, which had long been only inferior to itself in commercial importance, and which possessed greater natural advantages. It was 45 miles from the mouth of a fine tide-river, which also commanded a considerable extent of back country, and was convenient to navigators arriving either from the north or south of Europe. Before the commerce of Venice had become of importance, Antwerp had traded in the productions of the East with the ports of the Baltic and Russia, where they had been brought overland by the Black Sea. After the Crusades, these productions found their way to the west through the Mediterranean, and this circumstance gave the commerce of Venice its temporary supremacy. When the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope was discovered, Venetian commerce necessarily declined. But under all these vicissitudes the trade of Antwerp continued to flourish. The wisdom of its commercial regulations attracted traders of every country, who, during the great fairs, which lasted several weeks, sold their goods free from customs' duty. The Portuguese, who commanded the market for the productions of India, found Antwerp the best place for the disposal of their rich cargoes, and it became the grand central depôt for the natural and manufactured commodities of the East, at which the merchants of Germany and Northern Europe, and those of France and England, were accustomed to make their wholesale purchases, and to bring in exchange the produce and manufactures of their respective countries, which were bought by the Portuguese, Spaniards, Italians, and merchants of the south of Europe. The trade of England with Spain was all carried on through this medium, all Spanish exports being sent in the first instance to the Flemish mart. The English were the largest purchasers of mercery, haberdashery, and groceries, of any nation. The competition of buyers and sellers had the most beneficial influence upon the interests of industry, by breaking down the spirit of monopoly. Cheapness was the consequence of free competition, and flourishing manufactories of velvet, satin, and damask, were established at Antwerp. Besides the influx of foreigners, the commerce with the interior was of great extent. The merchandize of Hainault, France, Burgundy, Cologne, and Cambray, was brought in carts over land. It is said that 2500 vessels have laid before Antwerp at the same time. Various other statements are given for the purpose of showing the extent of its commerce, one of which is, that more business was transacted at Antwerp during one month, than at Venice within a period of two years, during the most active period of her commercial greatness. The population of Antwerp was about 200,000 in the sixteenth century.

The Exchange, a view of which is given in the cut, was built in the year 1531. The dealings of persons of different nations on so extensive a scale

rendered such place of resort necessary; and the interchange of goods naturally led to bills of exchange, which were negotiated with the greatest advantage to all parties at Antwerp. Of so much value was capital when employed in so good a market, that complaints are made by some of the old writers of the Venetian and other merchants buying wool, cloth, and tin, on credit in England, and then selling the goods in Flanders under prime cost; the interest which they received on putting out their money at usury before it became due affording an ample rate of profit on both transactions. The Antwerp Exchange was the first structure of the kind in Europe, and formed the model of the Exchanges of London and Amsterdam. It rests on pillars of blue marble, all of them carved, but each in a different style.

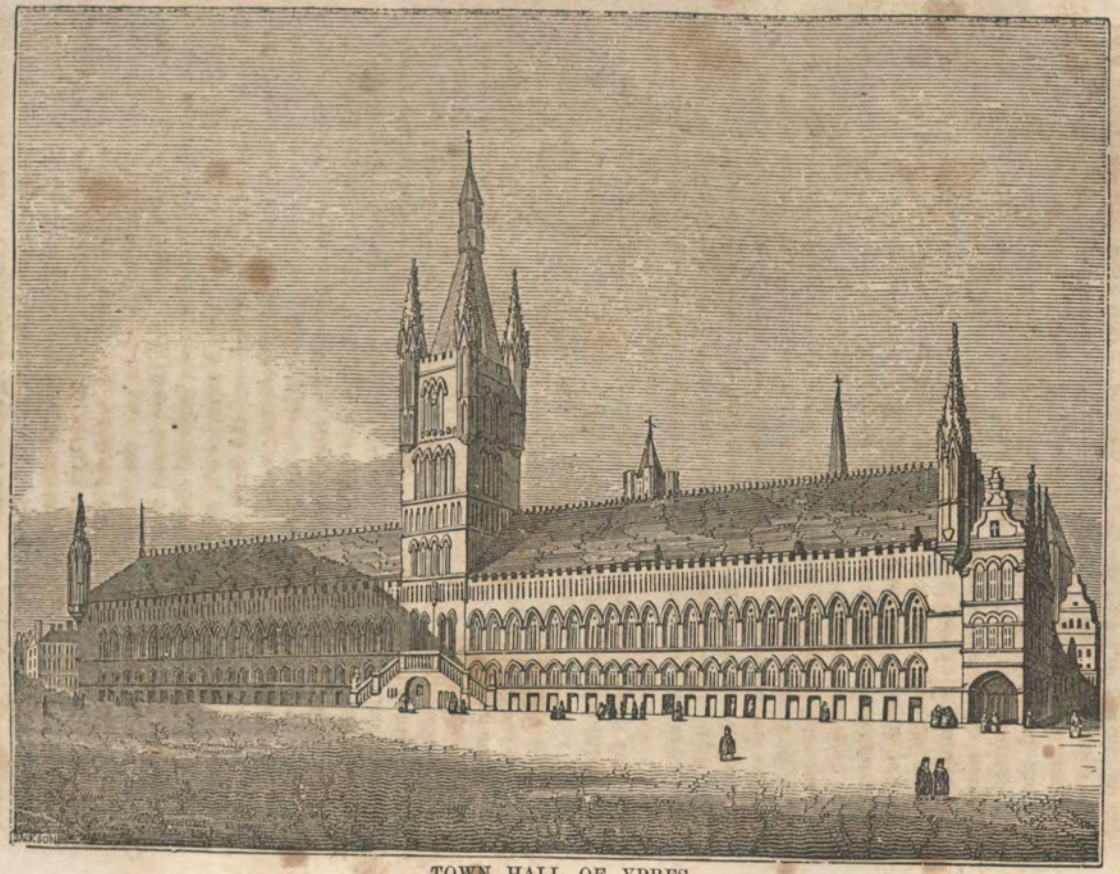
The commerce of Antwerp continued in a state of high prosperity until near the middle of the sixteenth century, when it received a blow from which subsequent events did not permit it to recover. Charles V. having declared war against Francis I., the Low Countries were laid under heavy and oppressive contributions, which led to frequent revolts; and many persons left the country who were amongst the most industrious of its citizens. Afterwards the great contest took place against the power of Spain, in the course of which Antwerp was pillaged (in 1567), and the northern provinces of the Netherlands threw off the tyrannical yoke of that country; but the southern provinces could not accomplish this object. Under a despotism like that of Philip, commerce could not prosper, and the merchants of Antwerp carried their persevering and industrious spirit to a freer and more congenial spot. Those who remained became beggars, and the country endured the most oppressive treatment from its masters for a series of years. In 1585, Antwerp was attacked and pillaged by the Duke of Parma's troops, after having stood a seige. Commanding the mouth of the Scheldt, they blocked up its harbors, and now commerce being completely destroyed, Amsterdam began to rise on the ruins of the trade of Antwerp. By the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, it was stipulated by Spain and Holland that the navigation of the Scheldt should be closed, and under this deadly restriction the port of Antwerp continued until the occupation of the country by the French in 1794. It was Bonaparte's intention to have revived its commercial importance, and immense sums of money were expended in the construction of docks and other works; but after all, under French rule Antwerp became a military rather than a commercial depôt. The population of the city, after the evacuation by the French, did not exceed 52,000 in 1816, but it now amounts, with the suburbs, to above 73,000. The treaty of Vienna declares that "the navigation of every river from its source to its mouth shall be free, subject only to certain duties which have hitherto been paid, and these depend on the tonnage and not on the nature of the cargo." Under these favoring circumstances commerce is reviving, and the prospects of Antwerp are more encouraging than they have been for nearly three centuries.

TOWN OF YPRES.

YPRES, or Ypern (for that is the Flemish name), is not now what it was of old; but it is still a considerable town, and it retains numerous memorials of its former greatness, in the public buildings with which it is crowded. It still ranks with Bruges and Ghent as one of the three chief towns of Flanders, and its population is believed to amount to about fifteen thousand inhabitants. It stands on a stream called the Yper, which flows through it from south to north, and then makes its way to the sea, into which it falls about midway between Dunkirk and Ostend. This stream descends from some grounds of very moderate elevation, a few miles from the town; the rest of the country around which is nearly a complete flat, like the greater part of the Netherlands. In this situation the town is seen from a considerable distance, and makes a handsome appearance as it rises in the midst of the plain, with its embattled walls, and its throng of spires. The extent of the present walls is not quite four English miles, making a circle of about a mile and a quarter in diameter. The surrounding country is remarkably rich and beautiful, part of it being woodland, and the rest consisting of green meadows and corn-fields, everywhere interspersed with orchards, gardens, and villages.

The pride of Ypres is its Town Hall, which stands near the centre of the town in a large open space, called the great market place. It is a magnificent building, surrounding a quadrangular space, measuring four hundred and sixty-two feet from east to west, and fifty in the opposite direction, here divided into two courts by a pile of building which crosses its centre. From the middle of the south front rises a lofty square tower, in which are a clock and bells, and which bears the appearance of being still more ancient than the rest of the building. The erection of the hall is said to have been begun in 1342, and in popular tradition the work is attributed to the English, who certainly, however, were not in possession of the place either then or at any other period. The notion seems to have originated merely in the great fame which the English had acquired in these parts by their warlike achievements, and which made them to be regarded as the authors of every thing wonderful. We have another vestige of this popular veneration for the memory of the English, in the tradition which deduces the name of the city itself from the celebrated British warrior, called Iper, who is imagined to have built and colonized it. We do not know if there is any more truth than there usually is in these idle stories, in a statement which Antonius Sanderus makes respecting this Town Hall, in his splendid work entitled "Flandria Illustrata." He says that there never has been seen in it either a spider or a cobweb; and he accounts for the circumstance, by imputing it, not to the superior dusting and scrubbing of his countrymen, but to some supposed quality of the wood.

The city of Ypres, however, is more interesting on account of what it formerly was than for what it now is. It still contains some manufactures



TOWN HALL OF YPRES.

of cloth, serges, ribands, and thread; but at one time its inhabitants appear to have formed the greatest manufacturing community in the world. A census of the population taken in 1342, made it amount to above two hundred thousand souls. Soon after this, however, its decline began. In a French edition of Ludovico Guicciardini's "Description of the Low Countries," published at Antwerp, in 1609, it is remarked, that whensoever and in what quantity soever the rain of adversity had in former days fallen upon Ghent and Bruges, Ypres had always received some drops of it; and that this city, indeed, being the weakest of the three, had often been severely punished, and obliged to pay the forfeit for misdeeds which the other two had committed. All these towns suffered both by the attacks of foreign enemies and by their own internal dissensions. The middle of the fourteenth century was in the Netherlands, as in France and in England, the age of political convulsion—of the first considerable efforts, since the establishment of the feudal institutions, made by the body of the people, to throw off the oppressive yoke under which they were everywhere kept down. Some contemporary writers attribute these tumults of the commonalty to the improvement which had now taken place in their condition, as compared with that of their forefathers; and there can be no doubt that there is much truth in this representation. As long as the condition of the people was one of almost brutal destitution and misery, they submitted to be treated like the inferior animals; but as they gradually outgrew this absolute penury and helplessness, they became more indisposed to endure the oppression to which they were subjected, and began first to murmur against it, and then to attempt to throw it off. The attempt, as was to be expected, was not skillfully directed in the first instance, and was productive of no immediate good effects; but it prepared the way for future and more successful struggles. It served at least as an example, and that once given, the rest followed of course.

For this leading step in the onward march of civilization, we are mainly indebted to the citizens of Ypres and other Flemish towns. The cloth-weavers of these towns were the first commonalty in Europe, who became, to a certain extent, independent of their feudal lords, and acquired a degree of inherent power and importance by means of manufactures and trade. They were accordingly the first to rise in extensive and formidable concert against the system of misrule by the grandees and lords of the soil which then universally prevailed. And from the Netherlands the movement was propagated into other countries. English liberty in particular is probably much indebted to these sturdy burghers. Edward III. brought over to England large numbers of these cloth-workers from the Netherlands, who, settling there, communicated to the laboring classes their own arts and habits of industry, and may also be supposed to have transmitted and diffused that new spirit of liberty which had principally induced them to leave the land of their birth. Elizabeth also, long after, again increased the population of the island by opening her ports to those mechanics of the Low Countries who were driven abroad, in her day, by the tyrannical conduct of the Spanish government of that province, as administered by the notorious Duke of Alva.

The first insurrection of the Flemings, however, against their princes, was, as we have observed, attended with very disastrous results to Ypres and the other towns, whose inhabitants engaged in it. "Before the commence

ment of these wars in Flanders," says Froissart, in commencing his account of the attempt made by the people, in the latter part of the fourteenth century, to restrain the oppressions of their governors, "the country was so fertile, and everything in such abundance, that it was marvellous to see, and the inhabitants of the principal towns lived in very grand state." But the war laid all this prosperity waste. "The people," he says, "were very murderous and cruel, and multitudes were slain or driven out of the country. The country itself was so much ruined, that it was said a hundred years would not restore it to the situation it was in before the war."

THE CASTLE OF EHRENBREITSTEIN.

ON the right bank of the Rhine, upon the summit of a rocky hill, directly opposite to the city of Coblentz, stands the castle of Ehrenbreitstein ("the broad stone of honor"). It is now one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, both in respect of its natural position, and its artificial defences. It was originally a Roman camp, was renovated in 1160, and afterwards repaired and enlarged by the Elector John, Margrave of Baden, who dug a well of the depth of 280 feet, which was afterwards sunk 300 feet further. During the revolutionary war, the castle was exposed to many hazards. General Marceau blockaded it for a month when the French army first passed the Rhine, in September, 1795. It was twice blockaded in 1796, and cannonaded the second time from the neighboring heights of Pfaffendorf and Arzheim, without sustaining any injury. The French got possession of the height of Rellenkopf, but without any further success, and the retreat of General Jourdan obliged them to raise the siege. It was again blockaded in 1797 by the French General Hoche, who kept it so till the peace of Léoben; and in 1798 it was once more blockaded by the French, whilst the Congress of Radstadt was sitting, and was reduced to such a state of famine, that the defenders are said to have lived, among other things, upon cats and horse-flesh; cats being sold at three francs each, and horse-flesh at a franc per pound. In spite of the exertions of the commandant, Colonel Faber, and his earnest representations to the Congress, the castle was left to its fate, and finally surrendered to the French in January, 1799. The French blew up and otherwise destroyed great part of the works; and the accompanying view shows it in the state to which it was reduced by them. The convention of Paris at the termination of the war, in 1815, determined to reëstablish the fortifications, and Ehrenbreitstein, with the adjoining fortifications of the Chartreuse and Petersberg, is now the most important fortress of the German frontier. The ancient monastery of the Chartreuse commands the approaches from Mayence and Hundsruch; Petersberg, those of Trêves and Cologne; and Ehrenbreitstein, the Rhine and the road from Nassau. The form and durability of the new works have been much admired. They have been constructed from the plans of Montalembert and Carnot, and the castle has

VIEW OF EHRENBREITSTEIN FROM THE RHINE.

received the official name of "Fort Frederic-William," in honor of the King of Prussia. The works are shown to visitors, on their obtaining permission of the commandant.

The view from the summit of the castle is a very rich and extensive one Before you is Coblentz, its bridge of boats, and its two islands on the Rhine; behind it, the village and the beautiful ruins of the Chartreuse, upon a hill covered with vines and fruit-trees. The scope of the view embraces more than thirty towns and villages. The Rhine flows majestically beneath it, and is here at about the widest part of its course. The space of about 120 miles between Mayence and Cologne, in which Coblentz stands midway, is that where the Rhine is broadest, and its scenery the most picturesque. The view of this old castle naturally leads us to reflect on the degree in which modern Europe has ceased to resemble the classic ages in which Ehrenbreitstein was founded, or the feudal ages to which so much of its history belongs. It still bears the name of "the broad stone of honor," though many say that the days of honor have passed away with the days of chivalry. But if honor, in these times, has become rather a synonymous term for honesty and good faith, than the fantastic touchstone of chivalry, we have gained greatly by the change.

DOVER CASTLE.

AT the south-eastern corner of England, upon the summit of a chalk cliff from 350 to 400 feet in height, and at the distance of about twenty-one miles from the opposite coast of France, stands Dover Castle. The town of Dover has been built to the west of, and immediately below it. The antiquity of the castle very far exceeds that of the town; and all the latter contains worthy of remark is of modern date. It is, however, generally known as the key to the Continent, and as possessing a very complete artificial harbor. The coasts of Sussex and Kent, as well as the opposite coast of France, are without natural harbors; but as a proof how far art has supplied this want, the harbors of Dover and Ramsgate, among others, may be referred to.

The fortifications of the castle are of different epochs, Roman, Saxon, Norman, and of later date. The watchtower (an octagonal building), the parapet, the peculiar form of the ditch, all exhibit the hand of the Roman architect; and there is no doubt that the Romans had here one of their stationary posts, or walled encampments. The foundations of the watch tower are laid in a bed of clay, which was the usual practice with the Roman masons; and it is built with a stalactical composition instead of stone, intermixed with courses of Roman tiles. The watch-tower and the ancient church are the only remaining buildings within the Roman fortress. What the precise origin of this church was is not known, but it was consecrated to Christian worship by St. Augustine when he was in England in the sixth century.

AUSTRALIA AND ITS GOLD.

AUSTRALIA—the Southern Land—is the name now given to that great Island-continent formerly called New Holland, lying between the parallels of 10° and 40° south latitude, and those of 112° and 154° east longitude from Greenwich. The extreme length of the island from east to west is about 2500 miles, and its utmost breadth from north to south is about 2000 miles, the mean length and breadth being each some 500 miles less. The coast line is indented upon the north by the deep Gulf of Carpentaria, and upon the south by the great Australian Bight. The distance between the northern and southern shores at these opposite indentations is something more than a thousand miles. The whole island has a superficial area of between three and four millions of square miles; and may be stated, with sufficient accuracy for general purposes, to be equal in extent to the United States or the whole of Europe.

For a great part of its circumference, the island is surrounded by almost continuous ranges of mountains or highlands, in no place attaining a very considerable altitude, and for long distances consisting of elevated plateaus, or table-lands, with isolated peaks and detached chains springing above the general level. There is, however, along all these chains a continuous height of land or water-shed which is never broken through, and which never recedes to any very great distance from the coast. The inhabitable portions of the island are limited to the slopes of these mountains and the space between them and the coast. The width of this habitable belt, in those parts which have been explored and settled, is from two to three hundred miles; but is probably much less in the remainder of the island. The interior consists wholly of an immense depressed plain, more hopelessly barren and uninhabitable than the desert of Sahara. Australia therefore presents a smaller proportion of habitable territory than either of the other great divisions of the globe.

This great interior desert has probably never been traversed by the foot of man; and only two or three expeditions have ever penetrated far into its depths. The farthest point attained was by Captain Sturt in 1844. He made his way some four hundred miles beyond the habitable limits, which brought him very nearly into the geographical centre of the island. This he found occupied by an immense plain covered with ridges of drifting sand, often rising to the height of eighty or a hundred feet, and stretching away in either direction as far as the eye could reach. In isolated spots grew a few solitary tufts of grass, the necessary moisture for whose sustenance was supplied by infrequent thunder showers. Permanent water there was none, and the sand was heated to such a degree that a match dropped upon it became instantly ignited. The thermometer on one occasion rose to 153° in the coolest place to be found. In the midst of this sterile tract was a desert of still deeper gloom, which was traced for a distance of eighty miles in one direction, and thirty-five miles in the other. Its surface was paved with a solid bed of dark ironstone, upon which the

horses' hoofs rung as upon a metallic floor, but left not the least impression, and in which not the slightest trace of water or vegetation was found.

Mr. Leichardt, a German naturalist, succeeded in penetrating from the settlements on the eastern coast through the unexplored interior to the northern side of the island; but his course only led him along the skirts of the great central desert; yet more than once even here he was saved from perishing from thirst by following the flight of the bronze-winged pigeon directing its course to some solitary water-hole. In 1846 he set out on a new journey, intending to pass from the east through the central desert to the little colony on the western shore. The journey was expected to occupy two and a half years. In April, 1848, a letter was received from him written upon the verge of habitation, since which time his fate is unknown; but he doubtless perished long ago in the great desert.

When it was ascertained that no rivers from the interior reached the sea-coast it was supposed that a great inland lake existed which received the central waters; and that navigable streams would be discovered, leading into the interior. This opinion was apparently supported by the fact that one river at least, the Victoria, poured a large current directly into the interior; but Captain Sturt traced its course, and instead of augmenting in size, it decreased as he followed it down, dwindling into a succession of water-holes, and was finally lost among the barren sands.

The mountain chains of which mention has been made, constitute the leading feature in the physical geography of Australia, determining as they do the character of its river-system, and consequently the whole character of the country. The principal of these ranges runs in a general north and south course along the eastern shore of the island. The name of the Australian Cordilleras has been proposed for this whole chain; but at present it is known by different names in different parts of its course. It attains its greatest altitude near the southern extremity, where Mount Kosciusko, the highest peak, rises to the height of 6500 feet, an elevation equal to that of Mount Washington in our White Mountains. This part of the range is called the White Mountains, and though not covered with perpetual snow, is elevated enough to feel the affluents of the Murray River, almost the only Australian stream, which has running water at all times. As this range of mountains goes northward towards the equator, its height diminishes until at its northern extremity it is merely a chain of slight hills. This great eastern chain is not, however, a continuous ridge, but for a considerable part of its course a succession of broad plateaus and elevated table-lands, from which spring separate peaks and minor ranges, sometimes running parallel to and sometimes at various angles with its general course. There is a well-defined height of land or water-shed, which is nowhere broken through, and maintains a nearly uniform distance of eighty or a hundred miles from the shore. Great spurs frequently shoot out from the main range, running down to the sea-coast on the one side, or striking off toward the interior on the other.

Farther west a smaller chain leaves the southern coast, but after a course of a few hundred miles is lost in the central desert. The western and northern shores are in like manner furnished with chains running parallel to their course, as laid down on the map. These, however, are less elevated than the eastern chain; but like that present a continuous water-shed at no great distance from the coast. The southern coast only is destitute of this

bounding ridge; and here, for a great portion of its extent, the great central desert appears to extend down to the sea-shore.

As the mountains in which the Australian streams take their rise are so near the coast, the rivers have but a short course, and are mostly incapable of navigation. Few of them, indeed, are navigable twenty miles from their mouths. And as the mountains mostly fall far below the line of perpetual snow, the rivers are fed merely by the rains, and consequently vary greatly in the amount of water. The large maps of Australia are marked with a network of rivers, conveying the idea of a country abundantly watered. But there the actual presence of water is not at all essential to the existence of a river; all that is involved is, a channel down which water has flowed, or may flow. A river, except in seasons of flood, is generally a mere succession of water-holes, at the bottom of a deep ravine, sometimes connected by a scanty stream, and sometimes entirely insolated; and in times of drought even these disappear altogether. So too what are laid down on the maps as lakes, are but valleys filled with soft mud, growing more and more moist toward the centre, where water may perhaps exist.

The settled portions of Australia occupying the same general position in south latitude that we do in north, their seasons are the reverse of our own. New Year's day falls in midsummer, and the Dog-days come at Christmas, to the great detriment of young Australian poets, who can make no use of the stock phrases of "rosy May," "bleak December," "Christmas fires," and the like.

The latitude of the colonies corresponds to that of Florida, the Carolinas, and Virginia, but the temperature and productions are varied more by position and elevation than by latitude. The daily range of the thermometer is greater than with us; but the annual range of the mean temperature is much less. Thus, at Sydney, though the thermometer sometimes rises to 118°, the mean temperature during the summer months is but 67°, and that of the winter months is 57°. In this respect the climate approximates to that of Italy. The climate of Australia is beyond all doubt one of the most salubrious and healthful in the world, and is extremely favorable to physical and intellectual vigor. Owing to the dryness of the atmosphere, the absence of marshes, and of rank vegetation, those intermittent fevers and agues are utterly unknown, which "do so shake from their propriety" the settlers in most new countries; and the inhabitants sleep in the open air with the most absolute impunity.

The soil presents some singular anomalies, especially in respect to the distribution of the fertile portions. In other countries the fertile tracts lie usually in masses, and generally along the courses of the rivers. In Australia they occur in insolated patches, and most frequently upon the sides and summits of the hills. These fertile tracts are continually intersected by broad plains, the soil of which is too light for cultivation, though forming the most admirable pasturage in the world, or by barren tracts furrowed by ravines, and clothed with scrub, entirely destitute of value. The best authorities assure us that of the land worth occupying, not more than one-third is fit for cultivation; the remaining two-thirds being only available for pasture-grounds.

The productiveness of the land adapted for agricultural purposes is very great, and the range of available productions is wide. With few exceptions the trees, fruits, vegetables, and cerealia of the temperate zone flourish,

besides many of those belonging to those tropical regions farthest removed from the equator. This is the more remarkable, because every thing of the kind is exotic.

When Australia was taken possession of by the European race, scarcely half a century ago, it was by far the most destitute of natural productions of any habitable land on the globe. No species of grain was known to the natives; not a single fruit worthy of note grew wild; not an edible root of any value was produced. The only game was the shy kangaroo, and a few species of birds; domestic animals were unknown; and the only carnivorous animal was the *dingo* or native dog.

In some districts, especially upon the seaward slope of the hills, where there is an accumulation of moisture, the forests present something of a tropical character; lofty trees spread their umbrageous branches about, with great cable-like creepers climbing from tree to tree, forming an almost impervious mass. But the prevalent native tree is the "gum-tree." These trees usually stand wide apart, their bare stems covered with ragged bark like worn-out matting. The leaves are few and scattered, so that they afford but little shade. They spread over the most barren and rocky ground, where there is apparently not a particle of soil. The ground is destitute of underbrush, but scattered around on the brown surface are old decayed branches and trunks often blackened by fire, with which also the still living trees are frequently scarred. This is "the Bush"—the scene of so much wild romance and startling adventure in the early days of the colony.

But the "Plains" are the characteristic feature of Australia. These are open park-like intervals, where the gum-trees stand singly or in clumps, and the undulating ground is covered with rich and luxuriant grass. These plains sometimes stretch away for hundreds of miles, over the broad plateaus and table-lands, or are broken by rocky ranges, and end in deep gullies. Over these plains the stockman drives his herds, or the shepherd his flocks, for days or weeks, without meeting any serious interruption to his progress, or without failure of the pasturage except in seasons of drought. These plains are the feeding-places of those mighty herds of cattle and horses, and those vast droves of sheep, "of noble race, whose feet"—so runs the old Spanish saying—"turn all they touch to gold." Those plains are the sources of wealth to Australia, more permanent, and perhaps not less valuable than her new-found gold-deposits.

Captain Dirk Hartog, of the good ship Endracht, of Amsterdam, landed upon the western shore of Australia, Oct. 25th, 1616, as we learn from an inscription upon a plate of pewter which was found on the spot in 1801. This, as far as is certainly known, was the first time that any European had set foot on the Island. The Hollanders took the lead in exploring the shores, and gave to the island the name of New Holland; but the expedition sent out by the Dutch East India Company to examine the country, with a view to colonization, reported that it was the "abode of howling evil spirits," a country of "barren coasts, shallow water, islands thinly peopled by cruel, poor and brutal natives, and of very little use to the Company." Subsequent navigators of all nations concurred in this evil report of the land, and the tide of emigration was directed toward America.

The colonization of Australia by the British stands in close connection with that war which lost them the Thirteen American Colonies. That out-

let for the banishment of their criminal population being closed, it became a great problem how to get rid of the annual accumulation of roguery. Cook had recently made some explorations in Australia, and it was finally resolved to make the island a penal colony. The first convict fleet sailed on the 13th of May, 1787, and reached Botany Bay, which had been selected as the site for the settlement, on the 20th of the following January.

This "goodly company" of patriots "who left their country for their country's good," consisted of 565 men, 192 women, under the charge of a military force of about 200 men, with whom were 40 women, the wives of the soldiers. It was at once found that Botany Bay was an unsuitable place for the settlement, and it was formed at a distance of about 18 miles, upon the spot where now stands the city of Sydney. Botany Bay, however, long continued to be the popular name given to the whole penal colony.

The colony commenced under most unfavorable auspices. No agriculturist had been sent to teach the cultivation of the soil to those London pick-pockets whose only harvest-field had been the pockets of their neighbors. The very supply of mechanics was left to the chances of the previous pursuits of the criminals; and as it happened, there were in all but a dozen carpenters, and but one bricklayer; and not a single mechanic with skill enough to erect a corn-mill. Such were the "Pilgrim Fathers" of Australia.

In one thing they were fortunate. If the island was destitute of natural productions, there were also no warlike natives to dispute the possession with them. The aborigines were few; they cultivated no soil, built no huts, possessed no ornaments of gold and silver, and knew not the use of metals. Their dwellings consisted merely of a few bits of thick bark peeled from the trees and set upright, as a protection from the wind; a fire was built in front of the open side, and their habitation was complete. Such a hut was called a *gunyah*.

Their weapons were the club, the spear—they do not seem to have been acquainted with the bow—and the *boomerang*. This last weapon is peculiar to the aborigines of Australia, and its mode of action is a puzzle to mathematicians. It is simply a crooked piece of hard wood, three feet long and three inches broad, pointed at each end, the concave side a quarter of an inch thick, the convex side made sharp. The native takes it by one end, and flings it sickle-wise with his hand, when it of course revolves as though upon an axis. If he wishes to strike an object at a distance, he flings it toward the ground, as a boy does a flat stone upon the water, to make it "skip." And just so the boomerang goes skipping to its mark. If he wishes to throw it so that it shall fall at his own feet, he flings it at a particular angle up into the air; away goes the boomerang whizzing and whirling in ascending curves, until all at once it turns short round and flies back directly to its master. And so, by altering the angle at which it is thrown, the weapon strikes at any point behind him. In like manner, the boomerang may be thrown around an intervening object, actualizing, in a fashion, the old joke of the crooked gun to shoot around a corner. The weapon is useless in the hands of a European, being quite as likely to strike the thrower as the object aimed at; but in the hands of a native it is a formidable missile, striking from the most unsuspected direction, in spite of any defense. You sit unconcernedly behind a rock or tree, thinking yourself safe from an attack in the rear; but the boomerang doubles the corner, and is upon you. That innocent-looking native, walking off with

his back to you, may be at the instant taking aim at you with the inevitable back-flying boomerang. It doubtless originated from the necessity, in hunting the kangaroo, that the shy animal should not see his assailant; but it is singular that so barbarous a people should have invented such a weapon.

The aborigines of Australia possess a physical appearance different from any other race; or rather compounded of many. To the black color of the African, they add the straight, silky hair of the Malay, and the lean, long limbs of the Hindoo, while their language bears a remarkable affinity with that of the North American Indians. They seemed to be entirely destitute of any form of government or chieftainship, and to be merely an aggregation of separate families. Though possessing no fixed habitations, their migrations were confined within narrow limits, no family apparently exceeding fifty or sixty miles in their wanderings. Their numbers were small, never probably amounting to more than a hundred thousand souls. This paucity arose less from wars among themselves, than from the incapacity of the country for their support. Nothing came amiss to their omniverous appetites; worms and slugs were as little distasteful to them as oysters and shrimps are to us; and the larvæ of insects constituted a dainty dish. So feeble a race, of course, melted away before the rough convicts and settlers, who shot them down with as little scruple as so many kangaroos; and they are now almost extinct. The few attempts made to instruct them in the arts of civilized life, have proved utter failures.

The colony, at first, was unsuccessful enough; and was more than once reduced to the verge of starvation, being dependent for food upon supplies from the parent country. About six months after the first settlement, it is recorded, as a great calamity, that two bulls and four cows, the major part of the stock of neat cattle, had escaped into the bush, and could not be recovered—a loss, however, which subsequent events proved to be an immense gain.

We can not detail the miseries of the first few years of the colony; and of its moral and social state, it is sufficient to say that, eighteen years after its foundation, the current coin of the capital was rum, and that of the births two-thirds were illegitimate. The government was conducted at the Colonial Office in England, with that blundering, official stolidity, which has always been characteristic of British administration abroad; the result of which has been, and will be, that no sooner does a colony begin to feel its strength, than it seeks to become independent of the parent state. In the meantime free settlers began to arrive in Australia, to whom grants of land and convict labors were made, in proportion to the amount of capital they brought with them; these convicts being fed and clothed by the crown.

We must, however, glance for a moment at the system pursued in reference to the public lands, as this furnishes the key to the whole character of Australian emigration. In 1831 the free grants of land were discontinued, and the lands were ordered to be sold. The price was first fixed at five shillings an acre; and a considerable body of emigrants were attracted, of that class who were desirous of living on their own land. These, of course, brought their families, and scattered themselves over the colony, wherever they could find land upon which to settle.

In the course of time, the theory was propounded that it was desirable

to concentrate the population, and to effect this the price of land was raised to a minimum of twelve, and subsequently of twenty shillings an acre; and the quantity put up for sale at a time largely increased, with the avowed object of preventing the purchase of land by any persons except large capitalists. A further object was to keep the great body of emigrants in the condition of laborers and servants, in order that by competition the price of labor might be kept down. This is perhaps the solitary instance in modern times when legislation has been framed with the avowed object of reducing the price of labor. A portion of the sum derived from the sale of lands was appropriated to giving a free passage to emigrants who were approved by the Colonial Office at home, and whose competition in the labor market, on their arrival in Australia, would tend to keep down the price. Thus the landholder, who paid an exorbitant price for his land, had the sum refunded to him by way of cheapened labor.

But it was soon discovered that the great body of land in Australia, though not adapted to cultivation, was the finest in the world for pasturing cattle and sheep. We have mentioned the grief occasioned by the loss of a great part of the cattle, in 1788. Seven years afterward it was reported by the natives that cattle had been seen grazing on the plains in the interior; an expedition was sent to investigate the matter; and sixty animals were found feeding in a single herd, the produce of the lost beasts. This was the origin of the immense herds of cattle which now cover the Australian plains.

About the same time John M'Arthur, who had come out as an officer in the army, happened to observe that the hairy wool of a few Indian sheep which had been imported, became much finer among the rich pastures of the plains. He was a man of far-reaching views, great energy, and indomitable courage. The discovery did not lie idle, and he devoted himself, in the midst of the ridicule of the colony, to improving the breed of sheep. At this time the exportation of merinos from Spain was strictly forbidden, and severely punished; but in 1803 M'Arthur visited England and succeeded in obtaining a few pure merinos from the flock of George III. From these have sprung those countless flocks of sheep which in less than half a century have made Australia the greatest wool-growing country in the world.

The introduction of flocks and herds was destined to effect a great change in Australian society. The saying of one of the early governors, that there were only two classes of inhabitants in Australia—convicts, and those who ought to have been convicted—had ceased to be true. The number of free emigrants greatly exceeded that of the convicts; and of the "emancipists" not a few retrieved their characters in the new circumstances in which they were placed.

The British Government, with its usual wrong-headedness, set itself seriously to work to neutralize the blessings which nature, ever bountiful, was so freely proffering to the superabundant agricultural population of the mother country. The price which had been fixed upon land, was of course far beyond its value for pastoral purposes. But to reduce the price would put it in the power of large numbers of persons, with limited means to purchase. A most complicated system of leasing the grazing lands was then adopted, by which persons of considerable capital only could occupy the lands for pasturage. These pastoral occupants—in Australia called squatters—in

course of time became the leading interest in the colony; and gradually absorbed a great share of the labor, in the shape of shepherds and stockmen. In the eyes of the new aristocracy, the great end and aim of the Australian colonies was to produce cattle and sheep—the character of the men and women produced was of no importance. Their *beau ideal* of a laborer was an able-bodied, unmarried man, from an agricultural county, humble, ignorant, and strong, and the Colonial Office adapted their measures to supply just this class of emigrants. The consequence was that except the utterly destitute among the laboring classes, few went to Australia, and the better classes of emigrants made their way to America. Emigration by families, in particular, was strongly discouraged.

The consequence was what might have been anticipated. From the orginal constitution of the colony as a penal settlement, there was of course a large preponderance of males. The new emigration kept up this disproportion by bringing over only single men, and married couples without children. In the course of time a great demand sprung up for female servants; and this was sought to be met by sending over shiploads of young women, who were landed at Sydney, unprotected and without means of finding their way to those rural districts where their labor was required. Thus, by a complication of errors, Australian society was undergoing a twofold process of demoralization. In the rural districts the men were lapsing into barbarism from lack of female influence, and in the cities the female population were falling into ruin for want of protection.

Government, of course, had quite other things to attend to than to attempt to remedy a social evil like this. And it was reserved for a private individual, and that a woman, to develop a scheme of colonization adapted to Australia. We will therefore devote a few paragraphs to the career of this benefactor of this colony.

Sometime in the early years of the present century, the home of William Jones, a sturdy Northamptonshire yeoman, was gladdened by the birth of a daughter. The girl grew up tall and vigorous, with that fine physical development in which our American women are so deficient—a sound mind in a sound body. At the age of twenty she was married to Alexander Chisholm, an officer in the East Indian army, whom two years after she accompanied to India. Here her sympathies were aroused by the condition of the daughters of the soldiers, exposed to the twofold pollutions of the barracks and of heathendom. Feeling with her was the parent of action, and she proceeded to establish and superintend a school of industry for their benefit, which has grown up into an extensive orphan institution, though her own labors were transferred to a wider sphere.

In 1838 the health of her husband became impaired, and he was advised to visit the more genial climate of Australia, with his wife and young children. The colony was now passing into the second stage of its development, and from a penal settlement becoming a colony of freemen. The attention of Mrs. Chisholm was soon directed to the unhappy condition of the young women whom Government had sent out as emigrants; who in a strange country, ignorant and unprotected, were exposed to the most deadly perils. But the little she could personally do for their benefit only showed her how much remained to be done. What could she do—a woman and a stranger? Yet the work was forced upon her by influences from without and impulses from within. "When I heard," she writes, "of a poor girl

suffering distress, and losing her reputation in consequence, I felt that I was not clear of her sin, for I did not do all I could to prevent it."

Now came the solemn season of Lent, when the Romish church, of which she is a member, so affectingly commemorates the voluntary humiliation of "him who though he was rich, yet for our sakes became poor;" and the associations of the season pressed her task upon her mind. At length came Easter Sunday, when her church celebrates the finished work of redemption; and upon that day she writes, "I was enabled upon the altar of our Lord to make an offering of my talents to the Lord who gave them. I promised to know neither country nor creed, but to try to serve all justly and impartially. I asked only to be enabled to keep these poor girls from being tempted by their need to mortal sin: and resolved that, to accomplish this, I would in every way sacrifice my feelings—surrender all comfort, and wholly devote myself to the work I had in hand."

For all the encouragement she at first received, she might as well have been a prophet in the old Hebrew times. But though wearied she was not disheartened. The coöperation of Government seemed essential to any effectual result. Sir George Gipps, the Governor, was an obstinate, self-conceited, haughty man; yet not without certain personal good qualities: the very counterpart of those colonial governors who drove our fathers to insurrection. At last, after repeated and urgent solicitations he was induced to grant an interview to Mrs. Chisholm. "I had expected," he afterward said, "to have seen an old lady in white cap and spectacles, who would have talked to me about my soul. I was amazed when my aid introduced a handsome stately young woman, who proceeded to reason the question, as if she thought her reason and experience worth as much as mine." The Governor was slow to be convinced even by the arguments of a "handsome stately young woman;" but upon receiving a guaranty that Government should be put to no expense, he granted her the occupancy of a little wooden building, used as a government storehouse. She soon found that to exercise any adequate superintendence over the charge which surrounded her, she must herself occupy the premises. Her husband had been meanwhile recalled to India, but had feared to take with him his young family; and she took possession of a vacant room, seven feet square, infested with rats. Sickness among the emigrants compelled her to send her own three children away; but she courageously kept her post.

It was no part of Mrs. Chisholm's plan to found an alms-house. When she opened her "Home of Protection" there were at Sydney 600 young women unprovided with work; while all through the colony there was the most urgent demand for their labor; but those who wished to work, and those who desired their labor were at a distance from each other. Her purpose was simply to make herself acquainted with both parties, and to bring them together. Having, by means of circulars, ascertained the locations where labor was wanted, she undertook to convoy parties to these places. Her plan succeeded. Journey after journey added to her means of information. The settlers in "the Bush" came to her assistance, and supplied sustenance and transport for her parties. The public inns refused pay for shelter for her chargers and food for herself; so that her personal expenses during her journeys, for seven years, were actually less than ten dollars.

It was not long before she saw that it was not necessary to confine her services to female emigrants. Fathers, husbands, sons and brothers asked

to be allowed to accompany her parties; and thus her journeys became longer, and her parties larger, until on one occasion a company of 240 persons were under her charge, "bushing it," some on foot, some in drays, she herself leading the way on horseback, acting as guide, purveyor, and director. One of these expeditions occupied five weeks, of which three weeks were spent in "the Bush."

Emigrants often arrived ignorant of the manners and customs of the colony, liable to imposition from their own ignorance or the trickery of employers. For their benefit she opened a registry-office for servants and laborers, with a printed form, specifying all the essential points of agreement, to be signed in duplicate by each party. Employers were frequently unwilling to advance the sums necessary to transport the emigrants to their fields of labor. In hundreds of cases, Mrs. Chisholm advanced the needed sums, sometimes amounting to £40 for a single party; and all that she ever lost by this means was £16. During the seven years she spent in the colony she was thus the means of settling 11,000 individuals.

A scheme of colonization gradually grew up in the mind of Mrs. Chisholm, based upon a keen insight into human nature, and a thorough knowledge of the wants of the colonies. All experience has shown that it is not good for man, or woman either, to be alone; and that a virtuous society can be reared only upon the basis of the family state. Her published reports contain many instances, half-sad, half-ludicrous, of the anxiety of the better part of the settlers for virtuous wives, and of the impossibility of their obtaining them. The anxious question of the stockman, "When they were to have a Governor who would attend to matters of importance like that?" embodied more wisdom than the Colonial Office was aware of. Something else is requisite for a flourishing state than fat cattle and fine wooled sheep. With practical good sense Mrs. Chisholm thus hits the nail on the head: "To supply flockmasters with good shepherds is a good work; to supply those shepherds with good wives is a better. To give the shepherd a good wife is to make a gloomy, miserable hut a cheerful, contented home. To introduce married females into the interior is to make the squatters' stations fit abodes for Christian men. . . . All the clergy you can dispatch, all the schoolmasters you can appoint, all the churches you can build, and all the books you can export, will never do much good, without 'God's police' —wives and little children." But seeing all this, she also saw that sending out female emigrants, as Government had done, like so much merchandize to supply the matrimonial market, would not remedy the evil. The only feasible means of removing the disparity between the sexes, was to send out emigrants in families. To organize a scheme of family emigration, Mrs. Chisholm, accompanied by her husband, who had now rejoined her, and family, left Australia for England, in 1846, bearing with her the warmest good-will of colonists of every class.

Immediately upon her arrival in England, she set herself resolutely to her task. The modest house which her circumstances allowed her to select for a home was crowded by those seeking for information on the subject of emigration. Government even so far relaxed from its official dignity as to ask information and advice from her. In the course of a year or two she had organized her plan, and had enlisted powerful support in its favor. This plan was to establish a Family Colonization Loan Society, the object of which was to assist families of good character to emigrate. If necessary,

the Society undertook to advance a certain portion of the requisite expense of passage; but the main assistance rendered was that more needed than money, advice as what to do and how to do it. The Society undertook to charter ships, see to it that the accommodations and supplies were of a proper character, and that the emigrants should be so brought together in groups, before setting out, that they might render each other mutual aid and assistance. This scheme was brought forward in May, 1850. In September of that year the first ship was dispatched by the Society, which has since been followed by four others, conveying more than a thousand emigrants. Besides superintending all these outfits, Mrs. Chisholm has corresponded with and advised more than twenty thousand persons upon the subject of emigration. Her husband has recently taken passage from Australia, to open an office for the advice of emigrants upon their arrival, where they can at once receive information as to the most advisable places of location, and thus not be left to wander aimless and hopeless in the streets of the sea-port where they first land. To this woman, then, belongs the merit of having developed the only means by which the superfluous mass of human life, which is now heaped up and stagnates upon a narrow rim of overcrowded Europe, may be spread abroad, blest and blessing, over the broad uninhabited regions crying out for human inhabitants; fields which no plow has furrowed, so wide that their gleanings would feed the pent-up starving millions of Europe.

Poets have contrived to throw a coloring of romance over the most prosaic and monotonous mode of human life. Sentimental readers of Virgil and Florian picture a shepherd as a rosy-cheeked youth reclining upon a bank of flowers under a shady tree, with nothing to do but to watch his fleecy flock and make music on the oaten pipe. Pastoral life is anything but romantic in Australia. Any man can be a shepherd who has a tolerable pair of eyes; a wooden leg is no special objection, provided the owner can stump along at the rate of about a mile an hour. Hence it is a ready resource, everything else failing, of all those who prefer working to stealing or starving. The future shepherd takes service with some of the great squatting aristocracy—the grazing grandees—the magnates of the bush—who count their flocks by tens of thousands, and their pasture-lands, leased of the Crown, by scores of thousands of acres. He is then dispatched on foot to the "station" in the Bush, a distance of probably two or three hundred miles. If he have a wife and children—a consummation most devotedly to be wished—they are sent on by a bullock-dray. The "station" consists of a hut designed for two shepherds, and a hut-keeper, who takes charge of the hut, cooks for the shepherds, and watches the sheepfold by night. If one of the shepherds have a wife and children, they perform among them the duties of hut-keeper. Each of the shepherds has charge of a flock of sheep, which are driven in opposite directions by day, but at night are folded together close by the hut. The shepherd rises at break of day, makes his breakfast of mutton, unleavened bread baked in the ashes, known as "damper," and tea made in "Bush fashion" by boiling the Chinese leaf in an open kettle with sugar and milk. Our Australian Corydon now takes his pipe—not the poetical instrument, so called, but a blackened *dudheen*, redolent of fragrant "negro-head" and "pig-tail," and drives his flock a-field. But, alas for the dreams of flowery banks and cool shades, the best pastures only produce grass without flowers, and gum-trees which

cast no shade. The flock feed walking, and it is the shepherd's duty to keep with them, letting them go where they please, unless they approach too near the "scrub," when he must head them off. By the time the sun has reached mid-heaven, he turns them toward some creek or water-hole, where after they have drank they camp down in a ring, with their heads turned socially toward the centre. This is the time when an Arcadian shepherd would tune his pipes; his Australian brother, if of a musical turn, solaces the hour with a Jews-harp, or an accordeon. These instruments accordingly figure largely in the list of imports, five hundred of the latter, and fifty gross of the former, being no extravagant venture by a single vessel; and a shepherd has been known to walk a couple of hundred miles to purchase one of these solacers of his weary hours. As evening approaches, he drives his flock homeward, shuts them in the fold, and delivers them to the charge of the hut-keeper. He then makes his supper of the unvarying mutton, and damper, and tea, and his day's work is done. If the night is clear as it usually is in Australia, the sheep need no watching till midnight, at which hour the watch takes his post near the fold. If the night is stormy it invites the attacks of the dingo, or native dog, and the watch must walk about his woolly charge. The wages of the shepherd, previous to the discovery of gold, were from 60 to 100 dollars a year, with abundant rations of meat, flour, tea, and sugar; what further luxuries he wishes, he provides for himself. If a man were an oyster, no pleasanter life could be asked. For months at a time he may not see a single human face by daylight; and by firelight only those of the companions of his hut. Even the busy times of shearing and washing do not disturb the monotony of his life; for these more active operations are usually performed by itinerant professors, who travel from station to station, busying themselves during the remainder of the year in other occupations. A strike among the tailors in London, some years since, and the consequent emigration of many of the craft, furnished Australia with a number of amateur shearers, who wielded the blades as deftly upon the fleece as they had been wont to do upon the web.

For the more stirring and adventurous spirits among the colonists, the care of cattle affords a more congenial occupation. The Australian "stockman" is a sort of Europeanized Tartar. He lives on horseback and scarcely enters a hut except to sleep. His food is beef and "damper;" his pride is his horse; he scorns those who plough and sow, and, above all things, despises a "crawling shepherd." As for the "crawlers" themselves, as he contemptuously denominates the sheep, he regards them as did that good old hater, John Randolph of Roanoke, who declared that he would go an indefinite distance out of his way to kick one. In his "run" the stock man is king: his cattle are his subjects; his saddle is his throne; his sceptre is the stock-whip. This is a thong of leather twelve or fourteen feet long, weighing a couple of pounds, thick at the "belly," and tapering to the end, where it is finished off with a silken cracker, and attached to a handle not more than eighteen inches long. Bearing this official sceptre, the stockman from his saddle-throne keeps watch over his pasture-ground. Woe to the unlucky beast who attempts to stray beyond the limits; the stockman is upon him at once, with his whip, each blow of which, from a practiced hand, cuts through hide and flesh to the very bone. Dexterity in the use of this weapon can be acquired only by long practice; and the

young stockman expectant devotes all his leasure to its acquirement, with the grave devotion and persistence of a juvenile practitioner on the violin or French horn; and makes quite as much noise in attaining a respectable proficiency. At noon, the herds are assembled at the "camping-ground," close by a water-course, if possible, where they lie chewing the cud. It takes a year or two to teach a new herd to betake themselves to the spot at the proper hour. The stockman trains them to this by riding about and flogging every beast found straying at camp-hours. In the course of time the whole herd get so trained that at the cracking of the whip, which rings like a musket-shot, they gallop spontaneously to camp. The life of the stockman has at times the excitement of a bull-fight. Once a year the cattle are mustered for inspection and branding, and a maddened bull not unfrequently breaks away from the yard and heads back for the bush; a stockman gallops after him and cuts his flanks with the terrible whip; the beast turns when his pursuer is close beside him, and, unless both horse and rider are wary, the steed is impaled on the horns of the infuriated bull. But, sooner or later, the bullock is subdued, and makes his way back to the yard, his hide covered with mingled blood and foam, his eyes glaring, and tongue protruding with agony and fear.

The bullock-driver is a sort of necessary mediator between the city and the pastoral regions. He conducts the enormous carts, with their loads of wool, to market, and brings back the annual returns of stores, and articles of luxury and necessity. His slow journey sometimes occupies two or three months, up the steep mountain side, over apparently impracticable roads, through heat and dust, rain and snow. During the whole time he does not probably once enter a human dwelling, sleeping in his vehicle, while his dog keeps charge over his bullocks turned out to gather their food. The setting out and return of the dray are the great annual events in the lives of the settlers in the Bush, for they are almost the sole links which bind the solitary inhabitants to the great world beyond.

Those portions of Australia which have been settled by emigrants from Great Britain are comprised in three principal colonies. The statistics given are from the census of March, 1851, the last which has been taken. The total population at that time, it will be seen, amounted to 322,000. The discovery of gold has given a great impulse to emigration, so that the population at present probably numbers 450,000. We have tables in detail respecting the population of only New South Wales, where the adult males amount to 60,500, while the adult females number only 33,700; the adult males numbering almost twice as many as the females. The proportion in the other colonies is probably about the same. The colonies are:

I. *New South Wales*, situated upon the eastern shore. Founded in 1787, as a penal settlement. Population, 187,000; sheep, 7,026,000; cattle, 1,360,000; horses, 111,200; exports, £1,990,900; imports, £1,670,300. Sydney, the capital, has 60,000 inhabitants.

II. *Victoria*, situated at the south-eastern angle of the island. First settled in 1835; cut off from New South Wales and erected into a separate colony in 1841. Population, 78,000; sheep, 6,033,000; cattle, 346,500; horses, 16,743; exports, £1,041,796; imports, £744,295. The capital is Melborne, having a population of 25,000. This has been by far the most flourishing of the Australian colonies; and the richest deposits of gold have also been discovered here.

III. *South Australia*, lying on the southern shore of the island, immediately west of Victoria. Founded in 1835. Population, 67,000; sheep, 1,200,000; cattle, 100,000; horses, 6,000; exports, £571,000; imports, £887,000. Adelaide, the capital, contains 14,000 inhabitants. This is less a pastoral colony than either of the others, the principal article of export being copper. It has suffered very severely from speculations in copper mines, and on the whole, has not been successful. The discoveries of gold in the neighboring colony of Victoria, have likewise proved injurious to South Australia, drawing away a considerable share of its population. It is not known that any gold has been discovered in this colony.

In addition to these colonies, an attempt was made in 1829 to found the colony of Western Australia or Swan River, on the western shore. There are said to be some ten thousand inhabitants in this unfortunate district. The name of Northern Australia has been vaguely bestowed upon the whole central and northern parts of the island; but no permanent settlements have as yet been formed there.

Long ago—so long that we have no numerals to express either the date or the duration of the period—the layers which compose the superficial shell of our earth were slowly deposited around a still older rocky nucleus. This was the period of these shell-fish, and lizards, and huge monsters whose fossilized remains are disinterred by geologists, deposited in museums, and labeled with names as long and uncouth as themselves. Generation after generation, species after species, of these animals lived and died, and were buried, and the rock deposited from the surrounding waters was formed around their remains. At length the inner core, which lay below all organized life, and whose structure at once suggests the idea that it was formed in fire, was thrust up, by some force, the present existence of which is hinted to us by volcanoes and earthquakes. Through and among the aqueous rocks the fiery intruders made their way, overturning and displacing the quiet strata above, filling them with cracks and fissures, and in some cases giving them a semi-igneous character. Into many of these fissures the molten rock found its way, forming, when cooled, veins and dykes running in every direction.

The most frequent of these intruding rocks was quartz, either alone, or in connection with other kindred rocks. It is almost exclusively in the quartz veins thus forced up among the more ancient species of the aqueous rocks, that gold is found; not that it is always found there, but it is rarely found any where else. How the gold made its way there geologists no more know than thick-lipped and thick-headed King George knew how the apple got inside the dumpling; but there it is, sometimes in lumps and veins, sometimes in flakes and spangles, and sometimes scattered through the whole mass of quartz in grains so minute as to be invisible to the naked eye. In the course of ages this aqueous shell, with the intruding gold-bearing quartz, was again and again sunk beneath the sea, and elevated above it. Thus every portion of the earth's surface has been exposed to the action of tides and currents and waves, similar to those which now waste away our sea-shores. The waters wore away and broke off portions of these rocks, pounded them into boulders and pebbles, crushed them into gravel and sand, ground them into mud and clay, and spread the fragments out in broad alluvial tracts, deposited them in narrow patches, or heaped them up in hollows and depressions. The various substances swept along

by these currents would be gradually dropped, according to their size and specific gravity—the larger and heavier portions first reaching the bottom. If these currents acted upon gold-bearing quartz, the portions of precious metal, being some seven times heavier than its stony matrix, would be deposited sooner than fragments of quartz of similar size and shape. But larger fragments of stone and smaller ones of gold would be deposited together; while the finer portions of the stone would be borne farther than any part of the metal. But though gold and quartz were deposited together, the agitation of the current would in course of time sink the heavy metal to the bottom of the boulders and pebbles, till it rested upon a solid bottom of rock or clay; and if the bottom were tolerably soft clay it would even become imbedded for a short distance in that. In case there were any cracks or crannies in this bottom, they would become filled with the metal, forming what miners call "pockets." So too in case the bottom was crossed by a bar or obstruction of any kind, as was frequently the case, the gold as it was swept along would be arrested and accumulated upon the upper side of the bar. Wherever, in short, the current was in any way obstructed, the deposition would be more rapid. In all these cases the heavy gold would slowly but surely make its way through the lighter matter deposited with it, till it rested upon a solid bottom.

But though gold is usually found in the beds of rivers, we must not infer that it is our present rivers whose waters have broken down and swept away the stony matrix, liberated the gold, and sorted and sifted it for the digger. Our rivers have flowed but a few years, geologically speaking; but they would naturally for the most part follow the channels worn through countless ages by the ante-diluvian and pre-Adamic currents. It sometimes happens that the ancient channel of a river has become filled up and obstructed, so that it has taken another course. If the old channel passed through a vein of auriferous quartz, the gold would be deposited in the old bed, and buried beneath the matter which choked it up. These deposits in ancient water-courses, now dry, are what are known as the "dry diggings," while those in the bed of a running stream are the "wet diggings."

The nature and composition of a gold-field result from the manner of its formation. The larger lumps of gold, which the current can carry but a short distance, are first deposited. In Australia these are called "nuggets," and are usually found near or upon the surface of the ground; for the lighter materials have been swept further onward. These nuggets occur in masses from the weight of a few grains up to that of the "great lump," the largest ever discovered, which weighed more than a hundred pounds. Further down the stream are deposited the smaller flakes and grains of gold, together with boulders and pebbles; still further down are borne the fine dust and invisible particles. Nuggets are thus found sparingly, and only in the close vicinity of the original spot where they originated. As a general rule, the less rapid the current, the smaller the particles deposited, and the more evenly are they distributed.

Almost all the gold in circulation has been obtained by washing these alluvial sands. Nature has here done all the crushing and grinding, and a great portion of the washing and sifting; and to complete the work, the gold-digger merely imitates on a small scale the processes which Nature has been carrying on for leagues and ages. The processes are too simple and too well-known by this time to demand more than a passing notice; and

they are now adverted to merely to point out their analogy with those employed by Nature. The cradle—very similar to the nursery article of the same name—is but a contrivance to produce an artificial current of water; the cleets across its bottom answer to the bars and obstructions in the bed of the river, which catch the gold drifting down. The river, in fact, is but a gigantic cradle, or the cradle but a miniature river; while the washing-bowl is neither more or less than an artificial "pocket," from which all but the gold has been swept away. So well has Nature performed these preliminary operations that, except in the rarest instances, gold-mining can never become profitable until after the washings have been exhausted—which is not likely to happen in our day. For—to say nothing of the fact that the auriferous sands must be richer than the rock from which they are derived, because a greater proportion of the rock than of the gold has been washed away—the action of the rollers and the stamping-mill pulverizes the gold as well as the quartz, and leaves it in such a form that it can be separated only by complicated and expensive chemical processes, instead of the cheap and simple operation of washing.

It was not from lack of abundant indications of their existence that the golden treasures of Australia remained so long unknown, and that the shepherds and stockmen and bush-rangers were ignorant of the wealth which lay beneath their feet. A quarter of a century ago a convict was found in possession of a "nugget" of gold, which he professed to have found in the neighborhood where gold has since been discovered. His story was disbelieved, and he was soundly flogged, on suspicion of having obtained the gold by robbery, and of having melted it down in order to destroy the evidence of its identity. At occasional intervals gold was offered for sale to the jewelers of Sydney; and one old "emancipist," named M'Gregor, gained some notoriety as a gold-finder; though it was shrewdly suspected that the real source of his findings was the pockets of unwary travelers. The old clansman's prospecting, however, does not seem to have been over-successful, since at the outbreak of the gold-fever he was confined in Sydney for debt. A party of speculative miners paid his debts on condition that he should give them the sole benefit of his gold-hunting experience. But it is ill bargaining with rogues: M'Gregor took the earliest opportunity of cutting loose from his benefactors, and picking up a companion more to his liking, made his way to his old haunts, and "lay by" on his own account.

Science also pointed to the probability of the existence of gold in Australia. Humboldt had announced the *a priori* probability that mountains of the general geological character of the Australian Cordilleras, especially if running north and south, would be found to be auriferous. In 1841, and subsequently, Mr. Clarke, a colonial geologist, affirmed that gold 'in considerable quantities" existed in certain Australian rocks. In 1844, and afterward, Sir Roderick Murchison, the eminent English geologist, expressed the same opinion, which he based upon the resemblance between the Australian Cordilleras and the Ural Mountains. In 1848, he wrote to Earl Gray, the Colonial Minister, urging measures to facilitate the search for gold. But that wise functionary shook his head, and declined interfering, on the ground that "the agitation of the discovery of the precious metals would prove injurious to an agricultural and wool-growing community."

In 1848, one Mr. Smith produced a piece of gold imbedded in quartz, which he stated that he had found, and offered to disclose the spot to Government for a reward of £800. But Sir Charles Fitzroy, the "sporting Governor," suspecting the lump to be a "plant" on the Dousterswivel plan, and that its true origin was California, refused to give the reward in advance; but promised that if the disclosure should prove valuable, the discoverer should be liberally rewarded. But Mr. Smith would no more trust the Government than the Government would trust him. And thus he lost the chance of immortalizing himself as "*the* Mr. Smith" who discovered the gold mines of Australia.

But the Hour and the Man were at hand. Among those persons whom the gold-fields of California had attracted from Sydney, was Edward Hargraves. Emigrants from the penal colony were not in the best odor in the new State; the severe code of Judge Lynch began to be applied to them, sometimes by way of precaution rather than of punishment, with very uncomfortable stringency; and hints which admitted of no misunderstanding were given, that their presence could very well be dispensed with. Mr. Hargraves seems to have been an honest and honorable man, and we are not informed whether or no the suspicious place from whence he came had anything to do with his want of success—for unsuccessful he was. He returned to Sydney with little gold, but with some valuable experience; and immediately began a series of explorations at home.

On the 3rd of April, 1851, he made a communication to Government, stating that, as the result of two months' search, he had discovered valuable deposits of gold, which he offered to make public for a consideration. To this offer an answer was returned similar to that given to the communication of Mr. Smith, three years before. Mr. Hargraves, wiser than that gentleman, accepted the proposition of Government, and proceeded to the places which he designated, in company with the Government geologist. The first place where search was made was at Summerhill Creek, near the town of Bathurst, on the western side of the mountains, 150 miles from Sydney, the very district where old McGregor professed to have found his nuggets.

Early in May the discovery began to be bruited abroad, and by the 19th of that month hundreds of persons were digging at Summerhill Creek, to which they gave the name of Ophir. Three days after this the Government issued a proclamation claiming as the property of the Crown all gold found in its natural place of deposit, whether on public or private lands; forbidding all persons to dig or search for gold on Crown lands, without previously procuring a license; and settling the amount of the "Royalty" to be paid by those obtaining gold on their own lands.

By the first of June the current had set strongly toward the gold diggings. Sydney assumed a new aspect. Blue and red woolen shirts and California hats became the show-goods in the fashionable streets; from the stock of cradles displayed for sale, a stranger would gain an alarming impression as to the sudden increase of the infantile population of the colony. Water-proof tents, quicksilver for amalgamating gold soil, preserved provisions, spring-carts for the diggings, cradles and prospecting-pans, became the leading features of newspaper advertisements. The booksellers found their trade limited to "Digger's Hand-books" and "Gold-digger's Guides." Conversation took a golden turn; "Have you been to the diggings?"—

"Are you going?"—"Have your servants gone yet?" were the standing questions. The sudden intrusion of gold disturbed society as much as the obtrusion of the igneous gold-bearing quartz had long ago disturbed the quiet aqueous rocks. The man inured to toil, for a time at least, was the equal of any one. Tradesmen, mechanics, and servants, who a week before had stood cap in hand before their employers and masters, now "flashed their independence" in their faces. Every body who could go to the mines prepared to do so. The rugged defiles of the Blue Mountains were crowded with drays and ox-carts, piled with stores and mining utensils, and escorted by long lines of travelers on horseback or afoot, all in search of the new Ophir.

It was soon discovered that gold-mining was no child's play. The work was of the hardest a man can perform, the fare of the roughest, and the company with whom the miner found himself none of the most select. To dwell in tents was hardly as poetic as it had seemed when contemplated at a distance. Nuggets were like "angels' visits, few and far between." Rocking the cradle was quite a different thing from the same interesting performance at home. To breakfast at daybreak in a tent or gunyah, crowded with a mass of unwashed human beings in calico shirts, then work till mid-day in the water, snatch at noon a hasty meal of mutton, damper, and Bush tea, without even stopping for ablution, and back to the mines till dark, was something that many had not bargained for. Besides, fortunes were not to be made in a day. Of the thousands at the mines, the Government Commissioner reported that about two-fifths were making five dollars a day; about the same proportion gained from fifty cents to a dollar and a half; and the remainder earned nothing. By the first of July—the Australian mid-winter—a reaction had taken place. The weather grew cold and stormy; the river was flooded so that no work could be carried on at the "wet diggins," and the miners were reduced to the alternative of lying idle, or going prospecting in search of "dry diggings," carrying their implements and stores as best they might. Many sold their implements and stores for a trifle, and made their way homeward, pursued by the jeers of the passers-by, and met everywhere by the taunting question, "Have you sold your cradle?"

Just at this time was found the famous "Hundred-pound Lump," whose history would furnish materials for a romance. A native in the service of a certain Dr. Kerr, was lounging along, hatchet in hand, through a sheep-run where he had walked a hundred times before. His eyes caught something yellow upon the surface of a block of quartz; and a blow with his hatchet revealed a mass of gold. He hastened back to his master, who took horse and rode to the spot. The largest block weighed 75 pounds, and by its side were two fragments, each of about half the weight, which had apparently originally formed part of it. Like the man who drew an elephant in a lottery, the doctor was at a loss how to dispose of his prize. At last he concluded to break it up, put it in a pair of saddle-bags, and convey it home on horseback, a ride of many hours. As he was compelled to halt at some human habitation for refreshment, he would lift the saddle-bags, with forced indifference, and fling them carelessly over a rail-fence. "It seems heavy?" some suspicious-looking bystander—perhaps stockman, perhaps bushranger—would remark interrogatively. "Oh yes," the doctor would answer, endeavoring to allay suspicion by an apparent jest, "full

of gold, of course!" When the gigantic nuggets came to be weighed, they were found to contain a little more than a hundred pounds of pure gold, worth, as metal, more than twenty thousand dollars. But now the thought flashed upon the doctor that, had it remained unbroken, it would have been worth much more as a specimen; what a fortune might have been made by exhibiting it; and the poor practitioner began to look upon himself, and to be looked upon by his neighbors, not as the lucky man who had made twenty thousand dollars by a single day's ride, but as the unfortunate individual who had lost ten times as much by a few blows of a hatchet. But the misfortunes of the lump did not end here. The merchant who bought it had taken his passage with it from Bathurst to Sydney, when he was stopped by an officer of Government who claimed the prize as the property of the Crown—the doctor had not taken out a license to search for gold. The astounded merchant refused to stand and deliver, but it was of no avail; the officer took possession of the prize. Arriving at Sydney it was restored to the poor merchant on condition of his paying a "Royalty" of ten per cent., and an additional per centage for its safe conduct by Government from Bathurst. To avoid all further chance of accidents, it was shipped by its harrassed owner for England on the very day of its arrival in Sydney, with strict orders that it should be consigned to the melting pot immediately on its arrival in England; in order that its identity might be destroyed. And so "*Hie hat de Mahr' ein Ende, das ist der Nibelungen Lied*"—here ends the story of the Australian Nibelungen Treasure.

The discoveries of gold in New South Wales were soon thrown into the shade by still more astounding discoveries in the Colony of Victoria, made about six weeks later. We have before us a print of the curious volcanic hill of Buninyong some fifty miles from Melbourne, as it appeared in 1850. A fine sweep of pastoral landscape, shaded here and there by a solitary gum tree occupies the foreground. Over this a flock of sheep are wandering under the care of a solitary shepherd—sheep and shepherd alike unconscious that they were walking over a golden pavement. In the back ground the volcanic hill of Buninyong rears its conical head in the distance. Here were the famous diggings of Ballarat—famous for a few weeks, that is, till they were eclipsed by the still more famous ones of Mount Alexander. The deposits here were of richness unexampled. The Governor of the Colony once saw eight pounds' weight—two thousand dollars' worth—washed from a couple of pans-full of clay. In a fortnight after the discovery of the Ballarat diggings Melbourne was deserted. The Mechanic left his work-bench, the carman his team, the servant his knives and forks, for the diggings. The tradesmen and merchants were forced to follow—for what was the use of their staying when their customers were gone? What an overturn there was! How gold levels distinctions! A flannel shirt, California hat, and unshorn chin became emblems of nobility, and took the front rank every where. A sad case was it for poor helpless mortals who had been accustomed to be waited upon. Governor and Bishop presented a sorry spectacle—the former must groom his own horse, and the latter must black his own shoes. The gouty Judge could get to Court only by being wheeled by his own sons—let us hope that these modern Biton and Cleobis will not fail to get their reward. "My good fellow," said a spruce new-comer to a rough looking fellow, "carry this bag and you shall have a shilling." The other coolly transferred a quid of tobacco

from one cheek to the other, as he placed a cow-hide-shod foot upon a convenient stone, with the words, "Here, my fine lad, tie my shoe, and here's a half crown for you." And so on, *ad infinitum*. Twenty thousand—thirty thousand—forty thousand diggers were vibrating from Ballarat to Mount Alexander, from Mount Alexander to Bendigo Creek, from Bendigo Creek to Fryar's Creek. All had heard of extraordinary yields—of gold by the pound, of nuggets by the quart, but when the first excitement was over it was seen that few had met with any such luck. One by one the disappointed diggers slunk back to their former posts. The Governor's horse rejoiced in the care of his old groom. The Bishop grew fat and rosy in the performance of his spiritual functions; his ancient groom blacked his shoes once more—for a reasonable advance on his old wages. The dutiful sons of the Judge were released from the task of wheeling that gouty minister of the law; and at the latest dates society had fallen back much into its ancient routine.

Yet not wholly. Taking one with another, fifty thousand diggers were earning each at the rate of a thousand dollars a year; mechanics commanded two or three dollars a day; and shepherds who were leaving the mines returned to their pastoral pursuits, their Jews-harps and accordeons, at a salary of one hundred and fifty or two hundred dollars, besides unlimited rations of mutton and damper. One year's experiment of the Australian gold mines has added to the stock of precious metals the amount of twenty millions of dollars; while for the latter portions of that time, which may be assumed to present a fair average of the yield for a year to come, the production has been at the rate of fifty millions of dollars a year. Divide this among fifty thousand miners, and make allowance for the increased expense and decreased comfort of living at the mines, and it will present the fair average of what one miner with another may hope to gain. The shrewd and forecasting Yankees, of whom some five thousand have gone there, will exceed the average, while some other classes of emigrants will fall as much below it.

MONASTERY OF MONREALE, IN SICILY.

THOUGH the town of Monreale is nearly four miles from Palermo, it is so connected with that capital by lines of houses and villas as to have almost the character of a suburb. It stands on a noble elevation at the southern extremity of the rich vale of Palermo. The road leading to it runs in a straight line from the Cassaro, or principal street of Palermo, to the very foot of the hills, over which it has been made to stride by a noble causeway. The situation, the views, are almost unrivaled; and the town itself, though it can hardly be called handsome, has an impressive, picturesque, half-oriental air about it, and contains a number of very remarkable edifices. The Carthaginian, the Grecian, the Roman, the Saracenic temples and villas that stood on the spot had been swept away, and the place was nearly deserted, when the Normans conquered the island, and devoted themselves to its embellishment with more ardor, and much

more taste, than might have been thought compatible with their warlike habits and the comparatively recent date of their own barbarism. As early as the eleventh century, and nearly at the time of the Norman conquest of England, Count Ruggiero, the first Norman King of Sicily, began the work of improvement, and laid the foundation of several towns and vast religious edifices; but it was in the twelfth century, and under his descendant William the Good, that Monreale was traced out, and its ancient cathedral, as well as its famous Benedictine abbey, was first built. The town, by the usual process in those ages, grew up round the abbey, and as the establishment increased in wealth and importance, the town also increased. Like all the Norman buildings of the period, the abbey is strictly and almost entirely characterized by the Moorish or Saracenic style. The cause of this was obvious: the Normans who invaded the island were no architects, and were not likely to carry builders of any kind with them; and in Sicily they found abundance of skillful Saracenic artists, and nothing but Saracenic models. They could hardly help being struck by the lightness and beauty of the workmanship, and the admirable manner in which the prevailing style of building adapted itself to a hot climate; and the obvious circumstances of convenience and facility of obtaining artists in that line would, even independent of any taste, induce them to perpetuate the architecture of the Moors.

The cloisters of Monreale are, from their magnificence, extent, and taste, considered the master-piece of the Saraceno-Norman architects, and, though the interval that divides them from the great master-piece of the Moors in Spain is a long one, they are frequently called the "Alhambra of Sicily." The successors of that most energetic soldier of fortune, Count Ruggiero, spared no pains and no money in decorating this favorite monument of their piety; the vast abbey-church, and nearly every part of the monastery are most elaborately finished. The twisted columns which support the arcades of the cloisters are covered nearly all over with mosaic; and though not large in the diameter of their shafts these columns are considerable in their number; for, taking in the whole range of the cloisters (of which but a section is shown in our engraving) there are 120 columns, and every one of these is exquisitely finished. Some of their capitals are very curious, being composed of the heads of animals, cut with great spirit. In each division of the cloisters there is a richly ornamented fountain, and as all these are constantly supplied with clear, sparkling, cool water, the effect during the summer heats is delicious. From the shaded porticoes, and the cool open galleries above them, the eyes of the monks rest upon their gardens and groves, abounding in odoriferous shrubs and plants, all kept fresh and doubly fragrant by water gushing forth on all sides, and leaping in marble basins. The wealth and power are departed; the glory of the house is gone; but as a delicious place of residence, the abbey of Monreale remains unrivaled.

After the cloisters, the most striking feature in this monastery is, perhaps, the vast and truly noble staircase, at the head of which there stand (or at least there stood a few years ago) two large and splendid paintings, one being by Velasquez, and the other by Pietro Novelli, a native of the town, and commonly called from it the "Monrealese," or, for greater euphony, "Morealese." His works abound in other parts of the edifice, which also contains many pieces of sculpture by Gagini, another native

SICILIAN MONASTERY.

artist. The adjoining cathedral church is in the same Saracenic style, but heavier and somewhat less symmetric than the Benedictine house. The general effect is, however, imposing, and this cluster of edifices is honorable to the taste and magnificence of the twelfth century. The interior of the cathedral is a complete crust of rich mosaic work. Some of the tombs have a high historical interest: here were interred, William the Good, its founder, William the Bad, and many princes of the Norman and Suabian lines, some of whom gave a noble encouragement to the then infant literature of Italy. In the year 1811 the cathedral was greatly damaged by a fire, and the government has not since shown any zeal in restoring this national monument. The authorities have removed a few of the more precious relics to Palermo, and thus, indeed, seem to have resigned themselves to the idea of the gradual decay and falling to pieces of the venerable edifice.

In its scenery and accessories the whole neighborhood of Monreale is magic ground. About three miles beyond the abbey is the magnificent monastery of San Martino, situated in a wild and solitary dell, among rocks and mountains. Here also are fine galleries and fountains, pictures and statues. Among many curiosities of a less questionable nature, the monks pretend to show the identical cup from which Socrates drank his poison. The library of San Martino attracted the attention of Europe last century by being the scene where the literary forgeries of the Abbate or Abbé Vella were discovered and brought to light. This ingenious Sicilian, or this "learned swindler," as he has been called, made himself master of various Arabic dialects by several years' study and traveling in the East; and on his return to Sicily he gave out that he had recovered the lost books of Livy's Roman History, in an Arabian manuscript, taken from the cornice of the mosque of St. Sophia, at Constantinople. Before the lively sensation created throughout civilized Europe by the report of this great historical discovery had time to cool, Vella pretended to find, in this very library of San Martino, a perfect Arabic manuscript, treating of the whole history of Sicily during the Saracen dominion. Arabic scholars were scarce, and money was not. The Abbé and his project became amazingly popular; he received large sums, and went to work with such vigor that he had soon no fewer than six volumes of translations in the press. For some time nothing else was talked of by the *savans* of east, west, north, and south, who fully expected that, pursuing his fortunate career, the Abbé would recover in similar guise the missing portions of Tacitus and Diodorus Siculus, the Register of Augustus, the Comedies of Menander, and in short every "lost Pleiad" of Grecian and Roman literature. At length many of the literati even braved Scylla and Charybdis, and went to Sicily for a sight of the inestimable manuscripts. We presume they were, for the most part, not very deep in Arabic; but at last, and in an evil moment for the Abbé, Doctor Hager, a German *doctissimus et eruditissimus*—a wight most profound in oriental languages and literature—pounced upon the manuscripts, and after some examination of the matter and manner, the style, and the dates, pronounced and proved the whole to be a gross forgery. The bubble burst at once; the books were stopped on the eve of publication, and thus perished one of the most successful attempts at literary imposition ever practised on the credulity of the learned.

CARAVANSERAS.

AMONG a rude people whose country is rarely visited by strangers, any one who arrives is cheerfully received into the tent or hut of some principal man; and the best fare that the place can afford is set before him without charge. The rude or savage men sometimes even contend among themselves for the honor of entertaining the stranger. In a state of more advanced civilization and increased intercourse, so many sanctities come to be assembled around private life that the intrusion of a perfect stranger is felt unpleasant, and therefore a separate house is appropriated to the reception of travelers, where every attention is paid them, and they are amply supplied with provisions. In the next stage, hospitality provides only for the stranger what he cannot provide for himself—shelter; and, in the last stage of all, in which occasion for travel is diminished to the poor and increased to the rich, the traveler is altogether left to the care of persons who make it a profession to afford him every kind of accommodation. Some persons look upon the last state of things as illustrating

"The cold charities of man to man,"

in a highly civilized state of life. We, however, are quite satisfied that the actual amount of human sympathies is greatest in the state of society that is the most highly civilized; although sympathy and charity cannot always be exhibited in the same forms as in a ruder state of life, without disturbing the working of the delicate and complicated machinery in the midst of which the civilized man lives, and of which himself, his life, and his labors form a part. We proceed to describe the system of providing for travelers shelter, but no food, as exhibited in Persia.

The places of accommodation for travelers are properly three:—caravanseras, khans, and menzils. The first are buildings designed to afford shelter to travelers in deserts and other situations remote from towns; khans are similar buildings in a town; and menzil is a word of rather indefinite application, but seems generally to denote the house of the persons who are accustomed to accommodate travelers in places where there is no khan or caravansera. The difference between the two latter is not much attended to in common conversation; nevertheless, the terms are not so much confounded as might be supposed from the statement made by travelers,—that the public buildings devoted to their accommodation are usually called "khans" in Turkey and "caravanseras" in Persia. The reason is, that in Turkey there are, in fact, very few proper caravanseras,—that is, such buildings at a distance from towns—while they abound in Persia.

In that country there are few public buildings comparable to the caravanseras, for the mosques are in general buildings of no external beauty; while in Turkey, where the mosques are often handsome structures, the buildings destined to accommodate travelers are exceedingly mean. In our present article we confine ourselves exclusively to caravanseras.

In Persia they are all constructed on essentially the same model, but they nevertheless differ greatly; and this difference is found not only in the materials and workmanship of the building, but in the absence of different parts possessed by the complete caravanseras. Our best course will be,

PERSIA—CARAVANSERAS.

first, to describe a perfect structure, and then to mention what parts are sometimes omitted.

The superior class of caravanseras appear very striking objects to the stranger who approaches them, whether seen in their own solitary magnificence, or in contrast with the miserable hovels that sometimes appear in their neighborhood. An European who has had no previous acquaintance with them is certain to take them for palaces, fortresses, or castles; but this first impression becomes fainter when a more deliberate observation shows that no enclosed buildings rise above the level of the enclosing wall. This wall is very high, in general upwards of twenty feet; and it sometimes extends one hundred yards on each side of the square which it encloses. It is strongly built of fine brick-work, which is commonly based on stone, and is usually worked off at the upper part with ornamental brick-masonry. The front is often very striking, particularly when the uniformity of the wall is broken not only by the grand entrance, but by niches about four feet from the ground, which are seen in some of the best caravanseras. In the centre of the front wall appears the entrance, a tall and spacious archway, over which are sometimes chambers crowned with superb domes. Much pains has generally been taken with the open work and mosaic of this part of the structure, which altogether forms a very fine and suitable portico to the caravansera. On each side, under the extensively arched roof of the portico, are rooms which are usually occupied by the keeper and his people; and some of them are used as shops, in which are exposed for sale such commodities as travelers most require. On passing through this archway, the spectator perceives a sort of piazza extending on every side of the interior of the quadrangle, leaving a spacious area in the middle. On a nearer approach, it appears that each of the high arched recesses separated by piers is an apartment, the floor of which is elevated three or four feet above the ground, and divided from the adjoining apartments by walls, the ends of which form what appear like the piers of a piazza. These apartments, which are open in front, are neatly paved, and sometimes possess a fireplace, while compartments cut out in the depth of the thick wall are serviceable as cupboards. A small door conducts to another more private room behind this. It is commonly of an oblong shape, with the chimney on the side opposite the door, at which the only light enters that the room receives. Along the walls, about three feet from the floor, there runs a line of such "topshehs," or cupboards, as we have just mentioned, and which are considered indispensable in all Persian apartments, but vary in depth from three inches to a foot. The inner apartment is seldom resorted to, even for sleeping, except in winter or in bad weather, or by women, the outermost being considered the summer room, and an inhabitant of the East does not covet privacy for the purposes of sleep, eating, or devotion. In the middle of each of the three sides of the building, besides that in which is the entrance, or at least of the side immediately opposite the entrance, there is an apartment much more spacious and lofty than any other, in its actual structure, and appearing more so than it is, from not being divided into two rooms, as in the case of the common apartments. These large open chambers seem to have no specific use. They are some times occupied by families, and sometimes they are merely used as places to which the different inmates of the building resort to smoke their pipes together,—to converse, or listen to tales. They seem to have been framed

with the intention of rendering the other sides of the building uniform—in the interior view—with that which affords the entrance.

The vaulted chambers over the gateway, which are found in the oldest and best caravanseras, form the place of honor in such buildings. They are usually occupied by the persons of most note, particularly if females are with them: but it sometimes happens that this portion of the building is set apart for the purposes of an oratory. These chambers are more free from intrusion, more airy, light, and clean than the recesses below, which are not unfrequently rendered unpleasant by dirt and vermin.

The stables of the caravansera extend along a covered lane, which is between the back wall of the apartments and the outermost wall of the building; and along this wall there extends, within the stable, another series of cell-like apartments, destined for the accommodation of muleteers, servants, and the poor people who, having no servants to attend to their cattle, peform that duty for themselves. However, the Persians and their cattle appear to concur in giving a decided preference to the spacious central court-yard, which is therefore used as a stable when the weather is not unfavorable.

In the centre of the court appears an elevated platform of masonry, which forms the roof of a subterranean chamber called a "*zeera zemoun*," to which travelers retire during the great mid-day heats of summer, and which is then indeed a most refreshing retreat. Sometimes, however, the place of this platform is occupied by the circular or square parapet of the deep well or reservoir from which the caravansera is supplied with water, the only accommodation, besides lodging, which such establishments provide, and which is sometimes provided at a great expense in situations where water is difficult to procure.

At the angles of the square there are flights of steps which conduct to the flat roof of the building, to which travelers like to resort in the cool of the evening; and very generally indeed, unless they have any valuable property in the chambers below, they remove their beds to the roof, and spend the night there.

We are not aware that any part of a complete caravansera has escaped our notice, but must now state that such completeness is frequently wanting. Some caravanseras are destitute of the stables, and in others the apartments do not extend on all sides of the square. Many are without the domed chambers, or any chambers, over the gateway; many are without the "zeera zemoun," and in some the arcaded appearance of the interior is wanting;—a range of single chambers, such as the inner chambers in the complete building, being merely fronted by an unbroken bench of masonry or earth.

As these buildings afford no other accommodation than the bare walls, and it is sometimes impossible to obtain food at any price in the neighborhood, the eastern traveler is obliged to encumber himself with bedding, culinary utensils, and some articles of provisions. The writer has even known wood for fuel bought at one stage to be used at the two or three following, where it was well known that none could be obtained. For the accommodation actually afforded no price is properly payable; and although a small gratuity seems to be sometimes expected from the better sort of travelers, it is understood not to be for the accommodation, but for attentions and services rendered by the persons in charge of the building.

ROBERT BRUCE.

A SHORT chronological detail of the course of events during the quarter of a century which preceded the appearance of Robert Bruce on the scene of Scottish history, will place in the clearest light what that great deliverer achieved for his country.

In 1282 Scotland was in the enjoyment of profound peace, and perhaps unprecedented prosperity, under the sway of Alexander III.—one of the ablest and best of her kings. Alexander had married Margaret, a daughter of King Henry III. of England, and was, consequently, the brother-in-law of the reigning king of that country, Edward I. The Scottish king was now in the forty-second year of his age, and having a son and a daughter arrived at maturity, had a fair prospect of leaving his sceptre to a line of descendants, after a reign which might yet have been extended to a distant date. This year his daughter Margaret was united in marriage to Eric, the young king of Norway, and soon after, his son, of the same name with himself, to Margaret, daughter of Guy, the head of the powerful house of Flanders.

A short space sufficed to turn to darkness all this appearance of a secure and happy future. The Queen of Norway had scarcely been married a year when she died, after having given birth to a daughter. The death of Prince Alexander, without issue, followed in January, 1284; and, finally, on the 16th of March, 1286, the king himself, having fallen over a rock at Kinghorn, in Fife, while riding at night, was killed on the spot.

Thus terminated the line of the original Celtic kings of Scotland. The sovereignty of that turbulent country now devolved upon the infant Norwegian princess, who of course was still at the court of her father. Had even she survived, the calamities that fell upon the kingdom might still have been averted. The crown had been solemnly secured to her by a declaration of the Estates of Scotland, which her grandfather had taken the precaution to obtain the year before his death; and, since that event, it had been arranged that, as soon as she was brought home, she should be affianced to her second cousin, the eldest son of the English king,—a project which, if it had been carried into effect, would have eventually united the two kingdoms under one sceptre. But this hope was also doomed to be disappointed. Margaret, the young Queen of Scotland,—known in Scottish history by the name of the Maid of Norway—having, in 1289, been placed by her father in the hands of ambassadors sent to conduct her to the country of which she was to wear the crown, was taken ill on the voyage, and having been carried on shore to one to the Orkney Islands, died there.

Now came the calamity of a disputed succession to the throne,—always one of the greatest that can befal a state, but in this case aggravated by the advantage taken of the crisis by the English monarch, to endeavor to make himself master, by fraud or force, of the distracted country. The contest which ensued lasted for more than twenty years; the barbarities of

war, in the constant alternation of conquest and insurrection, being only interrupted for short seasons by the gloomy tranquillity of enslavement and despair. Although many competitors started in the first instance, the only two that eventually prosecuted their claims were John Baliol, Lord of Galloway, and Robert Bruce, Lord of Annandale; the former the grandson of the eldest daughter, the latter the son of the second daughter, of David Earl of Huntingdon, in whose line the right to the crown now undoubtedly resided. On the 19th of November, 1292, the English king, to whom the decision had been referred, gave judgment in favor of Baliol. On the next day, the new King of Scotland did fealty to Edward as his feudal superior; and on the 30th he was crowned at Scone. For more than three years Baliol and his subjects remained apparently quiet under the yoke which had thus been imposed upon them; but in the spring of 1296, Edward having by this time become involved in a war with France, the Scots, seeing what they thought a favorable opportunity of regaining their freedom, also rose and took arms against him;—Baliol, driven into resistance by the many humiliations he had been made to suffer from his haughty liege lord, having been induced to place himself at the head of the insurrection. This effort, however, conducted with no ability, wholly failed; the generals of Edward carried every thing before them, and, after a few weeks, the conquest of the country was complete. As this was considered to be the suppression of a rebellion, the sword was allowed even more than its usual license, and the victor endeavored to strike terror into the hearts of the miserable people by massacres and devastations on a large scale. On the 2nd of July, Baliol formally surrendered the kingdom into the hands of Edward, who immediately appointed one of his generals to govern it as his deputy.

In less than two years, however, the Scots again revolted. Their leader now was the illustrious Wallace. Under his conduct they chased the English authorities from the kingdom—overthrew, at Cambus Kenneth, a force of 40,000 men that was dispatched to put down the insurrection—obtained possession of some of the principal fortresses—reëstablished a native government—and were not again brought under the yoke till Edward himself came against them at the head of an army of 100,000 strong, and defeated the Scottish champion at the fatal battle of Falkirk, fought on the 22nd of July, 1298.

The spring of the year 1303 was signalized by another revolt, which lasted for nearly two years, and which in like manner was not decided till the English king had again taken the field in person. Its suppression was followed by new cruelties and devastations, and by the abandonment of the unhappy country to a tyranny more grinding than ever. Among other acts of vengeance, Edward stained his character with indelible infamy by the execution of the heroic Wallace, who had been betrayed into his hands. He suffered on Tower Hill, London, on the 23rd of August, 1305.

It was now that Bruce resolved to put himself at the head of his countrymen, and to call them up to yet another struggle for their liberties and independence. He was the grandson of Robert Bruce, the competitor for the crown with Baliol, and was at this time about thirty years of age. His father and grandfather having adhered to the English interests in the late contests, or having perhaps been forcibly detained by Edward under his own eye, he had till now resided at the English court. That his detention

here was compulsory appears to be proved by the stratagem to which he was obliged to resort in order to make his escape from London. He had already been concerting his plans with some connexions in Scotland, when a friend, having learned that he was watched, but not venturing to give him direct warning, sent him one day, by a servant, a pair of spurs and a purse of money. Penetrating the hint, Bruce lost not a moment. Having ordered three horses to be shod with the shoes turned backward, in order to perplex his pursuers, he set off, accompanied by two trusty servants, in the middle of the same night. When his flight was discovered, horsemen were ordered to scour the country in all directions—but he eluded or outrode them; and on the 10th of February, 1306, which was the seventh day after he set out from London, he made his appearance in the midst of his friends, at his castle in Lochmaben, in Dumfriesshire. From this he immediately proceeded to Dumfries, where, in an interview in the Dominican church with John, called the "Red Comyn,"—who, after having become a party to the enterprise, is supposed to have expressed an inclination to recede from his engagement—he, in the heat of the dispute which arose between them, slew that nobleman with his dagger at the altar. From the manner in which the news of this deed of blood and sacrilege was received by the Scots, there is reason to think that Comyn was generally believed to have been engaged in the interest of the English king when his career was thus suddenly cut short, and to have been preparing to betray his friends and his country.

Many of Bruce's countrymen now gathered to their new leader, and having made his way to Scone without being opposed, he was crowned there on the 29th of March. A sudden reverse, however, was awaiting him. Edward now lost no time in collecting his strength, and a powerful force, under the command of Aymer de Valence, soon arrived in the neighborhood of the royal residence. An engagement took place on the 19th of June, at Methuen, near Perth, and ended in the total defeat and rout of the Scots. Several of Bruce's most distinguished adherents were here taken prisoners, and afterwards executed as rebels and traitors.

He himself was compelled to seek safety by flight. Having placed his wife, his two sisters, and his youngest brother Nigel in the castle of Kildrummie, in Aberdeenshire, where they soon after fell into the hands of the ruthless Edward, he himself retreated to the wilds of Breadalbane. "He was left," says Hollinshed, translating from the old Scottish chroniclers, "so desolate and unprovided of all friendship, that he was constrained for his refuge to withdraw into the woods, and mountains, with a few other in his company, and there lived on herbs and roots oftentimes for want of other food." "Yet," continues the narrative, "though he was thus left desolate of all aid and succor, having his brethren and other of his friends murdered and slain, to his utter discomfort and ruin, as was then supposed, he nevertheless lived ever in hope of some better fortune, whereby in time to come he might recover the realm out of the enemy's hands, and restore the ancient liberty thereof to the former estate. As for the pains which he took in living barely for the most part by water and roots, and lodging oft-times on the bare earth without house or other harborough, he was so accustomed thereto by haunting the wars in his youth that the same grieved him little or nothing at all. But to conclude: such was his valiancy and most excellent fortitude of mind and courage, that no injurious mischance

or froward adversity could abash his invincible heart and warlike stomach." He afterwards found it necessary to cross over from the mainland to one of the Hebrides, and eventually he took refuge in the small island of Rach-erin or Rach-rine, lying opposite to Ballycastle, on the coast of Ireland. From this he passed to the Isle of Arran; and, by the spring of 1307, he was again at the head of a considerable force in Ayrshire, and openly preparing to regain his crown. Edward now determined to march against him in person; and, having collected another great army, had advanced nearly to the Border at its head. But heaven averted from the land which had been already swept by so many similar visitations this new storm. The English king was suddenly taken ill at Carlisle, and died there on the 7th of July. This event broke up the expedition. Bruce was now left free to pursue his enterprise; assisted by his younger brother Edward and other gallant associates, he assailed and reduced one after another nearly all the strongholds in which English garrisons had been placed; and, in no long space, almost the whole of Scotland was once more his own.

Taking advantage of the indolent character of the new king of England, he even made various successful inroads into that country, and avenged by the plunder of his enemy a small part of what his subjects had again and again suffered in this protracted contest. In this state, things continued for some years, without any serious attempt being made by Edward to recover his father's conquests. At last, however, in the spring of 1314, the troubles in which the commencement of the reign of that king was involved having been somewhat composed, he determined to make a grand effort to crush the rebellion for ever; and, collecting the mightiest host which England had ever yet sent forth, he marched with it into the heart of Scotland. Every reader is aware of the issue, so glorious to Bruce and to the Scottish arms. The ever-memorable battle of Bannockburn, fought on the 25th of June, scattered Edward's proud armament like chaff before the wind, struck from Scotland the last link of her chain of bondage, relieved her from the curse of war for many years, and left the great hero of the day on the throne which so long as he lived was never again either shaken or assailed.

His reign did not close till the year 1329, when a disease, under which he had suffered during a great part of his life, at last brought him to his grave. This admirable king did not lose in peace the renown which he had gained in war; but, on the contrary, by the wisdom of his civil government, greatly heightened the fame which he had acquired over all Europe, as well as the love and honor in which he was held by his subjects at home. He was regarded in that age as in all things the model of a perfect knight; and one name only, that of the Emperor Henry of Luxembourg, was placed in the popular estimation before that of Bruce. It is related that upon one occasion, in the presence of Edward II., an English herald ventured even to defend the claim of the Scottish king to take precedence of the Emperor; "for the valiant acts," said he, "achieved by Henry may be ascribed rather to the wisdom of his counsellors than to his own valiantness and prudence; but contrarily, King Robert, being confined out of his country, and destitute of friends and all convenient aid, recovered the realm of Scotland, by his singular manhood, out of the hands of your noble father, and established it with such tranquillity, that he appeared more terrible to his enemies of England than ever they had been afore to his subjects of

of Scotland." His history, as related in detail by the old chroniclers, abounds in instances of the lofty generosity of his nature, and the clemency and kindliness which ever tempered and graced his valor. "The commendations of which King Robert," says Francis Boteuile, in his Additions to Holinshed, "Buchanan setteth forth (to comprehend many things in few words) to be, that he was every way a most worthy person, and that there were few to be found, from the former heroical days, equal unto him in all kinds of virtue; for as he was in battle most valiant, so was he in peace most temperate and just. And though his undivided good success and perpetual course of victories (after that fortune was once satisfied or rather wearied with his misfortunes) were very great, yet he seemeth to Buchanan to be far more wonderful in his adverse fortune; whose valor of mind was such that it could not be broken, no, not so much as weakened, by so many evils as happened unto him at one time; whose singular constancy appeared by the captivity of his wife and the death of his valiant brethren; and, besides that, his friends were at one time vexed with all kinds of calamities, and they which escaped death were banished, with the loss of their substance; he himself was not only spoiled of all his patrimony, but of his kingdom also, by the mightiest king of that age, Edward I., king of England, a man most ready in council, and of dispatch of his affairs as well in war as peace. Yea, so far was this Bruce oppressed at one time with all these kinds of evils, that he was driven into extreme poverty: in all which misfortunes he never doubted of the recovery of the kingdom; neither did or said anything unbeseeming the noble mind of a king; for he offered no violent hands to himself, as did the later Cato and Marcus Brutus; neither with Marius did he pursue his enemies with continual hatred. For when he had recovered his former estate, he so lived with them that had most occasioned his labor and trouble, that he rather remembered himself to be a king over them and not an enemy unto them. To conclude, he did not so forsake himself towards the end (when a grievous disease added troubles to age) but that he confirmed and established the present estate of the kingdom, and provided for the quiet of posterity, whereby his subjects did not so much lament his death as that they were deprived of so just a king and godly father."

RICHMOND CASTLE.

THE origin of the town of Richmond, in the North Riding of Yorkshire, England, dates from a few years after the conquest. Earl Edwin, who, before that event, possessed the part of the country in which Richmond is situated, was perhaps the most powerful of the Saxon nobles, being, in addition to the extensive lands of which he was lord, nearly allied by blood to the royal family. It was not to be supposed that a person occupying such a position as his would yield anything beyond a forced submission to the Norman invaders. We find the young and brave Earl, accordingly, at the head of two vigorous attempts successively made by those of his nation, to recover the independence of their country, within

RICHMOND CASTLE.

the first three years after the arrival of William. He was pardoned for his participation in the first; but on the second occasion after the revolt had been suppressed, he was betrayed by some persons in whose fidelity he had confided, and notwithstanding a gallant defence overpowered and slain. His assassins carried his head to William, in hopes of obtaining a reward for the deed; when the stern Norman is said to have shed tears at the sight, and, instead of bestowing upon them preferment or gold, to have commanded that the perpetrators of the crime should be banished from the kingdom. Before this, however, he had stripped the Saxon Earl of his broad domains, and transferred them to a follower and kinsman of his own, Alan, Count of Bretagne, to whom he also sometime after gave his daughter Hawise in marriage. By this gift it is said that Count Alan was put in possession of no fewer than two hundred manors and townships. It was he who, to protect himself and his property from the hostile population, in the midst of whom he came to establish himself, built the castle of Richmond, around which the town was probably soon formed by his Norman retainers.

After Alan's death, the Earldom of Richmond descended to a son of Hawise by a former husband, she having left no children by the Count of Bretagne. After this, the dignity was held successively by various families. It was at length erected into a dukedom, by Henry VIII. in favor of his natural son by the daughter of Sir John Blount, who died in 1535, at the age of seventeen. The dukedom fell to the present family in the reign of Charles II., and with it the Castle of Richmond.

The castle has long been a complete ruin. Leland, who saw it in 1534, speaks of it in his Itinerary as even then fallen into decay and deserted. Yet it does not appear to have suffered from any siege, or other species of violence. Neglect alone would seem to have reduced it to its present condition. It certainly has not been inhabited at least since the year 1485, when it came into the possession of the Crown, by the accession of Henry VII., who was previously Earl of Richmond.

The town and castle stand on elevated ground on the north bank of the river Swale. The site of the castle which is between the river and the town, occupies a space of about six acres. Except on the north side, or that next the town, the fortress, from the natural advantages of its position, must have been quite inaccessible. The ground on which it is built is elevated to the height of fully one hundred feet above the stream, the precipice being broken into two parts about midway down by a walk eight or nine feet broad, which runs under the castle wall. The portion of the hill above the walk is faced with large stones, so as to give it almost the appearance of a rock. On the west side of the castle is a deep valley, which is probably artificial; and the Swale also winds round the east side, where the descent is much more gradual. On the north there was formerly a moat, which, however, has been long filled up and obliterated. The whole was originally surrounded by a high wall, strengthened at intervals with towers, and measuring not less than half a mile in extent.

For a long time after its erection, Richmond Castle was probably unrivaled in England for either extent or strength. It was a military stronghold, constructed in every part with a view to defence. The old barons lived here in the condition of petty sovereigns, and kept the surrounding country in awe and subjection for many miles around.

The principal portion of the edifice that now remains is an immense square tower on the north side, said to have been built about the middle of the twelfth century. It measures fifty-four feet in one direction, by forty-eight in another; and the walls are ninety-nine feet in height, and eleven in thickness. Above these, pinnacles rise from the four corners. This tower has consisted originally of three stories, the lowest of which is supported by a massive stone pillar placed under the center of its arched roof. The roofs of the two upper stories have fallen in; and a winding staircase, which formerly no doubt ascended to the top, now reaches only to the height of the middle apartment. There is a well of excellent water within this tower. At the south-east corner of the castle there is the ruin of a small tower, in the bottom of which is found a dungeon about fourteen feet in depth. And there is another tower at the south-west corner, round and narrow, and of considerable height, to which there is no entrance except from the top. It was probably used as a prison.

Ruined and desolate as it is, the aspect of Richmond Castle is still singularly majestic and imposing. Its venerable antiquity, its vast extent, its commanding position, and the massiveness and lofty altitude of those parts of the structure which time has not yet overthrown, all contribute to fill the mind with a sense of sublimity in gazing upon its broken arches and ivy-mantled towers. The effect is powerfully aided by the character of the surrounding landscape, which, towards the north-west especially, has much of the grandeur of highland scenery.

Viewed from the surrounding hills, the town and castle of Richmond, notwithstanding their elevation above the ground in their immediate neighborhood, seem to lie at the bottom of a valley. It is extremely probable that the place has derived its name, Richmont, or the Rich Mount, from its eminent natural attractions. Richmond in Surrey is said to have been so named in a much later age on the same account. The scenery around the latter celebrated spot, however, it has been remarked, differs essentially in character from that in the midst of which the Yorkshire Richmond is placed,—the beautiful being the prevailing ingredient in the one, while of the other landscape, a wild and stern grandeur may rather be said to be the predominant expression. With this, which is however intermingled and relieved in many places by the richest attractions of a softer kind, the old and frowning ruin to which our notice relates, is admirably in keeping.

CHARTRES.

CHARTRES, the principal town of the department of the Eure and Loire, is about sixty-five miles south-west of Paris, on the road which passes through Versailles and Rambouillet to Tours. It is one of the oldest towns in France, and was known to the ancients under the names of Autricum and Carnutum. During the middle ages it was

CATHEDRAL PORCH—CHARTRES.

frequently taken and pillaged, and in the fifteenth century it was for a considerable period in the possession of the English; but it was retaken by Dunois. In 1568 the Protestant party, then in arms, besieged Chartres, but without success. In 1591, when France was torn by internal contests, the town was taken by Henry IV. Three years afterwards he was crowned in the Cathedral; that of Rheims, in which this ceremony had always been performed, not being in his possession; or, as is sometimes stated, the prelate of Rheims being considered a disaffected person, the monarch transferred his favors to Chartres. At the village of Bretigny, a short distance from Chartres, a treaty was signed between the French and English, by which the French King, who had been taken prisoner at the battle of Poictiers, in 1356, was restored to his country.

The ancient defences of the town are destroyed, but the houses in many parts of it still retain the appearance which is peculiar to the domestic edifices of the middle ages, standing with their many-gabled fronts towards the narrow and crooked streets; the wood with which they are constructed exhibiting curious specimens of the carver's art. Some of the houses have little towers, which are still more characteristic of the period referred to. The town stands on an eminence, and is divided into the upper and lower town; the former being the most modern, contains the principal inns, the post-office, and other public buildings. Nevertheless the place of St. Peter, which is in the old town, is very agreeably ornamented by alleys of trees. The old ramparts are converted into a Boulevard, which is much frequented as a promenade. The finest public walk is the Place des Barricades, which is beyond the walls. Three of the old gates are standing, the most remarkable of which is the Porte Guillaume. The communication between the upper and lower town is by pathways so steep as totally to exclude the use of carriages.

The spires of the cathedral are visible twenty-five miles before the traveler reaches Chartres, from whatever quarter he approaches the town; and yet it is not possible to obtain a complete view of this fine old edifice, so closely is it surrounded by other buildings. One of the spires is heavy and without ornament, if we except the stones being cut like the scales of a fish, the effect of which is singular rather than pleasing. This spire seems always to be leaning, from whatever point it is viewed. This is owing to the angle which faces the spectator being so straight as to appear as if it were entirely vertical. The other spire is enriched with ornaments towards the middle; but as they are not continued throughout, the effect is not harmonious. The steeples of Chartres are about 306 feet high; that of Strasburg is 492 feet in height. There is in France an old saying to the effect that all the requisites for a perfect church would be combined by adopting the entrance of the Cathedral of Rheims, the nave of that of Amiens, the choir of Beauvais, and the steeple of Chartres. The entrance to the cathedral is by a porch, a portion of which is represented in the cut. The obscurity which reigns in the interior is so great, that except the day be bright, it is not possible to read small print. This is owing to the thickness of the glass, and to its being highly stained. Along the exterior of the choir there are forty-three niches, filled with groups, illustrative of Scripture history, above which are delicately executed Gothic ornaments, and beneath, Arabesque ornaments, equally graceful. The interior part of the choir contains representations in effigy of various scenes in the life of

Christ, executed in Carrara marble by Bridan; and one to commemorate a vow made by Louis XIII. in this cathedral. The choir is surrounded by a double range of lateral naves, sustained by thirty-two pillars. In the middle of the nave the pavement is laid in a spiral form, and is popularly called "la lieue," from the belief that the length of the circles, if traced from their commencement, would be equal to a league. The nave is supported by a single row of sixteen pillars; eight sustain the cross, making altogether fifty-six pillars. The principal altar is remarkable for a collossal group in marble of the Assumption of the Virgin, which was executed in 1773 by Bridan. This work had very nearly been destroyed during the Revolution, but was saved by one of the inhabitants, who proposed changing the Virgin into the Goddess of Liberty, and accordingly placed a Phrygian cap on her head. The group is supported by five columns, which stand in the lower church. This latter portion of the Cathedral, previous to the destruction, during the Revolution, of the chapels and effigies which it contained, was one of the most complete of its kind in France. It is not at present generally exhibited to visitors, though highly curious and picturesque.

CITY OF CARLISLE.

THE city of Carlisle is rich in historic associations; and its castle especially, though now left with a garrison, was long one of the most famous military strongholds. Both it and the Cathedral are built of a reddish freestone, which it must be acknowledged is but little favorable to architectural beauty. The latter edifice, in its oldest parts, appears to be of Saxon times, and it was once of great extent; but during the Commonwealth the greater part of the western or longest limb of the cross which it formed was pulled down, and has not since been rebuilt. What remains of the nave is now used as one of the parish churches, while the cathedral service is performed in the choir. The Castle is supposed to have been begun in the reign of William Rufus, and, therefore, dates from the latter part of the eleventh century. In those days, however, Carlisle was occasionally in the hands of the Scots as well as of the English; and much of the castle is said to have been erected by David I. of Scotland, who took the town in 1135. It was not finally annexed to England till the year 1237, in the reign of Henry III.

Since that date Carlisle has undergone many sieges. The last was that which it sustained in the rebellion of 1745, when it was taken by the Pretender, who was here formally proclaimed as king in the presence of all the municipal authorities in their robes. The garrison, however, which he left in the place, was very soon after compelled to surrender to the Duke of Cumberland.

CITY OF CARLISLE—ENGLAND.

A century before this the town and castle sustained one of the most memorable sieges recorded in English history. On the breaking out of the civil war, the place had been taken possession of by the royal forces; and it was held by Sir Thomas Glenham, Commander-in-chief for the king in the north, when, in October, 1644, it was attacked by a division of the parliamentary army under the command of General Lesley. The besiegers were about 4000 in number, while the garrison with the armed citizens did not exceed 700. An interesting narrative of this siege has been preserved among the Harleian Manuscripts in the British Museum, written by a person of the name of Isaac Tullie, who was in the town all the time; and from the summary of Tullie's account, as given by Mr. Lysons in his *Magna Britannia*, vol. iv., we extract the following particulars:—

"At Christmas all the corn was taken from the citizens, and a ration distributed weekly to each family, according to their numbers. The cattle were seized also and distributed in like manner, no more being given to the owner than to any other, except the head, heart, and liver. * * * April 3.—They had only thatch for the horses, all other provisions being exhausted. May 10.—A fat horse taken from the enemy sold for 10*s.* a quarter. May 23.—Provisions almost spent. May 30.—News that the king was come into Westmoreland. The garrison that day ate three days' provisions, and repented with a cup of cold water for three days after. * * June 5.—Hempseed, dogs, and rats were eaten. The citizens so shrunk that they could not choose but laugh one at another to see their clothes hang on them as upon men on gibbets, for one might put one's head and fists between the doublets and shirts of many of them. June 17.—Some officers and soldiers came to the common bakehouse, and took away all the horse-flesh from the poor people, who were as near starving as themselves. June 22.—The garrison had only half a pound of horse-flesh each for four days. June 23.—The townsmen petitioned Sir Thomas Glenham that the horse-flesh might not be taken away, and said they were not able to endure the famine any longer; several women met at the cross, abusing Sir Henry Stradling, the governor, who threatening to fire on them, they begged it as a mercy, when he went away with tears in his eyes, but said he could not mend their commons. The surrender was on the 25th. A curious feint was practised, to impress the besiegers with the idea that the reports of the distress of the garrison were untrue, a few days before the surrender. An officer sent in by General Lesley, two days following, was sent back in a state of intoxication, from the contents of the only barrel of ale which had been in the garrison for several months, and which had been brewed and preserved for some such purpose, by Dr. Barwell, the chancellor, with the privity of the governor."

One of the most singular instances on record of a great military fortress being broken into by surprise, is that of the famous border exploit of the deliverance of the Scottish freebooter, William Armstrong, of Kinninmonth, commonly called Kinmont Willie, from the donjon keep of Carlisle Castle. The historical facts of this achievement, which was effected on the 13th of April, 1596, will be found copiously detailed and illustrated in Scott's "Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border."

CITY OF BARCELONA—SPAIN.

BARCELONA.

AS the early navigators of the Archipelago crept along the coasts of the Mediterranean, making themselves acquainted first with the shores nearest to them, and soon afterwards with those more distant, it is extremely probable that the suggestions of antiquarians, which assign to Barcelona a high degree of antiquity, are in the main correct. Barcelona, like Marseilles, was most probably a Greek colony. Its Latin name was Barcinona, and it is said to have been so called after Hannibal Barcino, a Carthaginian general. The Romans, Goths, Moors, and French have successively been masters of the town. During the middle ages it was governed by its own sovereigns, who held the title of Counts of Barcelona; but their possessions passed into the hands of the kings of Arragon, and finally were reunited to the Spanish monarchy. In 1706 Barcelona resisted the pretensions of Philip V. to the Spanish throne, and sustained a siege which, though unsuccessful, afforded decisive proofs of the heroism of the Catalonian character. Barcelona has experienced on many occasions the calamitous effects of war. It endured no less than five sieges in the course of sixty-two years, including the one to which we have alluded, which were attended with the usual effects on public interests and individual prosperity. In 1715, after the siege of the preceding year, the population was reduced to 37,000 souls. In the course of half a century, the continuance of peace being favorable to industry, wealth accumulated, and the population had increased, in 1769, to 54,000; eighteen years afterwards it had more than doubled, being 111,410. Thus, not only had the town been enabled to afford the means of livelihood to the inhabitants, who in consequence of the state of comfort in which they were generally placed had rapidly increased in number, but the progress of enterprise was sufficiently active to create a demand for the services of the adjoining population. In 1821 the yellow fever ravaged Barcelona in a most disastrous manner, and it is computed that one-fifth of the inhabitants became its victims. But the infliction of a pestilence produces less effect on men's interests than the continual influence of those alarms which exist during a war, or when a country is torn by internal contests; and accordingly we find that, in 1830, nine years after the yellow fever had ravaged the town, the population had increased to 160,000 inhabitants. When Spain shall be more peaceful and industrious, and when the Levant becomes a more active scene of commerce, the intercourse of Barcelona with Turkey, with Greece, and Egypt, and the eastern shores of the Mediterranean generally, cannot fail to increase. This result will be the consequence both of the geographical position of Barcelona, and of the character of the Catalonians.

Laborde gives the following character of the Catalonians:—"The Catalonians are proud, haughty, violent in their passions, rude in discourse and in action, turbulent, untractable, and passionately fond of independence; they are not particularly liberal, but active, industrious and indefatigable; they are sailors, husbandmen, and builders, and run to all corners of the

world to seek their fortunes. They are brave, intrepid, sometimes rash, obstinate in adhering to their schemes, and often successful in vanquishing, by their steady perseverance, obstacles which would appear insurmountable to others."

Barcelona stands on a gentle eminence, between two rivers, and open to the sea on the east, north-east, and south-east. The river Bergos runs to the north and south-east of the town, and on the south the river Llobregat. The country is mountainous to the north and north-east. The latitude of Barcelona is 41° 21′ and a few seconds. The climate is temperate, the winters are mild, and the summers not too hot; but although the seasons, in their general character, are not irregular, yet in a single day great vicissitudes are frequently experienced at Barcelona. The east wind frequently blows, and the neighboring elevations often occasion rain. The town is defended by a citadel, situated at its north-eastern extremity. The port is below the citadel, and between the town and Barcelonetta. It is chiefly artificial, being formed by piers, solid quays, and the ramparts of the town. The sand which the waves and tides bring into the port is removed at considerable trouble and expense. The town is divided into two unequal parts by a promenade, ornamented with rows of trees. The new town is the smallest, and contains the best houses. The streets are narrow, crooked, and badly paved in the old town. The best houses are of simple and rather pleasing appearance, from four to five stories high, and have large windows and balconies. Many of the houses are adorned externally with paintings in fresco. The public edifices are the cathedral, churches, convents, the palace in which the ancient Cortes held their sittings, that in which the Counts of Barcelona resided, the custom-house, exchange, theatre, &c. The cathedral was begun in the thirteenth century, but is not yet completely finished. There are about thirty fountains in Barcelona, in the various squares and public places. The town possesses several colleges, three public libraries, a school for the deaf and dumb, an academy of arts and sciences, and one of belles lettres, and a botanic garden. Barcelonetta is a suberb of Barcelona, and is inhabited chiefly by sailors.

The environs of Barcelona are highly beautiful. Though the Catalonians are distinguished for their habits of economy, yet their passion for a country residence is the one which they are least capable of opposing; and there is no city in Europe of an equal size which possesses so many country-houses in its neighborhood. It is not the richer class who alone enjoy the advantages and pleasures of the country; these residences, ornamented according to the taste and circumstances of each of their occupiers, form a most agreeable diversity in the prospects around the town, especially when the town itself and an extensive view of the sea are included, as they may be from certain places. In a fine day, the eye may wander with delight over this agreeably varied landscape.