CALIFORNIA.

CALIFORNIA was first discovered from the East, and strangely enough, about the year 1537, by a Spaniard named Alvaro Nuñez, surnamed Cabeza de Vaca, one of the three hundred Spaniards who, after having landed on the coast of Florida with Panfilo de Narvaez, escaped massacre. Cast into regions of country unknown to him, amid savage tribes, he wandered for many years across the region which was subsequently called by the French Louisiana, and reached ultimately the coast of Cubiacan, in Sonora, opposite the lower portion of Old California. While there he heard grand stories of the wealth of ulterior regions, and on his return told strange tales of the marvels he had seen, of the dangers he had undergone, and of the wealth of that till then unknown land. Far from doubting his veracity, every one thought that he did not tell all he had accomplished; and many went so far as to say that God had manifestly preserved him to save his companions, and to cure the Indians of the maladies which afflicted them. De Vaca did not contradict this idea, and assured his auditors that all California was strewn with pearls.

About the same time, another person also contributed to the marvelous. This was Marcos de Nizza, a missionary sent, at the request of Las Casas, to convert the Indians of Sonora, and who went far beyond the northern end of the coast of California. He gratified the imagination of the Spaniards, by a fantastic picture of the civilization of these countries, amid which, based on the stories but half understood of a few Indians, he placed the Cibola and seven other large cities, with houses of stone, two stories high, arabesque doors, and a king who used none but golden utensils. All this seemed long improbable, but it is now likely, from the fact of the ruins of the Rio Gila, recently surveyed and sketched by Major Emory, U. S. A., that the good father saw or ascertained from good authority all he described. The Maricopo Indians preserve to this day the following tradition of the origin of these strange ruins:

"In by-gone days, a woman of surpassing beauty resided in a green spot in the mountains, near the place where we were then encamped. All the men paid their court to her. She received the tributes of their devotion grain, skins, &c., but gave no love or other favor in return. Her virtue and her determination to remain unmarried were equally firm. There came drought which threatened the world with famine. In their distress, the people applied to her. She gave corn from her stock, and the supply seemed endless. Her goodness was unbounded. One day as she was lying asleep, with her body exposed, a drop of rain fell upon her stomach, which produced conception. A son was the issue, who was the founder of a new race, which built these houses."—*Emory's Report*, pp. 82, 83.

The above fable recalls the Hellenic myth of Danaë, Jupiter and the shower of gold.

The relation of Marcos Nizza had the effect of causing a new expedition to be sent out under Vasquez de Coronado, who, passing into the unknown

countries to the north-west of New Spain, added new fables to those already existing in relation to the country north and west of the Colorado and Gila. This expedition effected nothing but to give currency to the belief in the existence of a Mexican El Dorado, in the shape of the great kingdom of Tartarax and the city of Quivira, on the shores of Lake Tegnayo, now known as Utah Lake. The general belief, at the time, was that Coronado could not force his way amid a hostile population, and that though brave and ambitious, he was anxious to return to a young, beautiful and rich wife he had recently married. The less a country is known, the more easily is confidence placed in its mineral resources; and the Spaniards were as willing to believe in fables of miraculous wealth of California, as we are. They had, however, nothing on which to base their opinion; while, in our own time, we have an absolute certainty.

The exaggeration of the Spanish conquerors and monks yet adheres to Mexico, so that a few miserable huts frequently were called a city, and a cross on a mountain or in a valley was known as a mission. Thus it continues with California, where a population of twenty thousand is strewn over a country more extended than Great Britain, and where the names of cities, named after every saint in the calendar, but without population, perpetually recur.

Long before the over-land discovery of California, many voyages had been made in the Pacific, and as early as 1541, just fifty years after the discovery of America, Ulloa, in an expedition undertaken by order of Cortez, had ascertained California to be a portion of the continent, for as such it is depicted by the pilot Castillo, in the chart he constructed in Mexico at that time. In spite of this, as late as the day of Charles II. of Spain, California was frequently marked and called the *islas Carolinas*. After having been visited, from time to time, by the pearl fishermen from Xalisco, Acapulco, and Chacola, Sebastian Viscaino took formal possession of it in 1596. About forty-six years after, the Jesuits established themselves there, and formed some establishments—first in Lower California, but which gradually were extended beyond the Peninsula. They had to contend for a time with the Brothers of Saint Francis, who had long sought to introduce themselves among the Indians. The Jesuits were brought into contact with the most stupid of all the American tribes, who were as ferocious as beasts, and incapable of understanding the obligation of a benefit. For a long time they were unprotected by military posts and suffered greatly. Their circumstances, however, at last changed, as their services became known and appreciated, and not only the spiritual government of California was confided to them, but it was ordered by the highest authority, that all military men, even the commandant of the post at Loretto, should obey the orders of the Father President.

Between 1697 and 1721, three Jesuits, Ugarte, Salvatierra, and Kuhn, made detailed examinations of the Californian Sea and Gulf. Then only was it known in Europe that Castillo's chart was correct. The monks were the true conquerors of California, subjecting it to the Romish faith. Their establishments, in both the Californias, continued in full vigor until 1760. Their progress had been great, for they were masters of sixteen chief missions, dependent on which were more than forty villages. The Jesuits, in all their acts in California, displayed such apostolic zeal, that much of the wrong alleged to have been done by them there, may on that

account be forgiven them. Fanaticism was not their guide, for they came to California with curiosities to amuse the attention of the Indians, and succeeded in inducing them to lay aside the hatred a series of wrongs had taught them to attach to the very name of Spaniard. After the expulsion of the order of Jesus from the dominions of Spain, in 1767, the guidance of California was confided to the Franciscans and the monks of Saint Dominic of Mexico; and the prosperity the more intelligent companions of Saint Ignatius had created soon began to decay.

The reason of the great improvement of the Indians of California, while all the other tribes of Mexico were degenerating, is obvious enough. The object of the *real audiencia de las Indeas*, the representative of Spain and the king, was to make slaves of the Americans. The Pope was never the head of the Mexican Church, which depended upon the king alone; consequently priests, soldiers and civilians all pandered to his power. California, however, while under the control of the order of Loyola, was exempted from its influence. The clergy were priests indeed, and toiled for their cures as faithfully as ever man tóiled in such a cause. Therefore California under their charge improved, and under the Dominicians became as degraded as any portion of Mexico.

This is not the place to go fully into a recital of that series of atrocities, on both sides, which separated Mexico from the Spanish crown. The part which California played was too insignificant to be recorded in the general history of the world, and is now almost forgotten. At the time of the Mexican Revolution, the Governor of California was a native of the province named Arguello. Nothing recorded in history has ever equaled the contempt with which the Spaniards always treated even those of their own country who were creoles, or born in Mexico. Animated by this feeling, a Spanish officer, named Noniga, opposed Arguello, who, to silence this opposition, most imprudently placed Noniga in command of a presidio at Santa Barbara, from which, for misconduct, he was almost immediately dismissed, and attempted to excite the Mexicans against the Californians, and to impress them with his own feelings. The evil of this course was soon apparent, and the Government set about correcting this state of affairs immediately. They immediately consulted the Dominican friars, who had succeeded the Jesuits, and offered all who remained the choice of Northern or Southern California. The old priests went south of San Miguel, while the missions north of that post were confided to younger monks from the college of Zacatecas. This made matters worse, for the new monks, far the inferiors in all respects of the older friars, proved totally unfit for their position.

The only other portion of the history of California which should detain us, until we come to the conquest of that country by the United States, is the circumstance of the seizure of Monterey, in 1842, by Commodore Thomas Ap Catesby Jones, of the navy of the U. S. That officer, while cruising off the coast of Peru, was informed that the British Government had negotiated a treaty with Santa Anna for the transfer of California, and that an English fleet was about to sail from the Sandwich Islands for Monterey, to make the sale effective. Commodore Jones, under the circumstances, thought himself justified in seizing on Monterey, so that any instructions which may have been sent to the English Admiral, Lord George Paulet, proved abortive. The treaty, in fact, if meditated, was

never negotiated, and Monterey was returned to the Mexican authorities.

Immediately after the commencement of the war between the United States of the North and of Mexico became certain, and probably before, the Government at Washington issued orders to the naval commander in the Pacific, John D. Sloat, Esq., to occupy as much of California as he could, in case of a declaration of war. On May 13th, 1846, war having begun, Commodore Sloat was ordered to establish a blockade, and on May 16th, 1846, Mr. Bancroft, Secretary of the Navy, wrote him a letter containing the following passages:

"You will consider the most important public object to be, to take and to hold possession of San Francisco; and this you will do without fail.

"You will also take possession of Mazatlan and Monterey, one or both, as your force will permit.

"If information received here is correct, you can establish friendly relations between your squadron and the inhabitants of each of these three places.

"A connection between California, and even Sonora, and the present government of Mexico is supposed scarcely to exist. You will, as opportunity offers, conciliate the confidence of the people in California, and also in Sonora, toward the government of the United States; and you will endeavor to render their relations with the United States as intimate and as friendly as possible."

On June 3d, 1846, Col. S. W. Kearney, 1st dragoons, was ordered to take possession of New Mexico and Upper California; orders which he executed by one of the most masterly marches on record. These orders were the commencement of the official connection of the United States with California, although six years before, the country had been surveyed and topographically delineated, by the orders of the President of the U. S. to the Exploring Expedition commanded by Lieut. Wilkes, U. S. N.

Castro was then commandant of the country, and Pico governor. The former commenced a series of measures offensive to the foreigners, which led to a difficulty between him and Fremont, who was then busy in making some surveys in that country, being connected with the U. S. topographical engineers. A party of Americans seized and held Sonoma. Castro published a proclamation, calling on the people to defend themselves and their country, but promising protection to all foreigners who were peaceful. A person who was then in California thus describes what followed the outbreak:

"Fremont went to the Sacramento to arouse the American settlers; but scarcely had he arrived there, when an express reached him from the garrison of Sonoma, with information that Castro's whole force was crossing the bay to attack that place. This intelligence was received in the afternoon of the 23d of June, while he was on the American fork of the Sacramento, eighty miles from the little garrison at Sonoma; and at two o'clock on the morning of the 25th, he arrived at that place with ninety riflemen from the American settlers in that valley. The enemy had not yet appeared. Scouts were sent out to reconnoitre, and a party of twenty fell in with a squadron of seventy dragoons (all of Castro's force which had crossed the bay), attacked and defeated it, killing and wounding five, with-

out harm to themselves; the Mexican commander, De la Torre, barely escaping with the loss of his transport boats, and nine pieces of brass artillery, spiked.

"The country north of the bay of San Francisco being cleared of the enemy, Lieut. Col. Fremont returned to Sonoma on the evening of the 4th of July, and, on the morning of the 5th, called the people together, explained to them the condition of things in the province, and recommended an immediate declaration of independence. The declaration was made, and he was selected to take the chief direction of affairs. The attack on Castro was the next object. He was at Santa Clara, an intrenched post on the upper or south side of the Bay of San Francisco, with 400 men and two pieces of field artillery. A circuit of more than one hundred miles must be traversed to reach him. On the 6th of July the pursuit was commenced, by a body of 160 mounted riflemen, commanded by Col. Fremont in person, who, in three days, arrived at the American settlements on the Rio de los Americanos. Here he learnt that Castro had abandoned Santa Clara, and was retreating south, toward Ciudad de los Angelos, the seat of the governor-general of the Californias, and distant 400 miles. It was instantly resolved on to pursue him to that place. At the moment of departure, the gratifying intelligence was received that war with Mexico had commenced; that Monterey had been taken by our naval forces, and the flag of the United States there raised on the 7th of July; and that the fleet would coöperate with the army against Castro and his forces. The flag of independence was hauled down, and that of the United States hoisted amid the hearty greetings and to the great joy of the American settlers and forces under the command of Lieut. Col. Fremont.

"The combined pursuit was rapidly continued; and on the 12th of August, Commodore Stockton and Lieut. Col. Fremont, with a detachment of marines from the squadron and some riflemen, entered the City of the Angels without resistance or objection; the governor-general Pico, the commandant-general Castro, and all of the Mexican authorities, having fled and dispersed. Commodore Stockton took possession of the whole country as a conquest of the United States, and appointed Lieutenant-colonel Fremont governor, under the law of nations; to assume the functions of that office when he should return to the squadron."

The details of the revolt, the circumstances of Lieut. Col. Fremont (he had been promoted from a first lieutenancy of a semi-military corps to a lieutenant-colonelcy of the cavalry,) or of his bloodless capture of Pico at Wilson's rancho, do not greatly interest us here. It will not either be important to refer particularly to the pardon of Pico, who had been condemned to be shot by a court-martial of officers without commissions, or to dwell upon the entry into the Pueblo de los Angelos, on the 13th of January, 1847. At that place he found General Kearny and Commodore Stockton.

General Kearny left Santa Fe in September, 1846, with 100 mounted dragoons, and attacked and defeated a party of 160 Californians on the 6th of December, near San Pasqual, reached San Diego on the 12th, and and on the 29th left that place with 500 men, and dispersed a body of 600 of the enemy on the plains of the Mesa on the 8th and 9th of January, and on the 10th entered the Pueblo de los Angelos, where he was joined on the 13th by Col. Fremont.

Commodore Dallas having come to the coast of California, Commodore Stockton returned to the United States, and General Kearny assumed the power from which he had been kept by force. He subsequently pacified the whole country, in fact and in name, brought Col. Fremont to the United States, arrested him, and arraigned him before a court-martial. All that followed is a part of the history of the army, not of California. General Kearny subsequently served in Mexico, and on the conclusion of peace returned home, where he sickened and died. The gold mines of California will ever be esteemed a monument of his skill and prudence, for but for him they might have been lost to the nation.

The rich gold diggings of California were discovered in 1848 by mere accident. There is no doubt but in the early settlement of the country, the fact that the soil contained gold was well known to the Jesuits, but they supposed the quantities were so small it would never be profitable to search for it. The manner of its recent discovery was as follows:

Capt. Sutter is a native of Switzerland, and held a commission in the Swiss guards of Charles X. Disbanded in consequence of the Revolution of 1830, he emigrated to Western Missouri, and remained there until 1838 or '39, when he obtained from the Mexican Government a grant of land in California, upon which he immediately established himself. At first he had much difficulty with the Indians, but by conciliating their chiefs, and many acts of well-timed decision, he acquired over them perfect control. Col. Fremont, in his report, speaks of his works, all of which have been built chiefly by Indian labor, as in good order and condition. On application to the chief of a village, he obtained as many boys and girls as he would employ; and there were at that time a number in training for a woolen factory. He bought out the stock of a Russian establishment, the owners of which wished to leave the country, consisting of a large number of cattle, artillery, &c., and made payment for them annually in grain. His fort mounted twelve cannon, and held 1000 men, but was garrisoned with forty Indians in uniform. It is a quadrangular work, built of adobe or unburned brick. The whites in his employment are American, French, and German, all of whom are mechanics, and are provided within the works with shops, tools, and work. Around Capt. Sutter other persons have settled, on the Rio de los Americanos—all of whom, following his example, are thriving and prosperous. Previous to the war, Capt. Sutter's wealth consisted of cattle and the proceeds of his vast crops; but, by a lucky accident, he has become inseparably connected with the mineral, as he was with the agricultural prosperity of California.

Captain Sutter, feeling the great want of lumber, contracted in September, 1847, with a Mr. Marshall to build a saw-mill at that place. It was erected in the course of the following winter and spring, and a dam and race constructed; but when the water was let on the wheel, the tail-race was found to be too narrow to permit the water to escape with sufficient rapidity. Mr. Marshall, to save labor, let the water directly into the race with a strong current, so as to wash it wider and deeper. He effected his purpose, and a large bed of mud and gravel was carried to the foot of the race. One day Mr. Marshall, as he was walking down the race to this deposit of mud, observed some glittering particles at its upper edge; he gathered a few, examined them, and became satisfied of their value. He then went to the fort, told Capt. Sutter of his discovery, and they agreed

to keep it secret until a certain grist-mill of Sutter's was finished. It however got out and spread like magic. This led to a general search for it, and it was soon discovered in various portions of the country in great abundance.

No country in the world exhibits so great a diversity of soil, climate and fertility as California; and, strangely enough, the best, loveliest, and most inviting portion of the country is not upon the sea-coast, which, from the southern boundary to Cape Mendocino, in latitude 40°, is occupied by a high, broken ridge, reaching twenty miles into the interior. Between this range and a loftier one, known as the Sierra, is the valley of San Juan. Eastward of the Sierra is another broad valley, through which runs the river Sacramento, reaching as far as Monte San Bernardino, between which and the Sacramento it is known as the Buena Ventura. Farther back, towards the great Cordillera, is a continuation of the Cascade Range of Oregon, the summits of which are capped with perpetual snow. West of these are the great sandy plains, where no one but an Indian could exist. The lower portion of this country is extremely hot and dry, with the exception of a portion of the winter. As the distance from the equator however increases, the wet season is prolonged; so that at San Francisco it lasts from November to April, while during the rest of the year fogs and heavy dews keep the earth moist. Snow and ice are sometimes seen on the shores of the Bay of San Francisco, but never at a lower latitude, except indeed on the summits of the mountains. The rains are never heavy, and it sometimes chances that two years pass without rain. One would think, under such circumstances, the whole surface of the country would become parched and dried up. This, however, is not the case; for the numerous mountain streams and daily visit of the sea-breeze from the low temperature of the sea, always charged with vapor, suffice to sustain a peculiar vegetation, prolific in rare and beautiful plants, which the magnificent herds of California prove to be most nutritious. There must still, however, be great sufferings at these seasons. Only the country around San Francisco, and that near Monte San Bernardino, seem capable of sustaining a large agricultural population; but this is of small importance, as its immense commercial advantages must make it mistress of all the Pacific coast.

In 1825, Don Jose Echandia, a Mexican, succeeded Arguello, and governed prosperously until 1829, when the garrison of Monterey revolted, in consequence of not being paid with punctuality. The revolt was, however, put down by Echandia, who continued in power until 1831, when Don Manuel Victoria succeeded him. This officer by his tyrannical conduct produced a revolt, and in the first year of power was so severely wounded as to be incapable of discharging his functions. This insurrection became formidable from the fact that the Californians were aided by many foreigners, who on this occasion appear for the first time in the history of California. General Figuerra was the next governor, and his administration is still spoken of as the best and most humane the country had known between the revolution in 1822 and the advent of Gen. Kearny. He asked the Central Government to send him out two hundred artificers. Instead of that, two hundred *picarones* and *leperos* were sent to him from Mexico, who exerted as great an influence for evil as the old Jesuits had for good, and greatly corrupted the morals of the people, which hitherto had continued

strangely pure. Gen. Figuerra died in 1835, greatly regretted by the people, and a true loss to California.

Col. Chico came next, a perfect contrast to his predecessor; and having involved himself in a dispute with the Judge of the district, he was forced to resign, and delivered over his authority to Don Nicolas Gutierez, a lieutenant-colonel, who restored order completely. It may here be remarked, California had gradually decreased in importance, a fact to be inferred from the circumstance that the rank of the last two governors had each time been one grade less than that of their predecessor.

For some time past many foreigners had been gradually forming a colony in California. The majority of these were natives of the United States and trappers of the Rocky Mountains and the head-waters of the Columbia river. The peculiarly irritable disposition of these men made them always ready for excitement, and they participated largely in the troubles, opposing the new Governor. They were in favor of declaring California independent of Mexico, which evidently was unable to govern it. The Californians were a very ignorant people, and were easily persuaded by these men and many other aspirants for office, among whom was the Administrador of the Customs, and a lawyer of bad character named Penné, both of whom were Mexicans and members of the ultra-liberal or Yorkino faction. Alvarado, the Inspector of Customs, also joined them, and this trio sought to monopolize all office—at the same time they exhibited much distrust of the foreigners. The crisis came early in November, 1836, when the governor attempted to arrest Alvarado in consequence of some difficulty. The standard of revolt was raised at San Juan, whither Alvarado, had fled, and the influence of the priesthood not being exerted, the foreign party swept all before it. California was declared independent, and all foreigners who had borne arms, or assisted in the contest, were admitted to citizenship. On the 2d of November, at the instance of the foreigners, Alvarado at the head of two hundred men, entered Monterey, and immediately invested the Presidio in which the Mexican party and Gutierez were shut up. Twenty-five of Alvarado's men were American hunters, and Alvarado having obtained possession of some ship-guns from several American and English merchantmen in the harbor, on the 5th the Presidio was surrendered, under a promise that Gutierez' life and that of his men and officers should be spared, and they, if they wished it, not be sent out of the country. At this time, however, the courage of Alvarado failed, and he refused, on striking the Mexican colors, to hoist the new colors of California, which had been prepared. The consequence was, that California adhered to the Mexican union, simply pronouncing against Centralism. Alvarado was appointed governor, Vallejo commandant-general, Castro commandant of the militia, and Penné secretary of state. The foreigners were appeased by an act removing half the duties.

Contrary to stipulation it was determined to send the Mexicans out of the country, which was immediately done by means of the English merchant-brig Clementine. The governor then communicated what had occurred to the Central Government, and having received a supply of arms and money, though deserted by the American hunters, was able to extend his power over all the other presidios.

Thus things continued till 1840, when it appeared that the customs not producing a sufficient income, new imposts were levied on the foreigners,

who became dissatisfied. Alvarado at once determined to expel them from the country. To accomplish this a worthless Englishman named Gardner, was suborned to swear that a general plot had been formed by all foreigners to murder the governor and seize California, under the guidance of an American, named Graham, a hunter who lived at Nativetes. To arrest him, Castro was sent with an armed party, and succeeded in arresting him. Having done so, they committed many atrocities, having deliberately held down and cut the tendons of the legs of a man named Shard, who lived with him, and left him to die. In arresting Graham, they shot him while asleep, and then hurried him to Monterey, about twenty miles distant, where he was thrown into a dungeon, even more loathsome than Spanish and Mexican prisons usually are, and was put in heavy irons. More than sixty other foreigners were arrested at the same time in all parts of the country, and sent to San Blas in a vessel called the Guipiscoa. From San Blas they were marched in two days to Tepic, a port sixty miles distant. All the Englishmen there were protected by their consuls, returned to Monterey, and regained their property. This was not the case with the Americans, who obtained no remuneration. Graham only returned a broken-hearted man, and regained but a fragment of his fortune, which had consisted of five thousand dollars in specie, and three times that value in cattle. This alone might have been regarded as sufficient cause for the Mexican war, though Mr. Polk, in all probability, was not aware of the circumstance at the time of its commencement.

COLOGNE.

COLOGNE, called by the Germans Cöln, is situated in a district of the same name, which is one of the two divisions of the Prussian province of Jülich-Cleve-berg, so called from its containing the three old duchies of Jülich, or Juliers, Cleve, and Berg. Cologne is the capital of the whole province, and stands on the left or west bank of the Rhine, forming a kind of semicircle. The city is fortified, and with its numerous spires and large buildings, makes a good show from the opposite side of the river. It is about one hundred and seven miles east by north from Brussels. Cologne was an old Roman station, often mentioned in Tacitus, and took its name of Colonia Claudia Agrippinensis, or "the colony of Claudius and Agrippina," from Agrippina the daughter of Germanicus Cæsar, who was some time in these parts at the head of the Roman army. Agrippina, at the time when her name was given to the colony, was the fourth wife of her uncle, the feeble and worthless Emperor Claudius; and was born at this place while her illustrious father commanded in Germany. The Roman word "colonia," *colony*, has been corrupted by the French into Cologne, and by the Germans into Cöln.

Under the Germanic Empire, Cologne was a free Imperial city, and had both a seat and voice, as well in the Diets or Assemblies of Westphalia as in those of the Empire. At this time the Elector of Cologne occasionally resided here, as well as the Chapter of the Archbishop of Cologne, and a

CHURCH OF ST. MARTIN—COLOGNE.

Nuncio of the Pope. Urban VII. established a university here in 1388, to which succeeding popes granted privileges. It is still the seat of a Catholic Archbishopric, but the university as such no longer exists.

Cologne cannot, on the whole, be called a handsome city, its streets being crooked, narrow and dirty; but it has a great number of public buildings, and among them thirty-three churches and chapels. The cathedral is a noble building, 400 feet long and 180 wide, which, owing to its magnitude, is a conspicuous object from a distance, overtopping every other edifice in the city. The body of the cathedral is supported by 100 pillars. Two high towers were designed for this building, one of which is raised to only about half the height intended, and the other is hardly begun. Were the cathedral completed, it is generally allowed it would be one of the finest Gothic buildings in Europe. Behind the high altar is the chapel of the three holy kings, or three wise men, as they are sometimes called, made of marble. The shrine which contains the bodies is remarkable for the curious and elaborate ornaments with which it is decorated. The names of the three wise men, according to some accounts, are Gaspar, Melchior, and Balthasar, whose bones, as the story goes, were first taken to Constantinople by the Emperor Constantine's mother; thence they were transferred to Milan; and finally obtained a sumptuous mausoleum in Cologne. What the precise merits of Gaspar, Melchior, and Balthasar were, we have not been able to make out satisfactorily. The parish church of St. Peter contains the Crucifixion of the Apostle, one of Rubens' finest pictures, which he gave as a present to the church in which he received the rite of baptism. This distinguished painter was a native of Cologne. The picture traveled to Paris during the time when the French were so busy in appropriating to themselves all the valuable works of this kind which they could lay their hands on. After the downfall of Bonaparte it returned home.

In the church of St. Ursula we see the tomb of this holy virgin; and, as the legend would have us believe, the bones of her 11,000 virgin companions and martyrs. The church does, in fact, contain an immense number of bones; and in a certain chamber, some accounts say, there are, or were, several thousand skulls, arranged in good order, and adorned with garlands and coronets. The fact of the bones being there seems undoubted —the proof of their belonging to the holy virgins does not seem quite so clear.

Besides these, there are many other handsome churches in Cologne, one of which, the church of St. Martin, is represented in the engraving. This view is given, not so much for the beauty of the church, as to exhibit the general style of architecture in this old city.

THE ISLAND OF CAPRI.

THIS most picturesque of islands is situated under the same meridian as the city of Naples, which it immediately faces, and from almost every part of which it is constantly visible. It is, indeed, one of the finest and most striking features of the rich and varied scenery which

surrounds that capital. It stands at the entrance of the Neapolitan Gulf, almost on the line of the horizon; it is distant about two miles and a half from Cape Campanella, which terminates the bold promontory where Sorrento, Amalfi, and other towns of old fame, are situated; it is about twelve miles from Cape Miseno on the other side of the bay, and rather more than twenty from the city of Naples at the end of the bay. It is composed of hard, calcareous rocks, which are disposed in two picturesque masses with a considerable break or hollow between them. The highest of these two masses, which is to the west, and is called Anacapri, rises between sixteen and seventeen hundred feet above the level of the sea. The whole of the island, when seen at a little distance, looks so precipitous and inaccessible, that the stranger is disposed to wonder how the little towns and white villages he sees on the face of its cliffs ever got there. The color of the masses of rock, when not affected by the glow of sunset, is a pale, sober gray. Tracing all the indents and sinuosities of the rocks, the circumference of the island does not exceed nine miles: yet within this narrow space is crowded an astonishing variety of scenic beauties, remains of antiquity, and historical recollections. The entire surface of Capri is wild, broken, and picturesque. The ancient name of the island was Capreæ, and it is said it was so called from being inhabited by wild goats. According to antiquaries, its first human inhabitants were a colony of Greeks from Epirus, who, after many ages, were dispossessed by the citizens of Neapolis (Naples), which then formed part of Magna Græcia, and which, like all the places of note in that portion of Italy, owed its origin to the Greeks. The Roman Emperor Augustus seems to have taken entire possession of the island for himself, and to have given the Neapolitan citizens lands in the neighboring island of Ischia as an equivalent. Suetonius, the historian, has recorded a visit to Capri made by Augustus at the close of his life. With a shattered constitution and broken spirits, the world's master left Rome to find a place of quiet rest. Having recruited his spirits a little at Astura, on the shores of the Tyrrhenian sea, and near the mouth of the Tybur, he coasted Campania Felix, and, with a few chosen friends, arrived at Baiæ—the Brighton and Cheltenham united of ancient Rome. At Baiæ he took shipping for Capreæ. As his galley shot across the Puteolian bay, it was met by a trading vessel from Alexandria in Egypt, the crew of which, aware of the monarch's approach, had dressed themselves in white, and crowned their heads with chaplets; and, when he was still nearer to them, they burned incense before him, swearing to live for him, and for him to navigate the seas. These testimonials of affection, or this adulation, cheered for a moment the dying emperor. He distributed money among his followers, desiring them to spend it in purchasing the Alexandrian merchandize. At Capri, Augustus, determining to forget the cares of government, gave up his whole soul to ease and affable intercourse; but this secession from toil, and the enjoyment of the tranquillity and the balmy atmosphere of the place, and the magical scenery around him, could not restore the old and worn-out man, who died shortly after at the town of Nola in Campania, and almost within sight of the Island.

Capri is, however, much more memorable as being the constant retreat for several years of Augustus' successor, the execrable Tiberius. For the honor of human nature, it is to be hoped that those who have described the life and impurities of this systematic tyrant and debauchee have in some

ISLAND OF CAPRI.

CAVERN OF AZURIA.

instances sacrificed truth to eloquence and effect; but still enough will remain to excite our abhorrence, and our regret that his name should be associated with so beautiful a spot of earth. Shut up with the infamous ministers of his tyranny and lust in this rocky, inaccessible island, Tiberius ruled the vast Roman empire. It was here he committed or ordered to be committed some of the most atrocious of his cruelties; it was here he wrote the "verbose and grand Epistle" to the Senate at Rome, immortalized in its infamy by Juvenal; it was here the arbiter of the fate of millions trembled in his old age at what might be his own destiny, and sat on "the august rock of Capreæ with a Chaldean band"—a band of astrologers and impostors—to consult the stars. He here built twelve palaces or villas, which were all strongly fortified, and erected many other works, the ruins of which still bear his name. The poor islanders of the present day, indeed, attribute every ancient building or fragment found on the island to "Tiberio Cesare," whom they amusingly call "Emperor of Capri and King of Rome." It is also very amusing to hear how they talk traditionally of the tyrant, and of the deeds and vices recorded by Tacitus, Suetonius, and Juvenal.

The sail from Naples to Capri on a fine summer evening, when favored by the *vento di terra*, or land breeze from the main, is one of the most delightful that can be imagined. The only accessible point in the island is called the Sbarco di Capri, or the landing-place. This is below the town of Capri, to which there is an ascent by means of a rude Cyclopean flight of steps, steep and rugged in the extreme. A few fortifications might render the island altogether inaccessible to an enemy, and entitle Capri to the name that was commonly given to it during the last war, viz. the Little Gibraltar. During a certain part of that long struggle, when the French arms had driven the king of the two Sicilies from Naples to Sicily, the English held the island for that sovereign. They kept possession of it during the whole of the short reign at Naples of Joseph Bonaparte; but when he went to Spain, and Murat replaced him in Italy, it was attacked with an imposing force, and, being most absurdly defended, it fell into the hands of the French.

The principal town, or, as it is pompously called, the "metropolis of Capri," stands on a shelving rock towards the east of the island. It consists of a group of some two or three hundred small but tolerably neat houses, five or six churches and chapels, with a confined piazza, or square, in the midst. It is surrounded by vineyards and orchards, and some small olive groves stand on ledges of the cliffs above it. There is only one more town in the island. This is called Anacapri, and is situated high up, on a narrow ledge of the western mass of rock that goes by the same name. The fishermen, sailors, and traders live in the chief town, and the lower parts of the island and Anacapri are almost solely inhabited by frugal, industrious peasants. It is one of the cleanest places that eye can behold. Its inhabitants communicate with the other town and all the east of the island by means of a flight of 538 steps which zigzag in a curious manner down the face of a precipice. On a still loftier precipice, in the rear of the town of Anacapri, are the picturesque ruins of a castle of the middle ages.

The villages, if groups of three or four vine-dressers' houses may be so called, are nestled here and there in little hollows, or are perched on

steps in the cliffs, chiefly on the eastern half of the island. Wherever it has been possible to make them grow, they are surrounded by trees and vineyards. The persevering industry of the islanders is very admirable: by hewing out rocks here—by piling them up to form terraces and retain the scanty soil there; by removing the earth from places where it was exposed to be washed away, and depositing it in well defended, secure places, they have covered considerable patches of the northern front of Capri with beauty and fertility. The back of the island is so precipitous that it is altogether impracticable. The cultivable parts produce most kinds of vegetables and fruits, a small quantity of excellent oil, and wine in abundance. The wine, which is well known to all who have resided at Naples, is of two sorts—Capri rosso and Capri bianco, or red and white Capri. The quality of both is very good, being devoid of that volcanic, sulphurous flavor common to most of the wines produced near Naples.

Quails form another important article of export. These birds of passage, which come in countless flights from the coast of Africa in the spring, and return thitherward in autumn, are caught on the island in large nets spread out in hollows on the tops of the rocks, through which, season after season, the quails are sure to pass. In some years, as many as 100,000 of these delicate birds, without counting those consumed at home, have been sent to the Neapolitan market. Capri, which is now united to the see of Sorrento, once had a bishop of its own; and, in former days, that dignitary's revenue was derived almost entirely from the trade in quails.

In 1826 the whole population of the island amounted to about 4,000 souls. There were two or three schools established by government. The people seemed very healthy, contented, and cheerful; free and equal in their intercourse with one another; and, like most islanders, much attached to the place of their birth. None of them could be called rich, even according to the low scale of that part of the world, but then very few were abjectly poor. Like the inhabitants of the contiguous peninsula, the Sorrentini, the Amalfitani, &c., the people of Capri invariably leave an agreeable recollection in the mind of the traveler.

The bold, perpendicular cliff at the eastern extremity of the island, which is correctly represented in our engraving, is the too celebrated Saltus Caprearum, over which, if history speaks truly, Tiberius was accustomed to have his tortured victims driven. The cliff still retains its name, Italianized, the islanders always calling it "Il Salto," or the leap. It rises seven hundred feet above the level of the sea. Not far from the brow of this cliff are very considerable remains of the Villa Jovis, one of the tyrant's twelve mansions, which all stood on this half of the island. The guides assure the stranger that some arched subterranean chambers, communicating with one another, that are found here, were the *torturing dungeons* of Tiberius. A fine mosaic pavement, some columns of *giallo antico*, a Greek statue of a nymph, with many cameos and intaglios, were found at the Villa Jovis many years since. Indeed, this small island and these Tiberian villas, of which we need not give a minute description, as little remains of them but sub-structures and dismal cells, have contributed largely to modern museums, churches, and palaces. The four magnificent columns of *giallo antico*—and all of one piece—that now decorate the chapel of the King of Naples in the palace of Caserta were dug up in one of the villas. A splendid mosaic, which Murat's wife, Caroline Bonaparte, caused to be

removed and laid down as a flooring to her own boudoir in the palace at Portici, was found in another; and each of the villas, from amidst their crumbling ruins, have furnished rosso, giallo, and verde antico—lapis lazuli, other beautiful stones, and a peculiar sort of marble called Tiberian, in wonderful profusion. Statues and busts in marble and bronze, and of exquisite workmanship—medals and bassi-releivi, and other objects of art, have also been found and carried away in great quantities during the course of centuries. The mosaics and Corinthian capitals of the Tiberian villas are especially considered as models of perfection of their kinds. All these twelve magnificent villas were included in a space, the circumference of which does not exceed four miles. The wealth of the emperor was employed for years in erecting and adorning them.

A low-pitched and narrow aperture in the rocks west of the usual landing-place at Capri, and about one mile and a half distant from it, leads into an immense circular cavern, recently discovered—well worth notice, and distinguished by the name of "La Grotta Azurra." Persons who visit this sapphire cell are obliged to place themselves horizontally in the little bark destined to convey them through the above low and narrow aperture, which is so small as to excite an alarm of finding darkness within; but, on the contrary, if the day be cloudless, all is light—light that would dazzle were it not blue. The color of the water which fills the cavern precisely resembles that of the large bottles of vitriol, with lamps behind them, seen at the windows of our apothecaries; and this water appears to act like the lens of a telescope, by conducting the rays of the sun and the reflection of the brilliant skies of Magna Græcia into the cavern. After the eye has been for a few moments accustomed to a light so magical, the stupendous vaults of this gigantic bath are discernible, richly studdied with stalactites, and assuming, in consequence of a strong reflection from the transparent blue water, exactly the same tint. The cavern contains broken steps leading to a subterraneous passage, the length of which is unknown, it being impossible to reach the end, owing to an impediment formed by earth and stones. Masonry seems to have been employed in the construction of the steps and passage, which probably communicated either with one of Tiberius' villas or that of Julia, the niece of Augustus; but the cavern, although it may have been used as a bathing-place, is evidently the work of nature.

THE CITIES OF SILENCE.

BY this very expressive name the Turks distinguish the grounds in which the remains of the dead are deposited. The force of the term can only be well appreciated by the traveler in the East, who, in the neighborhood of a great city, has frequently to traverse such a vast extent of ground marked by monumental stones on either hand, before he can arrive at the abodes of living men, as to compel the most unthinking to feel "that the capital of the living, spite of its immense population, scarce counts a single breathing inhabitant for every ten silent inmates of

the city of the dead." This was spoken of the public cemeteries of Constantinople, the largest city where the Moslem usages of interment prevail, and where, therefore, the extent of the ground occupied by cemeteries, arising from the dislike of the Turks to reöpen the ground where it is known that a body has been interred, appears with magnified effect. In mentioning generally the appearance presented by these cemeteries, it would be an injury to the reader to use other words than those of the eloquent author of "Anastasius." "Already its fields of mouldering bodies and its gardens of blooming sepulchres stretch far away on every side, across the brow of the hills, and at the bend of the valleys; already the avenues which cross each other at every step in this domain of death are so lengthened, that the weary stranger, from whatever point he comes, still finds before him many a dreary mile of road between marshaled tombs and mournful cypresses, ere he reaches his journey's seemingly receding end; and yet every year does this common patrimony of all the heirs of decay still exhibit a rapidly increasing size, a fresher and wider line of boundary, and a new belt of plantations growing up between new flower-beds of graves." The slabs, by which the graves are usually covered, are perforated with holes, through which the most beautiful flowers grow and shed their fragrance and their leaves around.

The principal cemetery of the Mahommedans is at Scutari, on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus; for the Turks have a very strong impression that they shall ultimately be driven out of Europe by the Christians, and are not, therefore, willing that their bones should remain in a soil to be polluted by the rule of the Giaour. A little consideration would teach them, however, that if the Christian possessed Constantinople, the Moslem would not long be allowed to retain Scutari. The same impression operates differently on the Christians, inducing them to prefer the European side for their interments.

We were at first surprised to find the cypress-tree appropriated, among the Turks, to the sepulchral uses, in connexion with which it is always mentioned in the ancient and modern poetry of Europe. But, on consideration, we concluded that they merely retained a usage which they found existing in the Greek cities which they acquired in Asia and Europe. "This fine tree," says Sir John Cam Hobhouse, "has, with its gloomy green, long overshadowed the memorials of mortality; and its thick foliage, as well as the grateful odor of its wood, must serve to counteract the effects which would otherwise be produced, if graves, only a foot or too in depth, and containing corpses without coffins, were exposed to the burning summer sun." The number and extent of the cemeteries thus planted might be taken to characterize Constantinople, whose palaces, mosques, and minarets, seem embosomed in cypress woods.

As these trees, however, preclude an extensive view over the grounds in which the spectator is standing, the entire impression is not more forcible upon his mind than when, in lands more eastward, where the cypress does not grow, he perceives, at one view, the hills, the valley, and the plain, crowded to a vast extent with white monumental stones, in their general appearance not unlike the statue of Hermes, and which, in the obscurity of night, might lead the superstitious mind to fancy that the grave

to yield up the departed. Such cemeteries, neglected and overgrown, and frequently consisting of rude, unsculptured stones of every dimension, and stuck in the ground in various directions, often occur at a great distance from any existing towns or villages; but indicate sites formerly occupied, and tell more strongly than any abstract conception could do, how exceedingly populous the grave is. The monotony of the "Fields of the Dead" of this sort is usually relieved by the small but neat square and open structures, surmounted by a dome, under which repose the ashes of the wealthy, in places where cemeteries are not, as in Cairo, specially appropriated to their reception.

The attractive features which Mohammedan burialgrounds usually exhibit have been noticed by most travelers; and, separately from the saddening associations to which such spots give occasion, they are commonly the most pleasing promenades which Eastern cities offer. The trees, with which they are thickly planted in the western parts of Turkey, afford a grateful shade; and the cooing of the wild doves that build their nests among the branches, is a circumstance of additional attraction in a scene which is, upon the whole, not much solemnized by the grotesque and flaringly-colored sepulchres of the Turks. For ourselves, we confess that, so far as solemnizing effects go, we have been much more moved by the forsaken and ruined cemeteries to which we have just alluded, than even in the funeral woods of Constantinople, where the turbaned stones frequently disturbed our solemnity quite as much as the absurdities too often inscribed on the headstones in our church-yards.

Although the Turks have no notion of walking for exercise or pleasure, they have, perhaps, as much relish as any people for pleasant situations; and, whether from this cause, or regard to the dead, they like to resort, in fine weather, to the cemeteries, and perform their devotions near the graves of those who have been taken from them. The women frequent the "Cities of Silence" very generally on Fridays, on which day they believe that their friends awaken to the consciousness of their former ties and relations. They may then be seen very affectingly grouped around the graves, from which they carefully remove weeds and other unseemly things, and which they as carefully decorate with garlands, myrtles, and flowers. It is remarkable that the Turkish females are just as reserved near the graves of the dead, as in the presence of living men. This, no doubt, arises from the idea, already stated, that the inmates of the graves around are sensible of their presence, and the practice is countenanced by the example of no less a person than the "Mother of the Faithful," of whom it is recorded in that curious work the "Mischat ul Masabih," a book of traditions concerning Mahommed, that "Aayesha said, 'I was accustomed to go to the house where the Prophet and Abubekr were interred, without my upper garments; for I said to myself, nobody lies here but my husband, who is the messenger of God; and my father, who is Abubekr the Pure! But when Omar-ibn-al-Khattab died and was buried there, I never entered but with my body completely covered, on account of my modesty towards Omar, who was a stranger.'"

Our engraving, which represents part of a Turkish burial ground with a funeral approaching, shows, in considerable variety, the different kinds of tombs and monuments which such places exhibit, and will convey a general idea of the funeral processions. The deceased is carried to the grave on a

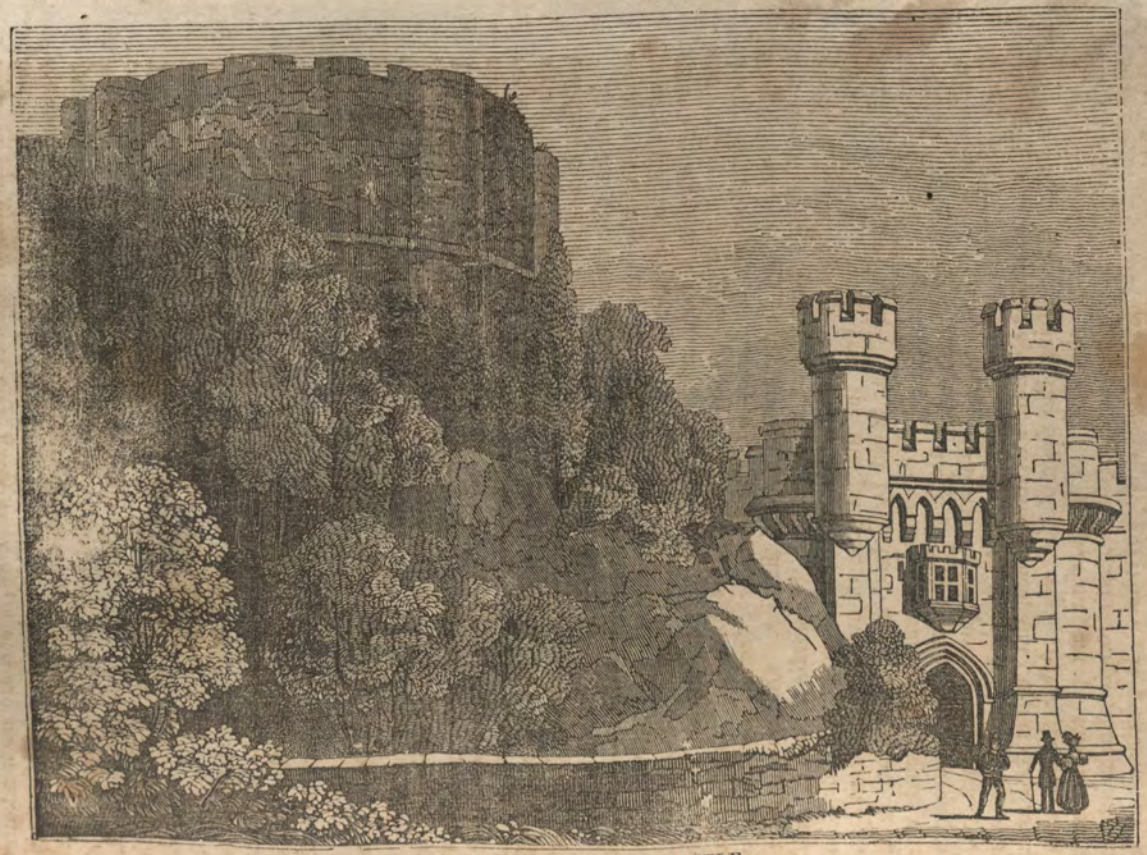
CITIES OF SILENCE—TURKISH FUNERAL

litter, or in an open barrow; branches are carried before and behind it, and his favorite horse is led after. The body has many bearers; for, as it passes through the streets, devout men run from their houses and assist in carrying it a little way, this being considered a very meritorious action. The corpse is always interred without a coffin, and in some parts of Turkey is wrapped up in cotton, while in others the best of the deceased person's ordinary dresses is employed.

YORK CASTLE AND CLIFFORD'S TOWER.

YORK CASTLE stands at the distance of about 200 yards from the eastern bank of the Ouse, and close to the Foss, which being brought round it in a deep moat or ditch renders it inaccessible, except from the city, on the north. Historical evidence sufficiently proves that before the Norman Conquest York had a castle, which Drake, in his "Eboracum," supposes to have been the Old Bailie, on the opposite side of the Ouse. The castle on the present site, according to the opinion of the same author, was built by William the Conqueror, but probably on a Roman foundation. Having fallen to decay, it was repaired, or rebuilt, in the reign of Richard III. After it was no longer used as a fortress, it was converted into a county prison; but, having fallen into a ruinous state from age, it was taken down in the year 1701, and in its stead a structure was erected which, so lately as thirty years since, was considered to form one of the best regulated and most commodious prisons in the kingdom. However, it was presented by the grand jury for insufficiency; and this presentment was repeated at each succeeding assizes, until a resolution was at last passed that a competition of architects should be invited in the usual manner, in order to procure the best plan for effecting the proposed improvements. That of Mr. Robinson of London was preferred, and in 1826 the works were commenced under his direction and superintendence.

The plan of the new portion of the prison is upon the radiated and panopticon system, the governor's house forming a centre from which all the prisons and airing courts diverge. Each prison is capable of containing 20 individuals; the day rooms are on the ground floor, and the cells in two stories above. For each class of prisoners there is a paved yard, and a court for exercise 100 feet in length by 50 feet at the wide end, narrowed to 10 feet at the farther extremity. The cells are constructed 8 feet by 5 feet, with corridors affording access to them all. The peculiarity of the plan—and it is believed that this prison is the only one that has been built with this arrangement—is, that the governor and turnkeys can pass unseen from the centre to any part of the prison, through secret passages in each of the buildings, connected with a corridor of inspection which surrounds and connects the whole. From these passages, too, everything that passes within the prisons can be seen; and as the prisoners



ENTRANCE TO YORK CASTLE.

know this, they have a right to suppose that the governor's eye is always upon them.

Prison building is not at all times interesting in an architectural point of view; but the architect has, in this instance, adopted the castellated character. In enlarging the old building, he has formed his design in the style of the ancient bars or city gates of York, which are much admired for their simplicity, and for the manner in which they preserve the architectural characteristics of the age in which they were built. The entrance gate-house, the internal elevation of which is exhibited in the engraving, is in some degree similar to the Monk Bar. It is flanked by circular towers of great strength, and extends 70 feet in front by 46 in depth. The prison is fire proof, the structure being entirely of stone; the walls are five feet thick below, and three feet above, and no timber is used in the floors, the stone extending from wall to wall. Each cell of the prison is covered with a single piece of stone five inches thick, and the cells are divided laterally by single stones nine inches thick. The doors are of hammered iron, and three iron guards are placed in each aperture in the thickness of the wall.

The boundary wall, surrounding the new prison, the old debtor's prison and the court house, is 35 feet in height above the ground, and it has towers at intervals to strengthen it. This wall is 1350 feet in length, and is, in itself, a specimen of very superior workmanship. Upon the whole, York Castle may be considered the strongest prison in England, and it is certainly one of the most complete and efficient. The criminal side affords room for 160 prisoners, divided into eight classes of twenty each. The airing courts are divided by walls twenty feet in height. The whole building is well supplied with water and well ventilated.

In all the alterations which have taken place, "Clifford's Tower," which stands within the walls, and which we now proceed to notice, has been preserved with the most scrupulous care. A short distance within the gateway there is a high mound, thrown up with prodigious labor, and surrounded by a strong stone wall. It appears to be elevated at least ninety feet above the level of the Ouse, and thirty feet above the site of the castle or jail, and the adjacent parts of the city. On the summit of this mount stands an ancient tower, called "Clifford's Tower;" and, according to tradition, one of that family was its first governor, after it had been built by the Conqueror for the purpose of overawing the city and country. The castle itself was found by Leland in a ruinous state in the time of Henry VIII. But on the commencement of the civil wars between Charles I. and the Parliament, it was completely repaired and fortified by order of the Earl of Cumberland, the governor of York. On the top of the tower was made a platform, on which several pieces were mounted; a garrison was appointed for its defence, and Colonel Sir Francis Cob was its governor during the siege of the city. After the surrender of York in 1644, it was dismantled of its garrison, except this tower, of which Thomas Dickenson, the lord mayor, a man strongly attached to the cause of the Parliament, was constituted governor. It continued in the hands of his successors, as governors, till 1683, when Sir John Reresby was appointed to that office by Charles II. In the following year, 1684, on the festival of St. George, about 10 o'clock in the evening, the magazine took fire and blew up, and the tower was reduced to a shell, as it

remains at this day. Whether this happened accidentally or by design was never ascertained; but the demolition of the "minced pie" was, at that time, a common toast in the city; and it was observed that the officers and soldiers of the garrison had previously removed their effects, and that not a single man perished by the explosion.

The mount on which this tower stands corresponds, as already observed, with that of the Old Bailie on the opposite side of the Ouse. Within this tower is an excellent well of water: here was also a dungeon so dark as not to admit the least ray of light. Drake says—"By the extraordinary labor required for the raising of this mount, it seems to have been effected by no less than a Roman power, though the Conqueror might build the present structure, the inside of which exhibits a regularity very uncommon in a Gothic edifice." But Mr. Bigland remarks on this—"We have no such knowledge of the Roman 'Eboracum,' as can enable the present age to advance anything beyond conjecture on the subject; and great works have been performed by other men as well as by Romans."

THE CASTLE OF HASTINGS.

UPON a lofty rocky cliff, to the westward of the town of Hastings, England, there are some remains of a large and very ancient castle. At what period or by whom it was erected is not stated; but from its situation, which must have been particularly favorable to the ancient mode of fortification, it is more than probable that a fortress existed here long before that which the Danish rovers, under Hastings their leader, are said to have constructed. This conjecture receives some support from a passage in the "Chronicles of Dover Monastery," which says, "that when Arviragus threw off the Roman yoke, it is likely he fortified those places which were most convenient for their invasion, namely, Richborough, Walmer, Dover, and Hastings." Bishop Lyttleton, however, was inclined to think that here was originally a Roman fortress, built as a defence against the invasion of the pirates. He further observes, that although William the Conqueror, as we are told, ran up a fort at Hastings just before his engagement with Harold, this could not have been his work, as it would have required more time and labor than his circumstances would then have allowed; and concludes that William might probably have repaired the old Roman castle and have placed a garrison in it. It appears that, in the year 1090, almost all the bishops and nobles of England were assembled by royal authority at the castle of Hastings, to pay personal homage to King William II. before his departure for Normandy.

Little more concerning this castle is mentioned in history, except that within its walls there was a free royal chapel dedicated to the Virgin Mary, in which was a dean with several secular canons and prebendaries. It is supposed to have been founded by one of the earls of Eu while proprietor of the castle. Prynne, as quoted by Grose, records various circumstances relative to a dispute between King Edward III. and the Bishop of Chi-

RUINS OF ST. MARY'S CHAPEL.

chester and Archbishop of Canterbury, concerning the right claimed by them of visiting this chapel, which, however, in the reign of Henry VI., was placed under the jurisdiction of the former of these prelates.

What remains of the castle approaches nearest in shape to two sides of an oblique spherical triangle, having the points rounded off. The base, or south side next the sea, completing the triangle, is formed by a perpendicular craggy cliff about 400 feet in length, upon which are no vestiges of walls or other fortification. The east side is made by a plain wall measuring near 300 feet, without tower or defence of any kind. The adjoining side, which faces the north-west, is about 400 feet long. The area included is about an acre and one-fifth. The walls, nowhere entire, are about eight feet thick. The gateway, now demolished, was on the north side, near the northernmost angle. Not far from it, to the west, are the remains of a small tower, enclosing a circular flight of stairs; and still farther westward, a sally-port and the ruins of another tower. On the east side, at the distance of about 100 feet, ran a ditch, 100 feet in breadth at the top, and 60 feet deep; but both the ditch, and the interval between it and the wall, seem to have gradually narrowed as they approached the gate, under which they terminated. On the north-west side there was another ditch of the same breadth, commencing at the cliff opposite to the westernmost angle, and bearing away almost due north, leaving a level intermediate space which, opposite to the sally-port, was 180 feet in breadth.

The castle, together with the rape of Hastings, which always accompanied it, underwent many changes of proprietors until the year 1461, when the estate came into the possession of Sir William Hastings, on whom the title of Lord Hastings was bestowed by Edward IV. This was the nobleman whose name has been rendered so familiar by the histories of England, Shakspeare's play of Richard III., and the romances about Jane Shore. When the fidelity of Lord Hastings to the children of Edward IV. cost him his life, his estates were forfeited to the crown; but they were restored to his son by Henry VII., and confirmed to him by Henry VIII. By one of his descendants, who were invested with the earldom of Huntingdon, the castle of Hastings was sold, together with the manors of Crawhurst, Burwash, and Berelham, to Thomas Pelham, Esq., to whom the perpetuity was confirmed by James I. in 1605. In his family it has ever since remained, and at present belongs to the Earl of Chichester, to whose father it was bequeathed by the first Duke of Newcastle.

DIANA.

DIANA, the daughter of Jupiter and Latona, received a worship among the Greeks, nearly as extensive as that of her twin-brother, Apollo. She was the goddess of the woods and of the chase on earth, and was known as Luna in heaven, and Hecate in hell. She was most recognized in the former character, in which she is frequently represented, in ancient statues, as running with her vest shortened and girt

around her, and yet flying back with the wind. She generally appears as tall of stature; and, in correspondence with the tastes assigned her, her countenance exhibits a somewhat manly expression combined with its feminine characteristics. Her legs are always bare, well-shaped, and strong; and her feet are sometimes naked, but oftener adorned with some sort of buskin or sandal. She generally has a quiver on her shoulder, and sometimes a javelin, but more frequently a bow in her hand; and a dog is usually by her side or at her feet. The statues of Diana were, in ancient times frequently placed in the woods, representing her as hunting, bathing, or reposing after fatigue. When, under other circumstances, Diana was represented as the intelligence that presides over the moon, she usually appeared in a car drawn by deer, but more commonly by white horses, with a lunar crown, or crescent, on her forehead.

"Diana," says Winckelmann, "has the figure and air of a virgin more than any of the other superior goddesses. Gifted with all the attractions of her sex, she seems not to be aware of her beauty; yet her looks are not cast down like those of Pallas; her bright and cheerful eyes are directed toward the object of her delight—the chase. Her hair is gathered on all sides of her head, and forms behind, on her neck, a knot in the style used by virgins. Her shape is more light and slender than that of either Juno or Pallas. She has generally but a slight garment, which merely descends to her knees; and is the only goddess sometimes seen with the bosom uncovered."

This celebrated antiquary's description of Diana very nearly corresponds with the statue represented in our engraving. She is dressed in a short, plaited and sleeveless tunic, which is confined by a sort of mantle passed over her left shoulder, and folded round her waist. The left hand is employed in holding back a fawn, while the right is raised to take an arrow from the quiver which is upon her shoulder. The legs are naked, but her feet are furnished with rich sandals. She seems in the act of protecting the hind which she holds with her left hand, while her looks are turned in apparent severity and anger in a direction opposite to that in which the animal is going. This hind is concluded to be the fabulous one of Mount Coryneum, with its brazen feet and antlers of gold, which was consecrated to Diana by the nymph Taygete, the daughter of Atlas. Hercules, when in subjection to Eurystheus, received orders to bring this animal alive to Mycenæ. This was the fourth of his famous labors. He pursued the hind through many countries, and at last overtook it in Arcadia, at the passage of the river Ladon. But his labor was in vain, for Diana descended from Mount Artemisius, and rescued the consecrated prey, menacing the demi-god himself with her weapons. This is very probably the incident which the sculptor intended to represent in this admirable statue, which is not unworthy of a comparison with the more famous Apollo Belvidere. It is certainly the finest of the statues of Diana which have come down to us from ancient times. It is of Parian marble, and remains in a very good state of preservation. The height of the statue is six feet, six inches and two-thirds. It has been in France since the reign of Henry IV.; but when and how it was brought is not known.

STATUE OF THE GODDESS DIANA.

OXFORD.

OXFORD is the capital of the county to which it gives name, and as the seat of one of the most celebrated universities of Europe, equaled by few in extent, wealth, and antiquity, claims a relative importance much beyond that to which it would be entitled by the amount of its population. The town is situated in the central part of England, about fifty-four miles N.N.W. of London, and is pleasantly placed upon a gentle eminence in a valley, at the confluence of two small rivers, the Isis and Cherwell. These streams, in their circuitous and meandering approach to each other, almost enclose the city, the former on the west and south, and the latter on the east. Along the rivers, and between them and the city, lie rich and verdant meadows, beyond which the prospect is bounded by an amphitheatre of hills, except towards the north, where it extends over a rich champaign country, in the highest state of cultivation.

Oxford is a place of very remote antiquity; but the period of its origin is involved in considerable uncertainty, from the difficulty of distinguishing what parts of the information given by old chroniclers were derived by them from the legitimate sources of history, and what from the legendary tales of the bards. We shall, however, certainly not err in assigning to the latter source the statement which makes the foundation of Oxford, nearly coëval with the destruction of Troy. The first certain fact connected with the subject, at which we can arrive, even under the Saxons, is, that in the reign of king Alfred, who at one time resided at Oxford with his three sons, the place was noted for a monastery, which was founded in the year 727, and which sober writers, with great appearance of probability, conclude to have formed the nucleus of the town, by gathering around it the dwellings of the laity. Since that period, the name of Oxford is of very frequent occurrence in history.

Almost the earliest authentic information of the existence of this town states that it was set on fire twice, and otherwise suffered much from the Danes, in the reign of Ethelred the Unready; we are therefore prepared to learn that when that monarch ordered a general massacre of the Danes throughout his dominions, this order was executed with most terrible fidelity at Oxford in particular. In revenge for the active part which it took in this transaction, Sweyn again fired the town on his next descent on that country; and in the year 1013 the place was surrendered to him by order of Ethelred. In subsequent years, Oxford was frequently the residence of the court. Edmund Ironside was murdered there; Canute held there a great council, at which the laws of Edgar were made binding upon all the subjects of the crown,—Danes as well as English; and on the death of that prince, a Witenagemote was held there to settle the succession of the crown, and Harold Harefoot, who succeeded, was crowned and died at Oxford. The town seems to have been much attached to the other Harold, who was killed at Hastings, and was one of those that held out, for a time, against the Conqueror, who, however, took it by storm, in 1067, and

OXFORD—HIGH STREET.

bestowed it upon Robert D'Oyley, one of his officers, in whom he had great confidence.

The Empress Maude, daughter of Henry I., during her contest with king Stephen, obtained possession of the castle; but being closely besieged by the latter, she avoided being taken prisoner, only by escaping through the postern-gate, dressed in white linen, with four knights similarly disguised. She passed across the Isis, which was frozen, and traveled on foot six miles, through deep snow, to Abingdon, and thence to Wallingford, where she was joyfully welcomed. Her son, Henry II., resided, during the greater part of his reign, at Oxford, in a palace called Beaumont, which had been built by his grandfather; in this palace was born his valiant son, Richard Cœur de Lion, who held a council there before his departure for Palestine. King John spent much of his time in the same palace, and had a meeting with his barons in the vicinity, about two months before they compelled him to sign the Magna Charta. Henry III. also occasionally resided at Oxford, and several parliaments and councils were held there during his reign; but afterwards the town became less distinguished as the residence of the court, and the theatre of political transactions. Edward II. made a present of the palace to the Carmelites, and some remains of it are still extant.

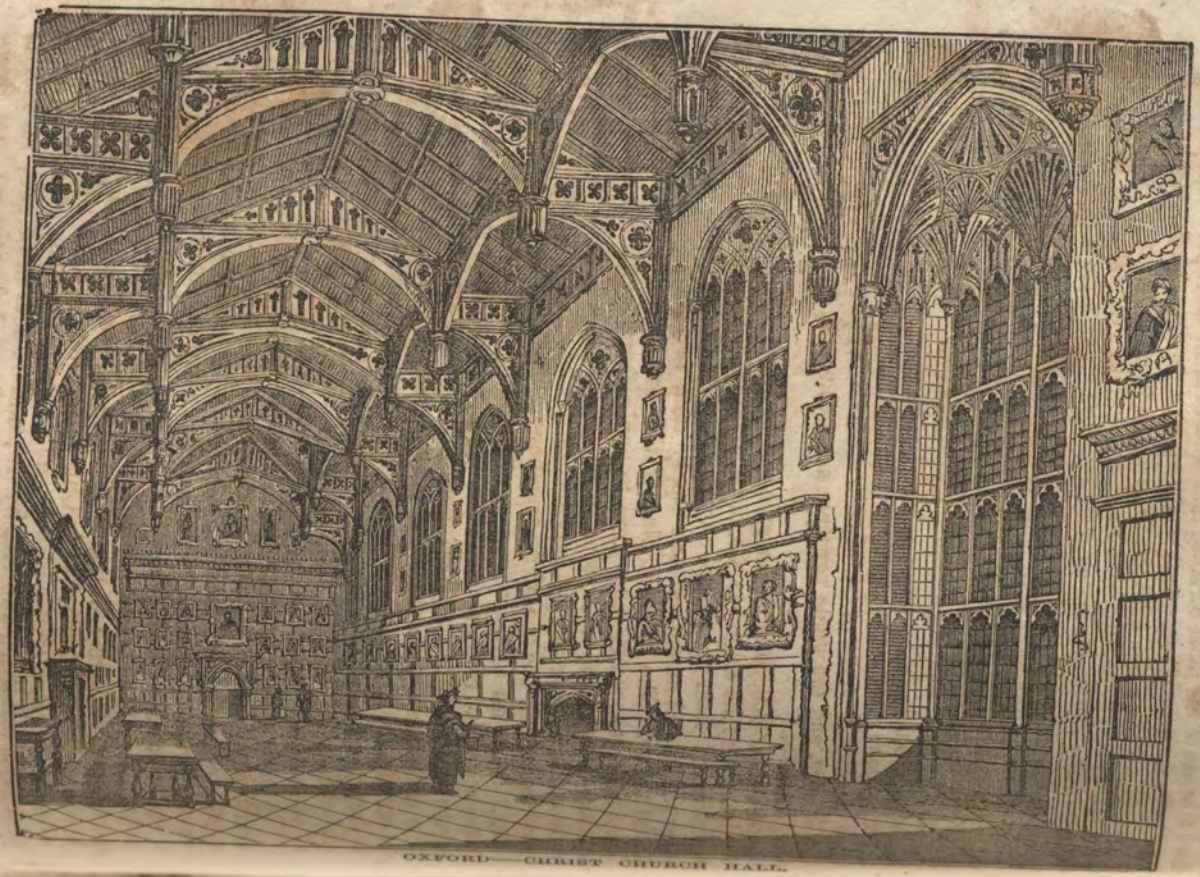
In the reign of Henry VIII. Oxford was the seat of one of the six new bishoprics created by that monarch. In the reign of his daughter Mary, Oxford was chosen for the burning of the bishops, Latimer and Ridley, for the alleged crimes of heresy and treason; and, a few months after, Cranmer suffered death at the same place. To Queen Elizabeth, the homage of learning was particularly grateful, and she visited the place frequently in order to receive it. Her successor was driven thither, on one occasion, for refuge from the plague in London; but the plague reached Oxford also, and its devastations were so awful, that the scholars hastened from the university, and the citizens shut up their shops. "Not a living creature," says Ayliffe, "besides nurses and corpse-bearers, was to be seen in the streets, which were covered with grass, even in the market-place." During the civil war, in the reign of Charles I., Oxford was the scene of some important transactions. The king, after the battle of Edgehill, in October, 1642, made himself master of the place, which may be said to have remained his head-quarters until 1646, when, having previously delivered himself up to the Scottish army, at Newark, he gave orders that the town should be surrendered to the parliamentary forces.

The appearance of Oxford from the high grounds to the east and south-west is highly picturesque and interesting. The view embraces groups of towers, domes, spires, pinnacles, and turrets, intermingled with dark masses of foliage, surrounded by rich meadows, intersected by many streams. The striking effect is not diminished, although varied, on a nearer approach, which affords an opportunity for the number and magnitude of the public buildings, with the splendid details of their architecture, to be more distinctly observed. The town, with its immediate suburbs, comprises an area of about three miles in circumference, extending a mile and a quarter from east to west, and nearly as far from north to south. The city itself is of an oval form, and was formerly surrounded by a wall, with bastions 150 feet distant from each other; but of these works there are but few existing traces.

The approaches to Oxford from the London road on the east, and from the west, the north, and the south, are all very fine, though dissimilar in effect. The entrances from all these directions except the north are over bridges. From Magdalen Bridge the High street extends, under different names, the whole length of the city. This street is generally allowed to be one of the most striking and beautiful in Europe. On passing the bridge and proceeding up this street, the fronts of many churches, colleges, and other public edifices, in combination with private houses in ancient and modern style, are brought into view in gradual and beautiful succession. The street is wide as well as long; but it has a gentle curvature, to which much of its striking effect is owing, for at almost every step the passenger is presented with new objects and fine combinations. At one point, in particular, the whole *coup d' œil* is singularly impressive and picturesque; this is at a broad part of the street near the middle, where Queen's College on the right hand, and University College on the left, form the foreground of the scene, while the front of All Souls, the steeple and rich meadows of St. Mary's Church, the modern spire of All Saints' Church, and the old tower of St. Martin's, constitute the prominent features in the distance, and the whole presents a street scene, unrivaled in beauty, variety and effect.

Christ Church College is the largest and most magnificent foundation at Oxford, and owes its origin to Cardinal Wolsey, who, in 1524 and 1525, obtained a bull from the pope, authorizing him to suppress twenty-two inferior priories and nunneries, and apply their revenues in support of his intended college. The original plan of this foundation provided for one hundred and sixty persons, who were to apply themselves to the study of the sciences at large, as well as to polite literature. The cardinal settled on this society a clear annual revenue of £2,000; and commenced the present building for the use of its members, under the name of Cardinal's College. After his disgrace and death, the king, who had in the first instance seized its revenues, and arrested its progress, was induced to patronize the institution; and reëndowed it for the support of a dean and twelve canons, under the name of "King Henry the Eighth's College." The establishment afterwards underwent other alterations, which gave it the character of a cathedral establishment; and its chapel was made the cathedral church of the bishopric of Oxford, which it still remains, although still maintaining its character as a college chapel.

To give our readers an idea of the buildings of this extensive and splendid establishment would much exceed our limits. The buildings altogether occupy two large and two small quadrangles. The great west quadrangle was chiefly the work of Wolsey, and is an interesting indication of what he intended the whole to have been, if he had lived to complete his design. It is entered by the gateway of the principal front, which extends 382 feet, having in the centre a stately tower, begun by Wolsey, but only completed in 1681, by Sir Christopher Wren. The hall and kitchen are on the south side of this quadrangle;—the hall is one of the finest in the kingdom, measuring 115 feet by 40, and 50 feet in height; its roof is of elaborately carved oak, and the sides, of paneled wainscot, are decorated with an an extensive collection of portraits, some of which are curious. Of this hall a representation is given. The parliamentary visitors sat in this hall, in 1648, to eject such members of the University



OXFORD.—CHRIST CHURCH HALL.

OXFORD—CARTERS HALL PASSAGE.

as refused to submit to their authority. The other large quadrangle termed "Peckwater Court," was erected at the commencement of the last century, and has the library on its south side. This noble building, which was commenced in 1716, but not completed until 1761, is 141 feet long in front, and on the basement story contains, besides a portion of the books, a collection of pictures,—not of the first order of excellence—bequeathed to the college by General Guise in 1765. The library is very rich in manuscripts, prints, and coins.

THE HYRAX, OR DAMAN.

PLACED in the *pachydermatous* order—an order which comprehends the hippopotamus, the elephant, the horse, and the hog—the hyrax, or daman, presents a singular contrast, both as respects its appearance and its habits, to the huge and massive animals with which it is associated. So marked indeed is its affinity to certain of the *rodentia*, that Pallas placed it among the *cavies*, under the name of *cavia Capensis*, and Buffon termed it "*la marmotte du Cap.*" Following the received opinion, Hermann, though he constituted the hyrax as an independent genus, still retained it among the *rodentia*, nor was its true situation in the animal world discovered until Cuvier pointed it out, proving from the character of the dentition, the skeleton, and the internal anatomy, its strict alliance to the *pachydermata*, while at the same time it is to be regarded as leading from this order to that with which it was formerly associated. The hyrax is undoubtedly the coney of Scripture; or rather, perhaps we should say, one of the species is the animal thus alluded to, for there appear to be two if not three distinct species, of which one inhabits the rocky parts of Syria and North Africa and the two districts adjacent to the Cape of Good Hope. Of these latter, the *hyrax arboreus*, or *boom-dos* of the colonists, differs from its congeners not only in markings, but in the circumstance of its preferring hollow trees for its abode. Whether the Syrian hyrax and the Cape hyrax are truly distinct, admits of a question. At all events they agree in habits, manners, and general appearance, so that what is spoken of one relates to the other also. The hyrax is called *klip-dos*, by the colonists of the Cape. The localities in which it is found are exclusively the rocky and mountain districts, the fissures and caves of which afford it an asylum. It abounds on the sides of Table Mountain, where it may be seen skipping near its burrow's mouth, or cropping the herbage; on the least alarm, however, it instantly retreats to its strong hold, whence it cannot be dislodged without the greatest difficulty. Quick, watchful, and active as the hyrax is, it is frequently captured by the ferocious animals which lurk around its abode, and still more frequently by the larger birds of prey, which pounce upon it before it is aware of their approach. The eagle, whose nest is on the inaccessible pinnacle of the rock, at the base of

THE HYRAX, OR DAMAN.

which the unsuspicious hyrax is frolicking, marks her victim as she sails around her eyrie, and with a swoop rapid as the fall of an aërolite, lays it prostrate, grasps it in her talons, and mounts with it to her young.

We have seen more than one example of the hyrax of the Cape in captivity. Gentle and inoffensive, it exhibited a very limited share of intelligence, but was playful, and not without a demonstration of attachment to those with whom it was familiar. Its actions, and indeed its general aspect, much resemble those of a rabbit, with which animal it agrees in size. The Syrian hyrax we have never seen; but Cuvier says that he can discover no difference between it and its South African relative, and evidently considers them as identical, which is the more probable, as the hyrax from Abyssinia, said to be the same as the Syrian, and which we have seen, is not to be distinguished. In the general contour of its body the hyrax is stout and thickly set. The limbs are short, the toes on each foot are four before and three behind, all being tipped with little slender hoofs, except the inner toe of each hind foot, which is armed with a long crooked nail. The head is large and thick, the eyes of a moderate size, the ears short and rounded; the teeth consist of molars and incisors, the former bearing a close resemblance in miniature to those of the Rhinoceros. The incisors are two above and four below; the two in the upper jaw are strong, elongated, and pointed, having a great resemblance to *canines*; their situation being lateral, a wide interval separating between them. The incisors of the lower jaw are in pairs, separated by a small interval; they are flat, with indented edges. It has no tail. The general color of the fur, which is soft and thick, is a dark grayish brown, becoming pale beneath. Our sketch is from nature.

THE EGYPTIAN VULTURE.

ALTHOUGH the parallels which, in the present day, some distinguished naturalists have attempted to draw between *mammalia* and *birds* are for the most overstrained and visionary, there are certainly some instances in which they are truly indicated by Nature. This analogy is perhaps in no instance better established than between the vultures and the hyæna, jackal or wolf. Alike scavengers of the earth, they clear it of its dead, they remove its offal—its noisome *rejectamenta*, which would otherwise corrupt the air with pestilential exhalations. The vultures, however, have far less ferocity in their disposition than the analogous quadrupeds. The latter attack living prey with great ferocity and strong appetite for blood, whilst the former exclusively gorge upon the carcasses of the dead, and never make the living their victims. Happily for them they are seldom at a loss for a meal in the countries where they abound. The unburied slain on the field of battle attract them in flocks from a great distance; the death of any beast in the field calls an assembly to the banquet. Sailing on their wide and ample wings, they sweep from

THE VULTURE OF EGYPT.

the higher regions of the air to their repast, on which they often gorge themselves till unable to rise from the spot. It is only when impelled by hunger that the vulture proceeds in quest of his carrion-food, and rouses from his apathy to traverse the air. Mounting aloft till almost out of sight, he skims in large circles, sustained on outspread but motionless pinions, scanning the surface of the earth. Often, indeed, the sky seems quite clear, and not the least trace of any bird can be discovered by the eye; but no sooner does an animal fall—or no sooner has the hunter slain or abandoned his quarry—than, as if called at once into existence, multitudes of vultures seem pouring from the sky, and flocking to the feast.

Is it by the powers of sight or smell that these birds, afar off in the air above, or on the very verge of the horizon, are thus led to their booty? This is a question not yet settled. The ancient classic writers teem with passages attributing to the vulture a keen and discriminating scent; and certainly the development of the organs of this sense would seem to favor the opinion, which is supported by Mr. Waterton and others, but which Mr. Audubon considers to be erroneous. This latter observer of Nature maintains that it is by the extraordinary powers of sight that the vulture perceives his prey, and Le Vaillant explains the circumstance upon the same theory. "Desirous," he says, "of observing how so great a number of vultures could congregate together in so short a space of time, I concealed myself one day in a thicket, after having killed a large gazelle, which I left upon the spot. In an instant a number of ravens made their appearance, fluttering about the animal, and making a great croaking. In less than a quarter of an hour these birds were reinforced by the arrival of kites and buzzards; and immediately afterwards I perceived on raising my head, a flight of birds at a prodigious height, wheeling round and round in their descent. These I soon recognized to be vultures, which seemed, if I may so express myself, to escape from a cavern in the sky. The first comers fell immediately upon the gazelle, but I did not allow them time to tear it in pieces. I left my concealment, and they betook themselves slowly and heavily to flight, rejoining their comrades, whose numbers seemed to increase. They seemed almost to precipitate themselves from the clouds to share the spoil, but my presence caused them speedily to disappear. Thus it is, then, that the vultures are called upon to participate in their prey; the first carnivorous birds that discover a carcass rouse the others which may happen to be in the environs by their cries and by their motions. If the nearest vulture does not spy his prey from the lofty region of the air in which he swims by means of his wide-spread wings, he perceives at least the subaltern and more terrestial birds of prey preparing to take possession of it; but perhaps he has himself a sufficient power of vision to enable him to discover it. He descends hastily and with a wheeling flight, and his fall directs the other vultures who witness his evolutions, and who no doubt have their instinct sharpened with regard to everything that concerns their food. A concourse of carniverous birds speedily takes place in the neighborhood of the carcass, sufficient to attract the vultures of the whole district, nearly in the same manner as the disturbance created by a number of men running along the streets of a crowded town attracts the whole population to follow in their train."

The genus *neophron* may be regarded as equivalent in the Old World to *cathartes* in the New, the Egyptian vulture closely approximating in form,

habits, and relatively in the range of its habitat to the turkey vulture so ably described by Wilson and Audubon. Of the vultures of the Old World the Egyptian vulture is the smallest; it is, however, one of the most numerous, and especially abounds in Egypt and the adjacent provinces of Europe, Asia, and Africa; it has even been seen in Italy and Switzerland, and has once been killed in England. This circumstance occurred in 1825 at Klive, in Somersetshire; the specimen was that of an immature bird, probably not more than a year old; it was accompanied by a second individual, which was too wary to allow itself to be approached within gunshot. In Egypt the utility of these vultures in clearing the streets of filth of every description (a task which they undertake in common with the parish dogs) has been frequently noticed. Nor were the services of this bird less valued in ancient than in modern times; it was among the number of the sacred animals, and is often represented pretty accurately on the early monuments of Egypt. Hence its appellation of Pharaoh's chicken. A constant attendant on the caravan, as it pursues its way from town to town—an assiduous frequenter of the shambles—an industrious searcher for carrion, it merits, as far at least as its public utility is concerned, the regards of the whole community; nor are its services overlooked—if not now adored as a deity, it is at least esteemed as a benefactor.

RUINS OF A GREEK THEATRE AT SYRACUSE.

THE engraving presents a partial view of some considerable remains of a Greek theatre at Neapolis, in Syracuse. It was hewn in a rock, and constructed with three ranges of seats separated by platforms or galleries, which continue without interruption all round, approached by staircases constructed at given intervals. This theatre was built at the boundaries of Neapolis, Tyche, and Acradina, overlooking the former city and commanding a view of the promontory of Plemmyrium; while from its back may be seen the singular excavations in the quarries of Neapolis, among others that which is called the Ear of Dionysius.

This once glorious and animated scene, where multitudes assembled to witness and appreciate the sublime conceptions of the dramatists of ancient Greece, presents, at the present time, a strong contrast to its former grandeur. The curious traveler or weary shepherd are now its only visitors; and the same spot which was formerly hallowed by the representation of the dramas of Æschylus and Euripides, now affords but a scanty pasturage for the flocks and herds of an ignorant peasantry.

The origin of the regular Greek drama is traced to Thespis and Susarion, both natives of Attica. The germ of it was nothing more than a song in honor of Bacchus, accompanied by dancing. A goat was awarded as the prize of the singer. Thespis, on one of these occasions, first pointed out the dramatic path by introducing a second person, who recited some well known fable or history—called an episode—and relieved the monotony

of the choruses; while Susarion gave the first idea of comedy, by attacking the vices and follies of those who dwelt in cities, a species of satire peculiarly relished by the country people. These episodes, being a far more pleasing kind of entertainment than the odes in praise of Bacchus, (the dullness of which they were intended only to relieve,) gradually assumed so much consequence in the festivals, that it became a proverbial saying, to denote that which is nothing to the purpose,—"All this is nothing to Bacchus!"

The drama remained in its original form—merely a chorus and episode performed on an open stage or itinerary cart—until the great Æschylus, by the unaided force of his own genius, elevated the Grecian theatre from this undigested chaos to its "most high and palmy state." It is fabled, that while asleep in a vineyard, Bacchus appeared to him in a dream and commanded him to write tragedies. His plays were acted upon a stationary stage—a humble wooden scaffolding. He also introduced a second person in the episode, and thus became the originator of *dialogue*. He employed mechanism for the stage, embellished it with scenes, and obviated the expedient of smearing the actors' faces with wine-lees (which had been formerly adopted) by substituting masks. He also invented the cothurnus or buskin. These extraordinary efforts of combined genius, ingenuity, and perseverance, were hailed by the Athenians with delight, and from that time they became a dramatic people.

As the most brilliant period of the Greek drama was the time when her three great tragedians, Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides flourished, a short sketch of their lives will afford some insight into the history of the ancient stage.

Æschylus was born about 525 years B. C., and distinguished himself at the battles of Marathon and Salamis. He wrote seventy-seven pieces, seven of which are yet extant. After enjoying the respect and admiration of his fellow-citizens for many years, both as a soldier and a poet, he retired to the court of Hiero, king of Syracuse; on account, according to some conjectures, of having been unsuccessful in the competition for the poetical prize with Sophocles; other authorities ascribe his removal to a charge of blasphemy having been brought against him for divulging some of the secrets of the Eleusinian Mysteries; but this could hardly have been the cause, for his three last plays, exhibited just before he left Athens, are extant, and contain nothing of the kind. Ancient historians are ever unwilling to attribute to their heroes an ordinary or common-place death; hence we are told that an eagle poising a huge tortoise in the air mistook the bald head of the venerable Æschylus for a stone, and, dropping the tortoise, ended the life of "The Father of Tragedy."

Sophocles (born 495 B. C.) is said, but not on very good authority, to have been the son of a proprietor of a manufactory of cutlery. He was distinguished for the grace of his person and the elegance of his manners. Of the 120 tragedies attributed to him only seven remain; and these evince a riper judgement and a moral and intellectual taste of greater purity than either of his great compeers. The moral taste of Sophocles seems to have been of the most refined order, for the plays he has left inculcate truth, religion and virtue with peculiar earnestness. He lived to a very advanced age; and such was his devotion to the Muses, that, a little before he died, his sons, mistaking his extreme abstraction for insanity, petitioned the

RUINS OF A GREEK THEATRE.

judges to allow them to manage his estates. Sophocles, to refute the charge, merely read the first choric song from his 'Œdipus in Colonos' (which he had just completed,) and calmly asked if that was the work of a madman. The suit was instantly dismissed, and the poet retired amidst the warmest applauses. Scholiasts are at a loss for the precise cause of his death: some have choked him with a grape stone; others kill him with a transport of joy when bearing away his last poetical prize; and again it is said, that while reading aloud his own 'Antigone,' he began a speech of too great length for his weak lungs, and expired from the fatigue and the excitation.

Euripides was born 480 B. C., and first studied philosophy under Anaxagoras, who, advancing as a theory that the sun was a ball of fire, and maintaining the unity of God, was banished for blasphemy. The characters in his dramas often indulge in philosophical speculations, which give to the dramas a stiff, scholastic turn, usually reckoned not a little inconsistent with dramatic poetry. His early studies and close intimacy with Socrates may account for this peculiarity. This friendship did not fail to obtain for him many a reproach from the comic poets, who attributed the success of his works to the assistance of the great philosopher, and who accused him also of borrowing the scepticism and sophistry of the philosophers. Euripides was twice married; and it is said that the profligacy of his wives drove him to Macedon, where, walking in a wood in deep contemplation, he was torn to pieces by dogs. In Sicily, it would seem, Euripides was honored with an admiration amounting to enthusiasm: for when the army of Nicias was placed at the mercy of the Sicilians, those prisoners who could repeat passages from his tragedies were set at liberty.

Aristophanes has been elevated in the estimation of the critics so high above the other comic poets of Greece as to be the principal representative of the ancient classical comedy; he is indeed the only one of whom we have any perfect remains. The date of his birth is not exactly known, but in 427 B. C., he is called "almost a young lad." So captivating was his society, that it was eagerly sought by the most eminent men of his age. All historians agree that he was a sad votary to Bacchus: and this possibly caused much unhappiness in his private circumstances. His works, while they censure and satirize the vices of his age, are equally esteemed for dignity of style and graceful elegance of versification. He found a great admirer in St. Chrysostom, who kept a copy of his works under his pillow. We are unacquainted with the manner of his death.

NORWEGIAN PEASANTRY.

NORWEGIAN peasants are perhaps better clothed and lodged, and possess more of the comforts and conveniences of life than can be found among the same class anywhere else, excepting in some parts of Switzerland. Their cottages are universally built of the solid trunks of pines, the interstices between which are closely stuffed with

moss. In the colder parts of the country they have double wooden walls. This additional protection renders them warm and secure against the blasts of winter. The roofs are generally formed of the same materials as the walls, but are covered and coated in a variety of manners. Sometimes they are loaded with a thick compact coating of pebbles—sometimes they are covered with large strips of the bark of the birch tree, which from its oily nature resists wet, and will last for years. In nearly all cases large fragments of rock are put upon the roof to prevent the whole from being blown away. It is not uncommon to see the roofs sowed with grass and bearing a luxurious crop, and in some instances trees of a tolerable size grow on the house-tops. In the districts of Hedemarken and Guldbrandsdalen, where the valleys are exceedingly fertile, and most industriously cultivated, the small farm-houses of the peasants exhibit a degree of neatness and comfort rarely to be met with in other countries. Every cottage window has its neat white curtains, made of coarse muslin or gauze; they are externally a good deal ornamented with carving, and the doors are generally painted with flowers done in very lively colors. The peasants all through Norway strew the floors of their bed-chambers with the young tops of the juniper tree, that diffuse a pleasant fragrance, which is said to invite sleep in the most agreeable manner. Their beds are generally in recesses that can be closed up like cupboards or presses, as is the case in many Scotch cottages.

Living as they do, for the most part, remote from towns and villages, in their little farms scattered among the mountains, or at the ends of long fiords, frequently at the distance of many miles from their nearest neighbors, the Norwegian peasants are obliged to turn their hands to everything, and from necessity and practice they generally obtain a skill and address in many mechanical arts that are altogether surprising. Mr. Twining and Sir Arthur de Capell Brooke mention organs, perfect in their parts, with a variety of stops, that had been made by common peasants; and they describe that class generally as being very expert in the art of carving in wood. The close grain and beautiful whiteness of the fir render their talents in this way very ornamental to their cottages, both within and without. Most of their table utensils are of the same wood, and prettily carved. Specimens of their spoons and ladles, which are sometimes executed in an ancient style of carving, might serve as patterns to our own artists and silversmiths. Most of them can execute little works in silver, copper, and iron, and make, or at least, keep in repair, their rustic clocks and watches; but every one of them is his own carpenter and joiner—his own tailor, shoe-maker, &c. Near Drontheim Mr. Twining saw some wooden bridges they had thrown across the river Guulelf, and its tributary streams, that were remarkable for the elegance of their construction and the span and boldness of their arches.

They are very fond of music, and make their own simple instruments. The most common of these, and one which is much used in all the pastoral districts, is called the *luur*. It is the same as the Alphorn of the Swiss mountaineers. Bishop Heber calls it a cow-pipe, and says it is an instrument five feet long, made out of the bark of the birch-tree, with a rude but not unmusical sound. One which Mr. Twining examined was made of two pieces of wood, of the wild pine, hollowed out and tied together with twigs of osier. He describes its notes as singularly soft and clear, but

their effect was no doubt heightened by scenery and circumstances. "I ran out of my rustic chamber," he says, "and directing my steps in the direction of those sweet sounds, I soon saw by the side of a cabin on the very margin of the lake, a young girl, holding in her hand a long wooden trumpet. The instrument had ceased at my approach, but at my request the young peasant again blew her *luur*, and produced notes still clearer and more harmonious. She executed with a remarkable facility several motives with frequent variations; but she often stopped, and every pause was filled by other distant sounds that appeared to come from a wooded cliff on the opposite side of the lake. I was not certain whether this was the echo of the strong and clear sounds I had heard, or a reply to them, made by some shepherd hid in the wood; but I presently discovered that the airs were different, and then I suspected that the maiden had come out of her cottage to reply with her horn to the notes sent across the waters by a brother or a friend." The peasants also make a sort of guitar with five strings. In the valley of Driostuen, where he says the greatest simplicity of manners reigns, "in some respects almost approaching Arcadian elegance," Heber found a girl playing on this instrument to call some calves up from pasture. After a little solicitation she let him hear several tunes, most of which were lively. On being asked to sing, she refused because it was Sunday; but on a sign from her father she ran to fetch her elder sisters, and a little brother, who began singing psalms very agreeably, till the old man and an elder son joined in the chorus, "which," says the Bishop, "they did with the true parish-clerk twang."

At their rare festivals and social meetings the peasants amuse themselves with singing and dancing. Many of their songs are patriotic, and sung to simple and touching airs. Their favorite dance, called the "Polsk," is generally kept up the whole of the night to the merry sound of the fiddle. "This," says Sir A. Brooke, "is the national dance of Norway, and is performed with a degree of spirit and enthusiasm I never before witnessed. The manner of dancing is this. Each of the men, taking his partner by the left hand, runs round the room at a pretty sharp kind of trot, rather than step. The lady, during this, occasionally whirls round by herself, with the same kind of movement as is practised by our young ladies in the quadrille, and her partner does the same. The Polsk dance then begins, which consists in a very rapid whirl, something similar to the waltz; but the motion far more violent, and the time entirely different. It is excessively difficult to perform, on account of the quickness of the whirl, and the necessity there is, nevertheless, of keeping the exact time. It is a highly amusing dance, and the eagerness with which the Norwegians hasten to join in it when the Polsk is played, shows their extreme fondness for it."

We regret to be obliged to add, that at these merry-makings, drunkenness—the vice of the north—is by no means uncommon, both sexes drinking a coarse kind of brandy to excess. They are, however, very good-natured in their cups; quarreling or fighting, which too generally attend such carousings, rarely or never take place with them, but all passes off in perfect mirth and good humor. The occasions, too, are rare, only occurring once a year, on the feast of St. John, and at some betrothal or wedding. Couples are generally betrothed several years before the marriage takes place.

Among their common amusements in winter is wolf-hunting, which is

not merely a pastime, but a useful and necessary operation to keep the country clear of those ravenous animals, which swarm in many parts. One of their methods is very droll:—parties go out in sledges, having a little pig in each sledge; when they get among the woods and rocks, they tread upon its tail, or pinch it, to make the pig squeak; this noise presently attracts the wolves, that sometimes rush out in such troops that even good shots are in danger. They also hunt the bears, which are numerous in many parts of Norway; and they follow up this sport with remarkable spirit and address. The bears do a deal of mischief, not only killing cattle, but destroying corn: they rarely attack men. At all seasons the shepherds in the mountains are followed by large dogs, something like the Newfoundland species, armed with collars set with iron spikes, to protect them against the wolves, that frequently attack them, and endeavor to seize them by the throat. The bears, on the contrary, usually fly from the dogs.

In the long winter season, when hill and vale are covered with snow, and the rivers and lakes frozen over, they make distant journeys in sledges, going with extraordinary rapidity, and straight forward, like the flight of the crow, instead of being obliged, as in summer time, to proceed circuitously round the heads of their rivers and lakes, or to wait on the shores to be slowly ferried over them. By the usual summer route it is nearly 400 miles from Christiana to Drontheim—by the winter route the distance is reduced nearly one-half, and this is performed with inconceivable velocity over lake and mountain, the traveler vying in speed with the troops of hungry wolves that follow his track. Another and a more independent and almost equally rapid way of traveling at that season is by skating. The *skies* of the Norwegians are very different from our skates, being, indeed, a union of the skate and snow-shoe. They are made of a hard wood, and are from six to eight feet long by six inches broad: the left *skie* is shorter than the right, to enable the skater to turn more quickly in wheeling. The feet are firmly fixed in them at about the middle of the *skie*. The skater holds in his hand a long staff, with which he directs his course, and accelerates it occasionally by pushing it against the snow. Underneath, the *skies* are covered with seal-skin, or pieces of a rough boar's hide, the hairs of which being turned backwards give a hold on the snow, which is necessary in ascending mountains. It is on the level ground—still more on the clear ice of the lakes—but most of all on the steep descents of the mountains, that play is made with the *skies*, and a rapidity of motion produced which, in the last case, may be compared to the headlong speed of a cataract or an avalanche. When the snow is in good condition, the peasants do not hesitate to descend the steepest precipices in this manner. Mr. Twining says, that the use of the *skies* is familiar to every Norwegian, without distinction of age or sex; that it is upon them the dispersed inhabitants of isolated cottages repair in winter time to church, traversing plains, hills, and arms of the sea, and saving at times three or four leagues of the distance they are obliged to travel at other seasons.

But the most striking circumstance connected with the Norwegian *skie*, is its adoption by a whole regiment of militia, raised among the peasantry and the miners of Röras, who are called *Skielobere*, or Regiment of Skaters. "Two battalions," says Bishop Heber, "of about 600 men, stationed in the north and south of Norway, are drilled in the winter on skates; these men are only called out twice a year, but they have frequent private drills

for recruits. When they exercise in skates they have their rifles slung, and carry a staff in their hands, flattened at the end to prevent its sinking into the snow, and to assist them in the leaps they are sometimes compelled to take when going down hill (which we were told they do with wonderful rapidity) over such obstacles as obstruct their progress. The only difference in their method of drawing up is, that in winter they allow between the files room to turn in the skates, which they do by changing the right foot by an extraordinary motion, which would seem to dislocate the ancle." To this information Sir A. de Capell Brooke adds—

"The *Skielobere* have frequently been employed with great success against the enemy in the wars with Sweden. Indeed, an army would be completely in the power of even a handful of these troops, which, stopped by no obstacle, and swift as the wind, might attack it on all points; while the depth of the snow, and the nature of the country, would not only make any pursuit impossible, but almost deprive them of the means of defence, the *Skielobere* still hovering round them like swallows, skimming the icy surface, and dealing destruction upon their helpless adversaries." In summer the *Skielobere* have nothing to distinguish them from a common rifle corps; their uniform is light green.

Like most mountaineers inhabiting wild and romantic regions, and leading solitary lives, the peasants of Norway are rather superstitious. They believe in several evil spirits, called by the general name of *Neiss*, that frequent lonely places, and appear under a variety of forms; some of them, like "the spectre hound in Mann," show themselves in the shape of a large, rough, white dog, with very long ears. The lake of Dillingen, according to their tales, is the favorite residence of Noeck, the kelpie of Norway, though he sometimes shows himself in other parts of the country. He is described as a being of great malevolence and strength, that appears in the form of a large black horse. Should a bold peasant succeed in bridling him he is said to become a very useful animal, and to serve his master faithfully. This odd information was given to Heber by an English servant, married in the country, who added that a relation of his wife had told him seriously that he had himself seen Noeck in harness, quietly drawing a plough; but the moment the bridle was taken off, he galloped away with prodigious violence and noise, plunged into the lake and disappeared! Of fairies, the most pleasing part of a fanciful creation, they seem to have no notion; they apply the old Gothic name of *Dvergar*, by which fairies were universally known in the north, to merely mortal dwarfs. They have a confident belief in presages of death by supernatural lights and mystic noises heard at the dead of night. They have a great dread of witchery and sorcery, and in their apprehensions the poor Finns, or Laplanders, retain their old reputation; and are still potent diviners and sorcerers, that can call up spirits by the beat of drum, and kill a man by shooting an arrow towards him, though he be a hundred leagues off. The peasants are not yet quite convinced that these destructive little quadrupeds, the lemmings, which appear so suddenly, are not rained down from heaven; and the fishermen on the coast still believe in the existence of the kraken, or measureless sea serpent, which many of them vow they have seen with their own eyes.

The costume of the peasantry varies in different parts of Norway; nearly every district has a dress of its own, and while some of these are pictu

NORWAY—PEASANTRY.

resque, the very variety is a source of pleasure to the eye of the traveler. It is evident that several of these dresses have undergone no change of fashion for centuries. Von Buch was at first astonished at the apparition of young people in the garb of his great grandfathers and great grandmothers; and De Capell Brooke was equally surprised one evening, when he found himself suddenly surrounded at a mountain village by a number of pretty girls who had just rushed out from the dance, wearing very high-heeled shoes, and waists that would have vied in length with those of four centuries ago. In some parts the women have their hair *snooded* in a large knot on the crown of the head, and in fair weather wear nothing over it but a very white and clean handkerchief, tastefully arranged. In other districts the hair is quite concealed under a close lace cap, covered with a quantity of ribands.

Mr. Twining, whose journey was chiefly directed in search of the picturesque, and who looked at these things with the eye of an artist, gives some notes on costume, that will be rendered more intelligible by his designs, which we have copied here. He says it is in Ourdal that the dress of the peasantry begins to have a picturesque and national character. The men wear a very short vest, and a large bonnet, sometimes blue, but more generally red. Their hair is light brown, and worn very long. Some of the smart young villagers adorn their jackets with double rows of metal buttons, with embroidery, and silver clasps. They all have a leather girdle round the waist, in which they generally carry a large knife, called a *dolk-knif*. With this *dolkknif* they carve in wood, and perform many other offices. According to Pontoppidan, a Norwegian clergyman who wrote a history of his country in the early part of the last century, the peasants were then very quarrelsome, and often used the *dolkknif* in their disputes. Indeed, he says that this was so much the case, that a wife was always supposed to carry her husband's shroud about her whenever they went to a wedding feast, or other merry-making; and that in consequence of frequent stabbing, the custom of carrying knives was forbidden. It now appears, however, from a variety of authorities, that their temper is improved, and that, although they carry the knife, such a bad use of it is exceeding rare.

Generally speaking, the women of Ourdal have no other *coiffure* than a long and beautiful head of hair, which at times is disposed in two large tresses that fall behind, at others left loose and unbound to float round the neck and cover the shoulders with its thick curls. They generally wear a camisole, or vest, of a gray color, which descends a little below the waist, and is buttoned in front; when this is not used they wear long white sleeves, and a very small corset, which rises behind between the shoulders. This latter is not unlike the well known costume of the female peasantry of the Canton of Berne, in Switzerland; but instead of the piece of black velvet round the neck used by the Burnoises, the fair Norwegians wear a sort of cravat, precisely the same as that worn by the men. In Gulbransdalen the women wear enormous buckles, which make a clinking noise as they walk, and such high-heeled shoes, that they have quite a gigantic appearance. Their dress consists of a loose chemise, coarse but clean, which is tied round the throat, and of one dark colored petticoat, without stays or anything else. But in cold weather they put on a camisole, or waistcoat without sleeves, made exactly like that of a man. Their hair, snooded

round with tape, and tied back from the forehead, falls over the neck and shoulders in long ringlets. The dress of the mountaineers in the neighborhood of Bergen is exceedingly picturesque. The women are distinguished by the variety of their head-dresses, which serve as a sure index to the villages they belong to. Some wear a large white handkerchief, which is drawn out into wings on either side—some wear a high singularly shaped cap—others wrap their hair in a sort of turban, made of red cotton or red flannel; the vest is generally of a bright red color—the corset yellow, and most of them use a girdle round the waist, ornamented in front with a clasp and plate of copper. The men in many parts wear long thick beards. A coarse plaid cloth, like the Scotch, manufactured by the peasants themselves, is in pretty general use, and the men also wear garters of very lively colors tied in large bows at the knees.

In other and higher essentials—in language, manners, feelings and intelligence, the Norwegians bear a striking resemblance to the Scotch and the people of the north of England.

PALERMO.

PALERMO, the capital of the island of Sicily, is beautifully situated on a gulf five miles in length, and at the extremity of a natural amphitheatre formed by lofty mountains. The approach by sea is magnificent. Monte Pellegrino, lofty and picturesque in the extreme, stands over a narrow but fertile plain, and seems posted there as a giant to protect the fair city, which in part stretches along the curving shores of the bay, and in part retires inland on some very gentle declivities, that are backed everywhere by pleasant hills, groves and gardens. The force of language and metaphor has almost been exhausted to find expressions to describe the beautiful plain round Palermo. The town itself is not altogether unworthy of the site. It is regularly built, has some fine streets, and, taken, on the whole, an air of elegance and solidity. Two principal streets, each about a mile in length, cross each other at right angles, and divide the city into four pretty equal quarters. At both ends of these two streets there is an ornamental *porta*, or gate, and at the point of their intersection in the middle of the town there is a handsome octangular square, called Piazza Vigliena, or Quattro Cantonera, from the centre of which there is a fine view of the two great streets, with the gates that terminate them. The northern gate, called Porta Felice, towards the suburb of the Marina and the sea, is richly ornamented, and has a very graceful effect. Besides this central square there are several other piazze, ornamented with obelisks and with fountains; the largest of these squares are, Il Piano della Marina, a space in front of the royal palace, and another near the senate house, which is occupied by a fine large fountain. The number of these public ornaments and luxuries, and the abundant supply of water, are immense advantages, and fully appreciated during the intense

heats of the summer. Most of the houses in the good part of the town have fountains, and water is conveyed even to the second and third stories.

The two great streets are well paved, and have *trot-toirs*, or side pavements, those excellent provisions for the pedestrian which are too commonly neglected in continental towns. The houses are lofty, and nearly uniform in height; and were the two streets somewhat broader, they might be classed among the finest in the south of Europe: but, as it is, the Cassero is broader, longer, and more regular than the famed Corso at Rome. Sicilian architecture, however, will not stand a comparison with the Roman. The movement, the activity, the constant animation of these streets, with the exception of an hour or two in the middle of the day in summer, when people retire to take their siesta, are exceedingly striking, especially so to a traveler who comes from the interior of the country, or from any other town of the island, where everything seems languid and dull. Indeed, Palermo is the only city in Sicily that does not convey a melancholy idea of decay and depopulation. The lesser streets for the most part run parallel with the two main ones, and afford a ready access to them at all points. Some of the lower parts of the town are filthy, and excessively disorderly. There is a particular district, which is (or rather *was*) occupied by the *conciariotti*, or tanners and leather dressers, that has obtained a bad name in history; for at every revolution, riot, or insurrection, its inhabitants distinguished themselves by their ferocity; whilst, even in peaceful ordinary times, it was scarcely safe to pass through their streets, where an officer or police dared not show his face, and where criminals were harbored with impunity. It was, in short, a kind of Alsatia, as described by Walter Scott in his "Fortunes of Nigel." The conciariotti, at whose name the quiet citizens used to tremble, were incorporated and bound together by by-laws of their own making; besides which, they enjoyed as a body certain privileges and impunities *ab antico*. To offend one member was to make a quarrel with the whole nest of hornets, whose stings were sure and terrible. During the revolutionary proceedings of 1820, they barbarously massacred several of the Sicilian nobility; but had their ardor and nationality been properly directed, the Neapolitan army would never have entered Palermo. Since that time their district and dens have been well searched and cleared, their privileges utterly abolished, and the conciarotti seem to have become about as good subjects as the rest of the Sicilian populace.

The city is surrounded by an old, weak, and broken wall; some of the bastions are occupied by gardens, and others have been wholly cut away to increase the breadth of the Marina, a beautiful drive and promenade on the sea-shore. The port, however, is rather well defended by the citadel, Fort la Galita, and other works. There is a strong mole-head battery at the end of the mole, or pier, which forms the convenient port, and is in itself a noble work, running from the arsenal, for the length of a quarter of a mile, into nine or ten fathoms depth of water.

In the interior of Palermo one is continually reminded of the Saracens and the Normans, who successively held possession of Sicily, and whose styles of architecture, sometimes separate, and sometimes mixed, still survive them, and give a peculiarly characteristic air to the city which is hardly to be found anywhere else. In the royal palace, a spacious building, now the residence of the viceroys of Sicily, the Saracenic or Arabic, and

THE CITY OF PALERMO

the Norman architectures are blended together in a most singular manner, and predominate over the whole, though modern additions and alterations—the mixing of the new with the old—give the edifice a patchwork sort of appearance. Attached to it is the beautiful little church of St. Peter, which, with its cryptic or underground chapel and superb mosaics, is quoted as one of the most perfect specimens extant of Saracenic taste and magnificence. In the armory of the palace they show the silver-hilted sword of the brave Norman chieftain Count Ruggiero (Roger), who took Palermo from the Saracens in 1073, and became the independent sovereign of all Sicily. In the old cathedral which was built during the twelfth century by Archbishop Walter, an Englishman, there are many, and some of them very fine features, of the Oriental style. In one part the roof is formed by a succession of small domes, precisely like those found on the mosques of Cairo and Constantinople. Some of the windows are small, with the low heavy Norman arch; but others spring up lightly and beautifully, and terminate in the form of a sharp arrow-head. The exterior is rich in moulding and tracery; and though, both within and without, this ancient cathedral has suffered much from injudicious modern alterations, it is still a picturesque and most interesting object. The nave is supported by eighty-four magnificent columns of Sicilian granite, which resembles the Oriental granite. There are some sarcophagi in the church, made of the finest red porphyry, which contain the bodies of princes of the Norman and other dynasties. In 1781, one of these, which enclosed the body of Frederic of Aragon, who became king of the island a few years after the fearful massacre of the Sicilian vespers, and the expulsion of the French, was opened, in presence of many persons, when it was observed that, although the body had lain there for 144 years, it was perfect and entire. It was clothed in a triple imperial dress, all richly ornamented with gold, pearls, and embroidery.

Besides the old cathedral, the churches of San Cataldo, San Giovanni Eremito, Martorana, and some others, are of the Saracenic or Norman eras. The Saracenic style, again, shows itself in many of the palaces. That of Ziza, outside of the town, which was once the habitation of Mussulman princes, is in almost perfect preservation, as well as a small adjoining mosque. The building is of hewn stone, with light airy arches, icicle-like pendants, mullions, and tracery. Within the palace there are fountains, courts, and arcades, that remind one of the splendid ruins of the Alhambra in Granada. There is a view from a terrace so exquisitely beautiful as almost to justify the inscription made upon it, which says, "Europe is the glory of the world,—Italy of Europe,—Sicily of Italy,—and the country hereabout of Sicily." The Zizi palace is still inhabited, and was, a few years ago, the residence of Prince Sandoval.

Some of the public buildings of Palermo are imposing from the breadth of front and extent. The great Custom House in the Piazza Marina, was formerly the office of the Inquisition. That dreadful institution was finally abolished by the enlightened viceroy, the Marquis of Carraccioli, in 1782; but as late as 1724 it sent two victims to the flames, a nun and a monk, who were both insane, and who had previously suffered twenty-five years of imprisonment, the rack, and all the tortures employed by that merciless brotherhood. Twenty-six other prisoners of the Inquisition were dragged to the spot to witness the frightful execution.

The Jesuits' College is a vast and magnificent edifice, commodiously divided into many wings and compartments. When Sicily was constitutionalized, in 1812, under the auspices of the British Cabinet, the parliament held its sittings within the walls of this building. Though only in their political infancy, the chambers did some good during their brief existence, which ended only to the year 1815. They abolished the use of torture, and of those infamous dungeons called *damusi*, which they should have blocked up and wholly destroyed, and so have obliterated one of the disgraces of the city, while they removed the ready temptation offered to some tyrant who might employ them again. The *piombi* and *pozzi* of Venice were scarcely more dreadful than the *damusi* of Palermo: these were subterranean dungeons, dark and damp, about six feet square, and paved with pointed sharp stones, that cut and wore away the flesh; the prisoners thrown into them were loaded with chains that bore them to the ground—their flinty bed,—for they were not allowed so much as a little straw to lie upon. Once a day a piece of bread and a cup of water were lowered down to them. If a culprit could endure this torture for forty days without making any confession he was dismissed as innocent; but, in general, a much shorter time was sufficient to undermine the strongest constitution, as the little air confined in those narrow underground cells soon became intolerably bad.

All the antiquities of Palermo are of the middle ages; everything beyond the Saracenic and Norman eras has strangely disappeared. There is not a vestige of the splendid theatres, temples, and stoas of the Panormus (Palermo) of the Romans; these have all been swept away, and every fragment of them, except a few inscriptions and broken statues which are preserved in the senate-house. The celebrated ancient port, which penetrated into the very heart of the city, and bore vessels to the doors of the inhabitants, has been entirely blocked up by successive earthquakes and cannot be traced. These convulsions of nature, which occur frequently in Sicily, have no doubt had a large share in the work of destruction, but they have not done all that work. Fazello, a native historian who wrote about a century and a half ago, indignantly censures and laments the overthrow of some most ancient edifices that took place in his days. These, he says, were not laid low by the injuries of time, nor by the enemy, but cast down by his fellow-citizens and an infamous decree of the senate.

THE MARKET CROSS OF CHICHESTER.

CHICHESTER, like Chester, preserves its walls; and like that city too, it exhibits, in the manner in which it lies, and the direction of its principal streets, undoubted evidence of having been a Roman settlement or encampment. Chichester stands on elevated ground, between six and seven miles from the sea-coast, in the western division of Sussex. It does not contain anything remarkable, beyond the Cathedral.

THE MARKET CROSS—CHICHESTER.

with its finely proportioned steeple; its old Town Hall; the old palace of the bishops of Chichester; and the Market Cross, of which a view is given. The walls, which are about a mile and a half in circuit, will, as long as they are preserved, be interesting to the antiquarian, and to all who wish to see actual evidence of what walled cities were in times passed away, and also to remark the mode in which Roman encampments were laid out. Chichester is believed to have been the Roman Regnum, or capital of the Regni; and it is supposed that the Emperor Vespasian resided here about the year A. D. 50, and that Claudius erected a temple within the city. After the Romans left Britain it was occupied by the Saxons, from one of whom, a famous leader or chieftain, named Cissa, it was, (at least so it is conjectured) called *Cissan Ceaster*, the city or castle of Cissa, and subsequently Chichester.

The Market Cross stands in the center of the city, at the intersection of the two principal streets, which run east and west, north and south. It was intended to shelter persons who brought articles to the market. A large central column, from which spring numerous bold ribs, beneath a vaulted roof, and eight pier buttresses, support the superincumbent panneled wall, parapet, pinacles, and flying buttresses. Shields, charged with the arms of the bishop, named Story, impaling those of the reigning monarch, are attached to the buttresses; whilst the walls between the arches and the outer ogee mouldings are ornamented with sculptured mitres. These mouldings terminate with large and elaborate finials, which serve as brackets to pedestals in niches, which are surmounted by fine canopies. Three inscriptions on tablets fill as many niches, whilst large clockdials are inserted above them. The clock was presented by "Dame Elizabeth Farrington, as an hourly memento of her good will," in 1724.

THE GLUTTON.

AMONG the plantigrade feræ, to which group it belongs, no species has been so celebrated as the glutton, the bear itself not excepted; but, as is too often the case, its celebrity has depended rather upon exaggerated accounts of its habits and manners, than upon a knowledge of its real character. Stripped, however, of all false coloring, its history is interesting; and the more so, inasmuch as it is little known.

The glutton (*Gulo Luscus*) is a native of the northern regions, both of the old and new world. It is found in Sweden, Russia, and Siberia, as well as in the northern parts of America, from the coasts of Labrador and Davis Straits to the shores of the Pacific; and it even visits the islands of the Polar Sea, its bones having been found in Melville Island, nearly in latitude 75°.

The first writer who has described this animal is Olaus Magnus. "Among all animals," he says, "which are regarded as insatiably voracious, the glutton in the northern parts of Sweden has received an express appel-

lation, being called, in the language of the country, *Jerff*, and in German, *Wilfras*. In the Sclavonian language its name is *Rossomaka*, in allusion to its voracity; in Latin, however, it is only known by the fictitious name of *Gulo*, from its habit of gorging." In North America, we may add, it is termed *Wolverene*, and *Quickehatch* (a corruption of its Cree Indian name). The French Canadians call it *Carcajou*, (also a corruption of the Cree term *okee-coo-haw-gew*).

The glutton is, indeed, a voracious animal, but by no means formidable to man or the larger beasts, though in proportion to its size its strength is very great. Its general appearance is that of a bear in miniature; its head is broad and compact, and rounded off on every side to form the nose. The ears are short and rounded, and almost hidden among the fur; the back is arched, the tail short and bushy, the limbs thick, short, and very muscular: the whole contour of the animal indicates vast strength, but only a small share of activity. In walking, the glutton places the entire sole of the feet on the ground, and imprints a track on the snow or soft earth, so like that of a bear, that it may be easily mistaken for it. The Indians, however, at once distinguish the tracks by the length of the steps. The general color of the fur, which is long and full, and much like that of a black bear, is dark brown, a paler band passing along each side, and uniting on the crupper; there are also a few irregular whitish markings on the throat and chest. The length of the head and body is two feet six inches, of the tail (with its fur) ten inches.

Slow in its movements, and destitute of activity, it makes up by perseverance and industry for every deficiency, and, at a steady pace, pursues its prey for miles,—hunts out weak or dying animals, and destroys hares, marmots, and birds, which it seizes unawares. Buffon, relying on the accounts of Olaus Magnus, Isbrand, and others, has contributed to render current the statement—which many later naturalists have considered not incredible—that it has recourse to the most subtle artifice in order to surprise its victims; and that it lurks in the branches of trees until the reindeer approaches to browse beneath, or the elk to take repose, when it throws itself upon them with unerring rapidity, fixes its strong claws in their skin, and begins at once to tear and devour, till the wretched sufferer, exhausted by pain and loss of blood, sinks down and miserably dies,—when it devours the carcass at its ease, leaving nothing but the skin and skeleton. Gmelin, in his account of his journey through Siberia, after quoting the statement of Isbrand, adds,—"This address of the glutton in managing to seize animals by surprise is confirmed by all the hunters." * * "Although it feeds on all animals, living or dead, it prefers the reindeer. It lies in wait for large animals, as a robber on the highway, and it also surprises them as they lie asleep." He also adds, that it visits the traps and snares of the fur hunters of Siberia, for the sake of the animals taken in them; and that the hunters of the isatis (*Cossac fox*) complain bitterly of the mischief which the glutton does. This description of the injury suffered by the fur hunters, from its depredations, in a great measure tallies with that of Dr. Richardson, who, in allusion to the glutton, or wolverene, of the northern regions of America, says, that it is "a carnivorous animal, which feeds chiefly upon the carcasses of beasts that have been killed by accident. It has great strength, and annoys the natives by destroying their hoards of provisions, and demolishing their marten traps. It is so suspicious that it

THE GLUTTON AND REINDEER.

will seldom enter a trap itself, but, beginning behind, pulls it to pieces, scatters the logs of which it is built, and then carries off the bait. It feeds also on meadow mice, marmots, and other *Rodentia*, and occasionally, on *disabled quadrupeds* of a larger size. I have seen one chasing an American hare, which was at the same time harrassed by a snowy owl. It resembles the bear in its gait, and is not fleet, but very industrious, and no doubt feeds well, as it is generally fat. It is much abroad in the winter, and the track of its journey, in a single night, may often be traced for many miles. From the shortness of its legs, it makes its way over the snow with difficulty; but when it falls upon the beaten track of a marten trapper, it will pursue it for a long way. Mr. Graham observes, that the wolverenes are extremely mischievous, and do more damage to the small-fur trade than all the other rapacious animals conjointly. They will follow the marten hunter's path round a line of traps extending forty, fifty, or sixty miles, and render the whole unserviceable, merely to come at the baits, which are generally the head of a partridge, or a bit of dried venison. They are not fond of the martens themselves, but never fail of tearing them in pieces, or of burying them in the snow by the side of the path, at a considerable distance from the trap. Drifts of snow often conceal the repositories thus made of the martens from the hunter, in which case they furnish a regale to the hungry fox, whose sagacious nostril guides him unerringly to the spot. Two or three foxes are often seen following the wolverene for this purpose."

Of all animals on which the wolverene habitually preys, the beaver is said to be the one which suffers the most from his ferocity, and this the more especially as that aquatic animal is slow on land, and cannot escape pursuit. It is only, however, during the summer that the beaver thus falls a victim to its enemy; for in the winter the beaver is safely housed, the walls of its habitation not only being thick and solid, but frozen as hard as stone,—defying the attempt of any animal, by means of its claws, however strong, to effect an entrance.

With respect to the stratagem, so universally attributed to the glutton, of lurking on the branches of moss-grown trees, and even of enticing the reindeer to approach by throwing down the lichen on which this animal feeds, Dr. Richardson observes, that it is not resorted to by the American wolverene, and he appears to disbelieve the account. Desmarest, however, adopts it as an authenticated fact, relying on the authority of the early writers. There are probably some details connected with this belief which would explain its apparent exaggeration. That the glutton may steal upon the reindeer asleep, or attack weak or dying deer, or young fawns, is very probable; but that it is capable of such artifice and address, as are implied in the account alluded to, requires to be better authenticated before it can be received as truth. Gmelin himself throws a doubt upon it, for one of those animals having advanced into the midst of a party of laborers, with grave and deliberate steps, as if stupidly indifferent to danger, and having suffered itself to be despatched without resistance, he adds, "After the tales which the hunters of Siberia for many years had told me of the address of this animal, in supplying by stratagem the agility denied it by nature, and in avoiding the snares of man, I was very much astonished to see this come deliberately, and as if on purpose, in the midst of us, to seek its own destruction."

When attacked by other animals, the glutton fights desperately, and

three stout dogs are said to be scarcely its match. Isbrand says, that a Waivode, who kept one tame, threw it one day into the water, and set upon it a couple of dogs, when it immediately seized one by the head, and held it under water till it was drowned. It does not, however, defend itself so energetically against man, from whose presence it usually endeavors to escape, and is easily despatched by a hunter, with no other weapon than a stick. In Lapland the glutton is common, and Scheffer, in his "History of Lapland," informs us that it not only preys upon wild animals but commits havoc among such as are domesticated, and even among fish.

HEVER CASTLE.

HEVER CASTLE affords a good example of those residences which arose out of the disturbed state of society during the early periods of history after the Conquest, which suffered a partial dilapidation during the conflicts of the factions of York and Lancaster, and once more rose, in less martial forms, under the governments of Elizabeth and James. It was in the reign of Edward III. that William de Hevre obtained the king's license to "embattle his manor-house." It consists of "a castle," to which a quadrangular house is attached, the whole surrounded by a moat, beyond which several outbuildings, now used as barns, were arranged to meet the wants of extra visitors, and the many festivals, religious and secular, of those "good old times." The elevation or front of the castle is composed of a central keep, pierced by a gate, crowned by strongly projecting machicolations, and flanked by two square towers. The face of the keep is decorated with some well executed tracery, of much later date than the massive walls on which they repose. The gate is of vast strength, and seems to have been the point, of all others, on which the architect bestowed the utmost resources of his defensive skill. First, a deep-browed door-way is passed, defended by a strong portcullis and two thick oaken doors, barred, bolted, and studded with iron knobs; immediately behind these are two guard rooms, in which a dozen men-at-arms might long dispute the passage of a breach. A broad avenue of solid masonry succeeds, and leads straight forward to a second portcullis, and these again to a third; occupying altogether the whole depth of the castle. Most of these works are in a good state of preservation; in two of the portcullises, the original doors, wickets, knockers, gratings, still remain. Over the external gate, immediately under the battlements, about a dozen machicolations project boldly forward, from which red hot lead or other missiles might have been discharged on the heads of assailants. These gates lead the visitor into a spacious court-yard, formed on three sides by the house, which is built in the very early Tudor style, and on the fourth by the castle. The court is neatly paved with red bricks fancifully disposed. The fronts of the house are stuccoed, but were formerly richly embossed and painted with quaint patterns. The entrance to the apartments is usually made by the back

CONWAY CASTLE

front, through what was once the great dining-hall, but which is now used as a kitchen. This is a most interesting place, very spacious, being 90 feet by 30. It contains many fine specimens of old tables, safes, presses, &c., part of the original "Bullen" furniture. The walls appear formerly to have been covered with arms, and decorated with antlers and other memorials of the chase.

Leaving the staircase, several small anterooms are passed, paneled throughout with oak, and at length a door is reached at which the guide pauses, and with much solemnity announces the threshold of Anne Boleyn's bedroom! This is really an interesting apartment, beautifully paneled, and contains the original family chairs, tables, muniment-box, and Anne's bed, a very heavy affair, dressed with yellow damask hangings. A door in one of the corners opens into a strong dark cell, in which Anne was imprisoned by Henry, and where by his order it was attempted to starve her to death. The cell was probably a sort of strong cupboard for plate and valuables. In this apartment, several anterooms succeed, and the suite terminates in a grand gallery occupying the whole length of the building, in which the judicial meetings and social gatherings of the ancient family were held. It is about 150 feet in length by 20 feet in width, with a vaulted roof and paneled throughout with rudely carved oak. On one side, placed at equal distances apart, are three recesses; the first, having a flight of three steps, is fitted up with elbowed benches, where the lord of the castle in old times held his courts, and where Henry is said, on the occasion of his visits, to have received the congratulations of the gentry. A second was occupied by the fire; and the third was used for a quiet corner by the old folks, while the younger ones frolicked through the mazes of a dance. At one end of this gallery a trap-door leads to a dark chamber, called the dungeon, in which the family are believed to have sheltered themselves in "time of trouble;" although it is manifest that the height of the rooms, compared with that of the building, must have betrayed its existence to even a careless observer.

CONWAY CASTLE, WALES.

CONWAY is a very singular and interesting old town, situated on the declivity of a hill sloping towards the estuary of the river from which it receives its name. From without it is extremely beautiful; the ancient walls and towers are still entire, and give it, especially as seen from the eastern side of the river, where the whole circuit of them is seen at once, a most antique and warlike look. Neither are the streets wanting in their share of picturesque effects. Of the gates the handsomest is that on the Llanrwst road. The castle, however, is apt to divert the attention from these minor attractions. The walls and towers are in a very tolerable preservation. None of the staircases are perfect; but a convenient ladder

PONT Y PAIR.

gives easy access, even for ladies, to the top of the walls, of which a complete circuit may be made, so as to obtain a correct idea of the plan of the building and of its external defences. They also command fine and varied views of the surrounding country. Of the building itself the best views are those from the mound beyond the bridge, and from the creek on the south side of the castle, which is the one given in the first engraving. On that side there is a curious proof of the strength of the cement used in building the edifice. In quarrying for stone in the last century the foundation of one of the round towers was so undermined that it gave way, and about half the circumference of the base has fallen in; the upper part of the structure, upheld by the tenacity of its parts, remaining perfect. The chasm shows like an irregular arch.

Near Conway is the singular bridge called Pont y Pair, consisting of five arches, based on the bare rocky bed of the stream. Beneath it the river forms a cascade of no considerable height, but very striking from its rapidity and volume. In general one arch is amply sufficient for the passage of the waters, which have excavated a deep and narrow chasm in the rock. But the breadth of the bare rock testifies to the extent of the stream in time of flood; and at such seasons the rush of waters is said to be most grand and imposing.

ICE PALACE, ST. PETERSBURG

THE beautiful lines in "Cowper's Task," though much more poetical than exact, are descriptive of that "most magnificent and mighty freak," the ice palace of the Empress Anne, which was erected at St. Petersburg in January, 1740. The following account is taken from a detailed description of the edifice published at St. Petersburg in the year 1741, when all the circumstances relating to this extraordinary building were fresh in the memory of the writer.

After a pretty lengthy dissertation on the effects of frost and the qualities of ice, which has little to do with the matter in hand, the writer proceeds to panegyrize the noble Alexis Danilovitch Tatishchev, who originated the design of the Ice Palace, the Empress Anne who furnished the funds, and the Palace itself, which merited, he says, to be placed among the stars, to be transported to Saturn, the temperature of which distant planet would have been fitted, the writer thinks, to give it permanency.

The intention of the projectors of the Ice Palace was to build it upon the river Neva itself, in order to be as near as possible to the source from which the ice was to be procured. It was accordingly begun upon that river towards the end of the year 1739; but, says the author, "the ice of this river which sustains the weight of many thousand armed men; which supports great cannons and mortars, frequently discharged; which did not break under the immense weight of a fortress of ice and snow, attacked and defended according to all the rules of war, and taken at last sword in

hand (which was performed seven years ago in a show represented before the Empress); this ice, I say, began to give way under the walls of the palace as soon as they were raised to some considerable height; whence it was easily concluded that it could not support the weight of the whole when completed." In consequence of this failure it was resolved to begin again, and to build the palace on land: a site was accordingly selected between the Fortress of the admiralty and the new winter residence of the Empress, and the work was begun with the advantage of the experience in ice building gained by the attempt on the river.

The manner of building was very simple; the purest and most transparent ice was selected; it was cut from the Neva in large blocks, which were then squared with rule and compass, and carved out with all the regular architectural embellishments. When each block was ready, it was raised to its destined place by cranes and pulleys, and an instant before letting it down upon the block which was to support it, a little water was thrown between the two, the upper block was immediately lowered, the water froze, and the two became literally one. The whole building appeared to be and really was all of one single piece, "producing without contradiction an effect infinitely more beautiful than if it had been built of the most costly marble, its transparency and bluish tint giving it rather the appearance of a precious stone."

The dimensions of the building were in English measure, length 56 feet, depth 18 feet, height including the roof, 21 feet. This is the body of the house; the palisading was 87 feet in length and 36 in width, and the actual length of the front view, including the pyramids at the corners, was 114 feet.

When the work was completed, the public were allowed an unrestricted passage through every part of the building. This at first caused a good deal of confusion, which was however obviated by surrounding the entrance with a wooden railing, and stationing police officers who allowed only a certain number of persons to pass in at one time.

The façade was plain, being merely divided into compartments by pilasters. In each division there was a window, the frame-work of which was painted to represent green marble: it was remarked that the ice at the low temperature which prevailed took the paint perfectly well. The panes were formed of slabs of ice, as transparent and smooth as plate glass: at night these windows were generally lighted up, and most commonly grotesque transparencies painted on canvass were placed in the windows. The effect of the illumination is said to have been peculiarly fine, as the light appeared not only at the windows, but from the transparency of the material, the whole palace was filled with a delicate pearly light. The centre division projected, and appeared to be a door; but it was in fact a large window, and was illuminated like the others. An ornamental balustrade surmounted the façade of the building, and behind was the sloping roof with chimneys, in the usual style of Russian architecture. A handsome balustrade, all of ice, ran round the outside of the building. A large space was left for a promenade between the balustrade and the palace. There were also two entrances behind, with gates handsomely ornamented with orange trees in leaf and flower, with birds perched on the branches, all of ice.

Six cannons, regularly bored and turned, with their wheels and carriages, stood before the balustrade, three on each side; these were of the calibre

of such as usually receive three pounds of powder, but being of so fragile a material it was not considered safe to put in more than a quarter of a pound; the ball was of hard tow, well rammed in. Two or three times iron balls were fired from these cannons without bursting them. The experiment was tried in the presence of the court, and the ball pierced a strong plank two inches thick, at the distance of sixty paces. Two mortars stood on each side of the entrance; these were of the size of those which carry a shell of eighty pounds: when fired the charge of powder was the same as that for the cannons. On the same line stood two dolphins, which were made to throw a stream of inflamed naphtha out of their mouths, at night, by means of concealed tubes.

At the extremities of the rows of cannons, in advance of the balustrade, stood two pyramids surmounted with globes. They were raised on handsome pedestals, and had a circular window, around which a dial was painted on each of the four sides. They were hollow within, and could be entered by a doorway placed in the rear. A large paper lantern of eight sides, with monstrous figures painted on them, was hung up in the middle of each pyramid and illuminated at night; a man was stationed within to turn about the lantern, and each of the figures on it presented itself in succession at the windows of the pyramid, to the great amusement of the multitude.

An elephant of the natural size was placed on the left side of the building, and on his back was a Persian, holding a battle axe in his hand; two other Persians, one of whom held a spear, were placed in front of him. The elephant was hollow, and was made to throw water through his trunk to the height of twenty-four feet. This was done by means of tubes leading from the foss of the Admiralty near which it stood. At night burning naphtha was substituted for water, and the effect is said to have been very singular, the appearance being that of a stream of fire. To make this part of the exhibition more remarkable, a man was placed within the figure, who from time to time blew through certain pipes so as to make a noise like the roaring of an elephant. On the right of the house, at about the same distance as the elephant, a bath was built, made of round logs of ice, like the log baths used in Russia: "this bath," says our author, "was more than once actually heated and used."

After describing the outside we come to the inside of this "great plaything." The entrance was behind, and the spectator was introduced into a spacious and handsome vestibule with one room on each side. There were no other rooms than these, so that they were sufficiently spacious, and as there was no ceiling under the roof they were also very lofty.

In one of these rooms which was the bed-room, there was a dressing table fully set out with a looking-glass, and all sorts of powder and essence boxes, jars, bottles, a watch, a pair of candlesticks and candles, all of ice; the candles were sometimes smeared with naphtha and set in a blaze without melting. Before the table two little figures were placed as supporters, and against the wall a mirror was hung. In the other half of the room was the bedstead, with bed, pillows, and counterpane, finely wrought curtains, and other furniture. There was a fire-place on the right, elegantly carved, and within were logs of ice, which were occasionly smeared with naphtha and set fire to. All the other parts of the room were fitted up in a corresponding manner.

The other principal room may be called either the dining or drawing-room: here was a table with a handsome time-piece, all provided with wheels of ice, which were visible through the transparent case. On each side were settees or sofas handsomely carved, and two large statues were placed in the corners of the room, besides other furniture.

Here ends the description of this immense toy, which was indeed

——"transient in its nature, as in show
'Twas durable."

The writer of the account says: "As long as the excessive cold lasted, that is, from the beginning of January to the middle of March, so long did this remarkable edifice stand: it then began to give towards the southern side, and soon it gradually melted away. It was not altogether useless in its destruction, for the large blocks of the walls were taken to fill the ice cellars of the imperial palace:" a very poor return for an enormous outlay.

THE BEDOUIN ARABS.

THE word which is variously written Bedouin, Bedoween, Bedowin, or Bedwin, is a corruption of an Arabic word, which signifies "a native of the desert," and which is appropriated to the Arabian tribes that wander in the deserts of Arabia and North Africa, living always in tents in those places where they can find water and pasturage for their cattle. Each tribe is in general considered to have an exclusive property in a district, the extent and value of which is proportioned to the strength and importance of the tribe, and which, in that proportion, are commonly large, affording sufficient room for the migrations which are indispensable among a people whose subsistence is principally derived, through their cattle, from the spontaneous produce of the sterile regions they inhabit. We thus find the same tribe generally seated in the same territory, unless in those instances where any particular tribe has been displaced by another more powerful than itself, or unless the distinctive character of a tribe has been lost in consequence of any deep dislike to its sheikh, or the hope of an advantageous change having induced its members to join some neighboring tribe, which is always glad to receive such additions to its strength. It will be understood that our present remarks apply exclusively to these desert Arabs, whose character and habits are considerably different, not only from those of the Arabs who inhabit towns, but also from those of the tribes who, living on the borders of settled districts having much intercourse with the inhabitants of towns, and being in some degree controlled by the vicinity of an organized government, give their attention, during at least one part of the year, to agriculture, and exhibit the peculiar characteristics of their race in a form vitiated in some respects and softened in others. This class of people have in general acquired little more than the

vices of the condition of life to which they approximate, without having lost any of those which belonged to their original condition.

As might be expected from the extent of country which they inhabit, the personal appearance of the Bedouins varies considerably in different and distant tribes. Speaking generally, however, they may be described as a middle sized and rather thin race of men, with brown complexions and strong black hair. It is rather rare to see a tall man among them, and still more rare to see one corpulent. Indeed we do not remember ever to have seen what we should call a fat man, although men of considerable muscular stoutness may occasionally be seen. The muscles of the limbs, particularly the legs, are in general strongly developed, sometimes giving them an appearance disproportioned to the rest of the body. Their strength is very considerable, and their activity and alertness still greater, but their powers of abstinence and endurance of fatigue are more remarkable still, and are hardly exceeded by those of their camels. They can often travel four or five days without tasting water, under circumstances in which two days' abstinence would be death to a European. Their deep black eyes glare with an intensity such as is perhaps never witnessed in our northern regions, and so as to make a sensible impression on a stranger, who remembers with full credence the most marvellous stories he may have heard of their extraordinary powers of discriminating vision, and the acuteness of their other senses. They in general shave the head, leaving only the customary lock on the top, for the sake of affording a convenient hold to Mahomet when he shall raise them to Paradise. Their beards are very short and thin, which is no small calamity to them, considering the value they set upon that appendage, and the care with which they cultivate it. They anoint and cherish it with care, and each particular hair in it is to them "dear as the ruddy drops" of their heart's blood. To spit upon their beards, even by accident, is an offence scarcely within the limit of things that may be forgiven; and the threat of depriving a Bedouin of that appendage is sufficient, on the one hand, either to render him "a fugitive and a vagabond," or, on the other, to ensure his submission to any extortion and injustice.

The dress of the Bedouins is striking and characteristic. It consists generally of a shirt, a cloak, and a head-dress. The shirt is of coarse cotton, wide, and with large loose sleeves. These shirts are rarely, we may say never, changed or washed, and the necessary consequence ensues, that, as a people, they are much infested with a certain "familiar beast to man," the hunting of which forms one amusement of their superabundant leisure, in which they are much interested. The wealthier sort of people sometimes wear the common Turkish gown of cotton or of mingled cotton and silk; but the bulk of the nation are content with a sort of mantle over the shirt. This mantle is a very curious article of dress. It is generally called an "abba," and is manufactured principally at Bagdad. It reaches from the shoulders to the middle of the leg, and is nearly as wide as long, or even wider, resembling nothing so much as a square sack open in front, and with slits on each side for the arms to be put through; but they seldom are so. It is wide enough to envelop two or three bodies instead of one; and is generally worn loose and open in front. These mantles which are of various qualities and patterns, are woven with hard-twisted woollen thread, or with camels' hair. One sort, thin, light, and white, is occasionally worn

BEDOUIN ROBBERS.

under the other, and is also used sometimes by Turks and Persians as a convenient article of summer dress. Some are quite black, the finer sorts being interwoven with gold, and embroidered with the same or with colored silk. Those in most common use are brown, or in alternate broad, vertical stripes of white and brown, white and blue, white and black, &c. Drawers or trowsers are regarded as superfluities; and the Arabs are almost always barefoot, although they may occasionally be seen with the common Turkish red shoes or yellow boots, which they hold in considerable esteem, but do not at all number among the necessaries of dress. Their head-dress consists of a stout, square kerchief of silk or silk and cotton mixed. It is made for the purpose, and the pattern is usually in broad alternate stripes of dull red and bright yellow, or yellow and green. It is fringed with long, knotted cords, and when in use is folded triangularly, and so placed on the head that one corner hangs down the back, and the two others fall on the fore part of the shoulders, so that they can be used to shelter the face from the sun, wind, or rain, or to conceal their features, if they wish to be unknown. This dependent kerchief with its knotted cords gives to the Bedouin a wild and *maney* appearance, singularly in keeping with their character and countenance. It is confined to its place by a long and thick rope of camels' hair or brown worsted, which is wound several times around the head.

This is the summer dress, and often that of winter also, except that the *abba* is then frequently brought close around the person by means of the girdle which usually confines the shirt. But in many parts it is also usual, as mentioned by Burckhardt, "to wear over the shirt a pelisse made of several sheep skins stitched together; many wear these sheep skins even in summer, because experience has taught them that the more warmly a person is clothed, the less he suffers from the sun."

The Bedouins generally encamp near some rivulet or well, where they remain until their cattle have consumed the herbage. But when, as sometimes happens, good pasturage occurs where no water is to be had, they abstain from water for several weeks together. They drink only milk; and their cattle are also able, with the exception of horses, to dispense with water so long as they can get green and juicy herbage. The encampments vary, in the number of tents and the form in which they are arranged, according to circumstances and the season of the year. When the tents are few in number, they are usually pitched in a circle; but more commonly in straight lines, when numerous, particularly if the encampment is formed near a rivulet. In winter, when the abundance of water and herbage renders concentration unnecessary, the camp is dispersed over the plain in groups of three or four tents, about a mile or a mile and a half asunder. When the camp is together near the only water in the vicinity, the cattle are sent out under the care of shepherds or slaves. They are brought back every evening while the herbage remains unconsumed in the immediate neighborhood. But if they prolong their stay beyond a few days, the flocks and herds are sent out to a considerable distance, and are only brought back to the tents every second or third day for water. When the pasture has been wholly consumed, or only remains unconsumed at too great a distance, a removal becomes necessary.

Burckhardt, to whose intimate acquaintance with the Arabs we are indebted for several details to supply deficiencies in our own information,

gives the following description of a tribe on its march:—"When I was returning from Tadmor towards Damascus, I met, on the same day, two strong encampments, moving slowly over the sandy plain in search of water and pasture; their order of march was as follows:—A party of six horsemen preceding the tribe about four miles, as a reconnoitering detachment, the main body occupied a line of at least three miles in front. First came armed horsemen and camel riders at 150 paces from each other, extending along the whole front; then followed the she camels with their young ones, grazing in wide ranks during their march upon the wild herbage; behind walked the camels loaded with the tents and provisions; and the last were the women and children, mounted on camels, having saddles made in the shape of cradles, with curtains to screen them from the sun. The men indiscriminately rode along and amidst the whole body, but most of them in front of the line; some led horses by the halters; in depth these wandering bodies extended about two miles and a half. I had seen them encamped when on my way to Tadmor, and then estimated one at about 200 and the other at 250 tents; the latter had above 3000 camels. Of all the Arabs I did not see one on foot, except a few shepherds, who drove the sheep and goats about a mile behind the main body."

Our present engraving, which is copied from M. Léon de Laborde, will serve well to illustrate this description. It represents a caravan on the move. The men on the ground have alighted to discuss the inferences which may be deduced from certain foot-marks which they have discovered in the sand.

Their tents are in general from twenty to thirty feet long by something less than half that breadth. They are divided into two apartments by a sort of white woollen carpet, or whatever else is convenient for the purpose. One of these is appropriated to the men and the other to the women. The men's apartment is spread with carpets, and the corn-sacks and camel-bags are there piled up in a pyramid, and the pack-saddles are placed here also for the men to lounge against as they sit on the ground. The room of the women is much less neat and comfortable, being crowded with all the lumber, provisions, and domestic utensils of the tent. The covering of the tent usually consists of stuff made with black goats' hair, and, when in good condition, affords a very adequate protection, not only from the sun, but from heavy rains.

The furniture of the Arab tents is characteristic of the people and their way of life. It consists of pack-saddles and riding-saddles, both for camels and horses, and of bags of hair and leather, with an abundant display of buckets, bottles, and pitchers of the latter material. These articles, together with sundry ropes, a wooden mortar for pounding coffee, a hand-mill, a coffee-pot, a copper-pan, and some wooden dishes, complete the list of utensils necessary to the domestic existence of an Arab. Among these various articles there is none that more strongly attracts the notice of a stranger than the various vessels of skin. There are sometimes large water-bags made of tanned camel-skin; but the skins in most general and diversified use are those of the goat and kid. The bucket is of leather with which they draw water from deep wells; and not only their water, but their milk, butter, cheese, dates, and other articles of provision are carried and retained in skins. Such vessels are not only more portable and less liable to damage in traveling than any other kind of vessel they could obtain,

but in their opinion (which we believe to be correct) they preserve their different articles in a state of greater freshness. Their larger water-bag is most usually the skin of a he-goat; while one from a kid is used as a bottle for occasional use during a day's journey, and commonly hangs suspended from the saddle. The most common sort make a curious appearance when full of water, resembling an animal, the head and feet of which have been cut off. The manner in which the Arabs, and others who use such vessels, obtain them without seam is very simple. When the animal is killed, its head and feet are cut off, and the carcass is drawn out of the skin without the belly being opened.

It is a great mistake to consider the Arabian tribes as leagued together in war against all that is beyond the pale of their own barbarism. They war, but are not leagued in war. There is no union among them. The country is to be viewed as a vast desert apportioned amongst distinct tribes continually at strife with each other, and continually exposed to each other's depredations. And this state of things has continued so long, that the whole matter of mutual depredation has become a subject of definite regulations, which, by heightening the adventure of the business, and diversifying the possible results and contingencies, make it a sort of game in which no one suffers disgrace but the loser.

There is no form of robbery or theft which a Bedouin considers disgraceful. The attempt to plunder one another is considered a fair and honorable undertaking even by him whose property is the object, and who exerts himself to defeat it, and to turn it to the best account for himself that he can. In fact, no discredit attaches to robbery under any circumstances, or upon any person, except when it is committed by an Arab upon one who is actually in his tent. Robberies by Arabs upon their neighbors, in their own camp, and upon their own tribe, are of continual occurrence, nor does such an act leave any stain upon the character of a Bedouin; but neither do they add much to his glory, which must be chiefly won by robbing his own enemies or the enemies of his tribe; and these are almost identical terms, for an individual difference very commonly ends in a misunderstanding between tribes.

If an Arab intends to go on a predatory excursion, he takes with him a dozen friends who all clothe themselves in rags, in order that, if they should be captured, they may have a chance of being unknown, and their ransom proportioned to their apparent condition in life. The trick has grown so stale, however, that it seldom avails, unless under peculiar circumstances. Each man takes a little flour, some salt, and a small skin of water, and thus slenderly provided they often make journeys of eight days from their own camp. When they arrive about evening at the camp against which their enterprise is directed, three of the most daring of the robbers are dispatched towards the tents, at which they take care to arrive about midnight, a time when most Arabs are asleep. The others are to await their return within a short distance of the camp. Each of the three principal actors has an allotted department of duty to perform. One of them, called the *Mostambeh*, gets behind the tent that is to be robbed, and endeavors to attract the attention of the nearest watch-dogs. When he has succeeded, they immediately assail him, on which he takes to his heels, and the dogs pursue him to a great distance. The premises being thus left unprotected, another of the three, who is emphatically styled the *harami* or "robber,"

BEDOUIN ARABS.

advances towards the camels, and cutting the cords which confine their legs, makes them rise from their knees. An unloaded camel always rises and walks about without making the least noise. The *harami* then leads one of the she camels out of the camp, and the others always follow of their own accord. Meanwhile the third of the adventurers (called *kayde*) stands at the door of the tent with a club ready to knock down any one that comes out. As soon as the *harami* has performed his duty, the other joins him in driving off the prey. When they have got to a little distance, each of them seizes one of the strongest camels by the tail, which they pull with all their might. This causes the beasts to set off at a gallop, dragging the men along with them, and followed by the other camels at the same pace, till they arrive at the place where the other men are waiting; then, leaving the camels with them, they hasten to relieve the *mostambe* from the dogs. As many as fifty camels are often stolen in this manner without any alarm having been given. The robbers reach home by forced marches, traveling night and day, and in the ultimate division of the spoil, the chief of the party and the three principal performers get an extra portion.

In an adventure of this daring character it sometimes happens that one or more of the robbers are surrounded and seized; and the treatment to which they are then subjected furnishes illustrations of some of those very peculiar usages which, like their conventional hospitality, seem to have been devised to avert that utter desolation and the entire disruption of every national bond which must have resulted from the unmitigated operation of the system on which they live. Immemorial custom has established the usage in the desert, that if any person who is in actual danger from another can touch a third person, or any inanimate thing which he has in his hands, or with which he is in contact, or that if he can but touch him so indirectly as by spitting upon him, or throwing a stone at him, at the same time exclaiming *Ana dakheilak!* "I am thy protected!" that person is bound by every principle of honor to grant him the protection he demands. A robber who has been captured is naturally always on the watch for an opportunity of taking the benefit of this regulation; and the captor is equally anxious to deprive him of the advantage. The result is curious. The prisoner is compelled by blows, if words fail, to renounce his right to claim this protection. But this renunciation is only valid during the day in which it is made, and he is therefore obliged during every day of his detention, to repeat the renunciation to every one who enters the tent in which he is confined. The object of his detention is to extract the highest possible ransom from him. For this purpose, as well as for his safe custody, and to prevent his opportunities of claiming protection, a grave two feet deep is dug in the tent in which he is laid with his feet chained to the ground, his hands tied, and his hair fastened to stakes on each side of his head. This grave is crossed with poles, upon which are heaped all sorts of heavy goods, leaving only a small opening over the robber's face. The food he receives is barely sufficient to keep life in him. His perseverance in concealing his name, if he is of a wealthy family, and in pleading poverty, sometimes prolongs his confinement in this way for as much as six months; after which the captor gets tired, and lets him go on comparatively moderate terms. The imprisonment seldom lasts so long as this however. He is also liberated on easy terms, or even without any ransom, if his life seems endangered by imprisonment; for if the man dies in

fetters, his blood is considered to rest on the head of the captor. The man sometimes contrives to disengage himself from his grave, and escape to a neighboring tent, from the owner of which he claims protection. Occasionally he obtains this advantage by contriving from his hole to spit on some person whose protection he has not renounced; or if a child happens to give him a morsel of bread, he is entitled to claim the privilege of having eaten with his liberator. Sometimes he is recognized, and is obliged to give up all his cattle and movables as a ransom. His friends do not fail to exert themselves to the utmost in effecting the liberation of the captured robber, either by force, or by the numerous ingenious contrivances which form almost the only channel through which the Bedouins have opportunity to manifest the talent and ingenuity with which they are as amply endowed as any nation under heaven.

A very common method of relieving the captured robber from his grave is that one of his relations, commonly his mother or sister, goes to the camp in which he is confined, and is received into one of the tents in the privileged character of a guest. Having ascertained in what tent her relation is confined, she takes an opportunity to introduce herself at night with a ball of thread in her hand, and approaching the pit manages to put one end of the thread into his mouth, or fastens it to his foot, and then retires, winding off the thread as she goes. She proceeds to some neighboring tent, and awakening the owner applies the thread to his bosom, and says, "Look on me—by the love thou bearest to God and thy own self, *this* is under thy protection." The Arab then arises, and taking the thread in his hand follows the clue until it guides him to the tent in which the *harami* is confined. He awakes the owner, and, showing him the thread, declares that he has become the protector of the captive. The captor readily acquiesces. The fetters of the robber are taken off, the thongs which tied his hair are cut with a knife, he is drawn forth from his grave, and, after having been entertained as a newly arrived guest by the man whose prisoner he just before was, he is allowed to depart in safety.

Fire-arms are now rather common among them, and are generally worn slung to the back. They are of very coarse workmanship, in general; but wealthy persons have them of considerable elegance, inlaid with ivory and otherwise ornamented. Good pieces are distinguished by particular names, and descend as an entailed property from father to son. The Bedouin is usually expert in the use of it, and takes a surer aim than would be readily thought possible with so clumsy a weapon. The most common and characteristic arms of the Arabs are their lances. They are of two sorts, one of wood, and the other a strong reed with many joints. The latter are preferred, as being the lightest. This weapon has usually a point of iron or steel at each end, that at the bottom being chiefly used to stick the lance in the ground when not in use. The proper blade is never less than a foot long, and is variously formed in different parts. This weapon is often without any ornament, but sometimes the handle is decorated with small nails and rings, and there are often one or two balls or tufts of ostrich feathers fixed at the head below the blade. It is usually more than ten feet long; but there is another used as a halbert by men on foot, and which differs little from this except in being shorter. Almost every Bedouin wears a sabre on all occasions, even when he goes to sip coffee in a neighbor's tent. The blades are seldom of good quality. Every Bedouin also wears in his girdle

a long curved knife or dagger, and which, besides being employed as a weapon, is abundantly in use as a cutting instrument on all common occasions—like the clasp-knife of a sailor. It is worn obliquely before the body, the handle towards the left side, with the point upwards. Clubs or maces between two and three feet long are much in use, both by those on horseback and on foot when not armed with the lance. These formidable weapons are occasionally of iron; but more usually of wood loaded with iron at the end, and sometimes wholly of heavy wood, or only studded with iron spikes at the head. Shepherds in attending flocks at a distance from the camps usually prefer the shorter lance, and also use a sling, which they employ with much dexterity in throwing stones as large as a man's fist. As instruments of defence they have shields, generally round, and from a foot to eighteen inches in diameter. They are commonly of metal, hard wood, or from the hide of the buffalo, wild ox, or hippopotamus. They have generally a point in the center, and are frequently carved and embossed. Those of wood or metal are generally covered with leather. Coats of mail are still partially used. One sort covers the whole body like a gown, from the elbows over the shoulders down to the knees; the other covers the body only to the waist—the arms, from the elbows downwards, being covered with two pieces of steel, fitting into each other with iron fingers. This equipment is completed by an iron cap, which is rarely if ever decorated with feathers. This defensive armor is only used in regular warfare, and then to no great extent.

THE GAME OF SHINTY.

IN the Highlands of Scotland it is customary for persons to amuse themselves, in the winter season, with a game which they call "shinty." The boys of America call a similar game "shinny." The shinty is played with a small, hard ball, which is generally made of wood, and each player is furnished with a curved stick resembling that which is seen in the engraving. The object of each party of players is to send the ball beyond a given boundary on either side; and the skill of the game consists in striking the ball to the greatest distance towards the adversaries' boundary, or in manœuvering to keep it in advance of the opposing side. Large parties assemble during the Christmas holidays, one parish sometimes making a match against another. In the struggles between the contending players many hard blows are given, and frequently a shin is broken, or by a rarer chance some more serious accident may occur. The writer witnessed a match, in which one of the players, having gained possession of the ball, contrived to run a mile with it in his hand, pursued by both his own and the adverse party until he reached the appointed limit, when his victory was admitted. Many of the Highland farmers join with eagerness in the sport, and the laird frequently encourages by his presence this amusement of his laborers and tenants.

THE GAME OF SHINTY.

THE ART OF ILLUMINATING MANUSCRIPTS.

BIBLES, Psalters, Missals, Chronicles or Registers of monasteries, books of Heraldry and Chivalry, &c., with some few translations from the ancient writers were the chief class of manuscripts adorned by pictures or illuminations previously to the fifteenth century. But on the approach of the fifteenth century, Tales and Romances, with other productions of a light nature, becoming much patronized, caused a great improvement in art, by exciting the imaginations of the artists on new and more ideal subjects. Patronized by the courtly dames and chevaliers of "la belle France," the miniaturists used their best efforts to render those poems and romances as attractive to the eye as they were to the ear of youth and beauty; and how well they succeeded let the glittering remnants of their art, of the fifteenth century, which have escaped the destructive hand of time and barbarism, themselves testify.

The fifteenth century is remarkably profuse in illuminated romances, poems, &c. Of the very commencement is one now in the British Museum, being a collection of poems by Christine of Pisa. This is a large folio of 398 leaves of vellum, written in double columns in a small Gothic letter. The writing itself is not deserving of notice on account of any beauty of execution, but it is illustrated by so extraordinary a number of miniatures, generally of about six inches in height by three or four in width, drawn in the most elaborate and graceful manner, that the work presents one of the most dazzling and elegant specimens of the art of the miniaturist which that period can boast, rich as it is in specimens of this nature.

The annexed engraving gives a faint representation (on a diminished scale) of one of these miniatures, but the effect is so greatly heightened in the original by the colors, that it scarcely appears the same thing. It represents the presentation of the book by the authoress to her patroness, Isabel of Bavaria, the queen of Charles VI., who, seated on a couch, is habited in a rich crimson robe lined with ermine, and covered with golden ornaments, confined at the waist by a green girdle. Her majesty has her hair dressed in the very extremity of the prevailing fashion, the cushion being completely covered with rubies, emeralds, and other precious stones. Her face and hands are finished in the most delicate manner, the features having all the characteristics of a portrait '*ad vivum*.' The two ladies by her side—princesses, or maids of honor,—have head-dresses similar to that worn by the queen, being adorned like it with ornaments; but the rest of their apparel is less splendid, both being clad in black. The four females near the bed are probably less distinguished ladies of the court, as their garments and head-dresses, though of more showy colors, do not appear to be so aristocratic as those in which the others are habited. The centre of the group is occupied by the fair authoress, who, dressed in a plain and neat blue gown, is kneeling at the feet of the queen, to whom she presents the volume of her poems. The drapery of the bed is of a bright scarlet, and the hangings of the walls of blue silk, fretted with fleurs de lis and lozenges of

CHRISTINE PRESENTING HER BOOK TO THE QUEEN.

gold, which are also embroidered on the bed coverings. Beneath this drawing is the dedicatory inscription, surrounded by an elegant border, which divides the columns, and runs up each side of the page.

Christine de Pisan was born at Bolonga (la Grasse) in 1364. In her fifth year she was taken to Paris by her father, (whom she alludes to in the above MS. as being patronized by the king,) and in her 15th year she married Stephen Castel, a young gentleman of Picardy, who died at the age of 34, in 1389. She is said only to have commenced authoress at the age of thirty-five, but after that time several productions emanated from her pen, both in prose and verse, some of which Caxton printed.

THE WALHALLA, OR HALL OF HEROES, IN BAVARIA.

MORE than thirty years since, the king of Bavaria, whilst he was Crown Prince, projected the erection of a temple, under the name of Walhalla, (Hall of Heroes,) to be destined as an imperishable monument to the national glory of Germany. This was designed to contain the busts and statues of the most celebrated men of Germany, in all ages. Preparations for the work went on for some years. The first stone was laid by the king on the 18th of October, 1830, the sixteenth anniversary of the battle of Leipzig, the day of the deliverance of Germany from the French dominion. The temple is built on a hill near the village of Donaustauf, about four miles from Ratisbon. The situation had been admirably selected by the king, in the midst of the vast plain of the Danube, and in the center of Bavaria. It stands on the summit of a fine bold hill, rising immediately from the banks of the Danube, and is surrounded by a fine amphitheatre of hills, clothed with oak and fir, on the summit of one of which are the ruins of the castle of Stauff. On the side towards the river vast flights of steps lead up to the building, which is approached on the other side by a romantic road which winds up the hill through a fine grove of oaks.

The temple is Doric, of grand dimensions, and is built entirely of a whitish-gray marble, the columns and interior ornaments being of a finer kind of marble got from the quarries in Bavaria. It was designed by the Baron Klenze, one of the most distinguished architects of Germany, and presents a magnificent object to those passing up and down the vast waters of the Danube. The pediments at either end are to be filled with sculpture by the first artists of Bavaria, and the interior presents an oblong square, the walls of which above are ornamented with a carved frieze, representing the migrations, religious customs, manners, wars, and commerce of the primitive Germans. Under this frieze, (arranged in rows, divided by pilasters of red marble, with white Ionic capitals,) are to be the statues, busts, and names of all "the distinguished great, of all ranks and conditions in the state, of the whole German nation, and who here, in the Walhalla of Louis, as in the dwelling places of the blessed, are united."

THE WALHALLA.

THE EUROTAS.

JUSTLY celebrated in the ancient history of the Greeks, this river ran close by the city of Sparta, and was the scene of many important events. In very early ages it was styled the river of Marathon, — then the Himere, — and at a later period, obtained the name of Eurotas.

It rises near the source of the Alpheus, another stream of classical celebrity, in the territory of Megalopolis in Peloponnesus, (now the Morea, and a portion of the new Greek kingdom.) According to Strabo and Pausanias, both the Eurotas and the Alpheus run hidden under ground for the space of some stadia, after which theyre äppear, and issue forth, the one into Laconia, and the other into what was anciently the country of the Pisæ, at the west of the Peloponnesus. Colonel Leake seems inclined to doubt more than one of the wonderful stories told of these two classical rivers. The facts he gives from his own observation are, that the Alpheus rises at the distance of five stadia from Asea, (the ruins of which city are still visible,) a short way from the road,—that the source of the Eurotas is close by the road side, and near to the fountain of the Alpheus,— that a roofless temple, dedicated to Cybele, and two lions, cut in stone, ornament the source of the Alpheus, while the waters of the Eurotas (now, at least,) gurgle forth unhonored by the presence of any work of art; and finally, that the two streams uniting flow together for twenty stadia in one bed, when they descend a chasm and separate.

A little to the south of Sparta, a romantic torrent called Pandelelmona joins the Eurotas, whose waters are besides swelled by a number of streams descending chiefly from the Taygetum, and finding their way through hollows in the chain of low hills on which the Spartan capital once stood.

On the site of Sparta, at the time of Colonel Leake's visit, there were only two small villages,—Magula, consisting of four or five huts, and Psykhiko, of fourteen or fifteen,— and even these have probably disappeared during the horrors of revolutionary and partisan warfare. All the level ground of the site was then cultivated with corn. Facing a hollow in the middle of the bank of hills on which the city stood, are the remains of a bridge over the Eurotas. At the head of this bridge the roads from all the eastern part of the Lacedemonian territory centered, and the hollow at the other end of the bridge led directly into the Agora or great public square of Sparta, — the general mart and the place where all public business was transacted.

The Spartan plain, the river, and the surrounding mountains, all immortalized by poetry and history, are of surpassing grandeur and beauty. They are seen to the greatest advantage from the neighboring castle of Mistra, an important geographical position, about 500 feet above the level of the Eurotas.

After the river Eurotas has washed the feet of the now solitary hills of Sparta, and flowed through the Spartan plain, it winds through a long, narrow valley to Helos, the city of the unfortunate Helots, and there falls into

THE EUROTAS.

the sea between Gythium, the ancient sea-port of Sparta, of which considerable remains still exist, and Acria, another maritime place that has left no traces of its existence except some small and scattered fragments of walls, and the base of a single column.

In ancient times, the Eurotas was celebrated for the number and beauty of the swans that sailed upon its tranquil waters. These graceful birds are not mentioned by modern travelers, who, however, describe another incident which characterized the old river. This is the growth, in the bed of the Eurotas, and more particularly towards its mouth, of a prodigious quantity of fine, tall, and strong reeds. The Spartans of old, whose grand object was to form a hardy, fearless race, made their children go and gather these reeds with their hands, without knives or any other instrument to assist them. And these reeds worked into mats formed their only bed and bedding, or to translate the words of an old French writer, they were "the mattress, feather-bed, sheets, and coverlets of the warlike Spartans."

This iron race of men were also accustomed to plunge their infants into the Eurotas, to inure them betimes to the severities of cold. These immersions must have oftentimes been *cold indeed*, for in the spring or early summer months, the bed of the river is chiefly filled by melted snow, which descends from the adjacent mountains, and from the shortness of its course has not time to raise its temperature.

GIBRALTAR.

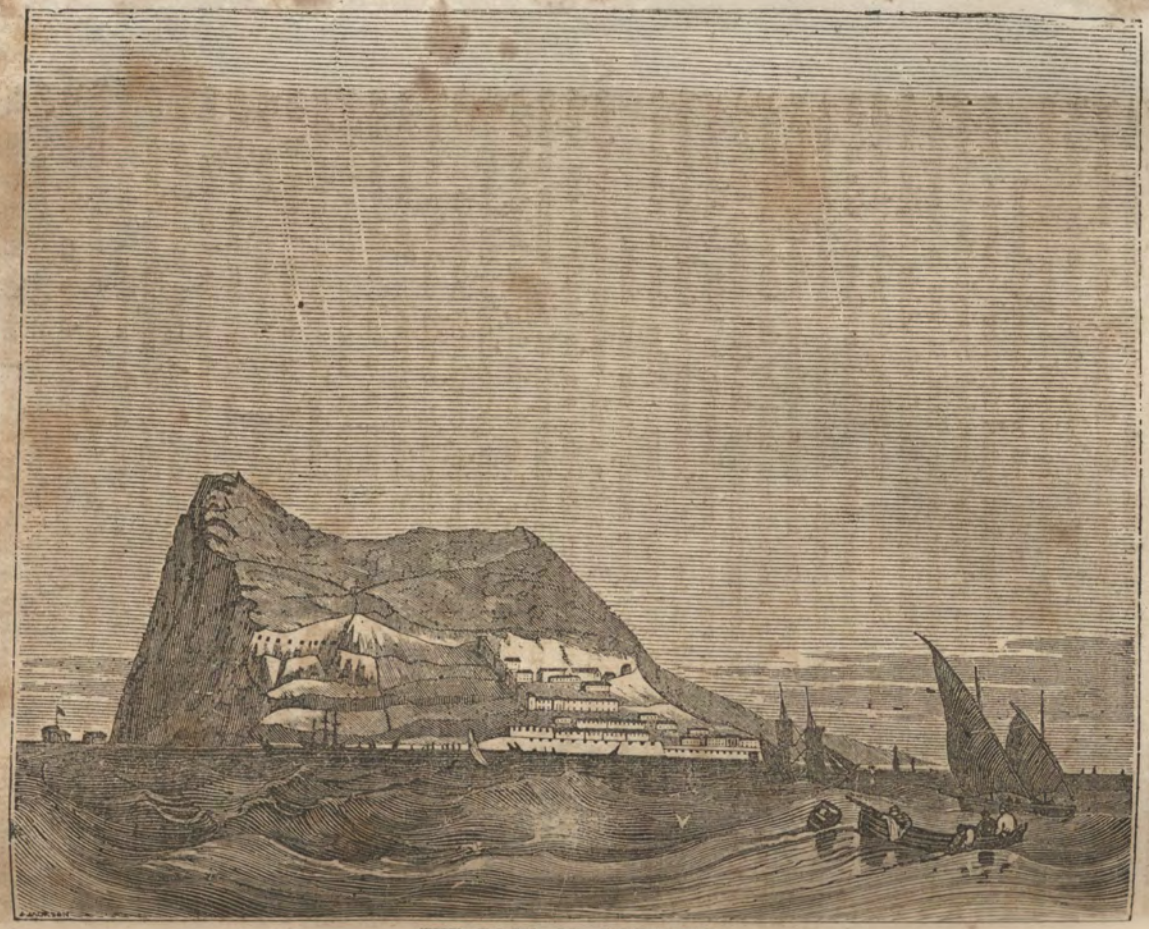
WERE the inhabitants of New-York city to see an impregnable fortress, tenanted by Frenchmen or Spaniards, frowning over the surrounding sea and land at the Narrows, they would think it bad enough. Yet this would be nothing to the case of the English occupation of Gibraltar—the only instance on record where one of the keys of a great kingdom is held in permanent possession by a foreign nation. That promontory, besides its admirable advantages as a place of strength, may be said, owing to the narrowness of the strait upon which it juts out, to command, not merely the corner of Andalusia immediately under it, but the whole of the western coast of Spain, comprising nearly two-thirds of the whole maritime circumference of that country. It effectually cuts off all communication by sea between that part of Spain which is bounded by the Mediterranean and those parts which are bounded by the Atlantic. It disables that power as much as England would be disabled by another nation having the ability to hinder a ship passing from Liverpool, or Belfast, or Dublin, or Cork, or Plymouth, to Leith, or Hull, or London.

It appears, however, to have been late, before the importance of this rock was discovered. The ancients had a fable that Europe and Africa were originally joined at this point, and that the two continents were riven asunder by Hercules, and a passage thereby opened between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean. Gibraltar, under the name of Calpe, and Mount

Abyla, opposite to it on the African coast, were called the Pillars of Hercules, and appear to have been in very early ages regarded by the people dwelling to the east of them, including the Carthaginians, the Greeks, and the Romans, as the western boundary of the world. It was probably long before navigation penetrated beyond this limit. Even in after times, however, when Spain became well known to the Romans, and a province of their empire, we do not read of any fort being erected on the rock of Calpe. It is doubtful if it was even the site of a town. No Roman antiquities have ever been found on the spot or in the neighborhood.

The place appears to have been first seized upon and converted into a military station by the Moors when they invaded Spain in the beginning of the eighth century. From their leader, Tarif, it was in consequence called Gibel-Tarif, or the Mountain of Tarif, of which Arabic name Gibraltar is a corruption. Soon after establishing themselves here, the Moors erected a lofty and extensive castle on the north-west side of the mountain, the ruins of which still remain. Gibraltar continued in the possession of the Moors for between seven and eight centuries, with the exception of about thirty years, during which it was held by the Christians, having been taken soon after the commencement of the 14th century by Ferdinand, king of Castile. It was recovered, however, in 1333, by Abomelek, the son of the emperor of Fez, and the Moors were not finally dispossessed of it till the middle of the following century. After that it remained a part of the kingdom of Spain, down nearly to our own times.

The promontory of Gibraltar forms the south-western extremity of the province of Andalusia, running out into the sea in nearly a due south direction for about three miles. The greater part of this tongue consists of a very lofty rock. It rises abruptly from the land to the height of fully 1300 feet, presenting a face almost perfectly perpendicular, and being, consequently, from that, its northern extremity, completely inaccessible. The west side, however, and the southern extremity, consist each of a series of precipices or declivities which admit of being ascended. The town, now containing a population of above 17,000 persons, is built on the west side. Along the summit of the mountain, from north to south, runs a bristling ridge of rocks, forming a ragged and undulating line against the sky when viewed from the east or west. The whole of the western breast of the promontory is nearly covered with fortifications. Anciently, it is said, it used to be well wooded in many places; but there are now very few trees to be seen, although a good many gardens are scattered up and down both in the town and among the fortifications. A great part of the rock is hollowed out into caverns, some of which are of magnificent dimensions, especially one called St. George's Cave, at the southern point, which although having only an opening of five feet, expands into an apartment of two hundred feet in length by ninety in breadth, from the lofty roof of which descend numerous stalactitical pillars, giving it the appearance of a gothic cathedral. These caves seem to have been the chief thing for which Gibraltar was remarkable among the ancients. They are mentioned by the Roman geographer, Pomponius Mela, who wrote about the middle of the first century of our era. The southern termination of the rock of Gibraltar is called Europa Point, and has been sometimes spoken of as the termination in that direction of the European continent; but Tarifa Point, to the west of Gibraltar, is fully five miles farther south.



THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR.

INTERIOR OF THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR.

It is impossible for us here to attempt any description of the fortifications which now cover so great a part of this celebrated promontory. Gibraltar was first fortified in the modern style by the German engineer Daniel Speckel, at the command of the emperor Charles V., towards the close of the sixteenth century. But little of what was then erected probably now remains. Since the place fell into the possession of the English no expense has been spared to turn its natural advantages to the best account, and additions have repeatedly been made to the old fortifications on the most extensive scale. It is now, without doubt, the most complete fortress in the world.

More than half a century ago Gibraltar was accounted by military men almost impregnable. "No power whatever," says Colonel James, in his History of the Herculanean Straits, published in 1771, "can take that place, unless a plague, pestilence, famine, or the want of ordnance, musketry, and ammunition, or some unforeseen stroke of Providence, should happen." It is certainly now much stronger than it was then. One improvement which has especially added to its security is the formation of numerous covered galleries excavated in the rock, with embrasures for firing down upon both the isthmus and the bay. The interior of part of these works is represented in one of the engravings.

Gibraltar was taken by an English fleet, under the command of Sir George Rooke and the Prince of Hesse Darmstadt, in July, 1704. The project of the attack was very suddenly formed at a council of war held on board the admiral's ship, while the fleet was cruising in the Mediterranean, and it was apprehended that it would be obliged to return to England without having performed any exploit commensurate to the expectations with which it had been fitted out. The affair proved a very easy one; the garrison, which consisted of one hundred and fifty men, having surrendered after a bombardment of only a few hours. The assailants lost only sixty lives, the greater part by a mine which was sprung after they had effected a landing. In the latter part of the same year a most resolute effort was made to recover the place by the combined forces of France and Spain, which failed, after it had been persevered in for several months, and had cost the besiegers not less than 10,000 men. The loss of the garrison was about 400.

At the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, the possession of Gibraltar was confirmed to England. In 1727, however, another attempt on a formidable scale was made by Spain to dislodge the foreigners. An army of 20,000 men having encamped in the neighborhood, the attack was commenced in February and continued till the 12th of May, when it was put an end to by the general peace. In this siege the garrison lost 300 in killed and wounded; but the loss of the besiegers was not less than 3000. The guns in the fortifications, it is worthy of remark, proved so bad that seventy cannons and thirty mortars burst in the course of the firing.

But the most memorable of all the sieges of Gibraltar was the last, which commenced in 1779, and did not terminate till it had continued for more than three years. Of this remarkable siege an excellent and interesting account has been given by Captain John Drinkwater, who was present in the beleaguered fortress during the whole time. England was engaged in sustaining the contest with her revolted colonies in America, when hostilities were also commenced against her, first by France and

some time after by Spain. There is no doubt that, whatever were her professions, the latter power took up arms merely with the object of recovering Gibraltar. The Spanish ambassador having announced the intentions of his Court, in London, on the 16th of June, 1779, on the 21st of the same month all communication between Gibraltar and the surrounding country was closed by command of the government of Madrid. It was the middle of the following month, however, before the Spaniards began to block up the fort. Fortunately, in the early part of this year, General George Augustus Eliot, who had been recently appointed Governor, had arrived in the fort, and brought to the crisis that was approaching the aid of his great military science and talents, as well as some of the highest moral qualities that ever adorned the soldier or the man. General Eliot was at this time about sixty years of age, more than forty of which he had spent in the service of his country. Another fortunate circumstance was that a supply of provisions had arrived in the preceding April. Had it not been for this the garrison might have suffered terribly from the sudden stoppage of their accustomed intercourse both with Spain and with Africa.

The first firing which took place was on the 12th of September, when a cannonade was opened from the fort which destroyed the works that the besiegers had spent many of the preceding weeks in erecting. The blockade, notwithstanding, became every day closer; and the occasional boats, which had for some time stolen in from the African coast and other places, at length found it impossible to continue their attempts. By the end of October provisions had become extremely dear. About the same time, too, the small-pox broke out among the Jewish inhabitants of the town, and every precaution had to be used to prevent the spread of the disease. In November, the Governor, in order to try on how little food life and strength could be sustained, restricted himself for eight days to four ounces of rice per day. Thistles, dandelions, wild leeks, &c., began to be eaten by the people of the town; and meat sold from half-a-crown to four shillings the pound.

The first firing from the besiegers took place on the 12th of January, 1780; and the first person wounded in the fort was a woman. By the end of March the first supply of provisions arrived, brought in by the gallant Admiral Rodney, who had not only cut his way to the assistance of his distressed countrymen through all the opposition of the enemy, but had captured six of their men-of-war, including a sixty-four gun ship with the admiral on board, together with seventeen merchant-men. William IV., then known as Prince William Henry, was serving on board one of Sir George Rodney's ships as a midshipman, and often visited the garrison while the fleet remained in the bay. Captain Drinkwater relates that, on seeing a prince of the blood thus serving as a warrant-officer, the captive Spanish Admiral exclaimed that Great Britain well deserved the empire of the seas, when even her king's sons were found thus holding the humblest situations on board her ships.

For a good many months after this, things continued in nearly the same state. The garrison and townspeople were again and again reduced to the greatest privations, by scarcity of provisions, before supplies arrived. In the spring of 1781, the besiegers at last opened their batteries, and continued firing upon the town till they had completely destroyed it. On the 27th of April, however, a most gallant exploit was performed by a party

from the garrison, who, making a sortie from their fortifications, succeeded in setting fire to, and reducing to ashes, all the erections of the enemy, although distant not less than three-quarters of a mile. This, however, brought only a temporary relief. The firing soon after recommenced, and, for more than a year, continued almost incessantly. In the course of 1782 it was, on the suggestion of Gen. Boyd, returned from the Rock with red-hot balls, a device which was found to produce the most powerful effect. The enemy, however, now prepared for a grand effort. On the 12th of September the combined fleets of France and Spain arrived in the bay. Next morning there was drawn up around the south and west sides of the promontory a most formidable armament, consisting of forty-seven sail of the line, seven of which were three-deckers, together with ten battering ships, the strongest of any that had ever been built, and many frigates and smaller vessels. On land there lay an army of 40,000 men, with batteries on which were mounted 200 pieces of heavy ordnance. On the other side, the garrison now consisted of about 7,000 effective men. The ships were permitted to take their stations without molestation; but, about a quarter before ten o'clock, as soon as the first of them dropped anchor, the citadel began to pour upon them its hitherto reserved artillery. Now commenced a scene of terrible sublimity. Four hundred pieces of the heaviest ordnance thundered without intermission, and filled the air with smoke and flame. "For some hours," says Captain Drinkwater, "the attack and defense were so equally well supported as scarcely to admit any appearance of superiority in the cannonade on either side. The wonderful construction of the ships seemed to bid defiance to the powers of the heaviest ordnance. In the afternoon, however, the face of things began to change considerably. The smoke which had been observed to issue from the upper part of the flag-ship appeared to prevail, notwithstanding the constant application of water; and the admiral's second was perceived to be in the same condition. Confusion was now apparent on board several of the vessels, and, by the evening, their cannonade was considerably abated. About seven or eight o'clock it almost entirely ceased, excepting from one or two ships to the northward, which, from their distance, had suffered little injury."

In the end, the attack ended in the complete annihilation of the assailing squadron. All the larger ships were beaten to pieces or burnt. As night approached, groans and signals of distress from those on board the shattered navy supplied the place of the now slackened fire. Many of the wretched men were struggling for life in the waters; and the victors themselves at last put out to their assistance, and picked numbers of them up. The loss of the enemy was supposed to amount to about 2,000, including prisoners. Of the English there were only 16 killed and 68 wounded. The Rock was a much better defence than even those strong-built men-of-war. The assailants had had 300 pieces of ordnance in play, the garrison only employed 80 cannon, 7 mortars, and 9 howitzers. "Upwards of 8,300 rounds," says Captain Drinkwater, "more than half of which were hot shot, and 716 barrels of powder, were expended by our artillery."

Even this complete discomfiture, however, did not subdue the obstinacy of the besiegers. They continued to encompass the place, and even to keep up a feeble fire upon it some months longer. At length the long blockade was terminated by the announcement of the signature of the preliminaries of a general peace on the 2d of February, 1783. The men in

the Spanish boat that came with the tidings of this event, made their appearance with ecstacy in their countenances, and exclaiming, "We are all friends!" It was not till the 10th of March, however, that free intercourse was reëstablished by the arrival from England of the official intelligence that peace had been concluded. General Eliot and his brave companions soon after returned home to receive the congratulations of their country; and since this hard contest no foreign power has dared to assault Gibraltar.

THE DEVIL'S BRIDGE.

THIS name is very generally applied to bridges placed in difficult and hazardous places, the popular ignorance of old times easily getting over the difficulty of their construction by attributing them to the evil one. There are many devil's bridges among the Alps, in Savoy, Switzerland, the Tyrol, and the Grisons; there are others among the Apennines, in Italy, and others again among the Pyrenean mountains; but the subject of our present illustration is a Welsh devil's bridge. It is situated in Cardiganshire, South Wales, between Hafod and Aberystwith, and not far from the roots of the mighty Plinlimmon. This bridge is thrown across a deep rent or chasm in the rocks through which, about 118 feet below the arch, the river Mynach forces its way, and after flowing onwards for a few yards, dashes down in a succession of cataracts into a deep abyss, which is about 326 feet beneath the level of the bridge, but only partially seen from it. The opposite disrupted cliffs, at the point where the arch spans them in a very bold and picturesque manner, are not above eighteen feet asunder; they are in part covered with hardy mountain ash and other trees; but lower down they lay bare their magnificent masses of dark rock, which have been worn, fretted, and brought to a slippery-looking polish, by the constant rushing of the Mynach, which is here rather a mountain torrent than a river. A fine safe carriage-road leading to the foot of Plinlimmon runs over the upper arch; for, as the reader will perceive in the engraving, there are two arches that span the chasm, the one over the other. The lower bridge, to which the legend made the devil stand godfather, was built in 1187, by the monks of Star-flower Abbey, an important house of the Cistertian order, where many of the ancient Welsh princes were buried, and the mouldering ruins of which are still to be seen in the neighborhood, at a short distance from Hafod. In those dark ages most of the monastic orders were the benefactors of mankind, and the pioneers of civilization; they were the greatest road and bridge makers then in existence; for while the warlike barons and lawless feudal chiefs found their safety and glory in inaccessible mountain fortresses and dangerous and impassable ways, it was to the interest of the monks that the faithful from all parts should be able to repair without impediment to their abbeys and churches, the shrines of which were to be enriched by popular piety, whilst

their own influence was to be increased by a direct and constant communication with the people. This particular bridge, though insignificant enough as a modern work, was important and extensively useful in those days, and indeed even now it (or rather its successor) is the only direct medium of communication between those who live on the opposite sides of the long deep chasm or bed of the Mynach. After having done good service for 600 years—facilitating the friendly intercourse of man with man, and the interchange of people's cattle, produce, and goods—after having survived the religion (as a national faith) of those who built it, and the cells and cloisters of the proud Abbey in which they lived, this old bridge showed some symptoms of weakness and decay, and consequently the new arch was built over it in 1753, the expense being borne by the county. At each end of the bridge there is a steep, rough path down the rocky sides of the chasm to some ledges hanging over the stream, where the visitor may stand almost immediately under the arch, and hear, with singular effect, "the roar of many waters," whose headlong course is unseen, or only very partially and mysteriously revealed at one or two points of rock. The foaming waves, indeed, seem to sink into the bowels of the earth, and to see them reäppear the traveler must climb up the path and descend again into the chasm by a still rougher and indeed a somewhat dangerous path, about one hundred yards to the south-west of the bridge. A guide, who is always on the spot, and a little courage, accompanied by prudence and patience, will however carry him safely down the ravine to a broad and compact ledge of rocks, whence his eye can take in nearly the whole of this compound and really beautiful cataract, which may be dwelt upon for hours and with increasing delight, even by those who have seen the grander waterfalls of Switzerland and Italy.

After passing through the narrow, funnel-shaped passage under the bridge, the impetuous Mynach makes four leaps or falls. The first is about forty yards south-west of the bridge, where, after roaring over a rough ridge, it is projected into a fine rocky basin at the depth of eighteen feet. Its next leap is sixty feet, and the third twenty. It then encounters rocks of prodigious size, and of the most boldly picturesque forms, through which it rolls, dashes, roars, and hisses till it reaches the edge of a tremendous cliff—a sheer precipice—down the face of which it throws itself to a depth of 110 feet. Thus the falls together are 208 perpendicular feet, to which ought to be added some feet for the declivity of the three basins or pools they encounter in their descent. After its fourth and greatest leap, the vexed Mynach—still pouring over an oblique and rocky bed—rolls, as a rapid, to the bottom of a broader and more open chasm, where it joins its waters with the Rhydol, another impetuous mountain stream that, having flowed during part of its course through a narrow chasm like that under the Devil's Bridge, and made a fine fall a few hundred yards off, meets the Mynach nearly at a right angle. The encountering streams, particularly at the seasons when their waters are most abundant, clash and roar, rush upon and retire from each other like enemies in deadly conflict; but, after a while, becoming friendly on a better acquaintance with each other, and finding more room to move in (for the chasm expands into a fair valley and allows of a wide and level bed), they flow on, in gentle unison, like one and the same river. The inefficiency of words to describe a scene like this has been felt even by the first of poets; nor can the painter represent

THE DEVIL'S BRIDGE.

motion or sound, and without its headlong speed, "rapid as the light"—without its tremendous voice, roaring, howling, and hissing, all in one—a cataract is only half a cataract, even let it be painted on canvass as huge as the mountains; it is little better than a dumb lion fastened to a stake, with his mane, tail, and paws cut off, and all his tusks extracted.

FRIBOURG SUSPENSION BRIDGE.

FRIBOURG had always been an interesting object to travelers, but its situation and the great difficulty of approach, frequently deterred the timid from visiting it. Since the bridge has been opened, the concourse is immense, and all those who have seen it will allow that, far from exaggerating, we cannot convey an adequate idea of the effect produced by the appearance of the bridge when seen in the morning or evening of a fine summer's day. If you stand in the valley at the place where the river forms a considerable angle, and look in a northern direction along the course of the stream, which is the view given in the engraving, you have the magnificent Fribourg Alps behind you. On the left, you look up the valley of the Sarine, towards the mountains situated at the bottom of the lake of Geneva, with the points of the higher Alps overtopping them, clad with eternal snow. Before you is the view down the valley, with the suspension bridge across it, as is represented in the engraving. The hills receding in the background towards the Jura, finish the splendid panorama.

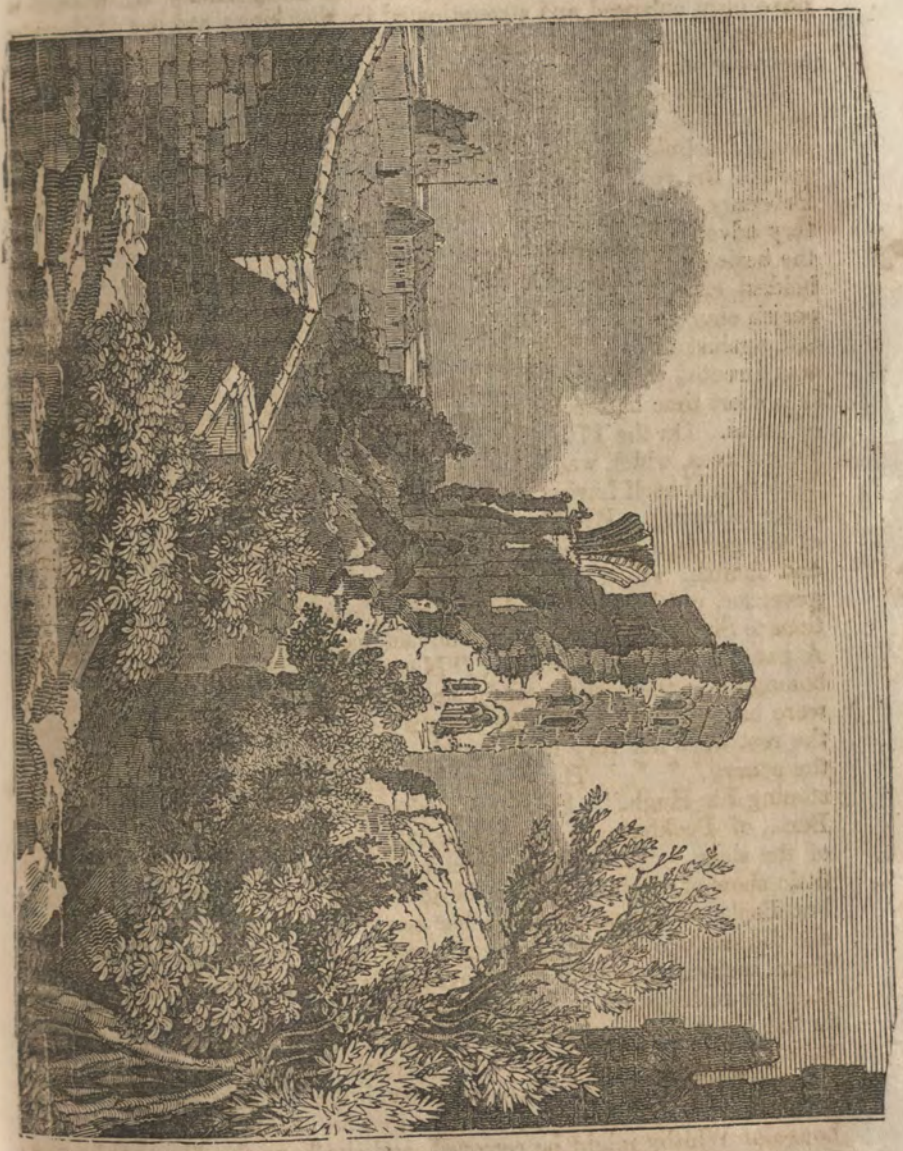
This bridge has a span from pier to pier of 870 feet, and is suspended at the height of 167 feet above the river which flows under it. Its great height and almost airy lightness, and the picturesque scenery around it, add greatly to the wonder which it excites in the beholder. To give a general idea of it, with the help of a very accurate representation in the annexed engraving, we must draw the attention of those who never visited the highly interesting spot, to the situation of the city of Fribourg.

The small but rapid river, the Sarine, descends from the Fribourg Alps; and after winding along a very beautiful and romantic valley (in the midst of the mountains) to which it gives its name, and traversing the Gruyère country, it flows past the city of Fribourg, and falls into the Aar a little above Aarberg. It turns at a right angle round the base of the rock on which Fribourg is built. The ground here descends towards the river to the south of it, with a very steep slope, and is quite perpendicular on the north-east. The principal part of the town with the cathedral is built along the precipitous side, which rises from 200 to 300 feet above the bed of the river. The width of the valley on this side, at the height of 200 feet, is not above 300 yards; and here the bridge is suspended. The hill on the north-east side of the river rises to a considerable height.

SCARBOROUGH CASTLE.

VENERABLE in its ruins, Scarborough Castle, on the coast of Yorkshire, crowns a precipitous rock, whose eastern termination, which advances into the sea, rises about 300 feet above the waters. The principal part of the ancient castle now remaining stands at a considerable distance back from this bold and inaccessible front, but on ground which is very nearly as elevated. It is a huge square tower, still nearly 100 feet high, but the walls of which show, by their ragged summits and by other indications, that its original height must have been considerably greater. Each side is between 50 and 60 feet in length; but, the walls being about 12 feet thick, the space in the interior is only 30 feet square. This inclosed area is now open to the sky; but marks are still discernible of vaultings which had formerly divided the ascent into three stories, each of which must have been about 30 feet from the floor to the ceiling. An immense fire-place still remains on the ground floor; but beneath that there is another apartment, hollowed out under the earth, which is now filled with stones and rubbish. The walls on the outside are faced with hewn stones of a square shape, and are pierced in various places with windows, six feet deep and three broad, formed by semicircular arches resting on strong pillars. This tower was probably the keep of the ancient castle, and, as usual, has been preserved from destruction by its extraordinary solidity and strength, long after time has swept away nearly all the surrounding parts of the building. It stands immediately within the great gate of entrance to the fortress, which is at the western extremity of the inclosure, and of which this tower was the main defense. The access to the promontory from this side is by a steep ascent; and the gate is guarded by a deep fosse or ditch, with a draw-bridge over it. The whole inclosed space comprehends about nineteen acres; and the fosse before the gate is continued along the entire length of the wall leading southward from that point to the sea. As the old feudal stronghold looks down upon the sea on the one hand, it has the town of Scarborough stretched below it and around it on the other.

Scarborough Castle was built about the year 1136, by William, Earl of Albermarle and Holderness, one of the most powerful of the Norman nobility then settled in England. His grandfather, Odo of Campania, had come over with the Conqueror, who had given him one of his own daughters, Adeliza, in marriage. William, surnamed Le Gros, or the Fat, being possessed of extensive estates in Yorkshire, was permitted by King Stephen to build this fortress as a residence and defence for himself against the turbulent and only half-subdued inhabitants of the district. When Henry II. came to the throne, with the view of curbing the power of his fierce nobility, he ordered the demolition of most of those places of strength which, in the preceding reigns, had been erected in all parts of the kingdom; but, on viewing the castle of Scarborough, he was struck with the advantages of its position, which made it quite impregnable in those times; and, instead



of destroying it, he only seized upon it and declared it the property of the crown. It has ever since remained one of the royal castles; and it is still occupied by a small garrison, consisting usually of a few invalids, who are accommodated in barracks of modern erection.

The castle, after it was taken possession of by Henry II., is stated to have been enlarged and strengthened by that king; and one old chronicler asserts that he entirely rebuilt it. We may suppose from this that the additions which he made to it were very extensive.

The most memorable event in its history is the siege it sustained in the civil wars of the seventeenth century, when it was held for the king by Sir Hugh Cholmley. The parliamentary forces sat down before it in the latter part of the year 1643; but the first assault was made on the 18th of February, 1644, under the command of Sir John Meldrum, a Scotch military adventurer of high renown for courage and ability. By this attack the besiegers obtained possession of the town; but the castle resisted their boldest efforts. They afterwards took up their principal station in the parish church, which is only a few hundred yards from the castle gate; and against this old building, accordingly, the cannonade of the garrison was directed with such effect that the east end of it, forming the choir, was in a short time battered down. A few years ago it still remained a heap of ruins. On the 17th of May, 1645, another attempt was made to storm the fortress, which was again repelled with great slaughter of the assailants, Meldrum himself having received a wound, of which he died on the 3rd of June following. By this time, however, both the strength and resources of the garrison were nearly exhausted; and compelled at length, by disease and famine, which had reduced his men to a few miserable invalids, the governor, on the 22nd of June, surrendered the place on honorable conditions to Sir Matthew Boynton, who had been appointed Meldrum's successor. A pamphlet of the time says, "Many of Sir Hugh's officers and soldiers belonging to the castle were in such a weak condition that some of them were brought forth in sheets—others were helped out between two men—the rest were not very fit to march. The general and common disease was the scurvy. * * * The women in Scarborough could hardly be kept from stoning Sir Hugh." Sir Hugh's wife, a daughter of Sir William Twisden, Bart., of Peckham, in Kent, was with her husband during the whole time of the siege. "She endured much hardship," says Sir Hugh, "yet with little show of trouble; and in the greatest danger would never be daunted, but displayed a courage above her sex; and while the castle was besieged she did not omit to visit the sick persons, and take extraordinary care of them, making such help and provision as the place would afford; insomuch that her maids were so overwrought and toiled with it, that one of them, in the night, stole away, thinking to get into town; but the enemy's guards, taking her for a spy, caused her to return, which was acceptable to her lady; there not being sufficient persons in health to attend the sick. At the surrender of the castle, she procured an article that the garrison at my house at Whitby might be removed, and she have the liberty to live in it; but the captain in possession liked the house so well that he did not quit it until one of the servants died of the plague; and before he durst return again, she unexpectedly (leaving her own daughters behind her at one Mr. Percy Hay's, near Malton) adventured over the moors in a dangerous season, they being then covered with thick snow, and so got to the house, and

kept possession, though in a sad condition. Her two sons were beyond sea; and her girls she durst not bring thither in respect of the late illness. She was ill accommodated with all things; the house being plundered, having nothing but what she borrowed, yet her spirit would not submit to complain. And when Sir John Meldrum had sent propositions, with menaces that, if they were not accepted, he would that night be master of all the works and castle, and in case one of his men's blood was shed, would not give quarter to man or woman, but put all to the sword; she conceiving that I would relent in respect of her being there, came to me without any direction or trouble, and prayed me that I would not, for any consideration of her, do aught which might be prejudicial to my own honor or the king's affairs."

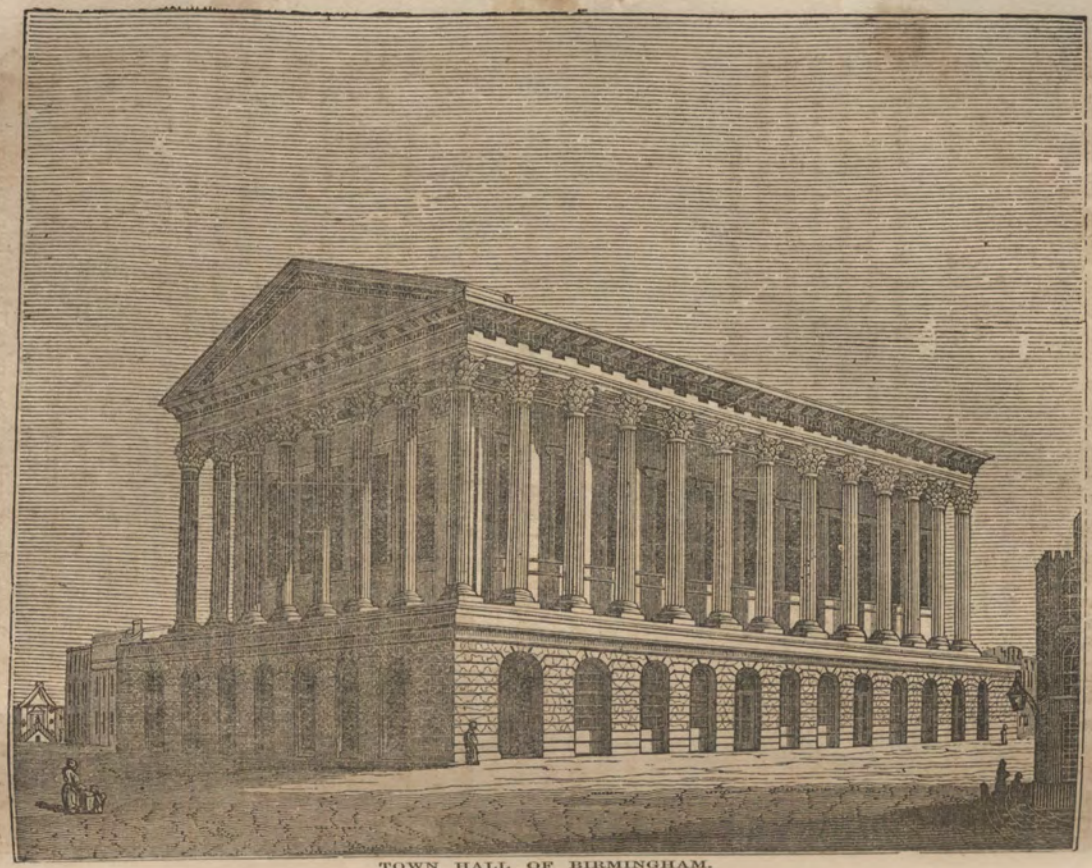
A few years after this, Scarborough Castle stood another siege; its governor, Sir Matthew Boynton, the successor, and perhaps the son, of the person of the same name to whom Cholmley had surrendered, having, in 1648, declared for the king. He did not, however, stand out so long as Cholmley had done; and the place fell into the hands of the parliamentary forces on the 19th of December in the same year. This is the last occasion on which Scarborough Castle figures in the English military annals.

BIRMINGHAM TOWN-HALL.

BIRMINGHAM Town Hall is a magnificent building, erected by the public spirit of the inhabitants of Birmingham for municipal purposes, for public meetings, and for musical performances. In our engraving is exhibited an accurate view of the elevation. The large proportions of the Hall, its commanding height, and its splendid series of Corinthian columns which run completely round upon a rustic arcade, render it not only the most imposing building in Birmingham, but one with which very few modern erections can compete.

The internal arrangement of this building exhibits a large saloon or hall, 140 feet in length, 65 feet wide clear of the walls, and 65 feet high from floor to ceiling, with corridors of communication running along on each side of it on its own level, and staircases leading to the upper corridors to give access to galleries. The corridors are low, the two tiers being within the height of the basement externally. As the Hall is intended principally for musical entertainments, one end of it is occupied by a magnificent organ and surrounding orchestral arrangements. This organ is of enormous dimensions, and cost 3000*l*. Two narrow galleries run along the sides of the Hall, and a large deep gallery occupies the other end; rooms for the accommodation of the performers who may be employed are formed at the upper end of the building and under the orchestra.

The building is lengthened externally to 160 feet by the projection of the arcaded pavement in front. The height of the basement above the causeway is 23 feet,—the columns resting upon its upper surface or plat



TOWN HALL OF BIRMINGHAM.

form are, with their entablature, 45 feet, and the pediment forming the frontispiece, is 15 feet high,— making a total height of 83 feet from the causeway to the acroterium. The columnar ordinance employed is an imitation of the Roman foliated or Corinthian example of the temple of Jupitor Stator; the columns are fluted, and the entablature greatly enriched, though not to the full and elaborate extent of the original. The structure is of brick, faced with Anglesea marble, of which latter material the columns and their accessories are composed. The bricks were made on the spot, of the earth taken out of the foundation. The stones were cut and worked by machinery with steam power, the flutings were made by the same means, and by the application of an invention, it is understood, of one of the contractors.

BEAUMARIS CASTLE.

BEAUMARIS Castle, in the Island of Anglesea, was built by Edward I. about the year 1295, in pursuance of that policy which led him to secure his conquests by every precaution which he might think available. He had subdued the Welsh, after an arduous struggle; the last descendant of the ancient British princes had fallen in battle; and Edward aimed at keeping down for ever the insurrectionary spirit which might be expected to manifest itself whenever there was an opportunity. The sovereignty of Anglesea, had been sturdily contested for above four centuries; it was the chosen seat of the Druids; it was the asylum to which the Britons fled for succor from the victorious Romans; it had been the residence of the British princes, and continued to the last to be their stronghold. The circumstances which immediately preceded the war in which the Welsh were finally subdued, are in substance as follows;— Llewellyn, the last and one of the bravest of the sovereign princes of Wales, was obliged, in the year 1277, to sue for peace from Edward I. The terms on which it was granted were humiliating: besides the payment of large sums of money, the prince was required to come to London every Christmas to do homage to the king for his lands. The following is told by Carte the historian; and it is quoted by Sir Richard Colt Hoare:—

"The barons of Snowdon, with other noblemen of the most considerable families in Wales, had attended Llewellyn to London, when he came thither at Christmas, A.D. 1277, to do homage to King Edward: and bringing, according to their usual custom, large retinues with them, were quartered in Islington and the neighboring villages. These places did not afford milk enough for such numerous trains; they liked neither wine nor the ale of London; and though plentifully entertained, were much displeased at a new manner of living which did not suit their taste, nor perhaps their constitutions. They were still more offended at the crowds of people that flocked about them when they stirred abroad, staring at them as if they had been monsters, and laughing at their uncouth garb and appearance. They

were so enraged on this occasion, that they engaged privately in an association to rebel on the first opportunity, and resolved to die in their own country rather than ever to come again to London as subjects, to be held in such derision; and when they returned home, they communicated their resentment to their compatriots, who made it the common cause of the country."

In the war which ensued, which was a severely contested struggle, Edward advanced into Wales by land, and sent the fleet of the Cinque Ports to Anglesea. When the brother of Llewellyn learned that they had taken that place, he exclaimed, "Llewellyn has lost the finest feather in his tail." The Welsh king was shortly afterwards slain, and when the body was discovered, Edward, says Turner, "sent the head up to London, adorned in derision with a silver crown, that it might be exhibited to the populace in Cheapside, and fixed upon the Tower." Edward's military talents and vigor of mind fitted him for this turbulent age: his policy was in many respects in advance of it; but he retained much of its savage fierceness. The brother of Llewllyn attempting to renew the war, was defeated and taken: he was drawn on a hurdle, hanged, and his amputated head sent to London. In the Chronicles of Hollinshed, under the year 1295, there is the following account:

"The Earl of Warwick, hearing that a great number of Welshmen were assembled together, and lodged in a valley betwixt two woods, he chose out a number of horsemen, with certain cross-bows and archers, and coming upon the Welshmen in the night, compassed them around about, the which, pitching the ends of their spears in the ground, and turning the points against their enemies, stood on the defensive, so as to keep off the horsemen. But the earl having placed his battle so that ever betwixt two horsemen there stood a cross-bow, a great part of the Welshmen which stood at defence in manner aforesaid with their spears, were overthrown, and broken with the shots of the *quarels*, and then the earl charged the residue with a troop of horsemen, and bare them down with such slaughter, as they had not sustained the like loss of people (as was thought) at any one time before. In the mean time, King Edward, to restrain the rebellious attempts of those Welshmen, caused the woods of Wales to be cut down, wherein before the Welshmen were accustomed to hide themselves in time of danger. He also repaired the castles and holds in that country, and builded some new, as the city and castle of Beamarise, with other; so that the Welshmen, constrained through hunger and famine, were enforced within a while to the king's peace."

The erection of the Castle of Beaumaris, though consistent with Edward's policy, was an unnecessary stretch of prudence. He had already broken down the spirit of independence which inspired the native Welsh, without which, as he experienced in Scotland, strongholds are but a slight security. The only notable things which the garrison appears to have done were to quarrel with the country people, under pretence of keeping them quiet, to oppress them with great severity. In consequence, the garrison was withdrawn from the time of Henry VII. to the year 1642, when, the Earl of Dorset being constable, his deputy furnished it with men and ammunition; and it was retained on behalf of Charles I. The first governor of the castle was a Gascon knight, Sir William Pickmore, who was appointed by Edward I. Twenty-four soldiers were allowed for the guard of the castle and town.

BEAUMERIS CASTLE.

During the civil war, the inhabitants of Anglesea agreed to some strongly expressed resolutions in behalf of Charles I. But the garrison of Beaumaris did not hold out long against the parliamentary forces; they however obtained an honorable capitulation. The castle was surrendered to General Mytton, who appointed Captain Evans his deputy.

The motives which led Edward I. to aim at the subjugation of the entire island of Great Britain were chiefly those of military ambition. But the castle and town of Beaumaris are evidence of themselves that he foresaw the benefits which would result from the consolidation of the kingdom, and having subdued the Welsh, he sought to introduce something of civilization amongst them. Notwithstanding the nearness of the castles of Caernarvon and Conway, immense expense and pains were spent — and, as it proved, needlessly spent — on Beaumaris. The town indeed flourished for a time; but the castle was an incumbrance. The castle was the parent of the town, which Edward surrounded with walls, incorporated and endowed with many privileges.

The shape approaches to an oblong square, comprising a case encircling the castle. This outer vallium consists of low but massy embattled walls, flanked by ten circular towers. The principal entrance of the castle faces the sea; within the fortified envelope, equidistant from the walls, is the body of the castle, the height of which far exceeds the envelope, and at a distance appears to rise majestically from it, as from a base. It is nearly quadrangular, with a grand round tower at each angle, and another in the centre of each face. The interior consists of an area, 190 feet square, with obtuse corners. The centre of the north-west side contains a great hall, seventy feet long and twenty-three broad, with a proportionate height; it has five large pointed windows, which form a handsome front to the inner quadrangle. On the eastern side of the area there are the remains of a chapel, the sides of which are ornamented with receding pointed arches. The elegantly groined roof is supported by ribs springing from pilasters, between each of which is a long narrow window. There was a communication between the several parts of the inner court by means of a narrow surrounding gallery, a portion of which is still entire. The ruins of the castle are covered with gilliflowers, but which, as is stated, grow nowhere else in Anglesea.

The castle was erected on lands belonging to several proprietors, whom Edward I. removed to distant places, remunerating them by estates, probably sequestrated.

The castle is the property of the crown. Within the walls a tennis-court, fives court, and bowling-green have been formed for the amusement of the inhabitants of Beaumaris.

UPNOR CASTLE.

UPNOR CASTLE is situated on the western bank of the River Medway, a little below Chatham, on the shore opposite to it. According to Kilbourne, the castle was built by queen Elizabeth, in the third year of her reign, for the defense of the river; "but as a fort,"

RUINS OF CONOR CASTLE.

says Grose, "this place has never been of much consequence, especially as it was very injudiciously placed; and it has therefore very properly been converted to a powder magazine." It derives its chief interest, perhaps, from the fact that it is one of the last, if not the last, places of defense in England built on the principle of the ancient castles.

It is built chiefly of stone. Its external figure is a parallelogram, much longer than broad, the largest side facing the water. It has two towers at the extremities, the southernmost of which is appropriated to the use of the governor, but on account of its unfitness for his reception he never resides there: the entrance is in the centre of the west side. On the east side, next to the river, are the remains of some stone walls, which seem to have formed a salient angle, like a modern ravelin.

The only period at which this castle proved of any utility was in the reign of Charles the II., in June, 1677, when the Dutch, under the famous Admiral De Ruyter, suddenly appeared at the mouth of the Thames during a protracted negotiation, and detached his Vice-admiral, Van Ghent, with seventeen of his lighter ships and eight fire-ships to sail up the Medway. Van Ghent took the fort of Sheerness with little difficulty, and, after destroying the stores, made dispositions to proceed up the river. In the meantime, Monk, Duke of Albemarle, made every effort that the suddenness of the surprise would admit, to render the attempt abortive. He sunk several ships in the channel of the river, and drew a chain across, behind which he placed the Unity, the Matthias, and the Charles the Fifth,—three large men-of-war that had just been taken from the Dutch, who were then advancing very fast, and, having the advantage of wind and tide, passed through the sunken ships and broke the chain. The three ships that guarded it were instantly in one tremendous blaze; and Van Ghent continued to advance until, with six men of-war and five fire-ships, he came opposite Upnor Castle; but he there met so warm a reception from Major Scott, the commandant at the castle, and Sir Edward Spragge, who directed the battery on the opposite shore, that he thought it best to draw off his ships, having received considerable damage. On their return, however, they burnt the Royal Oak, the Great James, and the Loyal London. The former was commanded by the brave Captain Douglass, who in the confusion of the day had received no directions to retire, and who perished with his ship. His last words were, "It never shall be said that a Douglass quitted his post without orders."

THE JUNGLE COCK.

SONNERAT, the naturalist, maintained with considerable zeal that this bird formed the stock whence most of our races of domestic fowl have proceeded. He concurred in the opinion of Buffon, that most of our varieties of domestic fowl have proceeded from a single type, and that the differences which we perceive amongst them have resulted

JUNGLE FOWL.

from accidents of climate, domestication, and crossings of varieties. Sonnerat, who did not, or would not know of any other species of wild cock than this—for he speaks slightingly of the authority of Dampier, who mentions that he saw wild cocks in the Indian Archipelago—naturally enough concluded that in this jungle-fowl he had found the primitive stock. Subsequent inquiries have, however, confirmed the statements of Dampier, not only as to the existence of wild fowl in the Indian Archipelago; but it is also admitted that the *Bankiva* species in Java, and the *Jago* species in Sumatra, more nearly approximate to our common fowl than that now under consideration, and to which Sonnerat's statements refer. Upon the whole, it seems that our varieties of domestic fowl proceed from mixtures of original species. Practical observers arrive at much the same conclusions on this point with scientific naturalists. It is thus, for instance, considered in India that our game cock originated from a mixture of the jungle cock with wild species in Malaya and Chittagong. Altogether, however, it must be admitted that, on this disputed point, very little is actually known; and the domestication of the bird ascends to such remote antiquity, that it seems hopeless to determine the era, and still more hopeless to ascertain the original species with precision. It is proper to add that the jungle fowl are quite distinct in India from the domestic races reared by the natives, which do not in any respect differ from the domesticated varieties in all parts of the world.

The jungle cock is about one-third less in bulk than our common village cock. Its length from the point of the bill to the extremity of the lowered and extended tail, is about two feet four inches; and its height, from the level of the feet to the top of the head, without including the crest, is fourteen inches and a half. The head is furnished with an indented comb, and the wattles resemble those of the domestic cock, but the naked space around the eyes and on the throat is larger than in that bird.

The cry of the jungle fowl is in some measure different from that of the domestic species; but there is much resemblance in their habits and dispositions. The following lively statement on this subject is from "Excursions in India," by Captain Thomas Skinner, published in 1832.

"In some parts of the forest we saw several jungle fowl: they have exactly the same habits as the domestic poultry. The cock struts at the head of his hens, and keeps a strict watch over their safety. Whenever they were disturbed by our attempts upon them, he flew to the highest branch of some tree beyond our reach, and crowed with all his might, while his dames ran into holes and corners to escape our attacks: they are so cunning, that we found it impossible to get within shot of them with all the caution we could use. While intent upon capturing at least one, as we were creeping after them upon our breasts, lying occasionally like riflemen under cover of the unevenness of the ground to catch them *en passant*, we came suddenly upon an ambuscade that very soon put an end to our sport. We were about midway up the face of a hill that was thickly covered by trees, and much clogged by shrubs and creepers that wound in all directions. On reaching the foot of the enemy's position, still advancing upon our breasts, and bending a keen eye upon the birds strutting before us, up rose, with a growl that denoted an offended spirit, (for we had literally touched his tail,) a large black bear; and turning round, looked us in the face with the most undisguised astonishment. It was the most unsought,

as well as the most unpromising introduction I ever met with. There was no time for parley, and getting upon our legs, we at once stood upon the defensive. This sudden metamorphosis completed his surprise, and, yelling louder than before, he set off as fast as he could shuffle from the extraordinary animals that had so unaccountably sprung up before him. We determined that discretion was the better part of valor, and began to retrace our steps, leaving the jungle fowl to benefit by the interruption."

THE PULSE.

EVERY one knows that among the numerous inquiries and examinations which precede the prescription of a careful physician, the state of the pulse is never omitted; yet as it is probable that few of our readers are acquainted with the reasons for this inquiry, or, what is the same thing, with the facts to be learned from it, we think it may not be uninteresting if we enumerate some of the more prominent ones.

It is almost unnecessary to premise that by the pulse is meant the beat of an artery, and that the one commonly chosen for examination is the radial artery, which beats at the wrist. The first point generally attended to is the number of beats; and since in this, as in all other medical questions, it is necessary to be acquainted with the state of health in order to recognize any deviation from it, we must mention the ordinary frequency of the pulse at different ages. In the new born infant it is from 130 to 140 in a minute, but decreases in frequency as life advances; so that, in a middle-aged adult in perfect health, it is from 72 to 75. In the decline of life it is slower than this, and falls to about 60. It is obvious that if we could suppose a practitioner ignorant of these plain facts, he would be liable to make the most absurd blunders, and might imagine a boy of ten to be laboring under some grievous disease because his pulse had not the slow sobriety of his grandfather's. A more likely error is, to mistake the influence of some temporary cause for the effect of a more permanent disease: thus, in a nervous patient, the doctor's knock at the door will quicken the pulse some fifteen or twenty beats in a minute. This fact did not escape the notice of the sagacious Celsus, who says, "The pulse will be altered by the approach of the physician and the anxiety of the patient doubting what his opinion of the case may be. For this reason, a skillful physician will not feel the pulse as soon as he comes; but he will first sit down with a cheerful countenance, and ask how the patient is — soothing him, if he be timorous, by the kindness of his conversation, and afterwards applying his hand to the patient's arm."—(De Medica, lib. iii. cap. 7.*)

Granting, however, that these sources of error are avoided, the quickness of the pulse will afford most important information. If, in a person,

* The lapse of eighteen centuries has not destroyed the utility, much less the beauty, of the eight books on Medicine bequeathed by Celsus to posterity; they are unrivaled for perspicuous elegance and laconic good sense. Celsus is one of the writers of the Augustine age, and is worthy of the times in which he flourished.

for example, whose pulse is usually 72, the beats rise in number to 98, some alarming disease is certainly present; or, on the other hand, should it have permanently sunk to 50, it is but too probable that the source of the circulation, the heart itself, is laboring under incurable disease, or that some other of the great springs of life are irremediably injured.

Supposing, again, the pulse to be 72, each beat ought to occur at an interval of five-sixths of a second; but should any deviation from this rhythm be perceived, the pulse is said to be irregular. The varieties of irregularity are infinite; but there is one so remarkable as to deserve particular mention. It will happen sometimes that the interval between two beats is so much longer than was expected, that it would seem that one beat had been omitted; in this case the pulse is said be an intermittent one. When the action of the heart is irregular, the beat of the pulse is so likewise; but it will occasionally happen that the latter irregularity takes place without the former one, from some morbid cause existing between the heart and wrist. It is hardly necessary to observe, that, in all doubtful cases, the physician examines the pulsation of the heart as well that of the wrist,—just as the diligent student, discontented with the narrow limits of provincial information, repairs to the metropolis to pursue his scientific inquiries.

The strength or feebleness of the pulse, its hardness or softness, and innumerable other qualities, might be disscussed here; but, from the great difficulty attending any examination of these points, and the technical nicieties involved in anything more than a bare mention of them, we omit them. There is one point, however, which it would be unpardonable to pass over in silence; sometimes no pulsation can be felt at the usual part of the wrist. This may proceed from so great a languor of the circulation that it is imperceptible at the extremities; or from the radial artery (the one usually felt) being ossified: or from an irregular distribution of the arteries of the fore-arm.

SKETCHES OF LONDON AND VICINITY.

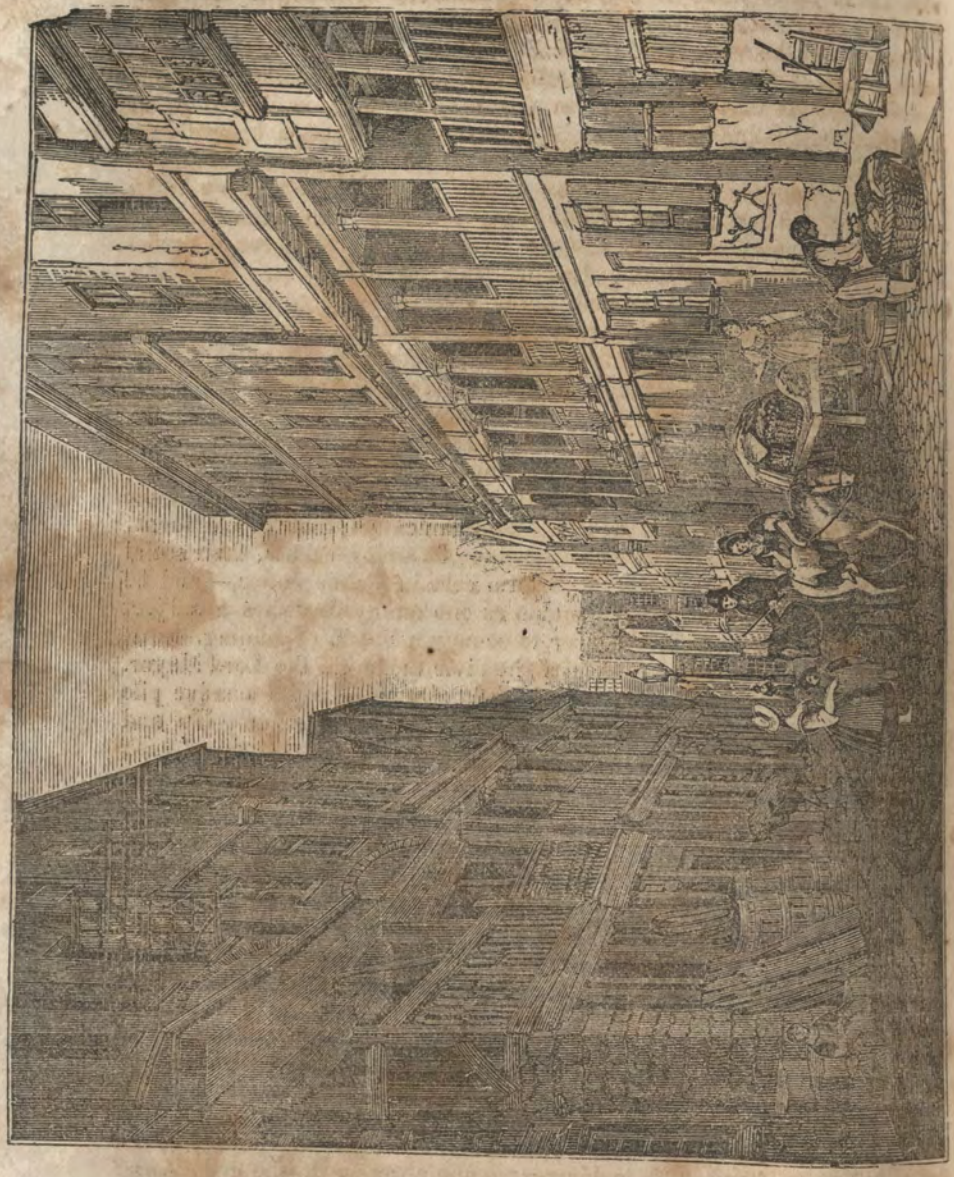
LONDON, a capital whose past history is as large a subject as its existing state, has been often described. The laborious antiquary has delved amongst its registers and tombstones; the light essayist has hurried over its forms "of many colored life." We have, perhaps, no very satisfactory works upon this vast metropolis in any department, and the reason for this may be sought for in the almost limitless variety of aspects which London presents. London is a world in itself, and its records embrace a world's history. It has been the chief seat of English power and knowledge and wealth for nearly a thousand years; it is now the great centre of the civilization of all mankind. It contains 2,000,000 of inhabitants; the number of strangers who resort to it daily is equal to the population of many capital cities; the people who are tributary to this metropolis, as the heart of the British Empire, amount to a sixth of the

whole human race; there is scarcely a commercial transaction upon the face of the globe which is not more or less connected with or represented by London; the knowledge of its daily transactions goes forth to the uttermost ends of the earth. It contains within itself all that is gorgeous in wealth, and all that is squalid in poverty; all that is illustrious in knowledge, and all that is debased in ignorance; all that is beautiful in virtue, and all that is revolting in crime. Adequately to chronicle and to describe such a city as London, a man should have sounded every depth and shallow of the accumulated facts of the past, and what is more, have plunged into the deepest recesses of the present, and have seen the most complicated movements of living London with his own eyes. This is a task beyond any individual powers. Let any man try to visit all the 12,000 streets of London, and he will find his labor not a light one. Let him apply himself to a more rational object, that of analyzing the moral and physical condition of the inhabitants of one of these streets, and he will find his inquiry traveling into details which are overwhelming from their magnitude and complexity. Let him even take the case of a single family, and undertake to describe all the circumstances upon which they are dependent for the conduct of their lives—their food, their clothing, their supply of water and fuel, their means of communication, their employment, their education, their health, their knowledge of passing events, their social protection, and their obligations to perform certain public duties,—and he will find that such a fraction of London as one family furnishes a subject large enough for the keenest observer to occupy a life in examining.

The Mansion House is the palace of the civic monarch, the Lord Mayor. Here is a busy and important thoroughfare. Opposite is the massive pile of the bank: beside it the agitating scene of the Exchange. Up and down that great highway, Cornhill and Cheapside, there is a continual rush of men and horses and carriages. The cabriolet flies past with dangerous velocity—the omnibus thunders along—the heavy-laden wagon, with its team of heavy horses, drags onwards, blocking for some time some narrow channel, and irritating the impatient pedestrian. This is the central spot of the commerce of the city, and that city a central spot of the commerce of the world. Yet, amid all the bustle and conflict of passion and feeling, what a perfect order and regularity reigns! There is an incessant throng; and if a bar were laid across the street for five minutes, the throng would swell into a crowd, and from a crowd into a mob. But no riots, no disturbances arise. Peace reigns—if such a term be not inappropriate to a scene where, from morning till night, there is a perpetual confusion of sounds.

What salt of life preserves such a body? Does the king of the city, keeping his state within this mansion, hold the reins of government with a firm and vigorous hand, and is his very name a terror to the evil doers? Has he an armed force ready to rush out on all who would disturb the king's peace or seize the property of their neighbors? What hinders the pennyless from laying foul hands on the rich? Might not a band of daring fellows suddenly carry off this richly-laden carriage, or, bursting into that shop stocked with jewels, gather all their plunder before a sufficient force could be got together to match them?

In London generally, applying the name to the whole extent of the metropolis, there are, as already stated, about 2,000,000 of people.



TRIUMPHAL ARCH, QUEEN'S PALACE.

Numbers of this population have grown up, and are growing up, in habits and inclinations which are, unfortunately, more or less opposed to security and order. With such a reflection, it is really marvellous to see how life and property are so completely protected. As for life, it is perfectly secure; for the murders and manslaughters which are produced by sudden outbreaks of drunken or malignant passion, or the aberrations of intellect, are rare in occurrence, and could hardly be restrained by the most perfectly devised police system. And as to robbery, it scarcely enters into any man's thoughts, when he walks about, that he will be deprived of his property by violence. Craft, cunning, imposition, subterfuge are the prime characteristics of London robbery. The master may be robbed by his dishonest servant; the eager tradesman, anxious to "do business," may be imposed upon by the well-dressed or plausible swindler; the simpleton, staring about the streets, or enjoying himself in what to him may be a new scene, a London public-house, may have his vanity excited by artful conversation, be tempted to show how much money he can produce, and in having it carefully put up for him, get brown paper or coppers substituted for bank notes or gold; and the imprudent or the thoughtless, by throwing themselves in the way of temptation, may lose property intrusted to them, and with it, perhaps, their own characters. But the prudent individual may walk about even the worst parts of London by night without danger, unless it be that of having his pocket picked. Yet there are nests of misery and crime in London, the inspection of which by day would give to such an assertion the appearance of being very improbable. The mazes of the Seven Dials, the far famed district of St. Giles, crowded with a half English, half Irish population, Tothill street, leading up from Westminster Abbey, and all the narrow streets and lanes which lie along the Thames below London Bridge, present a startling contrast to the stateliness and grandeur of many of the streets of the "west end." Yet in these places the pedestrian is as safe as in the crowded thoroughfares of Cheapside, Fleet street, the Strand, Holborn, or Piccadilly, at least by day; the only difference being, that he may see much that may move his pity or offend his taste. Not even the long narrow lane which runs up from the bottom of Holborn Hill, (known as Field lane and Saffron Hill,) which has for many a day borne a most notorious character, and the very sight of which, to a timid stranger, as he gazes at its narrow entrance, has a suspicious and deterring effect, dares to uphold its bad preëminence of being able to beard the law.

All this security is obtained in the midst of a varying population, where numbers of the youth of both sexes are growing up in crime and ignorance, and with whose minds healing principles of morals or religion seldom or never come in contact; where not a night passes over in which unhappy wretches may not be found whose follies or misfortunes leave them houseless, unable to pay the threepence or fourpence which would procure them the shelter of a cellar; and where numbers of degraded and indolent creatures prowl about, who prefer the gains of pauperism and imposture to the returns of honest industry. And if such, the philanthropist may exclaim, be the triumphs of civilization in the midst of materials so rough and unformed, what may not reasonably be expected when education, and the influence of morals and religion, are fairly at work; when the wretched prison discipline is improved, and benevolence has done its best to alleviate

the miseries which spring from bad passions indulged, the culture of the mind neglected, and evil habits contracted.

Such a reflection is warranted by the fact, that the improved state of the metropolitan police is very recent. Nearly 600 years ago a statute was passed, (in the year 1285, the 13th of Edward I.) in which, on account of the murders and robberies taking place in the city, it was enjoined that "none be so hardy as to be found going or wandering about the streets of the city after the curfew tolled at St. Martin's-le-Grand, (the present busy site and scene of the general post-office,) with sword or buckler, or any other arms for doing mischief, or whereof evil suspicion might arise; nor in any manner, unless he be a great man, or other lawful person of good repute, or their certain messenger, having their warrant to go from one to another with lantern in hand." Yet upwards of 450 years afterwards (in 1744) the lord mayor and aldermen went up with an address to the king, in which it was stated that "divers confederacies of evil disposed persons, armed with bludgeons, pistols, cutlasses, and other dangerous weapons, infest not only the private lanes and passages, but likewise the public streets and places of usual concourse; and commit most daring outrages upon the persons of your majesty's good subjects, whose affairs oblige them to pass through the streets, by terrifying, robbing, and wounding them; and these facts are frequently perpetrated at such times as were heretofore deemed hours of security; that the officers of justice have been repulsed in the performance of their duty, some of whom have been shot at, some wounded, and others murdered, in endeavoring to discover and apprehend the said persons."

During the first half of the eighteenth century the streets of London were far from being secure. Gay, in his "Trivia; or, the Art of Walking the Streets of London," which was first published in the year 1712, says:

"Where Lincoln's Inn, wide space, is rail'd around,
Cross not with venturous step: there oft is found
The lurking thief, who, while the daylight shone,
Made the walls echo with his begging tone;
That crutch, which late compassion moved, shall wound
Thy bleeding head, and fell thee to the ground.
Though thou art tempted by the linkman's call,
Yet trust him not along the lonely wall;
In the mid-way he 'll quench his flaming brand,
And share the booty with the pilfering band.
Still keep the public streets, where oily rays,
Shot from the crystal lamp, o'erspread the ways."

The square of Lincoln's-Inn-Fields is now, perhaps, as safe at all hours as any part of London; but, for a good many years after this time, it continued to be notorious for the dangers which Gay describes. This arose in a great measure from its vicinity to a nest of profligacy, occupying the space now lying between the Great and the Little Turnstiles, on the south side of Holborn, where a formidable crew of the most abandoned and desperate characters were congregated together, forming a body which the arm of the law hardly dared to touch. When this colony of criminals was rooted out, and the square was properly lighted and watched, the dangers for which it had been so long infamous were at an end.

What would Gay, who advises the pedestrian at night to

"—— keep the public streets, where oily rays,
Shot from the crystal lamp, o'erspread the ways,"

TOWER OF LONDON.

GOLDSMITH'S HALL.

have thought of the present gas-light illumination? His description applies to about a thousand lamps, which were all that were hung out all over London until the year 1736; and these were kept burning only till midnight; and for one-half of the year, namely, from Lady-day till Michaelmas, were never lighted at all: nay, even during the winter months, there were ten nights every moon, from the sixth day after new to the third day after full moon, on which, however cloudy the sky, not a wick lent its feeble aid to dissipate the obscurity. In fact, the thousand lamps were only kept burning for about 750 hours in the course of the year. The streets of a town left in this state were necessarily delivered over, during a great part of every twenty-four hours, to the uncontrolled dominion of robbers and other violators of the law.

The second half of the eighteenth century presents a considerable improvement. The streets were beginning to be paved generally, thoroughfares were widened, the west end of London was extended, and many improvements effected, which, along with somewhat more vigorous efforts to suppress existing evils, led gradually to security. Fielding, whose official situation at Bow Street doubtless often supplied him with materials for his pictures of character and manners, wrote a pamphlet in 1751, in which he strongly pointed out the feebleness of the police system, and the almost unchecked boldness of thieves and robbers. About fifty years afterwards another police magistrate of the metropolis, Mr. Colquhoun, drew a most extraordinary and startling picture of the state of society. His two works on the police of the metropolis, and on the state of the port of London, created a very great impression on the public mind. His statements have been charged with exaggeration; but, with every abatement, he exposed a most frightful condition of things. Captains and mates of vessels, revenue officers, reputable tradesmen, the watermen, and the laborers, appeared combined in a general system of plunder and depredation; and in the city (using the word in its largest sense) thieves were organized into classes, and flash-houses existed, which were not only winked at, but absolutely deemed necessary by the police, where receivers and thieves congregated, and where, by skillful negotiation, a man might get his own again, on payment of redemption money.

Though during the present century the improvements suggested by Mr. Colquhoun have been, many of them, gradually adopted, the war interrupted their progress, and many of the evils mentioned above existed till within these few years back.

The series of buildings termed the Tower of London occupies an extensive area to the east of the city, on the north bank of the Thames. The following description, though the terms in which it is conveyed are not rigidly exact, may convey a general idea of the form of the Tower:—

The area may be termed a circle, which is described by a wide and spacious ditch, or moat, running round the walls, and the river. The center of this circle is occupied by the most conspicuous and the most ancient portion of the Tower, the citadel or keep, which was the original Tower of London, and was occupied as the royal palace. This is a massive quadrangular building, having a turret at each angle rising considerably above the roof. It is termed the White Tower. The White Tower stands in the center, or nearly so, of a square or inclosure, called the Inner Ward; the buildings composing which are appropriated to the Ordnance Office, the

ancient and modern armories, store-houses, resident governor's house, &c. The Inner Ward is encircled by the Outer Ward, a narrow street, or rather lane, running round the Tower, which is appropriated to offices, residences, barracks, &c., and in which are several public houses. The walls have cannon mounted at the embrasures. Within the walls is comprised a superficies of twelve acres and five roods. The exterior circumference of the ditch measures 330 yards, independently of its sloping banks; and, on the side of Tower Hill, its width is at the top from thirty to forty-two yards: on the side next the river, from which it is separated by a spacious raised wharf, or platform, its width is from forty to fifty yards.

The principal entrance into the Tower is at the west angle, through a series of gates (four in number) leading through an inclosure, and over a stone bridge thrown across the ditch or moat. Two of these gates, the third and fourth, are flanked by round towers. One of the engravings represents the bridge and fourth gateway, which is termed the Byward Tower. The little drawbridge conducts across the ditch, through two gate ways, to the wharf on the Thames. At the east end of this wharf there is a gate which gives egress from the Tower, from which circumstance the lower part of the Outer Ward and the wharf is in considerable use as a thoroughfare.

At the principal entrance to the Tower, on the west, there were formerly considerable outworks, which were enclosed by a small moat, forming what is termed a barbican, or barbacan. This was the post of an advanced guard, where a porter was stationed to keep "watch and ward," and to announce in due form all state arrivals; and where strangers were detained until their business was made known to the governor. These feudal ceremonies were observed down to the reign of James I., when they gradually fell into disuse.

The royal fortress has lost nearly all its distinctive marks. Its old terrors as a state-prison are now dead; and with the exception of being still the repository of the regalia and the records, it is become merely an arsenal and a garrison. As an arsenal it is the most important in the empire, being the head-quarters from whence issues the direction of all military stores; but for every other purpose which it now serves, the remaining offices within it might be removed, and the site given up to the encroaching demands of a busy commerce. Its vicinity to the bustle and traffic of the city and river detracts greatly from the picturesque effect of the Tower, though to the reflective observer it teaches a lesson worth infinitely more than mere picturesque effect. The contrast speaks of the mighty change that has passed over society. From the river, however, the view is very fine. And on all sides, the citadel or keep, with its four turrets, are seen rising above the mass of buildings which envelop them. But on the north-west side, next to the city, the walls appear to have built on them a number of mean-looking structures, which give to the Tower, from this point of view, the appearance of being a congeries of buildings brought together without much regard to method or order. On the other side the lofty massive warehouses of St. Katherine's Docks seem almost to overtop the fortress. "Everywhere," says an eloquent writer, "in and about this ancient abode of royal state, neglect has taken place of admiration, vulgar industry has come in the room of courtly sport, and in many instances squalor has usurped the old inheritance of splendor. Even here, however,

[Dry Arch, under the road to Blacknest.]

[Front of the Northern Transept.]